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# THE HISTORY OF IRELAND

FROM  
THE EARLIEST PERIOD TO THE PRESENT TIME.  
DERIVED  
FROM NATIVE ANNALS, AND FROM THE RESEARCHES, OF



DR. O'DONOVAN, PROFESSOR, EUGENE, CURRY, THE REV. C. P. MEEHAN,  
DR. R. R. MADDEN,  
AND OTHER EMINENT SCHOLARS  
AND FROM  
ALL THE RESOURCES OF IRISH HISTORY NOW AVAILABLE  
BY  
MARTIN HAVERTY.

NEW YORK  
THOMAS KELLY  
17 BARCLAY ST.







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1884

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MARTIN HAVERTY.

SUPPLEMENTED WITH ESSAYS ON THE LAND LEAGUE MOVEMENT,

By CHARLES STEWART PARNELL,  
MICHAEL DAVITT, AND MISS FANNY PARNELL.

NEW YORK:

PUBLISHED BY THOMAS KELLY,

358 & 360 BROOME STREET.

1884.



according to Act of Congress, in the year 1867,  
By THOMAS FARRELL & SON,  
the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the United States for the Southern District of  
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## PUBLISHERS' PREFACE.

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IN presenting to his countrymen in America a new HISTORY OF IRELAND, the publisher desires to call attention to its marked and superior excellence as a history, and the number, beauty, and elegance of its illustrations, type, etc. The author stands prominent among Irish scholars of the present day, and he has devoted to his work the labors of years in searching and examining into the archives of Irish history, in presenting a clear and reliable narrative of events, and in arousing and sustaining that patriotic love of their native land which characterizes Irishmen wherever they may dwell. Mr. Haverly is a ripe scholar; he discusses the varied topics before him in a philosophical spirit. Out of the myths and romantic traditions of early days, he extracts the essential, important truth; and availing himself of the valuable researches of living scholars and students of Irish history, he gives his readers a most interesting and attractive work in a style of eloquent and lofty-toned love for his native country and its good name in the world.

There needs no commendation for such a work as this, at this day. Irishmen are world-noted as patriots and lovers of the soil which gave them birth. Irishmen are always deeply interested in the story of the wrongs which their land has suffered from foreign oppression and outrage, as well as in the glorious record which Ireland's annals present of noble heroes, statesmen, poets, and philanthropists, for century upon century past.

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The services of competent scholars in the United States, who are close and sympathetic students of Ireland's sufferings and labors, have been secured to bring the continuous record down to the latest phases of the Land League struggle, and the pages from the pens of Mr. Parnell, his sister and Mr. Davitt, furnish authoritative data in reference to that movement. No other History of Ireland embraces the events of so recent an epoch, or contains such a wealth of statistical information compiled from the latest official sources.

The publisher, therefore, is certain that he has done a good work in presenting this History of Ireland to his countrymen in the attractive dress in which it now appears. He has spared no expense in this undertaking ; he appeals unhesitatingly to the volume itself in proof of his zeal and devotion in order to render it in every respect worthy of the subject of which it treats. And he confidently looks for the extensive support of all those who would keep alive the flame of patriotism in their children's hearts, and would furnish their homes and their firesides with the latest, best, and most complete *History of Ireland* which is to be found in the English language.

THOMAS KELLY.

NEW YORK, JULY, 1882.



## AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

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THE work here brought to a close was undertaken with a view to supply an impartial History of Ireland, according to the present advanced state of knowledge on the subject. The labors of such eminent Irish scholars as Dr. O'Donovan and Professor Curry have opened to us new sources of information, and the researches of these and other learned and indefatigable investigators have, of late years, shed a flood of light upon our history and antiquities; but the knowledge thus developed was still unavailable for the general public; and it remained to collect, in a popular form, materials scattered through the publications of learned societies, and the voluminous pages of our native annals; buried in collections of state papers, and in the correspondence of statesmen; or concealed from the world in the Government archives. We have been enabled to avail ourselves of a mass of important original documents derived from the last-mentioned source; but with what success the task of converting all these copious materials to the object of producing a popular History of Ireland has been performed in the present volume, the reader must judge: we can only say that no pains have been spared to accomplish it conscientiously.

To identify the ancient topography of the country with the events of its history is important and interesting; and the invaluable information accumulated by Dr. O'Donovan in his annotations to the



*Annals of the Four Masters*, and collected by him for the Ordnance Survey, has been freely employed for that purpose in these pages.

The narrative has been interrupted as little as possible with discussions of controverted points, and the space has not been unnecessarily encumbered with extraneous matter. The authorities relied on have been sufficiently indicated in the marginal references, but the Author here desires to express his deep obligations to Dr. O'Donovan, Professor Eugene Curry, the Rev. C. P. Meehan, Dr. Wilde, Dr. R. R. Madden, and J. T. Gilbert, Esq., for the invaluable information they have kindly afforded him, in addition to that which he derived from their published works.

MARTIN HAVERTY.

KILBEHA-MUIRRE, ASKRATON.



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# THE HISTORY OF IRELAND.

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## CHAPTER I.

The First Inhabitants of Ireland.—The Colonies of Parthalon and Nemedius.—The Femorians.—The Firbelgs or Belgians.—The Tuatha de Dananns.—The Legend of Mananan Mac Lir, &c.

ACCORDING to the ancient chronicles of Ireland, the first inhabitants of this country was a colony who arrived here from Migdonia, supposed to be Macedonia, in Greece, under a leader whose name was Parthalon, about 300 years after the Deluge, or, according to the chronology adopted by the Four Masters, in the year of the world 2520. Some fables are related of persons having found their way to Ireland before the Flood, and also of a race of people, who lived by fishing and hunting, having been found here by Parthalon (or Par-ralaun, as the name is pronounced); but these are rejected by our ancient annalists as unworthy of credit, and merit no attention. It is said of Parthalon that he fled from his own country, where he had been guilty of parricide; that he landed at Inver Scene, now the Ken-

mare river,\* accompanied by his three sons, their wives, and a thousand followers; that he was the first who cleared any part of Ireland of the primeval woods which covered it; that certain lakes, namely, Lough Con and Lough Mask, in Mayo, Lough Gara, on the borders of Roscommon and Sligo, two others which cannot now be identified by their ancient names, and Lough Cuan, or Strangford Lough, in the county of Down, were first formed during the period of his colony; that he died in the plain in which Dublin now stands, thirty years after his landing; and that, in the same plain, in A. M. 2820, that is, 300 years after their arrival, his entire colony, then numbering 9,000 persons, perished by a pestilence, in one week, leaving the country once more without inhabitants.†

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\* Or, as some think, the river Corrane, in Kerry.

† The place in which this catastrophe happened was called *Sean-Mhagh-Ealta-Edair*, or "The Old Plain of the

Flocks of Edair," a name which it received in after-times from an Irish chieftain, from whom the Hill of Howth was called Ben-Edair; and it extended from that hill to the



It is said that Ireland remained waste for thirty years, until the next colony, which also came from the southeastern part of Europe, or the vicinity of the Euxine Sea, led by a chief called Nemedius, or Neimhidh (pronounced *Nevy*), arrived here, and occupied the country for about 200 years. The annals record the names of the raths or forts which were constructed, and of the plains which were cleared of wood during this period; and they also mention the eruption, during the same time, of four lakes, namely, Lakes Derryvarragh and Ennell in Westmeath, and two others not identified. Nemedius, with 2,000 of his followers, were carried off by a pestilence in the island of Ard-Neimhidh, now the Great Island of Barrymore, near Cork; and the remnant of his people, who appear to have been engaged in constant conflicts with a race of pirates called Fomorians, who infested the coast, were at length nearly annihilated in a great battle with these formidable enemies, A. M. 3066. They attacked and demolished the principal Fomorian stronghold, called Tor-Conainn, or Conang's

Tower, in Tory island, on the north-west coast of Donegal; but succor having arrived by sea to the pirates, the battle was renewed on the strand, and became so fierce that the combatants suffered themselves to be surrounded by the rising tide, so that most of those who did not fall in the mutual slaughter were ingulphed in the waves.\* Three captains of the Nemedians, with a handful of their men, survived, and, in a few years after, made their escape from Ireland, with such of their countrymen as chose to follow their fortunes. One party, under Briotan Maol, a grandson of Nemedius, sought refuge in the neighboring island of Albion, in the northern part of which their posterity remained until the invasion of the Picts, many centuries after; and that island, as some will have it, took the name of Britain from their leader, and not from the fabulous Brutus. Another portion of the refugees passed, after many wanderings, into the northern parts of Europe, where they became the Tuatha de Danann of a subsequent age; and finally, the third party of the scattered Neme-

base of the Dublin mountains, and along the banks of the Liffey.

The memory of this event is preserved in the name of the village of Tallaght (Tamleacht), which signifies "the plague monument," from *Tamh*, a plague, and *Leacht*, a monument; and in Irish books this place is sometimes called *Tamleacht Muinir Parthaloin*, or "the plague monument of Partholon's people," to distinguish it from other plague monuments, also called Tamleachts, in other parts of Ireland. (See O'Donovan's "Four Masters," and Doctor Wilde's "Report on Tables of Deaths," in the Census of 1851.) The pestilence which swept away Partholon's colony was the first that visited Ireland, and is said to have been caused by the corrupting bodies

of the dead slain in a battle with the people called Fomorians.

\* Who these Fomorians were, who are so often mentioned in Irish history, is a matter of speculation. They are said by some of the old annalists to have been African pirates of the race of Ham; but O'Flaherty thinks they were Northmen, or Scandinavians. Some modern writers will have it that they were Phœnicians; but their name implies in Irish that they were sea-robbers, and it is remarkable that their memory is preserved in the Irish name of the Giant's Causeway, which is Cloghanna-Fomharaigh, or the causeway or stepping-stones of the Fomorians. (See O'Brien's Dict.) The Fomorians are by some called the aborigines of Ireland.



dians made their way, under their chief, Simon Breac, another grandson of Nemedius, to Greece, where they were kept in bondage, and compelled to carry burdens in leathern bags, whence they obtained the name of Firbolgs or Bagmen.\*

For a long interval—200 years, say the bards—after the great battle of Tory island, we are told that Ireland remained almost a wilderness, the few Nemedians who were left behind having retired into the interior of the country, where they, nevertheless, were made to feel the galling yoke of the Fomorians, who were now the undisputed masters of the coast; but at the end of the interval just mentioned, the island was restored to the former race, although under a different name. The Firbolgs having multiplied considerably in Greece, resolved to escape from the bondage under which they groaned, and for that purpose seized the ships of their masters, and proceeding to sea, succeeded in making their way to Ireland, where they landed without opposition (A. M. 3266), and divided the country between their five leaders, the five sons of Deala, each of whom ruled in turn over the entire island. The names of these brothers were, Slainghe, Rury, Gann, Geannann, and Seangann; and from the first of them the river Slaney, in Wexford, is said to have derived its name. It would appear that there were several

tribes engaged in this expedition, although all belonged to the same race. Thus, one section of them, called Fir-Domhnan, or Damnonians, landed on the coast of Erris, in Mayo, where they became very powerful, giving their name to the district, which has been called, in Irish, Iarras-Domhnan, that is, the western promontory or peninsula of the Damnonians; while another tribe, distinguished by the name of Fir-Gaillian, or Spearmen, landed on the eastern coast, and from them some will have it that the province of Leinster has been so named.†

Such is the account of the origin of the Firbolgs and Damnonians, given by the bardic annalists; and of this and similar relations, which we find in our primeval history, we may remark in general that, however they may be enveloped in fable, we have sufficient reason for believing them to be founded in historic truth; and that they are not lightly to be set aside, where nothing better than conjecture can be substituted. The favorite modern theory is, that the Firbolg colony came into this country from the neighboring coasts of Britain, and that they were identical in race with the people of Belgic Gaul, and with the Belgæ and Dumnonii of Southern Britain. Then arises the question, were these Belgæ Celts, or were they of Tuetic or Gothic origin? To this we can only answer that the Irish authorities

\* From *Fir*, "men," and *bolg*, which in Irish means a "leathern bag."

† The Irish name of Leinster was sometimes written

Coige Gaillian; *Coige* being the word for a fifth part, or one of the five provinces; but it is more generally called *Laighin*, a word which signifies a spear or javelin.



are explicit in stating that the Firbolgs were of the same race with subsequent colonies, who were confessedly Celtic, and this seems to be the generally received opinion.\*

The Belgæ, or Firbolgs, had only enjoyed possession of the country for thirty-seven years, according to the chronology of the Four Masters, or for eighty years, according to that of O'Flaherty, when their dominion was disputed by a formidable enemy. The new invaders were the celebrated Tuatha de Dananns, a people of whom such strange things are recounted, that modern writers were long uncertain whether they should regard them as a purely mythical race, or concede to them a real existence, all Irish antiquaries, however, adopting at present the latter alternative. The arrival of the Tuatha de Dananns took place in the year of the world 3303, the tenth year of the reign of the ninth and last of the Firbolgic kings, Eochy, son of Erc. The leader of the invaders was Nuadhat-Airgetlamh, or Nuad of the Silver Hand, and their first proceeding on landing was to burn their own fleet,

in order to render all retreat impossible. According to the superstitious ideas of the bards, these Tuatha de Dananns were profoundly skilled in magic, and rendered themselves invisible to the inhabitants until they had penetrated into the heart of the country. In other words, they landed under cover of a fog or mist; and the Firbolgs, at first taken by surprise, made no regular stand, until the new-comers had marched almost across Ireland, when the two armies met face to face on the plain of Moyturey, near the shore of Lough Corrib, in part of the ancient territory of Partry. Here a battle was fought, in which the Firbolgs were overthrown, with "the greatest slaughter," says an old writer,† "that was ever heard of in Ireland at one meeting." Eochy, the Firbolg king, fled, and was overtaken at a place in the present county of Sligo, where he was slain, and where his cairn, or the stone-heap raised over his grave, is still to be seen on the sea-shore; while the scattered fragments of his army took refuge in the northern isle of Aran, Rathlin island, the Hebrides, the Isle of Man, and Britain.‡

\*In the Irish version of Nennius, published for the Irish Archæological Society, the Firbolgs are termed Viri Bullorum, which, as the learned editor, Dr. Todd, remarks, might afford a derivation for the name not previously noticed; the word *Bullum*, in the Latinity of the middle ages, signifying, according to Du Cange, *Raculum pastoris*, a shepherd's staff. In the additional notes to that publication, by the Hon. Algernon Herbert, many curious suggestions are made about these and the other ancient inhabitants of Ireland, all which speculations show how exceedingly vague and meagre is the information that can be gleaned about these primitive races and how uncertain are the theories which have

been formed about them. Of the Firbolgs, however, as we shall hereafter see, we find frequent mention in what all admit to be authentic periods of Irish history; and their monuments, and even their race, still exist among us.

† Connell Mageoghegan's "Annals of Clonmacnoise."

‡ Book of Leacan, fol. 277; quoted in the Ogygia, Part iii., c. 9.

The site of this battle is sometimes called Moyturey of Cong, from its proximity to that town, and "it is still pointed out," says Dr. O'Donovan (Four Masters, vol. i. p. 16), "in the parish of Cong, barony of Kilmaine, and county of Mayo, to the right of the road as you go



The victorious Nuadhat lost his hand in this battle, and a silver hand was made for him by Credne Cerd, the artificer, and fitted on him by the physician, Diencecht, whose son, Miach, improved the work, according to the legend, by infusing feeling and motion into every joint of the artificial hand as if it had been a natural one. Hence the surname which the king received. The story may be taken as an illustration of the surgical and mechanical skill which the Tuatha de Dananns were believed to possess: and we are further told, that for the seven years during which the operation was in progress, a temporary king was elected, Breas, whose father was a Fomorian, and whose mother was of the Tuatha de Dananns, having been chosen for the purpose. At the end of that period Nuadhat resumed the authority; and in the twentieth year of his reign, counting from this resumption, he fell in a battle fought with the Fomorians, who took the field at the instigation of their countryman, the deposed king, Breas, and were aided also, we may suppose, by the Firbolg refugees. This battle was fought at a place called Northern Moyturey, or Moyturey of the Fomorians; and its name is still preserved in that of a townland in the barony of Tirerrill, in the county of Sligo, where several sepulchral monuments

still mark the site of the ancient battle-field. Nuadhat was killed in this conflict by Balor "of the mighty blows," the leader of the Fomorians, who is described in old traditions as a monster both in barbarity and strength, and as having but one eye. Balor himself was killed in the same battle by a stone cast from a sling by his daughter's son, Lugh Lamhfhada, or Lewy of the long hand, in revenge for some of his crimes.

We have here followed the generally received account of the fate of the Firbolgs in the Tuatha de Danann invasion; but there is another version of it given in an ancient Irish manuscript\* which is much more consistent with subsequent history. According to this latter account, the battle of Southern Moyturey resulted in a compromise, rather than in such a defeat as that mentioned above, and although the Firbolg king was slain, another leader of the same people, named Srang, was still at the head of a considerable force; and, after some negotiations, a partition of the country was agreed to, Srang and his people retaining Connaught, and the Tuatha de Dananns taking all the remainder. MacFirbis, in his tract on the Firbolgs, seems to say that an account of the affair to some such effect existed; and unless it be admitted, it is impossible to account for the firm footing which

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from Cong to the village of the Neal. From the monuments of this battle still remaining, it is quite evident that great numbers were slain." The cairn of the Firbolg king, Eochy, is on the shore near Ballysadare, in the county of Sligo; and, although not high above the

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strand, it is the popular belief that the tide can never cover it.

\* The author is indebted to Professor Eugene Curry for the purport of this tract, which appears to have escaped the attention of our other Irish scholars.



we find these people all along holding in Ireland, and for their position at the Milesian epoch, when they were at first received as allies by the invaders, and were afterwards, for centuries, able to resist them in war. Nor is this account inconsistent with the statement that many of the Firbolgs repaired, on the arrival of the Tuatha de Dananns, to the islands mentioned above.

Lugh Lamhfhada, the slayer of Balor, succeeded Nuadhat as king of Ireland; and the fact that he was of Fomorian origin, on his mother's side, and a Tuatha de Danann on that of his father, as well as a like mingling of races in the person of Breas, the first king of the Tuatha de Dananns, led to the conclusion that an affinity existed between the two races, and afford an argument to O'Flaherty, who held that both races were Northmen, or Danes.\* Lugh reigned forty years, and instituted the public games, or fair, of the hill of Tailltean, now Teltown, near the Blackwater, in Meath, in commemoration of his foster-mother, Tailte, the daughter of Maghmor, a Spanish or Iberian king, and wife of Eochy, son of Erc, the last of the Firbolg kings, after whose death, in the battle of Southern Moyturey, she married a Tuatha de Danann chief, and undertook the fostering, or education, of the infant Lewy. This celebrated fair, at which various sports took place, continued to be held until the twelfth century, on the 1st of August, which day

is still called, in Irish, Lugh-Nasadh, or Lugh's fair; and vivid traditions are yet preserved of the pagan form of marriage, and ancient sports, of which the old rath of Teltown was the scene.†

Lewy, having been killed by MacCuill at Caendruim, now the hill of Uisneach, in Westmeath, was succeeded by Eochy Ollathair, who was surnamed the Dagda Mor (the Great-good-fire), the son of Ealathan. The Dagda reigned eighty years, and having died from the effects of a wound inflicted 120 years before at the battle of Northern Moyturey, with a poisoned javelin, by Kathleen, the wife of the Fomorian Balor, he was interred at the Brugh, on the Boyne, the great cemetery of the east of Ireland in the pagan times. His monument is mentioned in ancient Irish manuscripts as one of those vast sepulchral mounds which are at this day objects of wonder and interest on the banks of the Boyne, between Drogheda and Slane.

A. M. 3451.—Dealboeth, the son of Ogma, succeeded, and was followed by Fiacha; after whom three brothers, named MacCuill, MacCeacht, and MacGreine, the last of the Tuatha de Danann kings, reigned conjointly for thirty years, each exercising sovereign authority in succession for the space of one year. The real names of the three brothers, according to an old poem quoted by Keating, were, Eathur, Teathur, and Ceathur, and they were called, the first, MacCuill, because he

\* Ogygia, part i., p. 13.

† See Wilde's Boyne and Blackwater, p. 150. Ogygia, part iii., c. 13 and 56.



worshipped the hazel-tree; the second, MacCeacht, because he worshipped the plough, or rather, encouraged agriculture; and the third, MacGreine, because he made the sun the object of his devotions. The old bardic annalists, who, with a gallantry peculiar to their country, derive most of the names of places from celebrated women, tell us that the wives of these three kings were Eire, Banba, and Fodhla, three sisters who have given their names to Ireland; and they add that the country was called after each queen during the year of her husband's administration; and that if the name of Eire has been since more generally applied, it was because the husband of queen Eire was the reigning king when the Milesians arrived and conquered the island. The names of Banba and Fodhla are frequently given to Ireland in all the ancient Irish writings.

Before we leave the Tuatha de Dananns, whose sway continued for 197 years—from A. M. 3303 to A. M. 3500—we may mention two or three remarkable circumstances connected with the accounts of that ancient people. By them the Lia Fail, or Stone of Destiny, on which the Irish kings were crowned in subsequent ages, was brought into Ireland. This stone was said to emit mysterious sounds when touched by the

rightful heir to the crown; and when an Irish colony invaded North Britain, and founded the Scottish monarchy there in the sixth century, the Lia Fail was carried thither to give more solemnity to the coronation of the king, and more security to his dynasty. It was afterwards preserved for several ages in the monastery of Scone, but was carried into England by Edward I., in the year 1300, and deposited in Westminster Abbey, and is believed to be identical with the large block of stone now to be seen under the coronation chair.\*

Ogma, one of the Tuatha de Danann princes, is said to have invented the Ogam Craove, or occult mode of writing by notches on the edges of sticks or stones; and Orbsen, another of them, is celebrated as the mythical protector of commerce and navigation. He was commonly called *Mananan*, from the Isle of Man, of which he was king, and *Maclir*, son of the sea, from his knowledge of nautical affairs. He was killed in a battle in the west of Ireland by Ullin, grandson of King Nuad of the Silver Hand, and was buried in an island in the large lake, which from him was called Lough Orbsen, since corrupted into Lough Corrib, the place where the battle was fought being still called Moycullen, or the plain of Ullin.†

\* Dr. Petrie, in his *History and Antiquities of Tara Hill*, controverts this account of the Lia Fail, and employs some learned, though not conclusive, arguments to show that that celebrated relic of pagan antiquity is the present pillar-stone over the "Croppies' Grave" in one of the great raths of Tara. O'Flaherty (*Ogygia*, p. 45.)

thinks the Stone of Destiny was not carried to Scotland until A. D. 850, when it was sent by Hugh Finnliath, king of Ireland, to his father-in-law, Keneth MacAlpine, who finally subjugated the Picts.

† Dr. O'Donovan, in a note on the Tuatha de Dananns (*Four Masters*, vol. i., p. 24), says:—"In Mageoghegan's



## CHAPTER II.

The Milesian Colony.—Wanderings of the Gadelians.—Voyage of Ith to Ireland.—Expedition of the Sons of Miledh, or Milesius.—Contests with the Tuatha de Dananns.—Division of Ireland by Heremon.—The Cruithnians, or Picts.

THE old annalists preface the account of the Milesian invasion of Ireland by a long story of the origin of that colony, and of its many wanderings, by land and sea, for several hundred years, until it arrived in Ireland from Spain. There is no part of our primitive history that has been so frequently questioned, or which modern writers so generally reject as fabulous, as these first accounts of the Milesian or Gadelian race; yet

translation of the Annals of Clonmacnoise it is stated that 'this people, Tuathy DeDanan, ruled Ireland for 197 years; that they were most notable magicians, and would work wonderful things by magick and other diabolical arts, wherein they were exceedingly well skilled, and in these days accompted the chieftest in the world in that profession.' From the many monuments ascribed to this colony by tradition, and in ancient Irish historical tales, it is quite evident that they were a real people; and from their having been considered gods and magicians by the Gaedhil, or Scoti, who subdued them, it may be inferred that they were skilled in arts which the latter did not understand. Among them was Danann, the mother of the gods, from whom *Da chich Danainne*, a mountain in Kerry (the Pap Mountain), was called; Buanann, the goddess that instructed the heroes in military exercises, the Minerva of the ancient Irish; Badhbh, the Bellona of the ancient Irish; Abhortach, god of music; Ned, the god of war; Nemon, his wife; Manannan, the god of the sea; Diancecht, the god of physic; Brioghit, the goddess of poets and smiths, &c. It appears from a very curious and ancient Irish tract, written in the shape of a dialogue between St. Patrick and Caoilte MacRonain, that there were very many places in Ireland where the Tuatha de Dananns were then supposed to live as sprites or fairies, with corporeal and material forms, but endued with immortality. The inference naturally to be drawn

they are so mixed up with our authentic history, and so frequently referred to, that they cannot be passed over in silence. We, therefore, give an outline of the narrative, chiefly as we find it related in the Duan Eireannach, or Poem of Ireland, written by Maelmura of Othain, one of the most ancient of our authorities for the Milesian tradition.\*

We are told in this poem that Feni-us Farsaidh came out of Scythia to

from these stories is, that the Tuatha de Dananns lingered in the country for many centuries after their subjugation by the Gaedhil, and that they lived in retired situations, where they practised abstruse arts, which induced the others to regard them as magicians. . . . It looks very strange that our genealogists trace the pedigree of no family living for the last thousand years to any of the kings or chieftains of the Tuatha de Dananns while several families of Firbolgic descent are mentioned, as in Hy-Many, and other parts of Connaught. (See Tribes and Customs of Hy-Many, pp. 85-90; and O'Flaherty's Ogygia, part iii., c. 11.)

Manannan MacLir is described in Cormac's Glossary as "a famous merchant of the Isle of Man, and the best navigator in the western world." Dr. O'Donovan (Four Masters, vol. iii., p. 532, note) says: "There exists a tradition in the county of Londonderry that the spirit of this celebrated navigator lives in an enchanted castle in the *tuns* or waves of Magilligan, opposite Inishowen, and that his magical ship is seen there once every seventh year."

\* Maelmura of Othain (now Fahan, in Donegal) died A. D. 884, and the historical poem referred to above was printed, for the first time, in the Irish version of Nennius, published in 1848 by the Irish Archæological Society, with copious notes by the Rev. Dr. Todd S. F. T. C. D., and by the Hon. Algernon Herbert.



Nembroth (Nimrod), and that, some time after "the building of the tower (of Babel) by the men of the world," Nel, or Niul, the son of Fenius, who possessed a knowledge of all the languages then spoken by mankind, left his father and travelled into Egypt, where the fame of his learning came to the ears of Forann (Pharaoh), who gave him his daughter Scota in marriage. Niul had a son named Gaedhuil Glas, or Green Gael; and we are told that it is from him the Irish have been called Gaedhil (Gael), or Gadelians, while from his mother is derived the name of Scoti, or Scots, and from Fenius that of Feni, or Fenians. The poem goes on to say that after Forann, pursuing the people of God, was drowned in the sea Romhuir (Red sea) the people of Egypt were angry with the children of Niul for having declined to render any assistance in the pursuit; and that the latter, through fear of being enslaved as the Israelites had been, seized the deserted ships of Pharaoh, and in the night-time passed over the Red sea, "the way they knew," by India and Asia, to Scythia, their own country, over the surface of the Caspian sea, leaving Glas, dead, at Coronis (probably Cyrene, in the Lybian sea), where they halted for a period.

After some time, and with some variations in the different accounts, we find Sru, son of Esru, or Asruth, son of Gadheal Glas,\* acting as leader of the descendants of Niul, and proceeding to the island of Taprabana (Ceylon)† and Slieve Riffi,‡ until he settled in "fiery Golgatha," or Gaethligh, a place which is variously supposed to be Gothia, or Galatia, or Gethulia; and again, in two hundred years after, that is, according to O'Flaherty, about the time of the destruction of Troy, Brath, the son of Deagath, or Deatha, and nineteenth in descent from Fenius, led a fresh expedition from this last-named place to "the north of the world, to the islands, ploughing the Tarrian sea (Mediterranean or Tyrrhenian) with his fleet." He passed by Creid (Crete), Sicil (Sicily), and the columns of Hercules, to "Espain, the peninsular;" and here he conquered a certain territory, his son, Breogan, or Breogond, succeeding him in the command. The city which our wanderers built in Spain was called Brigantia, believed to be Betanzes, in Galicia; and, from a lofty tower erected on the coast, by Breogan, it is said that his son, Ith, discovered Eri, or Ireland, "as far as the land of Luimnech (as the country at the mouth of the Shannon was called), on a

\* This name is just before written Gaedhuil Glas; and, in general, there appears to be no fixed orthography for those ancient Irish names.

† Sometimes written, in Irish MSS., Tipradfane, that is, the Well of Fenius.

‡ The Slieve Riffi, so often mentioned in Irish MSS., were the Riphean mountains, but it is by no means easy to determine what was the position of these. That they

were situated in some part of the vast region anciently called Scythia is tolerably certain, and the probable opinion is that they were the Ural mountains in Russia; but they are sometimes set down in old maps as occupying the place of the Carpathian mountains, and even of the Alps, and the vague accounts we have of them would answer for any range of mountains in northern Europe.



winter's evening."\* Ith appears to have been of an adventurous spirit, and no doubt discovered the coast of Ireland, not from the tower of Breogan, which was impossible, but after having sailed thither in search of the land, which, according to the traditions of his race, the children of Niul were destined to possess. He landed at a place since called Magh Ithe, or the Plain of Ith, near Laggan, in the county of Donegal; and having been taken for a spy or pirate, by the Tuatha de Dananns, was attacked and mortally wounded, when he escaped to his ship and died at sea.†

The remains of Ith were carried to Spain by his crew, now commanded by his son Lugaid, who stimulated his kins-

men to avenge his death; and such, according to the chroniclers, was the provocation for the expedition which followed. Accordingly, the sons of Gollam (who is more generally known by his surname of Miledh, or Milesius), the son of Bile, son of Breogan, and hence the nephew of Ith, manned thirty ships, and prepared to set out for Inis Ealga, as Ireland was at that time called. Milesius himself, who was king of Spain, or at least of the Gadelian province of it, and who in his earlier life had travelled into Scythia, and performed sundry exploits there, had died before the news of the death of Ith arrived; and his wife Scotsa, the second of the name we have yet met in these annals, went with

\* The Hon. Algernon Herbert, in one of the additional notes to the Irish Nennius, shows how this legend of Ireland having been seen from the tower of Betanzos (the ancient Flavium Brigantium) may have arisen from passages of Orosius, the geographer, where mention is made of a lofty Pharos erected on the coast of Spain, "*ad speculum Britannia*," "for a watch-tower in the direction of Britain;" and where again, describing the coasts of Ireland, the writer says "*procul spectant Brigantium, Galliciae civitatem*," &c.—"they lie at a distance opposite Brigantium, a city of Galicia," &c; the words "*speculum*" and "*spectant*" having apparently led to the absurd notion that the coast of Ireland was visible from the tower. See also Dr. Wilde's communication to the Royal Irish Academy on the remains of the Pharos of Corunna, which he believes to have been the tower of Breogan.

† Whoever attempts to trace on the map of the world the route ascribed in the text to the ancestors of Milesius, will find himself seriously puzzled. In all the accounts of these peregrinations two distinct expeditions are alluded to, one by the east and north, and the other westerly, that is, through the Mediterranean sea and the Pillars of Hercules. The latter is intelligible enough, but the former would imply a passage by water, from south to north, through the central countries of Europe. The Nemedians and Tuatha de Dananns would also appear to have passed freely in their ships between Greece, or Scythia, and the northern seas, without going through

the Straits of Gibraltar. Some get rid of this difficulty by treating the whole story as a fable founded on the Argonautic expedition and its river-ocean; but even that famous legend of classic antiquity stands itself in need of explanation; and with that view it has been suggested that the Baltic and Euxine seas were at some remote period connected, and that the vast, swampy plains of Poland were covered with water. A connected series of lakes may thus have extended across the continent of Europe from north to south; and the lagunes along the present northern coast of the Black sea may indicate what their appearance had been. Traditions of many of the physical changes which have taken place from time to time in the surface of Ireland, since the universal Deluge, such as the eruption of rivers, and the formation of new lakes and inlets of the sea, are preserved in the Irish annals; and it is probable that the Greek traditions of Deucalion's Deluge, and the theories respecting the eruption of the Euxine into the Archipelago, and of a channel between the ocean and the Mediterranean through ancient Aquitaine, may refer to a period when the ship Argo, and the barques of the descendants of Niul, might have passed from the shores of Greece to the Hyperborean seas through the heart of Sarmatia, as indicated above.—(See "*A Vindication of the Bardic Accounts of the Early Invasions of Ireland and a Verification of the River-ocean of the Greeks*," Dublin, 1852. Also the *Dublin University Magazine* for March, 1852.)



her six sons at the head of the expedition. Some of the accounts mention eight sons of Milesius, but the names given in Maelmura's poem are Donn, or Heber Donn, Colpa, Amergin, Ir, Heber (that is, Heber Finn, or the fair), and Heremon. Lugaid, the son of Ith, was also a leader of the expedition, and the names of several other chiefs are given; and it is probable that the principal portion of the Gadelian colony in Spain sailed on the occasion.

A. M. 3500.—It was in the year of the world 3500, and 1700 years before Christ, according to the Four Masters, or A. M. 2934, and B. C. 1015, according to O'Flaherty's chronology, that the Milesian colony arrived in Ireland. The bardic legends say the island was at first made invisible to them by the necromancy of the inhabitants; and that when they at length effected a landing and marched into the country, the Tuatha de Dananns confessed that they were not prepared to resist them, having no standing army, but that if they again embarked, and could make good a landing according to the rules of war, the country should be theirs. Amergin, who was the ollav or learned man and judge of the expedition, having been appealed to, decided against his own people, and they accordingly re-embarked at the southern extremity of Ireland, and withdrew "the distance of nine waves" from the shore. No sooner had they done so than a terrific storm commenced, raised by the magic arts of the Tuatha de Dananns, and the Mile-

sian fleet was completely scattered. Several of the ships, among them those of Donn and Ir, were lost off different parts of the coast. Heremon sailed round by the northeast, and landed at the mouth of the Boyne (called Inver Colpa, from one of the brothers who was drowned there), and others landed at Inver Scene, so called from Scene Dubsaine, the wife of Amergin, who perished in that river. In the first battle fought with the Tuatha de Dananns, at Slieve Mish, near Tralee, the latter were defeated; but among the killed were Scota, the wife of Milesius, who was buried in the place since called from her, Glen-Scoheen, and Fas, the wife of Un, another of the Milesians, from whom Glenofaush in the same neighborhood has its name. After this the sons of Milesius fought a battle at Taltinn, or Teltown, in Meath, where the three kings of the Tuatha de Dananns were killed and their people completely routed. The three queens, Eire, Fodhla, and Banba, were also slain; women having been accustomed during the pagan times in Ireland to take part personally in battles, and in many instances to lead the hostile armies to the fight. Among the Milesians killed in this battle, or rather in the pursuits of the Tuatha de Dananns, were Fuad (from whom Slieve Fuad in Armagh, a place much celebrated in Irish history, has derived its name), and Cuailgne, who was killed at Slieve Cuailgne, now the Cooley mountains, near Carlingford in the county of Louth.



After the battle of Teltown the Milesians enjoyed the undisturbed possession of the country, and formed alliances with the Firbolgs, the Tuatha de Dananns, and other primitive races, but more especially with the first, who aided them willingly in the subjugation of their late masters, and were allowed to retain possession of certain territories, where some of their posterity still remain. Heremon and Heber Finn divided Ireland between them; but a dispute arising, owing to the covetousness of the wife of Heber, who desired to have all the finest vales in Erin for herself, a battle was fought at Geashill, in the present Kings county, in which Heremon killed his brother Heber. In the division of Ireland which followed, Heremon, who retained the sovereignty himself, gave Ulster to Heber, the son of Ir; Munster to the four sons of Heber Finn; Connaught to Un and Eadan; and Leinster to Crivann Sciavel, a Damnonian or Firbolg. The people of the south of Ireland in general are looked upon as the descendants of Heber; while the families of Leinster, many of those of Connaught, the Hi Nialls of Ulster, &c., trace their pedigree to Heremon. Families sprung from the sons of Ir are to be found in different parts of Ireland; but of Amergin, the poet and ollav, little is said in this distribution of the land. He is mentioned as having constructed the causeway or

*tochar* of Inver Mor, or the mouth of the Ovoca in Wicklow.

The wife of Heremon was Tea, the daughter of Lugaid, the son of Ith, for whom he repudiated his former wife Ovey, who followed the expedition to Ireland, and died of grief on finding herself deserted; and it was Tea who selected for the royal residence the hill of Druim Caein, called from her Teamur or Tara—that is, the mound of Tea.\* In the second year of his reign Heremon slew his brother Amergin in battle, and in subsequent conflicts others of his kinsmen fell by his hands; and having reigned fifteen years, he died at Rath-Beothaigh, now Rathveagh on the Nore, in Kilkenny.

About the period of the Milesian invasion the Cruithnigh, Cruithnians, or Picts, so called, according to the generally received opinion, from having their bodies tattooed, or painted, are said to have paid a visit to Ireland previous to their final settlement in Alba, or Scotland. Having no wives, they obtained Milesian women in marriage; that is, according to some accounts, they married the widows of those who had been drowned with Heber Donn in the expedition from Spain, making a solemn compact that, should they succeed in conquering the country they were about to invade, the sovereignty should descend in the female line. The Cruithnians were of a kindred race with the

\* The above etymology of Tara is evidently legendary; and according to Cormac's Glossary, quoted by O'Donovan (Four Masters, vol. i., p. 31), the name, which in

Irish is Teamhair, merely signifies a hill commanding a pleasant prospect.



Scots or Irish, and for many centuries dwelt as a distinct people in the eastern part of Ulster, where some of their descendants were to be found at the time of the confiscations under James I.; but the confused traditions about the visit of a Pictish colony at the same time with the children of Milesius are properly treated as apocryphal.\*

### CHAPTER III.

Questions as to the Credit of the Ancient Irish Annals.—Defective Chronology.—The Test of Science applied.—Theories on the Ancient Inhabitants of Ireland.—Intellectual Qualities of Firbolgs and Tuatha de Dananns.—Monuments of the latter People.—Celts.

HAVING thus far followed the bardic chroniclers, or seanachies, it is right to pause awhile to consider what amount of credit we may place in them; and in the next place, what are the opinions of those who reject their authority. A judicious and accomplished Irish annalist, Tighernach. Abbot of Clonmacnoise, who died so early as A. D. 1088, has said that all the Scottish, that is, Irish, records previous to the reign of Cimbæth, which he fixed at the year B. C. 305, are doubtful; and we have, therefore, good authority, independent of internal evidence or of the opinions of modern writers, for placing on them but a modified reliance. We must be careful, however, not to carry our doubts too far. These ancient records claim our veneration for their great antiquity, and are themselves but the channels of still older traditions. Writings which date from the first ages of Christianity in Ireland refer to facts upon which all our pre-Christian history hinges, as the then fixed historical tradition of the country; and the closest study of the history of Ireland shows the impossibility of fixing a period previous to which the main facts related by the annalists should be rejected as utterly fabulous. There is no more reason to deny the existence of such men as Heber and Heremon, and, there-

\* Bede (Hist. Eccl., lib. i., c. 1) gives the following account of the origin of the Picts:—"When the Britons, beginning at the south, had made themselves masters of the greater part of the island, it happened that the nation of the Picts, from Scythia, as is reported, putting to sea in a few long ships, were driven by the winds beyond the shores of Britain, and arrived on the northern coast of Ireland, where, finding the nation of the Scots, they begged to be allowed to settle among them, but could not succeed in obtaining their request. . . . The Picts, accordingly, sailing over into Britain, began to inhabit

the northern parts thereof. . . . Now the Picts had no wives, and asked them of the Scots, who would not consent to grant them on any terms than that, when any difficulty should arise, they should choose a king from the female royal race, rather than from the male; which custom, as is well known, has been observed among the Picts to this day." See, for ample details about the Cruithnians or Picts, and for all the traditions relative to their intercourse with Ireland, the annotations to the Irish Nennius.



fore, of a Milesian or Scottish colony, than there is to question the occurrence of the battle of Clontarf; and the traditions of the Firbolgs and Tuatha de Dananns are so mixed up with our written history, so impressed on the monuments and topography of the country, and so illustrated in the characteristics of its population, that no man of learning who had thoroughly studied the subject would now think of doubting their existence. But, as we have said, it is for the main facts that we claim this credence. These facts are, of course, mixed up with the quaint romance characteristic of the remote ages in which they were recorded, and the chief difficulty, as in the ancient history of most countries, is to trace out the substratum of truth beneath the superincumbent mass of fable.

The chronology of the pre-Christian Irish annals is obviously erroneous, but that does not affect their general authenticity. They were compiled for the most part from such materials as genealogical lists of kings, to whose reigns disputed periods of duration were attributed; and those who, in subsequent ages, endeavored to form regular series of annals out of such data, and to make them synchronize with the history of other countries, were unavoidably liable to error. The Four Masters, adopting the chronology of the Septuagint and the Greeks, according to which the

world was 5,200 years old at the birth of our Saviour, refer the occurrences of Irish history, previous to the Christian era, to epochs so remote as to expose the whole history to ridicule; while O'Flaherty, endeavoring to arrive at a more reasonable computation, and taking for his standard the system of Scaliger, which makes the age of the world before Christ some 1250 years less, reduces the dates given by the Four Masters by many hundreds of years; but the degree of antiquity which even he allows to them surpasses credibility. Thus, according to the author of the *Ogygia*, the arrival of the Milesian colony took place 1015 years before the Christian era; that is, about 260 years before the building of Rome, making it synchronize with the reign of Saul in Israel; while, according to the Four Masters, that event occurred more than six hundred years earlier; that is, many centuries before the foundation of Troy, or the Argonautic expedition; and yet, at that remote period—sixteen hundred years, according to one computation, and at least a thousand, according to another, before Julius Cæsar found Britain still occupied by half-savage and half-naked inhabitants—we are asked to believe that a regular monarchy was established in Ireland, and was continued through a known succession of kings, to the twelfth century!\*

A chronology so improbable has

\* Charles O'Connor, of Balenagar, says, in his *Dissertations on the History of Ireland*, that the Milesian inva-

sion cannot have been much earlier or later than the year B. C. 760.



naturally weakened the credibility of our older annals; but neither bardic legends nor erroneous computations can destroy the groundwork of truth which we must recognize beneath them.

The ancient Irish attributed the utmost importance to the truth of their historic compositions, for social reasons. Their whole system of society—every question as to the rights of property—turned upon the descent of families and the principle of clanship; so that it cannot be supposed that mere fables would be tolerated instead of facts, where every social claim was to be decided on their authority. A man's name is scarcely mentioned in our annals without the addition of his forefathers for several generations, a thing which rarely occurs in those of other countries.

Again, when we arrive at the era of Christianity in Ireland, we find that our ancient annals stand the test of verification by science with a success which not only establishes their character for truthfulness at that period, but vindicates the records of preceding dates involved in it. Thus, in some of the annals, natural phenomena, such as eclipses, are recorded, and these are found to agree so exactly with the calculations of astronomy,

as to leave no room whatever to doubt the general accuracy of documents found in these particulars to be so correct, at least for periods after the Christian era.\*

Now, coming to the theories of Irish origins entertained by those who reject the authority of the old annalists either wholly or on this particular point; it is certain, according to them, that Ireland has invariably derived her population from the neighboring shores of Britain, in the same way as Britain itself had been peopled from those of Gaul. It was thus, they tell us, that the Belgæ, or Firbolgs, the Damnonians, and the Dananns came successively into Erin, as well as, in after times, that other race called Scots, whose origin seems to set speculation at defiance. Navigation was so imperfectly understood in those ages, that such a voyage as that from Spain to Ireland, especially for a numerous squadron of small craft, is treated with ridicule. The knowledge of navigation, which all admit the Greeks, and Trojans, and Phœnicians to have possessed, is not acceded to the early colonies of Ireland; but it is argued that as people spread naturally into adjoining countries visible from those whence they proceeded, so it is only reasonable

\* For observations on the comparison of the entries of eclipses in the Irish annals with the calculations in the great French work, *l'Art de vérifier les Dates*, as a test and correction of the former, see O'Donovan's Introduction to the Annals of the Four Masters, and Doctor Wilde's Report on the Tables of Deaths in the Census of 1851, where the idea of the comparison has been fully carried out. Thus, in the Annals of Innisfallen we find, "A. D. 445, a solar eclipse at the ninth hour." This is the first eclipse mentioned in the Irish annals, and it

agrees with the calculated date in *l'Art de vérifier les Dates*, where the corresponding entry is, "A solar eclipse visible in northwestern Europe, July 20th, at half-past five, A. M." And again, in the Annals of Tigernach, "A. D. 664. Darkness at the ninth hour on the Calends of May;" while in the French astronomical work already quoted, there is noticed for that year, "A total eclipse of the sun, visible to Europe and Africa, at half past three, P. M., 1st of May."



to suppose that Ireland received inhabitants from the coasts of Wales or Scotland, from which her shores could be plainly seen, rather than from Thrace or Macedon, or even from Spain. Similarity of names, also, comes to the aid of this theory; for it seems probable enough that the Belgæ and Dumnonii of Southern Britain were the same race with those bearing almost identically the same names in Ireland. As to the name of Scots, it was never heard of before the second or third century of the Christian era, when it was given to the tribes who aided the Picts in harassing the people of South Britain, and their masters, the Romans. There is no Irish or any other authority of an older date for the application of the name of Scots to the people of Erin. Irish writers themselves suggest that *sciot*, a dart or arrow, may have been the origin of the word Scythia; and with more probability might it have been that of the name Scoti, or Scots, as applied to men armed with weapons so called; and once the name, from this or any other cause, came to be applied to the natives of Ireland, it is easy, we are told, to imagine how the Irish bards built upon it

a fine romance, deriving it from an imaginary daughter of King Pharaoh, and perhaps borrowing from it also the idea of claiming for their nation descent from Scythia, the region, at that time, of fabulous heroism. These theories give wide scope to the imagination, and would substitute for the traditions of the old annalists conjectures quite as vague and inconclusive, however ingenious and learned they may be.\*

It is generally agreed that the Firbolgs, or Belgians, were a pastoral people, inferior in knowledge to the Tuatha de Dananns, by whom, although the latter were less numerous, they were kept in subjection. It is also admitted that the Tuatha de Danann race were superior in their knowledge of the useful arts and in general information to the Gadelian, or Scottish colony, who, however, excelled them in energy, courage, and probably in most physical qualities. To their intellectual superiority the Danann colony owed their character of necromancers, as it was natural that a rude and ignorant people at that age should look upon skilled workmanship and abstruse studies as associated with the supernatural.

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\* Fiach's hymn, admitted to be the composition of a disciple of St. Patrick, refers to the Milesian traditions of the Irish; and among the authorities most frequently quoted by Keating, O'Flaherty, and other old writers, on the period of the Tuatha de Dananns, Firbolgs, and the Milesian colony, on account of their works being still preserved, are Maelmura of Fathan, who died A. D. 884; Eochy O'Flynn, who died A. D. 984; Flan Mainistreach, who died A. D. 1056; and Giolla Kevin, who died A. D. 1072; all of whom related in verse the written and oral traditions received by themselves from preceding ages.

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Shortly after the establishment of Christianity in Ireland, the chronicles of the bards were replaced by regular annals, kept in several of the monasteries, and from this period we may look upon the record of events in our history as, morally speaking, accurate. The statement of Mr. Moore, and of others of his school, that the primitive traditions of Irish history were fabricated to please a fallen nation with delusions of past glories, is monstrously absurd. They were in existence, and were cherished by the people, ages before the fallen circumstances which Mr. Moore contemplates.



It is probable that by the Tuatha de Dananns mines were first worked in Ireland; and it is generally believed that they were the artificers of those beautifully shaped bronze swords and spear-heads that have been found in Ireland, and of which so many fine specimens may be seen in the museum of the Royal Irish Academy. The sepulchral monuments, also, of this people evince extraordinary powers of mind on the part of those by whom they were erected. There is evidence to show that the vast mounds, or artificial hills, of Drogheda, Knowth, Dowth, and New Grange, along the banks of the Boyne, with several minor tumuli in the same neighborhood, were erected as the tombs of Tuatha de Danann kings and chieftains; and as such they only rank after the pyramids of Egypt for the stupendous efforts which were required to raise them.\*

As to the Firbolgs, it is doubtful whether there are any monuments remaining of their first sway in Ireland; but the famous Dun Aengus and other great stone forts in the islands of Aran are well-authenticated remnants of their military structures of the period of the

Christian era, or thereabouts. That the Tuatha de Dananns were not a warlike people appears from the tradition of their remonstrance against the first landing of the Milesians, when they admitted that they had no standing army to resist invasion.†

Again the question is raised, were these Firbolgs, and Tuatha de Dananns, and Gadelians, all Celts? And, in reply, it must be said that the term Celt, or Kelt, as it is more correctly pronounced, was unknown to the Irish themselves; that the word is of classic origin, and was probably as indefinite as most geographical names and distinctions at that period appear to have been. Finally, it is suggested that in all probability none of the immigrations into Ireland were unmixed, and that the first population of the island was composed of Celtic, Slavonic, and Teutonic races, mixed up in different proportions. A Scythian origin is claimed for all in the Irish traditions, in which all are traced to Japhet, the son who received the blessing, and through him to the cradle of our race.‡

\* See Dr. Petrie's "History of Tara Hill," and Dr. Wilde's "Beauties of the Boyne and Blackwater."

† In the Book of MacFirbis, written about the year 1650, it is said that "every one who is black, loquacious, lying, tale-telling, or of low and grovelling mind, is of the Firbolg descent;" and that "every one who is fair-haired, of large size, fond of music and horse-riding, and practises the art of magic, is of Tuatha de Danann descent." See these passages quoted by Dr. Wilde in an ethnological disquisition on these ancient races, founded on the peculiarities of human crania discovered under circumstances that identify them as belonging to the two races

respectively. "Beauties of the Boyne and Blackwater," pp. 212, 239.

‡ O'Flaherty, in the first part of the Ogygia, gives the following as the results of his researches about the original inhabitants of Ireland:—That the first four colonies came into Ireland from Great Britain; that Partholan and Nemedius, descendants of Gomar by Riphath, came from Northern, and the Firbolg colony from Southern Britain; that these races spoke different languages; that the Tuatha de Dananns were the descendants of the Nemedians, who, after sojourning in Scandinavia, returned into North Britain, and thence, in the lapse of time, into



## CHAPTER IV.

The Milesian Kings of Ireland.—Irial the Prophet.—Tiernmas.—Crom-Cruach; the Paganism of the Ancient Irish.—Social Progress.—The Triennial Assembly or Parliament of Tara.—Cimbaeth.—Queen Macha.—Foundation of Emania.—Ugony the Great.—New Division of Ireland.—Pagan Oath.—A Murrain.—Maeve, Queen of Connaught —Wars of Connaught and Ulster.—Bardic Romances.

FROM the conquest of Ireland (B. c. 1700\*) by the sons of Gollamh, or Milesius, to its conversion to Christianity by St. Patrick (A. D. 432), one hundred and eighteen sovereigns are enumerated, whose sway extended over the whole island, independent of the petty kings and chieftains of provinces and particular districts. Of this number, sixty were of the race of Heremon, twenty-nine of the posterity of Heber Finn, twenty-four of the line of Ir, three were descended from Lugaid, the son of Ith, one was a plebeian, or Firbolg, and one was a woman. The history of their reigns is, to a great extent, made up of wars either among different branches of their own race or against the Firbolgs and others; but numerous events are also recorded which mark the progress of civilization, such as the

clearing of plains from woods, the enactment of laws, the erection of palaces, &c. The breaking forth of several rivers and other natural phenomena are mentioned, and a great number of legends are related, many of them curious specimens of ancient romance.

Irial, surnamed Faïdh, or the Prophet, son of Heremon, began the struggle against the Fomorians and Firbolgs, the latter of whom kept the Milesian armies occasionally occupied for centuries after. The tribes of Firbolgs most frequently mentioned are the Ernai and the Martineï, the former of whom are described in one place as holding the present county of Kerry, and the latter the southern portion of the county of Limerick; and in the reign of Fiacha Lavrainne, who was killed in the year B. c. 1449, the Ernai are stated to have been

the north of Ireland; that the Dananns being subdued by the Scots, the Firbolgs, under the latter, again flourished in Ireland, and enjoyed the sovereignty of Connaught for several ages; that the Fomorians, whether the aborigines of Ireland or not, were not descendants of Cham, nor from the shores of Africa, but from that country whence the Danes, in after ages, invaded Ireland; and finally, that the Firbolgs and Tuatha de Dananns had frequent intercourse with each other before the conquest of Ireland by the latter

\* We continue to employ the chronology of the Four Masters, simply turning the years of the world into the corresponding years before Christ, as being more intelligible; but the reader will observe that, as already stated, no reliance is to be placed on these dates until we arrive within a few centuries of the Christian era. All the computations at this early period are equally uncertain; and we insert the dates merely for the sake of method, to mark the order of events, the relative duration of reigns, &c



routed in battle on a plain where Lough Erne, so called from them, subsequently flowed over the slain. Irial Faidh died on Magh Muai, which is supposed to be the plain near Knock Moy, a few miles from Tuam, after clearing a great many extensive plains and erecting several forts during the ten years of his reign.

B. C. 1620.—Among the early Milesian kings a prominent place is assigned to Tiernmas, who is said to have been the first to institute the public worship of idols in Ireland. The notion which we can form of the paganism of the ancient Irish is extremely obscure. Owing to the scanty information which the old manuscripts afford us on the subject, every one who has written about it has had ample scope for his own favorite theory, and some of these theories have been advanced with scarcely a shadow of foundation. We shall revert to this subject again, and for the present shall refer only to the worship of Crom-Cruach, the chief idol of the Irish, which stood in Magh-Slecht, or the Plain of Adoration, in the ancient territory of Breifny.\* This idol, which was covered with gold, was said to represent a hideous monster, and its name implies that it was stooped, or crooked, and also that it was black, for it is sometimes called Crom-Duv. It was surrounded by twelve smaller idols, and was destroyed by St. Patrick, who merely

stretched forth towards it, from a distance, his crozier, which was called the Staff of Jesus. It is probable that Tiernmas only erected the rude statue, and that he found the worship prevailing in the country, and handed down, it may be, from the earliest Milesians; but, at all events, he was punished for his idolatry by a terrible judgment, having been struck dead, with a great multitude of his people, while prostrate before Crom-Cruach, on the Night of Savain, or All Hallow Eve. Tiernmas reigned seventy-seven, or, according to others, eighty years; and it was under him that gold was first smelted in Ireland, in the district of Foharta, east of the river Liffey, and that goblets and brooches were first covered with gold. According to Keating, it was he who first ordered that the rank of persons should be distinguished by the number of colors in their garments: thus, the slave should have but one color, the peasant two, the soldier three, the keeper of a house of hospitality four, the chieftain of a territory five, the ollav, or man of learning, six; and in the clothes of kings and queens seven colors were allowed. This regulation is attributed by the Four Masters to the successor of Tiernmas, and the rule is also somewhat differently stated.†

In the reign of Enna Airgeach, B. C. 1383, silver shields were first made at

\* The village of Ballymagauran and the island of Port, in the present county of Cavan, are situated in the plain anciently called Magh-Slecht. The idol stood near a river called Gathard, and St. Patrick erected a church

called Donoghmore in the immediate vicinity of the place. (See O'Donovan's notes at reign of Tighernmas, Four Masters, A. M. 3656.)

† The Scottish plaid is traced to this early origin.



Airget-Ross, or the Silver Wood, on the banks of the river Nore. They were given, together with horses and chariots, to the heroes and nobility. King Mone-mon, who died of plague, B. C. 1328, first caused the nobility to wear chains of gold on their necks, and rings of the same metal on their fingers. Deep wells were first dug in the reign of Fia-cha Finailches, by whom the town of Ceanannus, or Kells, was founded, B. C. 1200. Four-horsed chariots were first used in the time of Roiachty, who was killed by lightning at Dun Severick, near the Giant's Causeway, B. C. 1024. Stipends, or wages, were first paid to soldiers, and probably to other persons in public employments, in the reign of Sedna Innarry, B. C. 910; and silver coin is stated to have been first struck in Ireland, at the silver works of Airget-Ross, in the reign of Enda Dearg, who, with many others, died of plague, at Slieve Mish, B. C. 881.

But the greatest step in social progress at that remote period of Irish history was the institution of the Feis Teavrach, or triennial assembly of Tara, by Ollav Fola (Ollamh Fodhla), the beginning of whose reign is fixed by the Four Masters at the year of the world 3883, corresponding with the year B. C. 1317. If we suppose the event antedated even by several centuries, this assembly would, nevertheless, appear to be one of the earliest instances of a national convocation or parliament in any country. All the chieftains or heads of septs, bards, historians, and

military leaders throughout the country were regularly summoned, and were required to attend under the penalty of being treated as the king's enemies. The meeting was held in a large oblong hall, and the first three days were spent in enjoying the hospitality of the king, who entertained the entire assembly during its sittings. The bards give long and glowing accounts of the magnificence displayed on these occasions, of the formalities employed, and of the business transacted. Tables were arranged along the centre of the hall, and on the walls at either side were suspended the banners or arms of the chiefs, so that each chief on entering might take his seat under his own escutcheon. Orders were issued by sound of trumpet, and all the forms were characterized by great solemnity. What may have been the authority of this assembly, or whether it had any power to enact laws, is not clear; but it would appear that one of its principal functions was the inspection of the national records, the writers of which were obliged to the strictest accuracy under the weightiest penalties. These accounts of the Feis of Tara must be taken with due allowance for the coloring which the more ancient traditions on the subject received from the later writers who have delivered them to us; but however cautiously we regard them—and no student of antiquity will now-a-days venture wholly to reject them—they should satisfy us that the pagan Irish were acquainted with the art of writing,



notwithstanding the opinion to the contrary of so many moderns, who hold that letters were not introduced into Ireland before the time of St. Patrick.

Besides the establishment of the triennial assembly, Ollav Fola appears to have instituted other wise regulations for the government of the country. Over every cantred, or hundred, he appointed a chieftain, and over each townland a kind of prefect or secondary chief, all being the servants of the king of Ireland. He constructed a rath on Tara, called from him Mur-Ollavan, and died there, after a useful reign of forty years.\*

A few of the Irish monarchs enjoyed very long reigns. Thus, Sirna Selach governed Ireland for 150 years; and in a battle which he fought against the race of Heber, the Fomorians having been brought in to aid the latter, a plague fell upon them during the fight, and many thousands of his enemies perished on the spot. And of king Slanoll (that is, all health) it is related that there was no sickness in Ireland during his reign; that he himself died without any apparent cause; and that his body remained uncorrupted and without changing color for several years after his death.

B. C. 716.—The reign of Cimbaeth

brings us to the commencement of what, according to Tigernach, may be considered as the authentic period of the Irish annals.† It is also a remarkable epoch for other reasons, and especially for the foundation of Emania, the royal palace of Ulster. The story of this palace is curious. About this period there lived three princes, Hugh Roe, or the Red; Dihorba, and Cimbaeth (pronounced Kimbahe), the sons of three brothers, and all three claimed equal right to the crown. A contest consequently arose, which was finally adjusted by a solemn engagement that they should reign in turn for seven years each; and this agreement was strictly carried out, until, at the end of his third period of seven years, Hugh Roe was drowned at Easroe, or Red Hugh's Cataract,‡ and left a daughter, Macha, surnamed Mongroe, or the Red-haired, who, when her father's turn to rule came round again, claimed it in his stead, and made war on the other two competitors to assert her right. A battle was fought, in which the red-haired lady was victorious; and Dihorba having been slain, Macha arranged the dispute with the survivor, Cimbaeth, by marrying him and making him king. She then, as the legend goes, followed the five sons of Dihorba into Connaught, captured them

\* The real name of this king was Eochy (pronounced Achy), but he is only known by his surname of Ollav Fola, that is, the chief poet or learned man (Ollav) of Ireland (Fola).

† The Four Masters assign the beginning of his reign to A. M. 4484, corresponding with the year B. C. 716.

O'Flaherty fixed it at the year B. C. 352; Keating about B. C. 460; and Tigernach at B. C. 305. This diversity exemplifies the uncertainty of early Irish chronology.

‡ Now Assaroe, or the Salmon Leap, on the river Erne at Ballyshannon, where Hugh Roe was buried in the mound now called Mullaghshee.



by stratagem among the rocks of Burrin, and compelled them to build her a palace, the site of which she herself marked out with the bodkin or pin of her cloak, whence the name of the new palace, *Eamhuin*, which signifies a neck-pin. At all events, it was at the desire of Macha, and in the reign of her husband, Cimbaeth, that the palace of Emania, so celebrated in the history of Ireland for many centuries after, was constructed. This was the resort of the Red-branch Knights, and the palace of the kings of Ulster for 855 years,\* until finally destroyed, as we shall see, by the three Collas. After the death of Cimbaeth, Macha reigned as absolute queen of Ireland for seven years, when she was slain by her successor, Rachtu Ridearg, who, in his turn, was slain by Ugaine Mor, or Ugony the Great, who had been fostered by Cimbaeth and Macha, and thus avenged the death of his royal foster-mother.

B. C. 633.—Ugony, who reigned forty years, is said to have carried his victorious arms far out of Ireland, so that his power was acknowledged “all over the west of Europe, as far as Muir-Toirrian,” or the Mediterranean sea. He divided Ireland among his twenty-five children, and exacted from the people an oath, according to the ancient Irish

pagan form, “by the sun and moon, the sea, the dew, and colors, and all the elements visible and invisible,” that the sovereignty of Erin should not be taken from his descendants forever. This mode of binding posterity appears to have been a favorite one, as we find it again adopted, in the same precise form, by Tuathal Techtmar, one of Ugony’s descendants. The subdivision of Ireland into twenty-five parts was preserved for 300 years.†

Ugony the Great experienced the same fate as nearly all these ancient sovereigns, who, with very few exceptions, were slain each by his successor; and among the most remarkable of the succeeding princes we find one named Maen, better known as Lavry Longseach, or Lowry of the Ships, who, having been driven into exile by his uncle, Covagh, son of Ugony, lived some time in Gaul, and returning thence with 2,000 foreigners, landed on the coast of Wexford, and marched rapidly to the royal residence at Dinrye, on the river Barrow, which he attacked at night, killing the king, his uncle, and thirty of the nobles, and setting fire to the palace, which was burned to the ground. He then seized the crown, and having reigned nineteen years, was, according to the customary rule, killed by his

\* Annals of Clonmacnoise. The remains of the palace of Eamhuin, or Emania, is now a very large rath, corruptly called the Navan fort, situated about two miles west of Armagh. Near the hill is a townland which still bears, in its name of Creeveroe (Craobh-ruadh), or the Red-branch, a memorial of the ancient glory of

the place.—(See Stuart’s “Historical Memoirs of Armagh.”)

† Of Ugony’s children twenty-two were sons, and of these only two left issue, all who claim to be of the race of Heremon tracing their descent through these two sons of Ugony.



successor (B. c. 523). Many legends are related of this Lowry of the Ships; and it is said that the foreigners who came with him from Gaul were armed with broad-headed lances or javelins (called in Irish *laighne*), whence the province of Leinster has derived its name.\*

For some centuries, about this period, few events of note are recorded. In the reign of Bresail Bodivo (B. c. 200) there was a mortality of kine, so great that, according to the Annals of Clonmacnoise, "there were no more then left alive but one bull and one heifer in the whole kingdom, which bull and heifer lived in a place called Gleann Sawasge," that is, the Glen of the Heifer, the name of a remarkable valley in the county of Kerry, where the tradition is still preserved.

B. c. 142.—Eochy, or Achy, surnamed Feyleach (Feidhleach), from a habit of constantly sighing, rescinded Ugony More's division of Ireland into twenty-five parts, and divided the island into

five provinces, over each of which he appointed a minor king, tributary to himself. To one of these, Tinne, the king of Connaught, he gave in marriage his daughter Maeve (Meadhbh) or Mab, or Maude, celebrated in the old poetic chronicles for her beauty and masculine bravery, with which, it must be confessed, she did not combine the quality of feminine modesty. She figures as the heroine in many of the strange romances of the period; among the peasantry her memory has descended to the present day as that of the queen of the Fairies of Connaught, and in her elfin character, although greatly metamorphosed, she is immortalized as the queen Mab of English fairy mythology.

After the death of Tinne, Maeve reigned alone as queen of Connaught for ten years, and then married Oilíoll, commander of the martial tribe of the Gamanradians, or Damnonian knights of Iorras, a Firbolgic sept, also celebrated by the bards as the Clanna Morna.† She made him king of Con

\* This origin of the name is more generally received than the similar one mentioned above, when treating of the Firbolg immigration.

† The return of a number of the Firbolgs to Ireland, in the time of Queen Maeve, is an interesting fact in our history. It is stated in a MS. account of the Firbolgs. by MacFirbis (for the translation of a portion of which, as well as for the identification of the names that follow, we are indebted to Professor Eugene Curry), that the remnant of that people who continued in the Danish islands (the Hebrides) were about this period banished by the Picts, and that they passed over to Ireland, where they obtained, upon rent, the lands of Rath-Cealtchair, Rath-Conrach, Rath-Comar, &c., in Meath. The rent, however, was too heavy, and they eloped with all their movables over the Shannon, and received from Aible (as he is here called) and Meabh, the king and queen of that country

(Connaught), lands running along the coast from Cruach Patrick to Loop Head, and embracing the southern parts of Galway and Roscommon, and all Clare. They were called the Clann Umoir on their coming into Ireland on this occasion, from Aengus, the son of Umor, who was their king. The lands which they received in the west, chiefly on the seaboard, continued to bear their names. Here are a few of them:—"Aengus, the son of Umor, at Dun Aengusa, in Arann; Cutra, at Loch Cutra (near Gort); Cimè, at Loch Cimè (now Lough Hacket); Adhar, son of Umor, at Magh Adhair (poetically for Thomond); Mil, at Muirbheach Mil (now Murvagh, near Oranmore); Doolach, at Daoil(?); and Endach, his brother, at Teachan-Eandaigh(?); Bir, at Rinn Beara West (now Rinnbarrow, in Lough Dergart, in the Shannon); Mogh, at Inn-sibh Mogh (Clew Bay islands); Iorgus, at Ceann Boirne (Black Head); Banne Badanbel, at Laighlinne(?); Con



naught, and survived him, although he lived to an advanced age. The Connaught palace of Cruachan was erected by her; and in her time a war which lasted for seven years broke out between Ulster and Connaught, when the Gamanradians of Iorras Domnan, and the knights of the Craev Roe, or Red Branch of Emania,\* were arrayed against each other, and performed wonderful exploits of valor, queen Maeve herself, at the head of her heroes, dashing into Ulster with her war-chariots, and sweeping the cattle of the rich fields of Louth before her across the Shannon. This deed has been celebrated in the ancient historic tale of the *Tain bo Cuailgne*, or Cattle-spoil of Cooley. The bards have indeed involved the whole of this period in the wildest romance, tainted, as might be expected, by pagan immorality, and darkened by deeds of cruelty in warfare.† They relate as the cause of this war a moving tale about the fair Deardry and the three sons of Uisneach, and the cruelty of

Connor MacNessa, king of Ulster; but the more probable account of the matter is, that Feargus Rogy, who was driven from Ulster by Connor in one of their intestine broils, fled into Connaught, and engaged the interest, together with the affections, of Queen Maeve, and by her assistance made incursions into the territory of Connor MacNessa. Among the champions of Emania in this war were Cuchullainn, and Conall Cearnach; and among the Connaught heroes were Ceat MacMagach, the brother of King Oilíoll, and Ferdia MacDamain, all names of Ossianic celebrity.

When Maeve was considerably more than 100 years old she was treacherously killed by the son of Connor, in revenge for the death of his father, who was slain by Maeve's people; and among her numerous children were three, of whom Feargus Rogy was the father, named Kiar, Conmac, and Corc, the progenitors of many of the families of the west and south of Ireland. Maeve

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churn (not Conchubhar) on the Sea, in Inis Meadhain (one of the Arran islands); Lothrach, at Tulaigh Lothraigh (?); Taman, son of Umor, at Rinn Tamain, in Meadraidhe (near Galway); Conall Caol, son of Aengus, son of Umor, at Carnconail, in Aidhne (now the barony of Kiltartan in Galway); Measca, at Loch Measca (Lough Mask); Asal, the son of Umor, at Magh Asail, in Munster (plain round Tory Hill, near Croom); Beus Beann, son of Umor, the poet, &c."

\* That the ancient Irish in very remote times had certain local orders of knighthood, cannot be denied; and the statement that Cuchullainn, was admitted among the Red-branch Knights of Emania at the age of seven, receives a curious illustration from an incident recorded by Froissart, who relates that when four Irish kings were offered the honor of knighthood by Richard,

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king of England, they stated that it had been already conferred on them, according to the custom of their own country, when they were but seven years of age.—(Froissart, vol. iv., chap. lxiv.)

† About this period popular resentment rose so high throughout Ireland against the fileas or bards, for their abuse of the numerous privileges which they enjoyed, and their perversion of the laws, that a general outbreak against them took place, and they were expelled, indiscriminately, from a great part of the country; but the tide of excitement was stayed by Connor MacNessa, who prevailed on both parties to agree to certain reforms, and set the principal fileas to work upon a codification of the laws, which was accepted by the country at large, together with the reinstatement of the expelled fileas—(O'Connor's Dissertations, p. 131, ed. of 1812.)



lived about the commencement of the Christian era, her death, according to Tigernach, having taken place in A. D. 70, although, according to the Four Masters, she flourished more than a century before the birth of Christ.

This epoch is known in Irish history as that of the provincial kings; and strange though it may seem, we have

to trace to that remote date the origin of the worst ills of Ireland—namely, the subdivision of territory, and the establishment of a system of petty independent toparchs, which involved the country in perpetual local wars, and gradually extinguished every trace of a controlling power or central government.

## CHAPTER V

Pagan kings of Ireland, continued.—Creevan brings home rich spoils from Britian.—Insurrections of the Attacotti.—Massacre of the Milesian Nobles.—King Carbry the Cat-headed.—Reign of Tuathal Teachtar.—Felimy the Lawgiver.—Conn of the Hundred Battles.—Wars of Conn and Eugene the Great.—New Division of Ireland.—Battle of Moylena.—Conary the Second.—The three Carbrys.—The Dalriads; first Irish Settlement in Alba or Scotland.—Oilíol Olum, king of Munster.—Lewy MacCon.—Glorious Reign of Cormac MacArt.—His Abdication.—Carbry Liffechar.—The Battle of Gavra.—Finn MacCuail and the Fenian Militia.—The three Collas.—Fall of Emania.—Niall of the Nine Hostages, &c.

[FROM THE BIRTH OF CHRIST TO A. D. 400.]

**T**HERE is a difference of opinion as to what Irish king reigned at the birth of Christ; for while the Four Masters, O'Flaherty, and others assign that date to the reign of Creevan Nianair, the hundred and eleventh monarch of Ireland in O'Flaherty's list, other calculations push forward the reign of Conary the Great, the fourth preceding king, to the Christian era, and make Creevan a contemporary of Agricola, the Roman governor of Britain. The latter king has been famous for his predatory excursions against the Britons, from one of which he brought home several

"jewels," or precious objects; among the rest, "a golden chariot; a golden chess-board, inlaid with a hundred transparent gems; a cloak embroidered with gold; a conquering sword, with many serpents of refined, massy gold inlaid thereon; a shield with bosses of bright silver; a spear, from the wound inflicted by which no one recovered; a sling, from which no erring shot was discharged, &c.;" and after depositing these spoils in Dun Creevan,\* at Bin Edar, he died, as the Four Masters have it, in the ninth year of Christ.

It is thought to have been about this

\* Dr. Petrie and Dr. O'Donovan think that the Dun Crimlithain, or Fort of Creevan, was situated on the

jutting rock where the Bailey lighthouse now stands, at Howth.



time that a certain recreant Irish chief waited on Agricola, in Britain, and invited him to invade Ireland, stating that one Roman legion and a few auxiliaries would be sufficient to conquer and retain the island. Agricola saw the importance of occupying a country so favorably situated, and prepared an expedition for the purpose; but the project was abandoned for some cause not known, probably owing to the formidable military character of the people of Ireland; and although Britain remained a province of the Roman empire for centuries after, and the natural wealth of Hibernia was well known, foreign merchants being even more familiar with her ports than with those of Britain, still a Roman soldier never set hostile foot on her much-coveted shores. The Scots of Ireland, and their neighbors, the Picts, gave the Roman legions quite enough to do to defend Britain against them from behind the ramparts of Adrian and Antoninus.\*

While the Milesians were exhausting their strength in internecine wars at home, or with incursions beyond the seas, a large portion of the population of Ireland, composed of various races,

and with different sympathies, was engaged upon more peaceable pursuits. Those who boasted of a descent from the Scytho-Spanish hero, would have considered themselves degraded were they to devote themselves to any less honorable profession than those of soldiers, ollavs, or physicians; and hence the cultivation of the soil and the exercise of the mechanic arts, were left almost exclusively to the Firbolgs and the Tuatha de Dananns; the former people in particular being still very numerous, and forming the great mass of the population in the west. These were ground down by high rents, and the exorbitant exactions of the dominant race, in order to support their unbounded hospitality, and defray the expenses of their costly assemblies; but this oppression must have caused perpetual discontent, and the hard-working plebeians, as they were called, must have easily perceived that their Gadelian masters were running headlong to destruction, and that it only required a bold effort to shake off their yoke. It would be curious to know how this feeling developed itself, until it was finally acted upon; or whether the popular discontent had any connection

\* The passage of Tacitus in which the meditated Roman invasion of Ireland is mentioned is extremely interesting. Describing the proceedings of Agricola in the fifth year of his campaigns in Britain, he says;—*“Eam partem Britanniae quæ Hiberniam aspicit cæpiis instruxit, in spem magis quam ob formidinem; siquidem Hibernia medio inter Britanniam atque Hispaniam sita, et Gallico quæque mari opportuna, valentissimam imperii partem magnis invicem usibus miscuerit. Spatium ejus,*

*si Britanniae comparetur, augustius, nostri maris insulae superat. Solum, cælumque et ingenia, cultusque hominum, haud multum à Britannia differunt. Melius aditus portusque per commercia et negotiatores cogniti. Agricola expulsum seditione domestica unum ex regulis gentis exceperat, ac specie amicitiae in occasionem retinebat. Sæpe ex eo audiui, legione una et mædicis auxiliis de bellari obtinerique Hiberniam posse.”—Vita Julii Agric., c. 24.*



with the invitation to the Roman general just referred to. Of the singular and successful revolution which was the result we have no accounts but such as reach us from a hostile source, and are colored by undisguised prejudice. According to these statements, the Aitheach-Tuatha, or Attacotti, as they are called in Latin, that is, the plebeians and helots of the conquered races, with many also of the impoverished Milesians, conspired to seize the country for themselves.\* For this purpose they invited all the kings and nobles, and other leading Milesians, to a grand feast at Magh Cro, the great plain near Knockma, in the county of Galway; and to provide for a banquet on such a scale, the plebeians spent three years in preparations, during which time they saved one-third of their earnings, and of the produce of the land. A great meeting and a feast seem to have had an irresistible attraction for the Milesians, who accordingly repaired to Magh Cro from every part of Erin, and there, after being feasted for nine days, they were set upon by the Attacotti, and massacred to a man. Only three chieftains, say the seanachies, escaped, and these were still unborn; their mothers, who were the daughters of the kings of Alba, Britain, and Saxony, having been spared

in the general butchery, and having found means to escape into Albion, where the three young princes were born and educated. It is plain, however, that many others also survived, as several Milesian families, not descended from these, are subsequently found in Ireland. The annals do not say how the conspiracy was hatched, and so effectively concealed during the many years required to bring it to maturity; but after the massacre the Attacotti elected as their king, Carbry, one of their three leaders, who through contempt is called Carbry Cinncait, or the cat-headed, from having ears like those of a cat. Carbry reigned five years during which time there was no rule or order, and the country was a prey to every misfortune. "Evil was the state of Ireland during his reign; fruitless her corn, for there used to be but one grain on the stalk; fruitless her rivers; her cattle without milk; her fruit without plenty, for there used to be but one acorn on the oak."† In fact, the civil war was followed by one of its natural consequences, a famine.‡

A. D. 14.—After the death of Carbry, his son, the wise and prudent Morann, refused the crown, and advised those who pressed it on him to bring back the rightful heirs. The young princes were

\* Several races were mixed up in the population of Ireland at the time of the Aitheach-Tuatha. Some say that their king, Carbry Cinnceat, was a Scandinavian. The Tuatha-Eoluirg who lived at that time in Tyrone were a Scandinavian race.

† Annals of the Four Masters.

‡ Flan of Monasterboice synchronizes the reigns of

Carbry Cinncait and his immediate successor with the emperors Titus and Domitian. Fifty years before the insurrection of the Attacotti, Conaire Mor, monarch of Ireland, was killed by insurgents at Bruighean-da-Dhearg, on the Dothair, or Dodder, a name which Dr. O'Donovan believes to be preserved in that of Boher-na-Breena, the road of the Bruighean or fort.



accordingly invited home from their exile; Faradach Finnfeachtnach, or the Righteous, the son of Creevan, was elected king of Ireland; and Morann, the Just, administered the law during his reign, so that peace and happiness were once more restored to Erin. "The seasons were tranquil, and the earth once more brought forth its fruit." It was Morann who made the famous collar or chain which judges after him were compelled to wear on their necks, and which, according to the legends, contracted, and threatened to choke them when they were about pronouncing an unjust judgment. This collar is mentioned, in several commentaries on the Brehon laws, among the ordeals of the ancient Irish, and was used to test the guilt or innocence of accused persons.

The Attacotti were now subjected to more grievous oppression than ever; and on the death of Faradach a fresh rebellion broke forth. This time the provincial kings were induced to join in the outbreak, which resulted (A. D. 56) in a desperate battle at Maghbolg, on the bounds of the present counties of Cavan and Meath, where the monarch Fiacha Finfolay was killed. Elim, king of Ulster, who had joined the plebeians, was chosen monarch, and had a troubled reign of twenty years, the people leading lawless lives, and the very elements, as in the former case, being at war with the usurper; but at the end of this interval Tuathal Teachtar, or the Legitimate, the son of Fiacha Finfolay, and

born in exile, returned on the invitation of a sufficiently powerful party, and slew Elim in battle at Aichill, or the hill of Skreen, in Meath, and once more brought back prosperity and order to the land. (A. D. 76.)

A. D. 106.—Tuathal Teachtar reigned thirty years, during which time he carried on a war of extermination against the ill-fated plebeians, no fewer than 133 battles having been fought with them in the different provinces. He established himself more firmly on the throne by exacting from the people a similar oath to that of Ugony Mor, "by the sun, moon, and elements," that his posterity should not be deprived of the sovereignty. He cut off from each of the other four provinces a portion of territory, of which he formed the separate province of Meath, as the mensal lands of the chief king; he celebrated the Feis of Tara with great state, and held provincial conventions at Tlachta, Uisneach, and Tailtinn, in the Momonian, Connacian, and Ultonian portions of Meath, and he imposed on the province of Leinster the degrading Boruwa, or cow-tribute, which continued during the reigns of forty succeeding monarchs of Ireland, being inflicted as an eric, or fine, on the king of Leinster, for having taken Tuathal's two daughters as wives, on the pretence, when he asked the second one, that the former wife was dead, the death of both being the consequence.\* Tuathal's great power, or

\* The Boruwa, or Leinster cow-tribute, which was the cause of innumerable wars, was levied every second



the oath he exacted from his subjects, did not save him from the usual fate of the Irish kings, as he was killed in battle by his successor, Mal, who, in his turn, was slain by Tuathal's son, Felimy Rechtar, or the Law-maker. Felimy, who died A. D. 119, was the son of a Scandinavian princess, named Baine, the daughter of Scal, king of Finland, and this connection shows the intercourse that existed between the Scots of Ireland and the Northmen at this early period. The great rath of Magh Leavna, in the present county of Tyrone, was erected by this princess. Felimy, the Lawgiver, substituted for the principle of retaliation the law of eric, or fine.

A. D. 123-157.—The reign of Conn of the Hundred Battles forms one of the most remarkable epochs in the ancient history of Ireland. His surname sufficiently indicates the military character of his career, and his heroism and exploits are a favorite theme of the bards; but Conn found a formidable antagonist in the brave and adventurous Moh Nuad (Mogh Nuadhat), otherwise called Owen or Eugene the Great (Eoghan Mor), son of Mogh Neit, king

of Munster, and the most distinguished hero of the race of Heber Finn. It would appear that tribes of the race of Ir,\* called Erneans, and of the line of Ith,† gradually encroached on the territory of Heber's posterity, the legitimate possessors of the southern province, until they were able to seize the regal power, which they continued for some time to hold alternately to the exclusion of the line of Heber. When Eugene was still in his youth he was compelled to fly from his own country, the sovereignty of which was claimed by three princes of the hostile races, all of whom he regarded as usurpers; and having repaired to his fosterer, Daire Barrach, son of Cathaire Mor, king of Leinster, from whom he obtained such aid as enabled him to take the field in the assertion of his rights; and in a short time he drove those of the Erneans as would not acknowledge his authority out of Munster, and struck up a temporary alliance with the chiefs of the race of Ith. The Erneans appealed to Conn, who embraced their cause, and thus a desperate war broke out between Eugene and the monarch of Ireland, in the course of

year. Its amount is differently stated, but according to Mageoghegan's *Annals of Clonmacnoise*, it consisted of the following items; "150 cows, 150 hogs; 150 coverlets, or pieces of cloth to cover beds withal; 150 caldrons, with two passing-great caldrons, consisting in breadth and deepness five fists, for the king's own brewing; 150 couples of men and women in servitude, to draw water on their backs for the said brewing; together with 150 maids, with the king of Leinster's own daughter, in like bondage and servitude." The tribute was enforced for 500 years. According to *Tigernach*, Tuathal was killed in the last year of Antoninus Pius, that is, about A. D.

160, showing, as usual, an error of the Four Masters in antedating.

\* Ir, who was brother of Heber and Heremon, was ancestor of the old kings of Ulster, whose descendants settled in various parts of Ireland, as the Magennises of Iveagh, O'Connors of Corcomroe and Kerry, O'Loughlins of Burren, O'Farrells of Longford, MacRannalls of Leitrim; the O'Mores and their correlatives, the seven septa of Leix, now the Queen's county; and all the Connaught septa called Conmaicne.—DR. O'DONOVAN.

† Ith, the uncle of Milesius, was the ancestor of the O'Driscolls and all their correlatives in the territory of



which the latter was defeated in ten pitched battles, and was so hard pressed as to be compelled to divide Ireland equally with the victorious Eugene; the line of division being the chain of sand-hills called the Esker Riada, one extremity of which is the eminence on the declivity of which Dublin Castle stands, while its western terminus is at the peninsula of Marey, at the head of Galway bay. The country to the north of this line was called Leath Cuinn, or Conn's half; and all to the south, Leath Mogha, or Moh Nuad's half; and although this division held in reality only for a very short time, some say for one year, it has ever since been preserved by Irish writers, who frequently employ these names for the northern and southern halves of Ireland.

Eugene's ambition increased with his success, and he hastened to pick another quarrel with Conn, complaining that the principal resort of shipping was on the northern side of Dublin bay, in Conn's half, and insisting on an equal division of the advantages of the port. This demand was indignantly rejected by Conn, and both parties again took the field. A vivid, but fabulous, account of the brief campaign which ensued is given in the Irish historical romance of the battle of

Magh Leana.\* Eugene in his youth had been obliged to fly to Spain, where he obtained Bera, the king's daughter, in marriage, and he was now, as the story just mentioned relates, aided by an army of Spaniards, commanded by his brother-in-law, the Spanish prince Frejus. The hostile armies were drawn up in view of each other on Magh Leana; but while an overweening confidence had made Eugene careless, a sense of inferiority in point of numbers rendered his foe doubly wary. An attack was made by the army of the north at the dawn of day, while the southerners were yet buried in sleep, and an utter defeat and slaughter followed; Eugene and his Spanish ally being killed while slumbering in their tents by Goll, the son of Morna, one of the Belgic champions of Connaught. Two small hillocks are shown to the present day, which are said to cover the ashes of the brave and ill-fated Moha Nuad, and his Iberian friend.†

After a reign of thirty-five years, and in the hundredth year of his age (A. D. 151), while engaged in making preparations for the triennial convention or Feis of Tara, Con of the Hundred Battles was murdered by Tibruid Tirach, king of Ulster, whose grandfather had

Corca-Luighe (originally coextensive with the diocese of Ross in Cork), the MacClancys of Dartry, in Leitrim, and other families.—Ibid.

\* This curious tract, which affords much interesting information on the manners and customs of the ancient pagan Irish, although its own antiquity is not very great, has been translated by Eugene Curry, Esq., M. R. I. A., and, with a valuable introduction from that learned Irish scholar, published by the Celtic Society. Magh Leana,

where the battle was fought, is the present parish of Moylana, or Kilbride, containing the town of Tullamore in the King's county. Tigernach places the division of Ireland between Conn and Eoghan Mor under the date A. D. 166.

† One of the acts which have rendered the memory of Moha Nuad famous in our annals, was the saving of his kingdom of Munster from a famine by his foresight in providing corn during years of abundance.



been slain by Conn's father.\* His successor and son-in-law, Conary II., is remarkable as the father of the three Carbrys, the progenitors of several important tribes. Thus, from Carbry Musc, six districts in Munster received the name of Muskery, one of these being the present baronies of Upper and Lower Ormond, in Tipperary; and another, the barony of Muskery in Cork. Carbry Bascain the second, gave his name to the territory of Corcabaiscinn, in the southwest of Clare; and thirdly, from Carbry Riada (Roigh-fhada, i. e., of the long wrist), were descended the Dalriads of Antrim, and the famous tribe of the same name in Scotland.† This Carbry Riada is mentioned under the name of Reuda, by Venerable Bede, as the leader of the Scots, who, coming from Hibernia into Alba, or Scotland,

obtained, either by alliance or by conquest, from the Picts, the territory which they continued in his time to hold; and as we shall hereafter see, it was about three centuries from this migration that a fresh colony from the Dalriada of Ireland, under Fergus, the son of Erc, invaded Scotland, and laid the foundation of the Scottish monarchy.‡

In the reign of Oiliol Olum, who was at this time king of Munster, a war raged, in which this king's step-son, Lewy, surnamed MacCon, was the aggressor. MacCon was the head of the descendants of Ith,§ and with him were leagued the powerful tribe of the Erneans of Munster, and Dadera, the Druid of the Ithian tribe of Dairinni; while on the other side were the King Oiliol, his numerous sons, and the three

\* Conn of the Hundred Battles was the ancestor of the most powerful families of Ireland, as the O'Neills, O'Donnells, O'Melaghlin, Mageoghegans, Maguires, MacMahons, O'Kellys, O'Conors of Connaught, O'Dowdas, O'Malleys, O'Flahertys, &c.

Cathaire Mor, king of Leinster, and Conn's immediate predecessor as monarch of Ireland, was the ancestor of the great Leinster families of MacMurrough, Kavanagh, O'Conor Faly, O'Dempsey, O'Dunn, MacGorman, O'Murroughou (Murphy), O'Toole, O'Bryne, &c. The Leinster family of MacGillpatrick, or Fitzpatrick, of Ossory, do not trace their descent to Cathaire Mor, but they and all the families mentioned in this note are of the race of Heremon, through Ugonny Mor.

† The territory called Dalriada comprised the northern portion of the present county of Antrim, and it is probable that the name Route, applied to a part of the district, is a corruption of the ancient word. The name of Dalriada is not to be confounded with that of Dalaradia, also called Ulidia, and comprising the southern portion of Antrim and the eastern part of the county of Down. Dalaradia, or Dalaraiddh, takes its name from Fiacha Araid, a king of Ulster of the Irian race, and was peopled by tribes of the line of Ir, or Rudricians (Clanna Rory),

as they are frequently called from Rury, a king of Ulster of that race; whereas Dalriada belonged to the race of Heremon. A Pictish colony from Scotland settled in Dalaradia about a century before the Christian era.

‡ The earliest mention of the name of Scots is by Porphyry, in the third century; and the first mention of the Picts is by Eumenius, about the close of the same century. The words of Porphyry are quoted by St. Jerome—(*Epist. ad Otesiphontem contra Pelagium.*) Both Scots and Picts are referred to as nations well known at that time; but then, and for many centuries after, the name of Scots was only given to the inhabitants of Ireland. Some modern writers insist that even in the time of St. Patrick the Scots were only a tribe or section of the inhabitants of Ireland, and that the people who composed the bulk of the population were those called by the Apostle "Hiberionaces." The territory first acquired by the Gaels, or Scots, from the Picts, is the present county of Argyle, the name of which is contracted, says O'Donovan, from Airer-Gaeidheal, that is, the region or district of the Gaeidhil.

§ From this MacCon are descended the O'Driscolls, and others not reckoned among the Milesian families, as they belong to the collateral line of Ith.



Carbrys, sons of Conary, monarch of Ireland. A battle was fought at Ceann-favrat,\* in which several of the leaders on both sides were slain, and MacCon having been worsted fled to Britain, whence he returned in a few years, with an army of foreigners, and again gave battle to his foes on the plain then called Magh Mucrive near Athenry, where he gained a decided victory. He then monarch of Ireland, Art the Melancholy, son of Conn of the Hundred Battles, together with seven sons of Oiliol Olum, falling in the conflict.† Thus MacCon obtained for himself the crown of Ardrigh, or chief king of Ireland.

At this period flourished Cual, or Cumhal, father of the hero Finn Mac-Cuail, and captain of the renowned Irish legion, called the Fianna Eirion, or Irish Militia, about which marvellous stories are related by the bards and seanachies. This famous corps is supposed to have been organized after the model of a Roman legion, and to have been intended as a bulwark against Roman or other invasion. There can be no doubt that it was admirably trained, and composed of the picked

men of Erin; but for its discipline and loyalty much cannot be said; for after frequent acts of treason and insubordination, the monarch was finally obliged, as we shall presently see, to disband it, and to call in the aid of other troops to effect that object. To the treachery of the Fianna Eirinn Keating attributes the defeat and death of Art in the battle of Magh Mucrive.

A. D. 227.—Cormac Ulfadha, the son of Art and grandson of Conn of the Hundred Battles, having removed the usurper MacCon, and also another usurper of lesser note, named Fergus, ascended the throne of Tara; and his reign is generally regarded as the brightest epoch in the entire history of pagan Ireland. He set in earnest about the task of reducing the several provinces to a due submission to the sovereign; beginning with the Ulidians, next proceeding to Connaught, and subsequently to Munster, with occasional incursions into all the provinces, gaining many victories (although he had some reverses in the early part of his career), and establishing his authority and laws everywhere at the point of the sword. In that rude age, means so desperate

\* It is probable that Ceann-abhrat, or Kenfebrat, was the mountain now called Seefin, one of the Slieve Riach or Castle Oliver group of mountains, on the borders of the counties of Cork and Limerick. It is frequently referred to in the most ancient Irish records, and its position is indicated in the Book of Lismore, fol. 207; and the Tripartite Life of St. Patrick, lib. iii., c. 48.

† Oiliol Olum, king of Munster, was the son of Mogh Nuadhat, or Eoghan Mor, and son-in-law of Conn of the Hundred Battles. Of his numerous progeny of children, three are particularly remarkable in Irish family history;

first, Eoghan Mor, or Eugene the Great, who must not be confounded with his grandfather bearing the same title. He was the progenitor of the great old South Munster families called by the genealogists Eoghanachts or Eugenians, as the M'Carthys, O'Donohoes, O'Keefs, &c.; secondly, Cormac Cas, king of Munster, and progenitor of the Dal Cassians or Thomond families, as the O'Briens, M'Mahons, M'Namaras, &c.; and thirdly, Cian, the ancestor of the families comprised under the tribe name of Cianachta, as the O'Carrols of Ely O'Carrol, O'Meagher, O'Connor of Glengiven, &c.



may have been necessary to sustain any authority at all; but when Cormac established his sway, he made it subserve the cause of civilization and order in a manner never attempted by any of his predecessors.

It is generally admitted that Christianity had even then penetrated into Ireland, and that its benign influence had reached this monarch's mind. Cormac, it is said, at the close of his life, adored the true God, and attempted to put down druidism and idol worship. It is at all events certain that he endeavored to promote education. He established three colleges, one for war, another for history, and the third for jurisprudence. He collected and remodelled the laws, and published the code which remained in force until the English invasion, and outside the English Pale for many centuries after. He assembled the bards and chroniclers at Tara, and directed them to collect the annals of Ireland, and to continue the records of the country from year to year, making them synchronize with the history of other countries,—Cormac himself, it is said, having been the inventor of this kind of chronology. These annals formed what was called the Psalter of Tara, which also contained a description of the boundaries of provinces, canthreds, and smaller divisions of land throughout Ireland; but unfortunately this great record has been lost, no vestige of it being now, it is believed, in existence.

The magnificence of Cormac's palace

at Tara was commensurate with the greatness of his power and the brilliancy of his actions; and he fitted out a fleet, which he sent to harass the shores of Alba, or Scotland, until that country also was compelled to acknowledge him as sovereign. In his old age he wrote a book or tract called *Teagusc-na-Ri*, or the Institutions of a Prince, which is still in existence, and which contains admirable maxims on manners, morals, and government. There are blemishes on his character in the early part of his life, such as the employment of assassins to free himself from his enemies, and some shameful breaches of his engagements; but he nevertheless stands forth as the most accomplished of the pagan monarchs of Ireland. As an instance of the barbarous manners against which he had to struggle, we read that (most probably during one of Cormac's expeditions to a distant locality) his own father-in-law, Dunlong, king of Leinster, made a descent upon Tara, and for some cause which is not mentioned, massacred all the inmates of a female college or boarding-school, consisting of thirty young ladies of noble rank, whom some writers suppose to have been druidesses, with their three hundred maids and attendants. Cormac avenged this atrocity by causing twelve dynasts or nobles of Leinster, who had been engaged in the massacre, to be executed, and by exacting Tuathal's Boarian tribute, with an additional mulct, from the province.

Cormac, in the thirty-ninth year of his reign, having had his eye thrust



out with a spear by Aengus, son of Fiacha Suihe, brother of Conn of the Hundred Battles, abdicated, in compliance with a law which required that the king should have no personal blemish, and retired to a philosophical retreat; but not until he had inflicted chastisement on the tribe whose head had thus maimed him.\* He died (A. D. 266) at Cleiteach (near Stackallan Bridge, on the south bank of the Boyne), the bone of a salmon having choked him, through the contrivances of the Druids, as it was thought, for his having abandoned their superstitions for the adoration of the true God.

A. D. 268.--Carbry, son of Cormac MacArt, and surnamed Liffechar, from having been fostered on the banks of the Liffey, was engaged during his reign in a desperate war with Munster "in defence of the rights of Leinster," and it was this quarrel which led to the battle of Gavra Aichill, celebrated in Irish bardic story.

Finn MacCuail, and his Clanna Baiscne, or legion of Finian Militia, were, as we have said, but unsteady supporters of the sovereign; and that illustrious warrior having been assassinated by a fisherman on the banks of the Boyne, whither he had retired in his old age,

the king took the opportunity to disband the Finian Militia, while the latter, instead of submitting to the monarch's commands, repaired to his enemy, Mocorb, son of Cormac Cas, king of Munster, and made an offer of their services, which was readily accepted. Carbry, upon this, applied for succor to Aedh, the last of the Domnonian kings of Connaught, who sent a battalion of his heroic militia, the Clanna Morna, the deadly enemies both of the Clanna Baiscne and of the Munster princes. Such were the rival military tribes who fought to mutual extermination in the bloody battle of Gavra (A. D. 284). Oisín, the warrior-poet, son of Finn MacCuail, celebrated the deeds performed on the occasion in verses which tradition has preserved for more than fifteen hundred years. Oscar, the son of Oisín, met Carbry in the fight, and fell in the terrific single combat which ensued between them. But Carbry did not fare better; for, while exhausted with fatigue and covered with wounds, he was met by his own kinsman, Semeon, one of the tribe of Foharta which had been expelled into Leinster, and fell an easy prey to his vengeance.† Thus ended the wild heroism of Finn, the son of Cual, and

\* It was on this occasion that Cormac expelled the tribe of the Deisi, the descendants of Fiacha Suihe, brother of Conn of the Hundred Battles, from the territory which they held near Tara, now the barony of Deece, in the county of Meath; and it was only after a lapse of some years that these people, afterwards so frequently mentioned in Irish history, settled down in that territory of Munster, part of which has since borne their name, viz. the present baronies of Decies in the county of Wa-

terford. The principal families of this tribe are the O'Brics, O'Phelans, O'Mearas, and O'Keans of Hy Felay, &c.

† The tribe of the Foharta were the descendants of Eochy Finnfohart, uncle of Art, son of Conn of the Hundred Battles, and who had been expelled by Art from Meath. They obtained lands in Leinster, and gave their name to the territories forming the baronies of Forth in Wexford and Carlow.



of his companions in arms, whose exploits were long the favorite theme of the Irish bards, by whom they were embellished with such fables and exaggerations, as have removed them almost wholly into the region of mythology and romance.\*

A. D. 322.—Fiacha Sravtinne, son of Carbry Liffechar, after reigning thirty-seven years, was slain by the three Collas, the sons of his brother, Eochy Doivlen; but when the eldest brother, Colla Uais, had occupied the throne four years he was deposed and expelled, together with his brothers and a few followers, into Scotland, by Muireach Tirach, King Fiacha's son, who subsequently reigned as Ardrigh thirty years. In a short time the three Collas returned, and were reconciled to their cousin, King Muireach Tirach, who supplied them with means to gratify their restless ambition; whereupon they entered Ulster with an army composed partly of auxiliaries from Connaught, and de-

feating the Ulster king in battle, in the present barony of Farney, in Monaghan, sacked and burned his palace of Emania,—the Emania of Queen Macha, and of the Red-branch knights—and seizing a large territory for themselves, circumscribed the kingdom of Ulster within much narrower limits than before. This event took place in the year 331; and the territory thus seized by the three Collas, and from which they expelled the old possessors, that is, the Clanna Rory, or descendants of Ir, was called Orgialla, or Oriel, and comprised the present counties of Louth, Monaghan, and Armagh.†

A. D. 378.—Under this date we read of one of those domestic tragedies which savor of a somewhat more advanced age of civilization and intrigue. Eochy Muivone, the son of Muireach Tirach, had two queens, one of whom, Mongfinn, or the Fair-haired, of the race of Heber, had four sons, the eldest of whom, Brian, the ancestor of the O'Conors of

\* The reader will at once be reminded by the names in the text of Macpherson's famous literary forgeries, the object of which was to rob Ireland of her Ossianic heroes and transfer them to the soil of Scotland. The cheat, however, was exploded a great many years ago. It is well known that Macpherson merely collected some of the traditional poems, which had been preserved by the Gaelic peasantry of the Scottish Highlands as well as in Ireland; and that partly by translation and partly by imitation of these remains, and without any attention to chronological order or correctness, but with innumerable perversions of sense, he composed those pretended translations of the poems of Ossian, which, for some time, enjoyed such wonderful celebrity, and which might always interest the world as curious and beautiful productions, if they had not been utterly spoiled by the taint of forgery and falsehood. Finn MacCuail was married successively to two daughters of the monarch Cormac MacArt; Ailve, the second, having been given to him

after Graine, the former, had eloped with his lieutenant, Diarmod O'Duivne. Gavra Aichill, where the battle was fought, is believed by Dr. O'Donovan (*Ann. Four Mast.*, vol i., p. 120, n. b), to have been contiguous to the hill of Skreen, near Tara, in Meath. The name is preserved in that of Gowra, a stream in the parish of Skreen, which receives a tribute from the well of Neamhnach, on Tara Hill, and flows into the Boyne at Ardsallagh. The publications of the Ossianic Society have lately made the world familiar with many of the poems and legends about Finn MacCuail and his times.

† Colla Uais, the oldest of the brothers, was the ancestor of the MacDonnells, MacAllisters, and MacDugalds of Scotland; Colla Mean, of the ancient inhabitants of the present district of Cremorne, in Monaghan; and Colla Dachrich, the youngest, of the MacMahons of Monaghan, the Maguires of Fermanagh, the O'Hanlons and MacCanns of Armagh, &c.



Connaught, was her favorite, and, in order to hasten his elevation to the throne, she poisoned her brother Creevan, who had succeeded Eochy; but, as the annalists observe, her crime did not avail her, for Creevan was succeeded, not by her son Brian, but by Niall of the Nine Hostages, the son of her husband Eochy by his former wife; and none of her descendants attained the sovereignty, except Turlough More O'Connor, and his son Roderick, the unhappy king who witnessed the Anglo-Norman invasion of Ireland. The wretched Mongfinn tasted of the poisoned cup herself, to remove her brother's suspicions, and thus sacrificed her own life as well as his.\*

A. D. 379.—Niall, surnamed Naoi Ghiallach, or of the Nine Hostages, the ancestor of the illustrious tribe of Hy-Niall, or O'Neill, was one of the most famous of the pagan monarchs of Ireland, but his energies appear to have been wholly devoted to his hostile expeditions against Albion or Britain, and Gaul. In the history of those countries we find evidence enough of the fearful ravages inflicted in these expeditions. The Scots (or Irish) were as formidable at that time as the Northmen were in a subsequent age. Their incursions were the scourge of all western Europe. According as Rome, in her decay, became unable to protect her outlying provinces, these terrible Scots, with their

Pictish allies, plundered and laid waste the rich countries thus abandoned by the Roman eagle. The Britons were unable to make any stand against them. The Roman walls, when the Roman garrisons were removed, ceased to be any barrier; and while the Dalriadic and Pictish armies poured into Britain through the wide breaches made in the walls of Antoninus and Severus, the seas from north to south swarmed with the fleets of the Irish invaders. For a while Britain was wholly subdued, and we know from the Britons' own account, in their sad petition to Rome for aid, to what a miserable plight they were reduced, flying for shelter to woods and morasses, and fearing even to seek for food, lest their hiding-places should be discovered by the ruthless foe. It was to resist these Irish invaders that Britain was obliged to become an Anglo-Saxon nation. Yet, of the transactions of that eventful period our Celtic annals contain only the most meagre record. We know from other sources that Christian missionaries had at that time already penetrated into Ireland, but our annals pass over their presence in silence; and it is to the verses of the Latin poet Claudian that we must refer for the fact that troops were sent by Stilicho, the general of Theodosius the Great, to repel the Scottish hosts, led by the brave and adventurous Niall.†

During the three successive reigns of

\* Creevan died in the Sliev Oighidh-an-righ, or "mountain of the king's death," now the Cratloe mountains in the county of Clare near Limerick

† At the time of the Scottish incursions into the Roman provinces, an important part was played by the people called Attacotti, a word which is believed to be a



Creevan, Niall of the Nine Hostages, and Dathy, our annals record no remarkable domestic wars; but of the first of these three kings we are told that in his short reign he brought over numerous prisoners and hostages from Scotland, Britain, and Gaul; of the second, it is recorded that he was slain by Eochy, the son of Enna Kinsellagh, "at Muir-n-Icht, the sea between France and England," supposed to be so called from the Portus Iccius of Cæsar, near the modern Boulogne; while Keating says that it was on the banks of the Loire he was treacherously killed by the above-named domestic enemy, who had found his way thither in the ranks of Niall's Dalriadic allies from Scotland.\* Finally, of Dathy it is related that he was killed by lightning, at Sliev Ealpa, or the Alps, and that his body was carried home by his soldiers,

and interred at Rathcroghan, in Connaught, under a red pillar stone. How this Irish king, in the year of our Lord 428, penetrated to the foot of the Alps with his armed bands, traversing Europe, as Rollo did long after him, history does not particularly tell us, but it records enough about the devastating inroads of the Scots to satisfy us of its possibility.†

Dathy, although not the last pagan king, was the last king of pagan Ireland, and after him we read no more in the Irish annals of plundering expeditions into foreign countries. It was probably in the last descent of his predecessor, Niall of the Nine Hostages, upon Armoric Gaul, that the youth Patrick, son of Calphurn, was, together with his sisters Darerca and Lupita, first carried, among other captives, to Ireland. Holy prize! thrice happy expe-

corruption of their Irish name of Aitheach-Tuatha. Some tribes of this great Firbolg race, in the course of the frequent wars waged against them in Ireland, settled in Scotland, not far from the Roman wall, and became active participators in the depredations of the Scots and Picts. Numerous bodies of them, who are supposed to have deserted from their allies, were incorporated in the Roman legions, and figured in the Roman wars on the continent at that period.

One of the passages of Claudian, referred to above is that in which the poet says:

"Totam cum Scotus Iernem  
Movit, et infesto spumavit remige Tethys."

That is, as translated in Gibson's Camden:

"When Scots came thundering from the Irish shores,  
And the ocean trembled, struck with hostile oars."

\* This great monarch (Niall) had fourteen sons, of whom eight left issue, who are set down in the following order by O'Flaherty (Ogygia, iii. 85):—1. Leaghaire, from whom are descended the O'Coindhealbhains, or Kendellans, of Ui Leaghaire; 2. Conall Crimthainne, ancestor of the O'Melaghlins; 3. Fiacha, *à quo*, the

Mageoghegans and O'Molloys; 4. Maine, *à quo*, O'Caharny, now Fox, O'Breen, and Magawly, and their correlatives in Teffia. All these remained in Meath. The other four settled in Ulster, where they acquired extensive territories,—viz., 1. Eoghan, the ancestor of O'Neill, and various correlative families; 2. Conell Gulban, the ancestor of O'Donnell, &c.; 3. Cairbre, whose posterity settled in the barony of Carbery, in the now county of Sligo, and in the barony of Granard, in the county of Longford; 4. Enda Finn, whose race settled in Tir Enda, in Tirconnell, and in Kenel-Enda, near the hill of Uisneach, in Westmeath.—O'DONOVAN.

† Abbé M'Geoghegan mentions a curious corroboration of this event. He says (page 94, Duffy's ed.):—"The relation of this expedition of Dathy agrees with the Piedmontese tradition, and a very ancient registry in the archives of the house of Sales, in which it is said that the king of Ireland remained some time in the Castle of Sales. I received this account from Daniel O'Mulryan, a captain in the regiment of Mountcashel, who assured me that he was told it by the Marquis de Sales, at the table of Lord Mountcashel, who had taken him prisoner at the battle of Marseilles."



dition! Irishmen may well exclaim; for although the conversion of their country to Christianity, in common with the rest of Europe, was an event that could not have been delayed much beyond the time at which it took place, whoever had been its apostle, it is impossible for any one who has considered, with Catholic feelings, the history of religion in Ireland, not to be impressed

with the conviction that this country has been indebted in a special manner, under God, to blessed Patrick, not only for the mode in which she was converted, but for the glorious harvest of sanctity which her soil was made to produce, and for the influence of his intercession in heaven from that day to the present.

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## CHAPTER VI.

*Civilization of the Pagan Irish.—Their Knowledge of Letters.—The Ogham Craev.—Their Religion.—The Brehon Laws.—Tanistry.—Gavel-kind.—Tenure of Land.—Rights of Clanship.—Reciprocal Privileges of the Irish Kings.—The Law of Eric.—Hereditary Offices.—Fosterage.*

WE have thus succinctly, but carefully, analyzed the entire pagan history of Ireland; and before we proceed further, it is right to consider some interesting questions which must have suggested themselves to the reader, as we went along. As, for instance, what kind of civilization did the pagan Irish enjoy? what knowledge of arts and literature did they possess? what was the nature of their religion? what is known of their laws and customs? what monuments have they left to us?

That the first migrations brought with them into this island at least the germs of social knowledge, appears to be indisputable; and although these were not developed into a civilization of arts and literature, like that of Rome or Greece, still, the social state which they

did produce was far removed from barbarism, in the sense in which that term is usually understood. We have ample reason to believe, not merely that Ireland in her days of paganism had reached a point relatively advanced in the social scale, but that Christianity found her in a state of intellectual and moral preparation superior to that of most other countries. How otherwise indeed should we account for the sudden lustre of learning and sanctity, by which it is confessed she became distinguished, almost as soon as she received the Gospel, and which surely could not have been so rapidly produced among a people so barbarous as some writers would have us believe the Irish to have been before their conversion to Christianity?

While Ireland, isolated and indepen-



dent, had her own indigenous institutions, and her own patriarchal system of society, Britain and Gaul lay in subjection at the feet of Rome, of whose arts and matured organization they thus imbibed a knowledge. It is true, that what Celtic Britain thus learned she subsequently lost in the invasions of Saxons and Scandinavians, and that it was Roman missionaries and a Norman conquest that again restored to her the arts of civilization; but this civilization it was, derived from Rome in the days of her decline, and modified by the barbaric elements on which it was ingrafted, that created the centralized power, and sent out the mailed warriors, of the feudal ages, and that gave to Anglo-Norman England the advantages which she enjoyed, in point of arms and discipline, in her contest with a country which had derived none of her military art or of her political organization from Rome. This connection with Imperial Rome, on the one side, and its absence on the other, were quite sufficient to determine the destinies of the two countries. But the state of a people secluded from the rest of the world, whose curious and interesting history we have been tracing for a thousand years or more before the history of Britain commences, and whose copious and expressive language, and domestic and mili-

tary arts, and costume, and laws, were not borrowed from any exotic source, is not to be held in contempt, although unlike what had been built up elsewhere on the substructure of Roman civilization. Hence, if it be idle to speculate on what Ireland, with her physical and moral advantages, might have risen to ere this in the career of mankind, had her fate never been linked with that of England, it is, on the other hand, unjust to argue as English writers do, as to her fortunes and her progress, from the defects of her primitive and unmatured institutions, or from the prostrate state of desolation to which centuries of warfare in her struggle with England and her own intestine broils had reduced her. But here we are anticipating.

St. Patrick, according to the old biographers, gave "alphabets" to some of those whom he converted, and this statement, coupled with the facts that we have no existing Irish manuscript older than his time—nor indeed any so old—and that our ordinary Irish characters, although unlike Roman printed letters, are only those of Latin MSS. of the fifth and sixth centuries, have led some Irish scholars to concede too easily the disputed point, that the pagan Irish were unacquainted with alphabetic writing.\* The Ogham Craev, or secret

\* See the remarks on this subject in Dr. O'Donovan's elaborate Introduction to his Irish Grammar; in which, by quoting the opinions of Father Innes and Dr. O'Brien, without expressing dissent, he seems to grant that the Irish had no writing before St. Patrick's time. He also

quotes, without comment, Charles O'Connor of Belanagar, who, in his introductory disquisition to the *Ogygia Vindicated*, abandons the whole story of the Milesian colony, &c., but holds that the pagan Irish had the Ogham, or virgular writing.



virgular writing, formed by notches or marks along the arras edges of stones, or pieces of timber, or on either side of any stem line on a plane surface, was only applicable to brief inscriptions, such as a name on the head-stone of a grave: and the pagan antiquity of even this rude style of alphabet has been disputed by some;\* but innumerable passages in our most ancient annals and historic poems show that not only the Ogham, which was considered to be an occult mode of writing, but a style of alphabetic characters suited for the preservation of public records, and for general literary purposes, was known in Ireland many centuries before the introduction of Christianity. This fact is so blended with the old historic traditions of the country, that it is hard to see how the one can be given up without abandoning the other also. There are indisputable authorities to prove that the Latin mode of writing was known in Ireland some time before St. Patrick's arrival, as there were unquestionably Christians in the country before that time, and as Celestius, the Irish disciple of the heresiarch Pelagius, is stated to have written epistles to his family in Ireland, at least thirty years before the preaching of St. Patrick; but we go

further, for we hold, on the authority of Cuan O'Lochain, who held a distinguished position in this country in the beginning of the eleventh century, that the Psalter of Tara did exist, and was compiled by Cormac MacArt in the third century, and consequently that the pagan Irish possessed a knowledge of alphabetic writing at least in that age.†

One of the questions with reference to the pagan inhabitants of Ireland, on which it is most difficult to arrive at a satisfactory conclusion, is the nature of their religion. The Tuatha de Dananns are said to have had divinities who presided over different arts and professions. We have seen that Tiernmas, a Milesian king (A. M. 3580), was the first who publicly practised the worship of Crom Cruach. It is quite probable that he was the first who set up rude idols for adoration in Ireland, but Crom Cruach is referred to as a divinity which the Milesians had always worshipped.‡ That a superstitious veneration was paid to the sun, wind, and elements, is obvious from the solemn forms of oath which some of the Irish kings took and administered; and that fires were lighted, on certain occasions, for religious purposes, is also certain; but

\* The Ogham inscriptions found in the cave of Dunloe, in Kerry, decidedly of a date anterior to Christianity, ought to be conclusive on this point.

† The passage from Cuan O'Lochain's poem referring to the "Psalter of Tara," will be found in Petrie's "History of Tara Hill."

‡ The *clach-oir*, or golden stone, from which Clogher in Tyrone is said to take its name, would appear to have

been another of the ancient Irish idols. Cathal Maguire, compiler of the "Annals of Ulster" (A. D. 1490), is quoted in the "Ogygia," part iii., c. 22, as stating that a stone covered with gold was preserved at Clogher, at the right side of the church entrance, and that in that stone *Kermad Kelstach*, the principal idol of the northern parts, was worshipped.



beyond these and a few other facts, we have nothing on Irish authority to define the religious system of our pagan ancestors. They had topical divinities who presided over hills, rivers, and particular localities, but there is no mention of any general deity recognized by the whole people, unless the obscure, and not very old references to a god Beall, or Bel, be understood in that sense; nor is there any trace of a propitiatory sacrifice used by them. Their druids combined the offices of philosophers, judges, and magicians, but do not appear to have been sacrificing priests, so far as the mention of them to be found in purely Irish authorities would lead us to conjecture.\* The writings transmitted to us by the ancient Irish were not composed for the use of strangers, and hence the scantiness of their information on subjects which must have been well known to those for whom they were written. The religion and customs of the Celts of Gaul were minutely described by Cæsar; but whether his description of the druidical religion of that country was applicable to the Irish druids and their form of worship, we have no cer-

tain authority to enable us to judge. On this subject a great deal is left to conjecture, and the result is that we have had the wildest theories propounded, with the most positive assertions about fire worship, pillar temples, budhism, druids' altars, human sacrifices, and sundry strange mysteries, as if these things had been accurately set forth in some authentic description of ancient Ireland; whereas the fact is that not one word about them can be discovered in any of the numerous Irish manuscripts that have been so fully elucidated up to the present day.

The laws of the ancient Irish formed a vast body of jurisprudence, of which only recent researches have enabled the world to appreciate the merits. Several collections and revisions of these laws were made by successive kings, from the decisions of eminent judges, and these are what are now known as the Brehon laws.†

One of the most peculiar of the ancient native laws of Ireland was that of succession, called tanaisteacht, or tanistry. This law was a compound of the hereditary and the elective principles, and is thus briefly explained by

\* From *drai*, or *draoidh*, a druid, comes the word *draoidheacht* (pronounced *dreeucht*), the ordinary Irish term for magic or sorcery. O'Reilly says ("Irish Writers," p. lxxix.) that druidism cannot be proved to have been the religion of the pagan Irish, from the use of the word *drai*, which means only a sage, a magician, or a sorcerer; and he shows that Morogh O'Cairthe, a Connaught writer, who died A. D. 1067, is called by Tigernach "Ard draei agus ard Ollamh," "chief druid and ollav." The word may come from the Greek *Δρυς*, or the Irish *dair*, an oak.

† The labors of the Brehon Law Commission are still in progress as this History is going to press, and their result will throw, no doubt, a great deal of light upon the ancient customs and manners of Ireland. To the enlightened views and persevering exertions of the Rev. Dr. Graves, F. T. C. D., so ably sustained by the Rev. Dr. Todd, the country is indebted for obtaining this commission from the government; and to the great Irish learning of Dr. O'Donovan and Professor Eugene Curry for carrying out its object successfully.



Professor Curry :\*—"There was no invariable rule of succession in the Milesian times, but according to the general tenor of our ancient accounts the eldest son succeeded the father to the exclusion of all collateral claimants, unless it happened that he was disqualified by some personal deformity, or blemish, or by natural imbecility, or crime; or unless (as happened in after ages), by parental testament, or mutual compact, the succession was made alternate in two or more families. The eldest son, being thus recognized as the presumptive heir and successor to the dignity, was denominated tanaiste, that is, minor or second, while all the other sons, or persons that were eligible in case of his failure, were simply called righdhamhna, that is, king-material, or king-makings. This was the origin of tanaiste, a successor, and tanaisteacht, successorship. The tanaiste, had a separate maintenance and establishment, as well as distinct privileges and liabilities. He was inferior to the king or chief, but above all the other dignitaries of the State. From all this it will be seen that tanistry, in the Anglo-Norman sense, was not an original, essential element of the law of succession, but a condition that might be adopted or abandoned at any time by the parties concerned; and it does not appear that it was at any time universal in Erin, although it prevailed in many parts of it. It is to be noticed

also, that alternate tanaisteacht did not involve any disturbance of property, or of the people, but only effected the position of the person himself, whether king, chief, or professor of any of the liberal arts, as the case might be; and that it was often set aside by force."

The primitive intention was, that the inheritance should descend "to the oldest and most worthy man of the same name and blood," but practically this was giving it to the strongest, and family feuds and intestine wars were the inevitable consequence.

As tanistry regulated the transmission of titles, offices, and authority, so the custom of gavel-kind (or gavail-kinne), another of the ancient institutions of Ireland, but which was also common to the Britons, Anglo-Saxons, Franks, and other primitive people, adjusted the partition and inheritance of landed property. By gavel-kind the property was divided equally between all the sons, whether legitimate or otherwise, to the exclusion of the daughters; but in addition to his own equal share, which the eldest son obtained in common with his brothers, he received the dwelling-house and other buildings, which would have been retained by the father or kenfinè, if the division were made, as it frequently was, in his own lifetime. This extra share was given to the eldest brother as head of the family, and in consideration of certain liabilities which he incurred for the security of the family in general. If there were no sons, the property was divided equally among

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\* Introduction to the battle of Magh Leana, printed for the Celtic Society Dublin, 1855.



the next male heirs of the deceased, whether uncles, brothers, nephews, or cousins; but the female line, as in the Salic law, was excluded from the inheritance. Sometimes a repartition of the lands of a whole tribe, or family of several branches, became necessary, owing to the extinction of some of the branches; but it does not appear that any such confusion or injustice resulted from the law, as is represented by Sir John Davies and by other English lawyers who have adopted his account of it.\*

The tenure of land in Ireland was essentially a tribe or family right. In contradistinction to the Teutonic, or feudal system, which vested the land in a single person, who was lord of the soil, all the members of a tribe or family in Ireland had an equal right to their proportionate share of the land occupied by the whole. The equality of title and blood thus enjoyed by all must have created a sense of individual self-respect and mutual dependence, that could not have existed under the Germanic and Anglo-Norman system of vassalage. The tenures of whole tribes were of course frequently disturbed by war; and whenever a tribe was driven or emigrated into a district where it had no hereditary claim, if it obtained

land it was on the payment of a rent to the king of the district; these rents being in some instances so heavy as to compel the strangers to seek for a home elsewhere.† It is within the memory of the present generation how the population of a large territory in the Highlands of Scotland continued to hold by the ancient Irish clannish tenure, and were dispossessed and swept from the land, on the ground that the English system gave the owner the right to remove them.

The dignity of Ardrigh, or monarch of Ireland, was one rather of title and position than of actual power; and was always supported by alliances with some of the provincial kings to secure the respect of the others. It was thus that the chief king was enabled to assert his will outside his own mensal province or kingdom of Meath; but, in process of time, the kings of other provinces as well as Meath became the monarchs. There was a reciprocity of obligations between the several kings and their subordinate chieftains; the superiors granting certain subsidies or stipends to the inferiors, while the latter paid tributes to support the magnificence or the military power of the former.‡ It sometimes happened that the succession to the sovereignty was alter-

\* See Dissertation on the Laws of the ancient Irish, written by Dr. O'Brien, author of the Dictionary, but published anonymously by Vallancey in the third number of the "Collectanea de Reb. Hib." In correction of what is stated above, we may mention, on the authority of Mr. Curry, that in default of any male issue daughters were allowed a life-interest in property. The term Ken-

finè, or Cean-fine, used above, was only applied to the heads of minor families, and never to any kind of chieftains.—See *Four Mast.*, vol. iv., p. 1147, note f.

† Vide supra, page 31, note.

‡ These mutual privileges and restrictions, tributes and stipends, whether consisting of bondmen or bondmaids, cattle, silver shields, weapons, embroidered cloaks



nate between two families, as that of Munster was between the Dalcassians and the Eugenians, both the posterity of Oiliol Olum; but this kind of succession almost always led to war.

None of the ancient Irish laws has been so much decried by English writers as that of *eric*, or *mulet*, by which crimes, including that of murder, were punished by fines; these writers forgetting that a similar law existed among their own British and Anglo-Saxon ancestors. Punishment of murder by fine also prevailed under the Salic law; so that if the principle be abhorrent to our ideas at the present day, we know, at least, that it existed in other countries at the same remote period in which it was acted upon in Ireland.\* It is not generally known that in cases of murder the *eric* might be refused by the friends of the deceased, and punishment by death insisted on; yet such was the

case. The law of *eric* was, therefore, conditional.

All offices and professions, such as those of druid, brehon, bard, physician, &c., were hereditary; yet not absolutely so, as others might also be introduced into these professions. Among the remarkable customs of the ancient Irish those concerning fosterage prevailed, up to a comparatively recent period, and the English government frequently made stringent laws against them, to prevent the intimate friendships which sprung up between the Anglo-Irish families and their "mere" Irish fosterers.† It was usual for families of high rank among the ancient Irish to undertake the nursing and education of the children of their chiefs, one royal family sometimes fostering the children of another; and the bonds which united the fosterers and the fostered were held to be as sacred as those of blood.‡

refections on visitations, drinking-horns, corn, or contributions in any other shape, will be found set down in the *Leabhar na g-Ceart*, or Book of Rights, edited for the Celtic Society by Dr. O'Donovan. Although a compilation of Christian times, being attributed to St. Benignus, the disciple and successor of St. Patrick, it describes the customs of the kings of Ireland as they existed in the ages of paganism.

\* See the laws of Athelstan; Howell Dda's *Leges Wallicæ*; the Salic law, and other authorities quoted in Dr. O'Brien's Dissertation, already referred to, pp. 394, &c. The law of *eric* was abrogated before the English invasion, in the senate held by the Irish clergy, and Mortough More O'Brien, king of Munster and monarch of Ireland, A. D. 1111.

† Fosterage and gossipred, as well as intermarriages, with the native Irish, was declared to be treason by the Statute of Kilkenny, 40th Ed. III., A. D. 1367.

‡ Giraldus Cambrensis, who rarely says a kind word of the Irish, observes, with an ill-natured reservation, "That if any love or faith is to be found among them, you must look for it among the fosterers and their foster-children."—*Top. Hib. Dist.* 3, ch. 23. Stanihurst says, the Irish loved and confided in their foster-brothers more than their brothers by blood: "Singula illis credunt; in eorum spe requiescunt; omnium conciliorum sunt maximè conscii. Collactanei etiā eos fidelissimè et amantissimè observant."—*De Rel. Hib.*, p. 49. See also Harris's Ware, vol. ii p. 72.



## CHAPTER VII.

Social and Intellectual State of the Pagan Irish, continued.—Weapons and Implements of Flint and Stone.—Celts—Working in Metal.—Bronze Swords, &c.—Pursuits of the Primitive Races.—Agriculture.—Houses.—Raths—Cahirs.—Cranogues.—Canoes and Curachs.—Sepulchres.—Cromlechs.—Games and Amusements.—Music—Ornaments, &c.—Celebrated Pagan Legislators and Poets.—The Bearla Feinë, &c.

IN some compartments of the Museum of the Royal Irish Academy the visitor will see beautifully shaped swords, spear-heads, and javelins of bronze; and in others he will find a great variety of weapons and tools composed of flint and stone, from the rudely formed stone celt and hammer, and the small chip of flint that served for an arrow-head, to the finely fashioned barbed spear-head of the latter material, and the highly polished and well-shaped celt of hard stone. Both classes of objects belong to the pre-Christian ages of Irish history; and the questions arise—what time elapsed between the use of the one and of the other? or what races employed each? or were both kinds of materials in use among the inhabitants of Ireland simultaneously, and from their first arrival in the island? The ancient annalists assure us that at least the Tuatha de Danann colony were acquainted with the use of metal when they first came to Ireland; and this account is now so generally received, that wherever bronze weapons are found in sepulchral mounds with human remains, the latter are looked upon as those of the Tuatha de Danann race. Making every allowance, however, for the amplifications of the bards, and for the gradual progress which the arts must have made among all primitive races, we may take it for granted that the early inhabitants of Ireland employed such materials as flint flakes and stone in the construction of their weapons and instruments for cutting; and stone, timber, and sun-baked earthenware, for domestic uses; first, perhaps, exclusively, and to a greater or less extent for a long time after the use of metals became familiar,—as the latter material must have been scarce for many ages, while the former were always at hand, and required comparatively little skill in their adaptation.

That the Irish became expert workers in metal at a very early period there can be no doubt, several specimens of their skill, besides bronze weapons, being preserved in the great national collection of antiquities just referred to. The occupation of smith, which included that of armorer, ranked next to the learned professions among them; and at



Airgatos or the Silverwood\* forges and smelting works for the precious metals were established, where silver shields, which an Irish king presented to his chieftains or nobles, long before the Christian era, were made; and where, no doubt, some of those costly gold torques, and other ornaments of the same metal that enrich our museum, and that were worn by the pagan Irish princes and judges, were so skilfully manufactured.†

The early inhabitants of Ireland were, like most primitive races, more devoted at first to nomadic than to agricultural pursuits; but while they contented themselves in the latter, for a long time, with the cultivation of only so much grain as served for their immediate wants, in the former they were restrained within certain bounds, as each tribe and family had only an allotted portion of land over which they could allow their flocks and herds to range. In process of time the population became so multiplied, and the resources of agriculture so important, that almost every available spot would appear to have been cultivated; and we now see traces

of the husbandman's labor on the tops of hills, and in other places in Ireland that have ceased to be under cultivation beyond the range of the oldest tradition. Between the periods when those mountain tracts, now covered with heath or moss, were made to produce the annual grain-crop, and those far remoter ages when the first colony began to clear some of the impenetrable forests covering the surface of the then nameless island of Erin, there must have been a vast interval and many phases of society—pastoral Firbolg, mechanical Tuatha de Danann, and warlike Scot or Gael, occupied the stage; yet to all of these our old annals, with the ancient historical poems which serve to illustrate them, seem to be tolerably faithful guides, showing us the hosts of rude warriors going to battle with slings, and with stone disks for casting, as well as the serried array of glittering spears, and the gold and silver breastplates, and the embroidered and many-colored cloaks of the later, yet still pagan, times.‡

The houses of the ancient Irish were

\* Now Rathveagh, on the River Nore, in Kilkenny.

† The quantity of gold ornaments that have been discovered in Ireland is almost incredible. In digging for a railway cutting in Clare, in the year 1855, a hoard of these ancient treasures was found, worth, it is said, about £2,000 as bullion. They are frequently found in almost every part of Ireland, and besides the number accumulated in the Museum of the Royal Irish Academy, many are also to be seen in the windows of goldsmiths' shops, and unknown quantities of them have found their way into the crucible. "We know enough," observed the Rev. Dr. Todd, in his inaugural address as President of the Royal Irish Academy, in 1856, "to be assured that the use of gold rings, and torques, and circlets, must

have been a characteristic of some of the aboriginal settlers of Ireland. Where did this gold come from? There is no evidence of any trade at so early a period between the natives of Ireland and any gold-producing clime. Geology assures us that there are no auriferous streams or veins in Ireland capable of supplying so very large a mass of gold. It follows, then, that some true or colony who migrated into this country must have carried these ornaments on their persons."

‡ See a minute description of the weapons and domestic implements used by the ancient Irish, so far as they were composed of stone, earthen, or vegetable materials, in the first part of the Catalogue of Antiquities in the Museum of the Royal Irish Academy, by W



constructed for the most part of wood, or of hurdles and wicker-work plastered with tempered clay, and thatched with rushes. This use of timber for building was so general, that even the churches for a long time after the introduction of Christianity were usually constructed of planed boards, which was described by Venerable Bede, in the eighth century, as a peculiar Scottish (that is, Irish) fashion;\* building with stone and cement being regarded as a Roman custom, and too expensive to be undertaken by the first Christian monks in Ireland.

These wooden or hurdle houses were surrounded by strong fences of earth or stone, of which great numbers are yet to be found in every part of the island; although all traces of the actual

dwellings have disappeared, owing to the perishable nature of the materials of which they consisted; unless in some few places, where small stone houses, now called cloghauns, with beehive roofs, are still preserved. The inclosures were generally circular, but sometimes oval or polygonal; and when they surrounded the habitations of chiefs or other important persons, or were situated in places exposed to hostile incursions, they were double or triple, the concentric lines of defence being separated by dikes. An earthen inclosure of this kind is usually called a rath, or lios; and one of stone, a cathair (pr. cahir), or caishal; both being vulgarly called Danish forts, or simply forts. The stone forts are attributed by some antiquaries to the Firbolgs, at least in

R. Wilde, Esq. Those peculiar objects, called *Celts*—not from the name of the people, but from the Latin word *celtis*, a chisel—still puzzle the antiquaries to define their use. Professor Curry has communicated, from the Book of Ballymote and other ancient Irish manuscripts, an account (published at pp. 73, 74, of the Catalogue) of the manner in which the *Lia Miledh* or “warrior’s stone”—whether that be the celt, or the round, flat, sharp-edged disk, of which there are some specimens in the Museum—was used in battle. The following legendary account is one of the three or four examples given: “In the record of the battle of the Ford of Comar, near Fore, in the county of Westmeath, and which is supposed to have occurred in the century before the Christian era, it is said that, ‘there came not a man of Lohar’s people without a broad, green spear, nor without a dazzling shield, nor without a *Liagh-lamha-laich* (a champion’s hand stone), stowed away in the hollow cavity of his shield. . . . And Lohar carried his stone like each of his men; and seeing the monarch, his father, standing in the ford with Ceat, son of Magach, at one side, and Connall Cearnach at the other, to guard him, he grasped his battle-stone quickly and dexterously, and threw it with all his strength, and with unerring aim, at the king, his father; and the massive stone passed with a swift rotatory motion towards the king, and despite

the efforts of his two brave guardians, it struck him on the breast, and laid him prostrate in the ford. The king, however, recovered from the shock, arose, and placing his foot upon the formidable stone, pressed it into the earth, where it remains to this day, with a third part of it over ground, and the print of the king’s foot visible on it.’ ”

\* Thus, when St. Finian of Iona became bishop of Lindisfarne, he “built a church fit for his episcopal see, not of stone, but altogether of sawn wood, covered with reeds, after the Scotie fashion (*More Scottorum*.)” Bede, Eccl. Hist. iii., c. 25. The extensive use of timber for building can be no matter of surprise when we recollect that Ireland was, at the time, abundantly supplied with primeval forests; and among the trees which seem to have been most numerous, and of course indigenous, were the oak, pine, fir, birch, and yew. It is not long since a large portion of some old English and continental towns consisted of wooden houses; and it will be long ere the method of constructing houses of wood be abandoned in America. There is mention of a “pillared house” (*tuireadoig*) in a poem quoted by Tigernach, under the year 601, and attributed by him to Caillach Laighneach, who wrote in the time of Hugh Allan, in the early part of the 8th century. (See *Four Masters*, vol. i. p. 230.)



those parts of Ireland where that people were longest to be found as a distinct race, as in the western province; and the earthen forts are supposed to have been the work of the Milesians. Most probably both races employed indifferently such materials as were most convenient to their hand. Of the earthen intrenchments, the walls have, in the lapse of centuries, been so washed into the dikes as partly to efface both; while in innumerable cases the hand of the agriculturist has been more ruthless than that of time, in obliterating these vestiges of our ancestors.\*

Another kind of fortified retreat or dwelling used by the ancient Irish was that called a *cranogue*, or stockaded island, generally situated in some small lake, where a little islet or bank of gravel was taken advantage of, and by being surrounded with stakes or other defences, was made a safe retreat for either the lawless or timid. In the vicinity of these cranogues are often found the remains of canoes, or shallow flat-bottomed boats, cut out of a single tree. The boats used by the Irish on the sea-coast were chiefly those called curraghs or coracles, which were composed of a frame of wicker-work, covered with skins. Boats of this type, save that pitched canvas has been substituted for the hides, are still used on the

coast of Clare, in the islands of Aran, and in some few other places in Ireland.

From the dwellings of the ancient inhabitants we naturally turn to their sepulchral remains, of which there are different kinds. The most frequent are the mounds or tumuli, called barrows in England, which were common to all ancient nations who interred their dead. They varied in size according to the importance of the individual over whose remains they were raised, and in some instances they assumed the dimensions of considerable hills; as those of New Grange and Dowth on the banks of the Boyne. Of these vast tumuli, which there are good grounds for regarding as the tombs of the Tuatha de Danann kings, the most famous is that of New Grange, with its long gallery, and lofty, dome-shaped chamber; and it may be observed that in any of those mounds that have been examined, sepulchral chambers, or kists, have been invariably found, and frequently human remains. Monuments composed of stone-heaps are called leachts or carns, but many of these latter are modern, and are mere cenotaphs or memorials of an accidental or violent death.

The monuments called cromlechs, which are met in Wales and Brittany as well as in Ireland, and which belong

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\* Among the most remarkable of the caishels or stone forts, are Dun Aengus, Dun Conchurn, and other duns of the Isles of Aran, Staigue Fort in Kerry, and the Grianan of Aileach, in Donegal; and of the earthen forts, some of the most celebrated are the royal raths of

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Tara Hill, Emania, Croghan, and Taltin, and the great rath of Mullaghmast; but there are few districts of Ireland in which several remains of this character are not to be found.



unquestionably to pagan times, have been popularly regarded as druids' altars; but the correct opinion, founded on ancient Irish authorities, that they were intended for sepulchral purposes, is now generally received; and it is probable that they may have been in some cases the chambers of sepulchral mounds, from which the covering of earth has been removed. The examination of a tumulus, opened in May, 1838, in the Phoenix Park, near Dublin, would seem to confirm this opinion; as the internal chamber, in which two human skeletons were found, was covered with a large, flat stone, in every respect like a cromlech.\*

Chess was a favorite game of the Irish from very early times, but it is uncertain whether the rules of the play were the same as those known to moderns. In all ages the Irish were passionately fond of their own sweet, heart-touching, and expressive music,

and possessed both stringed and wind instruments; and a number of bards or musicians, who sometimes played in harmony, but generally accompanied their songs with instrumental music singly, were always in attendance at the feasts of the chiefs and public entertainments.† The gold ornaments which are still preserved, the crowns of gold, worn, at least in some instances, by the Irish kings, and the accounts given by the bards of their "high drinking-cups of gold," and other objects of luxury, would show that a certain amount of splendor had been attained in the rude society of even the pagan ages of Ireland.

The names of several persons who had distinguished themselves as poets or legislators in Ireland, in the time of paganism, are still preserved, as well as some of the compositions attributed to them. Among those most remarkable in the latter class were Ollav Fola, by

\* These monuments are invariably referred to in old Irish writings as sepulchres; and in later ages they were called *leabach na feinne*, or the beds (i. e., graves) of the Fenians—the term cromlech being a recent importation into the Irish language, and still quite unknown to the Irish-speaking population. It is not unusual at present to combine the two hypotheses by calling these mysterious remains altar-graves. For a great deal of valuable research about the cemeteries and sepulchres of the pagan Irish, and in particular about the hill-monuments near the Boyne; and also for important and authentic information touching the manners of the primitive races of Ireland, the reader is referred to Dr. Petrie's learned Essay on Tara Hill.

† Giraldus Cambrensis (*Top. Hib., dist. iii., c. 11*), describing the performance of the Irish harpers, pays them the following tribute:—"In musicis instrumentis commendabilem invenio istius gentis diligentiam; in quibus præ omni natione quam vidimus, incomparabiliter est instructa." "The attention of this people to musical

instruments I find worthy of commendation; their skill in these matters being incomparably superior to that of any other nation I have seen." He then goes on to compare the Irish music with that of the Welsh, to which he was accustomed, describing the former as rapid and precipitate, yet sweet and pleasing, while the latter is slow and solemn. He was amazed at "the rapidity of execution," "the intricate arrangement of the notes," and "the melody so harmonious and perfect" which Irish music displayed; and was struck with the performance of the Irish musicians, who knew how "to delight with so much delicacy, and soothe so softly, that the excellence of their art seemed to lie in concealing it." Such was the impression which the music of Ireland could produce on the soul even of an enemy seven hundred years ago. Warton (*History of English Poetry*) says:—"Even so late as the eleventh century the practice was continued among the Welsh bards of receiving instructions in the bardic profession from Ireland."



whom the Feis of Tara was instituted; Cimbaeth, and other kings of his period; Moran, the chief judge of Ferach, the Fair and Just, at the close of the first century; and, above all, Cormac, son of Art, who has left us a tract or book of "Royal Precepts," and who, about the middle of the third century, caused the Psalter of Tara to be compiled.

Of the pre-Christian bards or poets we have a tolerably large list, in which, selecting the most remarkable names, we find Amergin, brother of Heber and Heremon, to whom three poems still existing are attributed; Congal, the son and poet of King Eochy Feilach, who flourished A. M. 5058; and just before the Christian era a whole group of poets, among whom were Adhna, chief poet of Ireland, Forchern, and Fercirtne, the author of the *Uraicacht na n-Eigeas*, or

primer of the learned; while towards the close of the third century flourished Oisin, and at the beginning of the fifth century Torna Eigeas, or Torna the Learned.\* Men like these would not have been produced in an entirely uncivilized state of society. The noble language of ancient Ireland had already in their time attained a high degree of perfection, being most copious in primitive roots and expressive compounds; and the productions that are attributed to the writers enumerated above, are written in a dialect which would be almost wholly unintelligible to the best Irish scholars for centuries past, were it not for the very ancient glosses that accompany them, which glosses can themselves be understood by those few only who are profoundly skilled in the Irish manuscripts.†

\* Vide O'Reilly's Irish Writers.

† Of the social and political system which prevailed among the ancient Irish, a distinguished authority on Irish historical matters, thus writes:—"Of our society, the type was not an army (as in the feudal system) but a family. Such a system, doubtless, was subject to many inconveniences. The breaking up of all general authority, and the multiplication of petty independent principalities, was an abuse *incident* to the feudal system; it was inherent in the very essence of the patriarchal or family system. That system began as the feudal system

ended, with small independent societies, each with its own separate centre of attraction; each clustering round the lord or the chief; and each rather repelling than attracting all similar societies. Yet the patriarchal system was not without its advantages. If the feudal system gave more strength to attack a foreign enemy, the patriarchal system secured more happiness at home. The one system implied inequality among the few, and slavery among the many: the other system gave a feeling of equality to all."—(The Very Rev. Dean Butler's Introduction to Clyn's Annals, p. 17).



## CHAPTER VIII.

Irish Christians before St. Patrick.—Pelagius and Celestius.—The Mission of St. Palladius.—St. Patrick's birth-place—his parentage—his captivity—his escape—his vision—his studies—his consecration.—How Christianity was received in Ireland.—St. Patrick's arrival.—The first conversions.—Interviews with King Laeghaire.—Visits Tailtin.—The Apostle's journeys in Meath, Connaught, Ulster, Leinster, and Munster.—Destruction of Crom Cruach.—St. Secundinus.—St. Fiach.—Caroticus.—Foundation of Armagh.—Death of St. Patrick.

*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—Popes: St. Celestine and St. Sixtus III.—Theodosius the Great, Emperor of the East.—Valentinian III., Emperor of the West.—Attila, King of the Huns.—Genseric, King of the Vandals.—Clovis, son of Pharamond, King of the Franks.—Britain abandoned by the Romans (A. D. 428), and the aid of the Saxons invited.—General Council of Ephesus (A. D. 431). St. Augustin died (A. D. 431).

(A. D. 400 TO A. D. 500.)

THAT Christianity had found its way into Ireland shortly before the preaching of St. Patrick appears to be beyond doubt, although the manner in which it was introduced, and the extent to which it had spread, are matters of mere conjecture. The neighboring island of Britain had, long before this period, received the light of faith through its Roman masters; and it is probable that there was sufficient intercourse between the two countries to enable some few of the natives of Ireland to become acquainted with the Christian religion. It is, moreover, probable that these few isolated Christians were confined to the south of Ireland, and that there was no bishop in the country until St. Palladius was

sent there by St. Celestine. Frequent mention is made in Irish records and Lives of saints of four bishops having been in Ireland before St. Patrick's arrival, namely, St. Ailbe of Emly, St. Declan of Ardmore, St. Ibar of Begery, and St. Kieran of Saigir; but it nevertheless appears extremely probable that these holy prelates were not the predecessors of St. Patrick in the Irish mission, although they may not have been his disciples, or have derived their authority from him.\*

It is not denied that some Irishmen eminent for holiness, and who flourished on the continent about this time, had received the light of Christianity either at home or abroad, before St. Patrick's preaching. St. Mansuetus, the first

\* Dr. Lanagan (Eccl. Hist. of Ireland, chap. 1.) has controverted with his usual learning the received no-

tion of the above-named four bishops having preceded St. Patrick's mission.



bishop of Toul, in Lorraine, and St. Sedulius, or Shiel, the author of some beautiful church hymns still extant, were of this number. The fact that Celestius, the chief disciple of the heresiarch Pelagius, was a Scot or Irishman, shows that Christianity was known in this island previous to St. Patrick. Before falling into heresy, Celestius resided in a monastery either in Britain or on the continent, and thence, as has been already stated, addressed to his friends in Ireland some religious essays or epistles that were highly lauded at the time.\* As to Pelagius, it is generally admitted that he was a Briton, and that the Latin form of his name was but the translation of his British name of Morgan. He was a lay monk, taught school at Rome, and imbibed from Rufinus, a Syrian priest, and disciple of Theodorus of Mopsuesta, the errors of that heresiarch on grace and original sin.

While the great apostle of Ireland was yet preparing himself for the mission to which tended all the aspirations of his heart, his friend St. Germain of Auxerre, under whose guidance and instruction he had placed himself for some years before his consecration, was sent, together with Lupus, another missionary, by Pope Celestine into Britain, to expel the Pelagian heresy from the church in that country, and it is conjectured that St. Patrick accompanied them on that mission. It is

also supposed, that it was in consequence of information obtained during that British mission on the destitute state of Ireland for want of Christian preachers, that St. Palladius, archdeacon of Rome, was immediately after (A. D. 431) sent by St. Celestine to Ireland as a bishop "to those believing in Christ;" namely, to the few scattered Christians we have alluded to; and to propagate the faith in that country. This mission, however, was unsuccessful. Palladius was repulsed by the people of Leinster and their king Nathi, and after erecting three small wooden churches, he embarked to return to Rome, and was driven by a storm on the coast of Scotland, where he died after having made his way as far as Fordun.

In entering upon an account of St. Patrick's life and mission, we are met at the threshold by a controversy about his birth-place. St. Fiech, a disciple of St. Patrick, and bishop of Sletty, wrote a metrical account of the apostle's life, known as Fiech's hymn, in which he states that the saint was born at Nemthur, which name a scholiast, who is believed to have been nearly contemporary with Fiech himself, explains by the name Alcluith, a place well known to the ancient Irish, and which became the Dunbritton or Dunbarton of modern times. The old traditions of Ireland point to this locality, or to some spot in its vicinity, as the birth-place

\* Gennadius de Script. Eccl., c. 44. The native country of Celestius is alluded to by St. Jerome in the Pro-

legomena to the first and the third books of his Commentaries on Jeremias.



of St. Patrick, and such was the idea received by Ussher, Colgan, Ware, and other eminent antiquaries of their times. Alcluith, at the time of St. Patrick's birth, was within the territory of Britain, the Picts being then on the north side of the Clyde, and by all the old authorities we find the saint called a Briton. Some statements assigning Wales or Cornwall as the birth-place of the Irish apostle, and others calling him a Scot, that is, an Irishman, are easily shown to have been erroneous; but another old tradition, which makes him a native of Armorica, or Brittany, has been of late generally received, and Dr. Lanigan has employed a great deal of learning and ingenuity to establish its accuracy. In his "Confession," St. Patrick says he was born at "Bonaven of Tabernia," which names it is impossible to identify as connected with any places in Britain or Scotland; while Dr. Lanigan argues with great probability that Bonaven is the present town of Boulogne (Bononia,) in that part of ancient Belgic Gaul which had at one time the sub-denomination of Britain, and which was also a part of the territory called Armorica, a word signifying in Celtic "the Sea Coast." The name Tabernia he shows to have been changed into the modern one of Terouanne, a city whence the district in which Boulogne is situated took its name \*

One thing quite certain is, that St.

Patrick was in various ways intimately connected with Gaul. His mother, Conchessa, is distinctly stated to have been a native of Gaul, being, according to some traditions, a sister or niece of St. Martin of Tours; and from Gaul, Patrick, when a youth of sixteen years of age, was carried captive into Ireland, in a plundering expedition of Niall of the Nine Hostages. His father was Calphurnius, a deacon, the son of Potitus, a priest, and their rank was that of Decurio, or member of the municipal council, under the Roman law. These men had entered into holy orders after the death of their wives, as it was not unusual at that time to do; or, as is stated to have occurred in the case of Calphurnius, the husband and wife separated voluntarily, and entered into religion. The apostle received in baptism the name of Succath, which is said to signify "brave in battle," and the name of Patrick or Patricius was conferred on him by St. Celestine as indicative of his rank.

There are various opinions as to the year of St. Patrick's birth, the most probable being that he was born in 387, and that in 403 he was made captive and carried into Ireland. Those who hold that he was born at Alcluith, or Dunbarton, account for his being made captive in Armorica by supposing that his father and family had gone into Gaul to visit his friends of Con-

\* There is another theory not worth mentioning, according to which St. Patrick was born at Tours; the word Nemthur being explained as "Heavenly Tours."

See Mr. Patrick Lynch's Life of St. Patrick. Dr. Lanigan is the only writer who explains all the names mentioned as applicable to his theory of Boulogne.



chessa. Be that as it may, the holy youth when carried into Ireland was sold as a slave in that part of Dalarradia comprised in the county of Antrim, to four men, one of whom, named Milcho, bought up their right from the other three, and employed the saint in attending his sheep, or, as some say, his swine. His sufferings were very great, as he was exposed to all the inclemency of the weather in the mountains; but he himself tells us that it was in this suffering he began to know and love God. He performed all his duties to his harsh master with punctuality, yet he found a great deal of time for prayer, and was in the habit of praying to God a hundred times in a day, and as many times at night, and that in the midst of frost and snow. After six years spent in this bondage, he was warned in a vision that the time had come for him to depart, and that a ship was ready in a certain port to take him to his own country. He rose up accordingly, and leaving Milcho, he travelled two hundred miles to a part of Ireland of which he had previously known nothing, and here he found the ship that had been indicated to him ready to sail. He was first rudely repulsed by the master of the vessel, but was at length taken on board, and after a voyage of three days reached shore, but only to find himself in a desert country, where the whole party were on the point of dying of hunger, until, through the prayers of Patrick, food was obtained; and ultimately, after a

journey of twenty-eight days, he reached his native place.

It is stated that St. Patrick suffered a second captivity, but of this little is known, except that it lasted for only sixty days; and we are led to conclude that about this time he resolved to enter the ecclesiastical state, and for that purpose went to study in the famous college or monastery of St. Martin, near Tours,—subsequently, when thirty years of age, placing himself under the direction of St. Germain of Auxerre. In or about this period the saint had a remarkable dream or vision, in which a man named Victoricius appeared, to present him with a large parcel of letters, one of which was inscribed, “The voice of the Irish;” and while reading it, St. Patrick thought he heard the cries of a multitude of people near the wood of Foclut, in the district now called Tirawley, in Mayo, saying: “We entreat thee to come, holy youth, and walk still amongst us.” The saint’s mind had been previously filled with a love of the Irish, and a desire for their conversion, and this vision fixed his attention more earnestly on that object.

There is some obscurity in this part of the Lives of the apostle, as he is represented as spending a great many years in study and religious retreat in Italy, and in some islands of the Mediterranean, especially Lerins; while, according to other accounts, he was constantly with St. Germain; but the probability is that he was all the time acting under the guidance of that illus-



trious master. At length, after much preparation, about the year 431, and within some very brief space after the departure of St. Palladius on his mission to Ireland, St. Patrick visited Rome, accompanied by a priest named Segetius, who was sent with him by St. Germain to vouch for the sanctity of his character and for his fitness for the Irish mission; and having remained a short time, and received the approbation and benediction of the holy pontiff, St. Celestine, then within a few weeks of his death, our apostle returned to his friend and master, St. Germain, at Auxerre, and thence to the north of Gaul, where, news of the death of St. Palladius being received about the same time, Patrick immediately was consecrated bishop by a certain holy prelate named Amato, in a town called Ebovia; Auxilius, Iserninus, and other disciples of St. Patrick receiving clerical orders on the same occasion. The apostle and his companions sailed forthwith for Briton, on their way to Ireland, where they arrived safely (A. D. 432), in the first year of the pontificate of St. Sixtus III., the successor of St. Celestine, and in the fourth year of the reign of Laeghaire,\* son of Niall of the Nine Hostages, king of Ireland.

Ireland, in its reception of the Christian religion, presents an example unique in the history of nations. "While in all other countries," observes an eloquent

writer, "the introduction of Christianity has been the slow work of time, has been resisted by either government or people, and seldom effected without lavish effusion of blood, in Ireland, on the contrary, by the influence of one zealous missionary, and with but little previous preparation of the soil by other hands, Christianity burst forth at the first ray of apostolic light, and with the sudden ripeness of a northern summer at once covered the whole land. Kings and princes, when not themselves among the ranks of the converted, saw their sons and daughters joining in the train without a murmur. Chiefs, at variance in all else, agreed in meeting beneath the Christian banner; and the proud druid and bard laid their superstitions meekly at the foot of the cross; nor, by a singular blessing of providence—unexampled, indeed, in the whole history of the Church—was there a single drop of blood shed, on account of religion, through the entire course of this mild Christian revolution, by which, in the space of a few years, all Ireland was brought tranquilly under the dominion of the Gospel."†

It is strange that even the glorious distinction thus referred to was made a charge against Ireland by a Christian writer; Giraldus Cambrensis asserting that "there was not one among them found ready to shed his blood for the church of Christ."‡ Whether the soil

\* This name, called in Latin *Lægarius*, is pronounced as if written Leray.

† Moore's History of Ireland, vol. i., p. 203.

‡ Topographia Hiberniæ, dist. iii., c. 28. Cambrensis holds the unenviable position of being at the head of the long list of the British calumniators of Ireland.



of Ireland was capable of producing martyrs after ages showed; but it must be observed that Christianity was not established in Ireland altogether without resistance, some of the pagan Irish having shown an inveterate hostility to its progress, and several attempts having been made on the life of St. Patrick himself.\*

St. Patrick first landed at a place called Inver De, which is supposed to be the mouth of the Bray river, in Wicklow; but having been repulsed by the inhabitants, he returned to his ship, and sailing towards the north, landed on the little island of Inis-Patrick, near Skerries, off the north coast of Dublin, where he made a short stay for the purpose of refreshing the crew and the companions of his voyage. He then resumed his voyage, and proceeded as far as the coast of the present county of Down, where, entering Strangford Lough, he landed in a district called Magh-inis, in the present barony of Lecale. On the appearance of the strangers an alarm was raised that pirates had arrived, and Dichó, the lord of that place, came at the head of his people; but the moment he saw the apostle he perceived that he was no pirate, and he invited the saint and his companions to his house, where, on hearing the true religion announced, he and all his family believed and were baptized. This was the first fruit of St. Patrick's mission in Ireland.

The apostle celebrated the Divine Mysteries in a barn belonging to Dichó, which was henceforth used as a church, and was called Sabhall Padruic, or Patrick's Barn, a name that has been still preserved in that of Saul. A church and monastery were afterwards founded there, and the place always continued to be a favorite retreat of St. Patrick's.

After a stay of a few days with Dichó, the apostle set out by land for the habitation of his old master, Milcho, who resided somewhere near Slieve Mis, in the present county of Antrim, then part of the territory called Dalaraida, in a portion of which dwelt a tribe of the Cruithnians, or Picts. Milcho's heart was hardened, and rather than allow St. Patrick to approach his house he set fire to it in a fit of passion, and was himself consumed in its ruins, together with his family, except, as some say, a son and two daughters, who subsequently became converts and embraced a religious life.

St. Patrick returned to Saul, and the next important event we meet is his journey by water, in the early part of the next year (A. D. 433), southward, to the mouth of the Boyne, where he landed at a small port called Colp, and thence set out, through the plain of Bregia, in the direction of the royal palace of Tara. On his way thither, he stayed a night in the house of a respectable man named Seschnan, who was converted and baptized, with his whole family, one of his sons receiving

\* O'Donovan's Four Masters, an. 432 (note).



from the apostle the name of Benignus, as indicating the gentleness of his manners. This holy youth attached himself from that moment to St. Patrick, and became famous in the history of the Irish Church as St. Benan, or Benignus, the successor of the apostle in the primatial see of Armagh.

The next day was Holy Saturday, and St. Patrick, on reaching the place now called Slane, caused a tent to be erected, and lighted the paschal fire about night-fall, preparatory to the celebration of the Easter solemnity. It so happened that the princes and chieftains of Meath were at this time assembled at Tara, with King Laeghaire, for the purpose of holding a pagan festival, which some writers suppose to have been that of Beltinne, or the fire of Bal or Baal, as the kindling of a great fire formed a portion of the rites;\* and as it was contrary to the law to light any fire, on that occasion, in the surrounding country until the fire from the top of Tara hill was first visible, the king became indignant on seeing the flame which the saint had kindled, and which his druids, who had, no doubt, ascertained who it was that had come into their neighborhood, told him would cause the destruction of his and their power if not immediately extinguished.

Accordingly, Laeghaire, with his druids, chieftains, and attendants went to ascertain the cause, and, on approaching the place, ordered the apostle to be brought before him, having first given directions that no one should rise, or show the stranger any mark of respect. When St. Patrick with his attendant priests appeared, notwithstanding the king's mandate, Erc, the son of Dego, rose to salute him, and was converted; and this Erc was subsequently bishop of Slane, where his hermitage is an object of interest to the present day. The result of the interview was an invitation to the saint to come next day to Tara, for the purpose of holding a discussion with the magi or druids; the king secretly resolving to place men in ambush who would murder the Christian missionaries on the way.

The scene which passed next morning—Easter Sunday—in the royal rath of Tara, was one on which it is impossible to reflect without a lively interest. The king, conscious of the treacherous preparations which he had ordered to be made along the road, could hardly have expected to see the strangers come, but was nevertheless seated in barbaric state in the midst of his satraps and nobles to receive them. St. Patrick, on his side, was not unaware of the pagan per-

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\* Dr. O'Connor (*Rer. Hib. Scrip.* vol. 1) labors to show that this festival was that of Beltinne or Bealtaine, and Dr. Petrie, in his *Essay on Tara Hill*, appears to adopt that view; but Dr. O'Donovan, in his remarks on the division of the year among the ancient Irish, in the introduction to the *Book of Rights*, proves that there is no

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authority for this opinion, and that in fact the fire of Beltinne was always lighted at the hill of Uisneach, in Westmeath. The festivity which Laeghaire was celebrating was probably that of his own birth-day, as is stated in the *Life of St. Patrick* in the *Book of Lis more*.



fidly practised against him, but placing his confidence in the protecting power of God, and chanting a solemn Irish hymn of invocation,\* which he composed for the occasion, he advanced at the head of his priests in processional order, along one of the five ancient roads that led to the top of the royal hill, where he arrived unharmed. The old authorities describe the appearance of the saint as characterized by singular meekness and dignity. He was always clothed in white robes, and on this occasion he wore his mitre, and carried in his hand the crozier called the staff of Jesus.† Eight priests who attended him were also robed in white, and along with them came the youthful Benignus, the son of Sechnan. Thus, confronted with the monarch and his druids, and objects of wonder to the pagan assembly, stood the illustrious apostle and his train of missionaries, come from afar to plant Christ's religion in Ireland. Here, as on the evening before, it had been arranged that no mark of honor should be shown to him; but, as on the previous occasion, there was one found to disobey the tyrant's instructions,—Dubtach, the arch poet, or head of the

bards of Erin, rising, and paying his respects to the venerable stranger. Dubtach was the first convert that day. St. Patrick became greatly attached to him, and his name is afterwards mentioned with honor.

Having soon silenced the druids in argument, the saint expounded the doctrines of Christianity to the monarch and his assembly, and made many converts; but notwithstanding some statements to the contrary, it appears certain that Laeghaire himself was not among these, but remained an obstinate pagan to the last. It is stated with more probability that the queen was converted on this occasion; and it also appears that St. Patrick made so favorable an impression even on Laeghaire, as to obtain from him permission to preach wherever he chose, on condition that he did not disturb the peace or deprive him of his kingdom.

From Tara St. Patrick repaired next day to Taitin, where the public games were commencing, and where he had an opportunity of preaching to a great assemblage of people, including, most probably, those whom he had met the day before at Tara; and he remained for a

\* This hymn is preserved in the celebrated *Liber Hymnorum*, a MS. in the Library of Trinity College, Dublin, and which Ussher pronounced to have been a thousand years old in his time. It is published with a translation and notes by Dr. Petrie, in his *Essay on the History and Antiquities of Tara Hill*, pp. 57, &c., of the Academy's Edition. This hymn, which is written in the *Bearla-Feine*, or language of the Brehon Laws, is a singular relic of ecclesiastical antiquity, and Dr. Petrie describes it as "the oldest undoubted monument of the Irish language remaining"

† This crozier is said to have been given to St. Patrick while secluded in an island of the Mediterranean, by some mysterious person who received it, for that purpose, from our Lord himself. The staff of Jesus was burned, along with several other sacred relics of the greatest antiquity, among the rest, a statue of the Blessed Virgin, in High-street, Dublin, in the year 1538, by order of George Brown, the first Protestant Archbishop of Dublin.—(See Ware's *Annals* · Dalton's *Archbishops*, &c.)



week, making many converts. On this occasion he was repulsed and his life threatened by Carbry, a brother of King Laeghaire; but another of the royal brothers, named Conall Creevan, was shortly after converted, and at his desire the apostle founded the church of Donough Patrick in Meath.\*

Such was the commencement of St. Patrick's mission, in which he continued to labor with unremitting zeal for more than thirty years. We shall not attempt to follow him through the intricacies of his many journeys into every part of Ireland, or to enumerate the number of churches which rose up everywhere in his track, and the multitude of holy pastors whom he prepared by his instructions and placed over them. The diversity of accounts given by his biographers and by other old authorities has involved the subject in much obscurity, which is increased by erroneous dates and doubtful topography; and to enter minutely into it would be impossible in a work of this nature.

The apostle preached for some time in the western part of the territory of Meath, and on this occasion proceeded

as far as Magh Sleaghta, in the present county of Cavan, where the idol Crom Cruach was worshipped, and by his prayers caused the destruction of that abomination and of the smaller idols by which it was surrounded. He then set out for Connaught, and when near Rath Cruaghan, he met at a well, whither they had come in patriarchal fashion to perform their ablutions, the princesses Ethnea and Fethlimia, daughters of King Laeghaire, who were there under the tuition of certain druids or magi, and who acquired from the saint at that meeting a thorough knowledge of the truths of religion, and subsequently took the veil in a nunnery which he established.† He then traversed almost every part of Connaught, preaching, as he did on all occasions, with the sanction of miraculous power, converting the people, and founding churches. He fasted during a Lent on the mountain in Mayo then called Cruachan Aichle, or Mount Eagle, and since known as Cruach Patrick. In the land of Tirawley ‡ he converted and baptized the seven sons of King Amalgaidh, together with twelve thousand people; this oc-

\* According to the Tripartite Life of St. Patrick, every church in Ireland of which the name begins with *Donough* was founded by that apostle; and they were so called because the saint marked out their foundations on a Sunday, in Irish *Domhnach*. (*Trias Thaum.*, p. 146.) The Conall mentioned above became a great friend of the apostle's; but when he wished to enter the church as an ecclesiastic, St. Patrick told him that his vocation was to be a military man, adding that although he was not to be a churchman he would be a defender of the Church; and the holy prelate thereupon marked on Conall's shield the figure of a cross with his crozier, and

the shield was ever after called *Sciath-Bachlach*, or the shield of the crozier. (*Trias Thaum.*, 142; also Jocelyn, c. 138.) Dr. O'Donovan says this is the earliest authentic notice he has found of armorial bearings in Ireland.

† St. Patrick tells us in his "Confession" that a great number of women embraced a religious life in Ireland, notwithstanding the harsh opposition which they often encountered from their unconverted parents.

‡ Tirawley (Tir-Amhalghaidh) was so called from the Amhalghaidh or Awley, son of Fiachra, son of Eochy-Muivone, and king of northern Connaught, whose sons were converted by St. Patrick on this occasion.



currence taking place not far from the wood of Foclut, whence the voices inviting him to Ireland appeared to come in the vision which he had in Gaul. After seven years thus spent in Connaught, he passed by a northern route into Ulster, and there made many converts, especially in the present county of Monaghan; meeting, however, as was also the case in Connaught, several repulses, accompanied sometimes with danger to his life.

Returning into Meath, St. Patrick appears to have appointed, about this time, his nephew, St. Secundinus, or Sechnal, who was bishop of the place which has been called after him Domnach-Sechnail, or Dunshaghlen, to preside, during his own absence in the southern half of Ireland, over the northern churches, the see of Armagh not having been yet founded.\* The apostle then directed his steps southward, and visited several parts of Leinster, making numerous converts, and laying the foundations of churches wherever he went. He placed his companions, bishops Auxilius and Isserninus, the former at Killossy, near Naas, and the latter at Kilcullen, both in the present county of Kildare. In the territory of Hy-Kinsellagh, comprising parts of the counties of Wexford, Kilkenny, and Carlow, he visited his friend, the poet Dubtach, who introduced to the saint his disciple, Fiech, who was already

acquainted with Christianity, and was admitted into the ecclesiastical state by the apostle.

This Fiech was subsequently the holy bishop of Sletty, in the Queen's county, with jurisdiction over all Leinster, and to him the famous metrical life of St. Patrick, known as *Fiech's Hymn*, is attributed. He was the first Leinster man who was raised to the episcopacy.

A. D. 445.—After passing through Ossory, where he converted great numbers of people, and founded many churches, St. Patrick entered Munster, and bent his steps towards the royal city of Cashel, whence King Aengus, the son of Natfraich, who had already obtained a knowledge of Christianity, came forth to meet him, receiving him with the utmost veneration. At this king's baptism an incident occurred which is often mentioned as an interesting example of fortitude. The pastoral staff which the saint carried terminated at the bottom in a spike, by which he could fasten it erect in the ground, and it appears that on this occasion he planted it inadvertently on the king's foot, which it penetrated. Aengus bore the wound without the slightest movement, supposing that it was a part of the ceremony, and being, no doubt, animated at the moment with an ardent feeling of devotion. This good king, in the course of a long reign, afforded ma

\* See the interesting account of St. Sechnal, and the hymn which he composed in honor of St. Patrick, in the

first fasciculus of the *Liber Hymnorum*, edited by the Rev. Dr. Todd for the Archaeological and Celtic Society



terial aid to the cause of religion in this part of Ireland.\*

The apostle spent seven years in Munster, visiting various parts of Ormond and the territories corresponding with the present counties of Limerick, Kerry, Cork, Waterford, and Tipperary, receiving everywhere vast multitudes into the fold of Christ. A great number of people from Corca Baiscin, the southwestern part of Clare, crossed the Shannon in their curaghs, or hide-covered boats, when the saint was on the southern side, in Hy-Figeinte, and were baptized by him in the waters of that mighty river; and at their entreaty the apostle then ascended a hill which commanded a view of their country, and gave his benediction to the whole territory of the Dalcassians.†

It was probably during St. Patrick's stay in Munster, that a British prince, Caroticus, who, although nominally a Christian, was a pirate and a very wicked man, made a descent on the south-eastern coast of Ireland, and carried off a number of Christian captives who had just received baptism, for the purpose of selling them as slaves to pagans in North Britain. This outrage elicited from the saint a pastoral, or circular epistle, still extant, in which he pro-

nounced excommunication against Caroticus, and stigmatized him with the odium which he deserved. We may also presume that it was about the time of his return from Munster, and while visiting a territory now comprised in the King's county, that a certain pagan chieftain named Failge formed a plan to murder the apostle, which, coming to the knowledge of Odran, the saint's charioteer, this good man managed to change seats with St. Patrick, and thus received the fatal blow that was intended for his master. Odran was the only martyr who suffered death for the faith at the hands of an Irishman, during the conversion of this country from paganism.

About the year 455, St. Patrick founded the see of Armagh, and the remaining years of his life he passed between that city and his favorite retreat of Saul, in the county of Down, at which latter place he died, according to the Annals of Ulster, the Four Masters, Ussher, Ware, and Colgan, on the 17th of March, A. D. 493, but according to the very ably argued inference of Dr. Lanigan, in A. D. 465. The duration of his mission in Ireland was, according to this latter opinion, thirty-three years, while, according to the former, it would

\* Dr. Lanigan calculates with much probability that Aengus had not yet succeeded his father at the time of his baptism, and that he was, therefore, only taniste, or heir apparent, of Munster; he was, at all events, still very young at the time of St. Patrick's visit.

† There can be no doubt that the hill from which the apostle gave his blessing to the territory of Thomond, or Clare, is that now called Cnoc Patrick, near Foynes

Island. The local traditions are quite positive on the subject; and it answers, besides, the conditions of situation and purpose, and is the only hill in view of Clare with which the name of St. Patrick is associated. In the prose Life of St. Senanus, translated by Colgan from the Irish, its site is particularly described, but both there and in the Tripartite Life of St. Patrick, it is called the Hill of Findine, a name now obsolete.



have been about sixty years, and his age, which the old authorities represent as 120 years, is reduced to 78 years by Dr. Lanigan's process of reasoning. His obsequies continued for twelve days, during which the light of innumerable tapers seemed to turn night into day, and the bishops and priests of all Ireland congregated together on the occasion. A fierce contest ensued between the people of Down and Armagh for the possession of his sacred remains, but it was finally settled by his body

being deposited in Down, while a portion of the holy relics were conveyed to his metropolitan church of Armagh.\*

Thus was the faith planted in Erin by St. Patrick, and from that day to the present it has never failed. In this respect Ireland has been exempt from the changes which so many other countries have undergone; and a large and interesting portion of our history will relate to the struggles which that steadfastness entailed upon her.

## CHAPTER IX.

Civil History of Ireland during St. Patrick's Life.—The *Seanchus Mor*.—King Laeghaire's Oath and Death.—Reign of Oilioll Molt.—Branches and Greatness of the Hy-Niall Race.—Reign of Lughaidh.—Foundation of the Scottish Kingdom in North Britain.—Falsification of the Scottish Annals.—Progress of Christianity and absence of Persecution.—The First Order of Irish Saints.—Great Ecclesiastical Schools.—Aran of the Saints.—St. Brigid.—Her great Labors.—Her Death.—Monastic tendency of the Primitive Church.—Muircheartach Mac Earca and Tuathal Maelgarbh.

(A. D. 432 TO A. D. 538).

FEW events are recorded in the civil history of this country during the period of St. Patrick's mission; the most remarkable being the revision of the laws of Ireland, and the compilation of the *Seanchus Mor*, or great book of laws, in the year 438. The annalists say that three kings, three Christian

\* Each of the events in the life of our Apostle, briefly narrated in the text, has been made a subject of discussion among antiquaries and hagiologists; but we have given what we deemed the most reasonable results without the arguments. Nor have we entered into the controversy respecting the existence of other saints of the same name, as Sen-Patrick, or Patrick Senior, who was venerated on the 24th of August; or the Abbot Patrick, who was buried and subsequently venerated at Glastonbury; or St. Patrick of Auvergne. Whether some of the acts of one of these saints may have been attributed

to another of them, would involve an inquiry unsuited to our pages. It is enough that the identity of our Apostle and of the leading events of his life have been established beyond the reach of all doubt. Those who would enter more deeply into the subject, are referred to Colgan's *Trias Thaumaturga*; Messingham's *Florilegium*; O'Sullivan's *Decas Patriciana*; Harris's Ware's Irish Bishops; Lanigan's Ecclesiastical History of Ireland; Keating's History of Ireland; Mageoghegan's History of Ireland; Lynch's Life of St. Patrick; Petrie's History of Tara Hill, &c., &c.



bishops, of whom St. Patrick was one, and three bards or antiquaries, conducted this revision; but this account is obviously a poetic figment.\* It is probable that as soon as the Christian religion began to prevail extensively in Ireland, a modification of the ancient pagan laws became necessary; and also, that St. Patrick himself, assisted by a converted bard, may have laid the foundation of such revision, his name being subsequently employed to give it a sanction; but it is plain that the apostle did not sit on a committee for the purpose with pagan kings, even if his authority had been so recognized at the time assigned for the event.† Fragments of the Seanchus Mor are still preserved in the manuscript library of Trinity College, and in the British Museum, and the entire work is known to have existed at least as late as the 12th or 13th century.

It has been erroneously stated by some old writers that St. Patrick purified the annals as well as the laws of Ireland; and this probably led to the assertion that he destroyed a large number of the druidical books which had been delivered to him. O'Flaherty gives this statement on the authority of the eminent antiquary, Duaid MacFirbis, and mentions it to account for the ignorance in which we are left of the religion of the pagan Irish;‡ but

nothing has been discovered in the writings of MacFirbis to justify O'Flaherty's reference to his authority.

King Laeghaire waged war against the Leinster men to enforce payment of the Borumean tribute, and in the year 453 he is said to have gained a battle over them; but this success was followed, in A. D. 457, by a defeat at Athdara, on the river Barrow, where he was made prisoner, being afterwards liberated on swearing by "the sun and moon, water and air, night and day, sea and land," that during his life he would not again demand the tribute. This was the old pagan oath; and from its use, as well as from other circumstances, it is concluded that Laeghaire had not, up to that time, embraced Christianity. In the next year, regardless of his engagement, he made an incursion into Leinster, and carried off a prey of cattle for the tribute; and as he was struck dead by lightning, or died in some sudden manner while returning home, the bards say that he was killed by the sun and the elements for breaking the oath which he had taken on them.

A. D. 459.—Oilioll Molt, son of Dathi, and who had been king of Connaught,§ succeeded as monarch, and, according to the Four Masters, celebrated the Feis, or great feast and convocation of Tara, in 463, and again in 465, which is probably a double entry of the same event,

\* This conclusion may be justly disputed, as St. Patrick necessarily associated with pagans in many transactions of that time. Daire was still a pagan when he bestowed Ard-Macha on the apostle long afterwards.

† Petrie's "Tara Hill," p. 79.

‡ Ogygia, part iii., c. 30, p. 219.

§ Ogygia, part iii., c. 93, p. 429.



as these meetings were not held so frequently. Nothing certain is known of the religion of this prince, but it is presumed that he lived and died a pagan, as his successor certainly did.

Two men, remarkable as the ancestors of some of the most celebrated clans mentioned in subsequent Irish history, died in this reign, namely, Conall Gulban, and Eoghan, sons of Niall of the Nine Hostages; the former of whom was the ancestor of the Kinel-Connell, or race of Conall, that is, of the O'Donnells and their correlative families in Firconnell; whilst from the latter are descended the Kinel-Owen, or O'Neills, and some other families of Tyrone. All of the race of Niall come under the great tribe-name of Hy-Niall; but the illustrious families we have mentioned, that is, the O'Neills and O'Donnells, descendants of Eoghan and Conall Gulban, are styled the northern Hy-Niall, to distinguish them from the southern Hy-Niall, who were descended from Conall Creevainn, another son of Niall of the Nine Hostages, as the O'Melagh-lins, &c., who were located in Meath. Of Conall Gulban, who received his surname from Benbulbin, formerly called Ben Gulban, in Sligo, where he was fostered, and whose exploits rank with those of the Ossianic heroes, the annalists tell us that he was slain by

the "old tribes of Magh Slecht," that is, by descendants of the Firbolgs who occupied the district in the present county of Cavan where the idol Crom Cruach was worshipped, while he was returning from a predatory excursion with a great prey of horses; and they say that Eoghan died of grief for his brother and was buried at Eskaheen in In-nishowen.

A. D. 478.—Oilioll Molt, after a reign of twenty years, was slain in the battle of Ocha, by Lughaidh or Lewy, the son of Laeghaire, who was too young at his father's demise to compete for the succession, and who now obtained the crown by the aid of a strong confederacy of provincial kings and toparchs. The battle of Ocha forms an epoch in this period of Irish history, and took place, according to the Annals of Ulster, A. D. 482 or 483. Lughaidh died an inveterate pagan, having, after a reign of twenty-five years, been killed by a thunderbolt while uttering some blasphemy at the sight of a church erected by St. Patrick, at a place called Ach-adhfarcha, or the field of lightning, near Slane. In his reign, Aengus, the good king of Munster, and his queen Eithne were killed in battle, at a place now called Kelliston, in the county of Carlow;\* and St. Ibar, of Beg-Erin, one of the four bishops who are said to have

\* "This Aenghus, who was the first Christian king of Munster, is the common ancestor of the families of Mac Carthy, O'Keeffe, O'Callaghan, and O'Sullivan."—O'Donovan; *Four Masters*, anno, 489 (note).

The *Four Masters* record the death of St. Patrick

under the date of 493, adding that he was then 122 years old; that he had erected 700 churches, consecrated 700 bishops, and ordained 3,000 priests. Dr. Lanigan, however, shows very clearly that no reliance is to be placed on these dates and numbers.



been in Ireland before St. Patrick, died A. D. 500.

A. D. 503.—The foundation of the kingdom of Scotland by a colony from Ireland, is set down by most chronologists under this date.\* It has been already mentioned in the reign of Conaire II., towards the close of the second century of the Christian era, that a colony of Scots was led into Alba or Albany by Carbry-Riada, from whom the Dalriads both of Antrim and Scotland took their name. Notwithstanding the opposition of the Picts, they still retained their footing in their new territory, but did not receive much aid from Ireland until the period at which we have now arrived. At this time, however, after a defeat by the Picts, who drove them from the country, a strong force of the Irish Dalriads, under the leadership of Loarn, Aengus, and Fergus, the three sons of Erc, son of Eochadh Muinramhair, invaded Alba, and gradually subjugating the Picts, established the Scottish monarchy. Muirheartach or Murtough, who succeeded Lughaidh as king of Ireland, was a relative of the sons of Erc, his mother being Erca, the daughter of Loarn; and he stimulated the adventurers in their enterprise; as some say,

sending the Lia Fail, or stone of destiny, to Scotland, in order that his kinsman, Feargus, might be crowned upon it with all the traditional solemnity.† It is remarkable that the present reigning family of England owes its right to the throne to its descent, through the Stuart family, from these Irish Dalriads. From that people also North Britain derives its name of Scotia or Scotland; a name which, from the first mention we find of it in the third century, was, for several hundred years, exclusively applied to Ireland; while, on its being at length given to the country acquired by the Scots in Alba, Ireland was still for a long time called Scotia Magna, to distinguish it from the lesser Scotland, and its people termed Hibernian Scots, those of the latter country being called Albanian or British Scots.‡ The Scottish colony in Britain was at first confined to the Western Highlands, now called Argyle, and to the islands; and it was only in the year 850 that the Picts were finally subdued by Keneth MacAlpin, who was the first king of all Scotland, and who removed the seat of power to Scone, in the southern part of that country.

On the subject of this settlement of

\* The event is entered by the Four Masters at the year 498; but Dr. O'Donovan shows from the authority of Tighernach and of Flan of Monasterboice, that the true date of the Dalriadic invasion was most probably A. D. 506.

† Ogygia, part i., p. 45

‡ Ireland was known by many names from very early ages. Thus, in the Celtic it was called Inis-Fail, the isle of destiny; Inis-Ealga, the noble island; Fiodh-Inis, the woody island; and Eire, Fodhla, and Banba. By the

Greeks it was called Ierne, probably from the vernacular name of Eire, by inflection Erin; whence also, no doubt, its Latin name of Juverna; Plutarch calls it Ogygia, or the ancient land; the early Roman writers generally called it Hibernia, probably from its Iberian inhabitants, and the later Romans and mediæval writers, Scotia and sometimes Hibernia; and finally its name of Ireland was formed by the Anglo-Normans from its native name of Eire.



the Scottish race in North Britain, one of the most remarkable impostures ever attempted in the history of any country was successfully practised, and passed current for several centuries. The original records of Scotland were wholly destroyed by Edward I. of England, when he overran that country in the year 1300, for the purpose, if possible, of obliterating by their destruction the nationality of the people: but before the close of the same century a new account of the history of Scotland was given to the world; a long series of Scottish kings, who never had any existence, being coined to fill up an interval of some hundred years before the time of Fergus, the son of Erc, mentioned above. The first name on the purious list was also Fergus, and the real person of that name was, therefore, called Fergus II.; and in support of the fictitious catalogue a great many statements were invented, and were adopted by subsequent Scottish historians. Finally, Macpherson, the forger of Ossian, carried the fraud so far, although it had been rejected by the Scottish antiquary, Father Innes, as to assert that North Britain was the original Scotland, and Ireland only the colony, with no title to the name of Scotia, and consequently that all the ancient saints and celebrated persons who are called Scots by foreign writers, were really natives of the modern Scotland. It may be easily imagined that such an assumption, put forward in the face of the most positive evidence, and repeated by

scores of able writers, century after century, almost up to the last generation, was very provoking to Irish historians, and that an angry and protracted controversy was the result. All that has been written on the subject is now, however, so much waste-paper, as the ancient fraud has been long since abandoned, and the true history of the relation between the two countries is received in Scotland as well as in Ireland.

From the meagre records of the civil history of the period, we turn with pleasure to the accounts of the great religious change which was then passing in Ireland, and which was entirely independent of the course of civil events. While pagan kings still ruled at Tara, surrounded by their druids, and still upheld at least the semblance of their ancient superstition, Christian bishops were preaching in every corner of the land; Christian churches, although of humble dimensions, everywhere appeared; monasteries and nunneries sprung up in many places; Christian schools, which were destined in a little while to shed a lustre on all Europe, began to fill with students; and above all, a host of saints, who became the wonder of after ages, diffused throughout Ireland an odor of holiness. To this age belonged the first and most perfect of the three orders of Irish saints, mentioned in the old catalogue published by Usher and Father Fleming, and whose characteristics are described in the prophetic vision which St. Patrick is said



by some of his biographers to have had, when Ireland first appeared to the apostle as if enveloped in a flame, then the mountains only seemed to be on fire, and finally there was only a glimmering, as it were, of lamps in the valleys. All the disciples and attendants of St. Patrick have obtained places in the calendar of the ancient Irish Church; and it is probable that almost all those who received ordination at his hands, or who first ministered in the Church of Ireland, have merited the same honor; so intense was the devotion with which the Irish people opened their whole hearts to the faith of Christ, and so abundant was the grace which flowed everywhere from the preaching of their great apostle. Nor should it be forgotten as a proof of the existence of a humanized state of society in Ireland, notwithstanding its feuds and wars, that this great movement was allowed to advance without any attempt on the part of the pagan princes to impede it by persecution. It is argued, indeed, that if there had been any thing very gross or sensuous in the paganism of the Irish, as in that of other nations, the triumph of Christianity among them would not have been so easily accomplished.

Among the great ecclesiastical schools or monasteries founded in Ireland about this time, were those of St. Ailbe of Emly, of St. Benignus of Armagh, of St. Fiech of Sletty, of St. Mel of Ardagh, of St. Mochay of Antrim, of St. Mochtheus of Louth, of St. Ibar of Beg-Erin,

of St. Asicus of Elphin, and of St. Olcan of Derkan. To this same fifth century, which Colgan calls the golden age of the Irish church, belongs the foundation of the celebrated monastic institutions of Aran of the Saints, by St. Enda, or Endeus. This holy Archimandrite, who was of a noble family of Oriel, obtained the island of Aranmore, at the entrance to Galway bay, from Aengus, the king of Munster, through the interposition of St. Ailbe, and founded there those primitive communities who lived in groups of monastic cells or cloghans, of which the traces are still to be seen in many parts of the island. Aran, the Iona of Ireland, became for the next couple of centuries the resort of several of the Irish saints, and of holy men from other countries, who repaired to it for the purpose of practising extreme penitential austerities; and an ancient biographer of St. Kieran, founder of Clonmacnoise, described it as a place in which there lay the remains of "innumerable saints, unknown to all save Almighty God alone."

Of St. Ailbe, the great bishop of Emly, it is related that after many years of arduous labor in converting the people from paganism, and establishing the Church in his diocese, he was about to retire into solitude, and to fly for that purpose to Thule, or Iceland when he was respectfully coerced by King Aengus to remain in Ireland where he died in 525.

But of all the Irish saints of the first century of Christianity in this country



the highest position, next to that of St. Patrick himself, is unanimously yielded to St. Brigid. This extraordinary woman belonged to an illustrious race, being lineally descended from Eochad, a brother of Conn of the Hundred Battles, monarch of Ireland in the second century, and was born about the year 453, at Fochard, to the north of Dundalk, where her parents, although a Leinster family, and therefore belonging to Leath Mogha, or the southern part of Ireland, were then sojourning. As she was remarkable for sanctity from her childhood, it is possible that she had become known to St. Patrick, by whom her biographers say she was baptized. She received the veil from St. Maccaille, in one of the earliest convents for religious women founded in Ireland, and her zeal for establishing nunneries was exercised throughout her life with wonderful results. She travelled into various parts of Ireland for this purpose, being invited by many bishops to found religious houses in their dioceses: and at length the people of Leinster became jealous of her attention to the other provinces, and sent a deputation to her in Connaught entreating her to return, and offering land for the purpose of founding a large nunnery. This was about the year 480, or shortly after; and it was then that she commenced her great house of Kildare, or the Church of the Oak, which soon became the most famous and extensive nunnery that has ever existed in Ireland. A bishop was appoint-

ed to perform the pontifical duties connected with it, an humble anchorite named Conlaeth being chosen for that office; and the concourse of religious and pilgrims who flocked to it from all quarters, soon created in the solitude a city which became the chief town of all Leinster. The vast numbers of young women and pious widows who thronged round St. Brigid for admission into her convent, present a singular feature in a country just emerging from paganism and the identity of that monastic and ascetic form which Christianity, in all the purity and fervor of its infancy, thus assumed in Ireland, as in all other countries, with the form which it has continued to retain, in all ages, in the Catholic Church, must strike every student of history. St. Brigid has been often called "The Mary of Ireland;" a circumstance which shows, not that the primitive Irish Christians confounded her with the Mother of Our Lord—a silly mistake which some modern writers have thoughtlessly attributed to them—but that they felt that the most exaggerated praise which they could bestow upon their own great saint was to compare her with the Blessed Virgin.\* One of the most distinguishing virtues of St. Brigid was her humility. It is related that she sometimes attended the cattle on her own fields; and whatever may have been the extent of the land bestowed upon her, it is also certain

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\* See first part of the *Liber Hymnorum*, edited by Dr Todd for the Archæological and Celtic Society.



that a principal source of subsistence for her nuns was the alms which she received. The habit of her order was white, and for centuries after her time her rule was followed in all the nunneries of Ireland.

The Four Masters record the death of St. Brigid at the year 525; and according to Cogitosus, one of her biographers, her remains were buried at the side of the altar, in the Cathedral Church of Kildare, and not, as some late traditions have it, in the same tomb with the apostle of Ireland in Downpatrick.

During the first years of the sixth century the galaxy of holy persons whose sanctity shed such effulgence on the dawn of Christianity in Ireland was gradually disappearing, to be succeeded by the no less brilliant constellations of the second and third centuries of the Irish Church. Many of the venerable bishops who had received consecration from the hands of St. Patrick were still

alive, and had the happiness to see the religion of Christ on the throne of Tara, and firmly established in all the provinces. Muircheartach MacEarca, who succeeded Lughaidh, the son of Laeghaire, A. D. 504, was the first Christian monarch of Ireland. He was, however, engaged in perpetual warfare, fought several bloody battles with the Leinster men to enforce that most oppressive and unjust of imposts, the Borumean tribute, and ultimately was drowned in a butt of wine, into which he had thrown himself to escape from the flames of his house at Cletty, near the Boyne. Descended from Niall of the Nine Hostages, by his son Eoghan, he belonged to the race of northern Hy-Nialls, but on his death (A. D. 528) the crown reverted to the southern Hy-Nialls, in the person of Tuathal Maelgarbh, grandson of Cairbre, by whom St. Patrick had been persecuted. Tuathal reigned eleven years, and was killed treacherously by the tutor of his successor.



## CHAPTER X.

**Fast Visitation of the Buidhe Chonnaill.—Reign of Diarmaid, son of Kerval.—Tara cursed and deserted.—Account of St. Columbkille.—Persecution of the Saint by Diarmaid.—Battle of Cuil Dremni.—Foundation of Iona.—Reign of Hugh, son of Ainmire.—Convention of Drumceat.—Battle of Dunbolg.—Deaths of Saints.—Feuds of the Northern and Southern Hy-Nialls.—Battle of Magh Rath.—The Second Buidhe Chonnaill.—Remission of the Borumeen Tribute.**

*Contemporary Events.*—The Justinian Code promulgated, A. D. 529.—The Flight of Mahomet, A. D. 622.—The Saxon Hierarchy established.—The Saxons converted to Christianity.—Conquest of Gaul by the Franks.—Kingdom of the Vandals destroyed, A. D. 532.—The Visigoths in Spain.—The Lombards in Italy.

(THE SIXTH AND SEVENTH CENTURIES.)

A TERRIBLE and mysterious pestilence marks the year 543 as an epoch in our history, “an extraordinary universal plague,” as the old annalists express it, “having prevailed throughout the world, and swept away the noblest third part of the human race.” This plague is called in the Irish annals *Blefed*, or *Crom Chonnaill*, or *Buidhe Chonnaill*, names implying a sickness which produced yellowness of the skin, resembling in color stubble or withered stalks of corn, which in Irish were called *Connall*.\* It appears to have been general throughout Europe, originating in the East; and in Ireland, where it prevailed for about ten years, it was preceded by dearth, and followed by leprosy. Several saints and other eminent per-

sons were swept off by this plague in Ireland; St. Berchan of Glasnevin, also called Mobhi Clarineach, or Movi of the Flatface, and St. Finnen of Clonard, who, from the multitude of holy persons among his disciples, was called the preceptor of the saints of Ireland, being among its first victims.

Diarmaid, son of Feargus Kerval, of the southern Hy-Niall race, was Ard-righ of Ireland during this period, having succeeded Tuathal Maelgarbh, in 538, and reigned at least twenty years. He is highly praised by some Irish writers for his spirit of justice, but this quality was not unaccompanied by faults, and his reign is marked by several misfortunes. Notwithstanding the pestilence which was desolating the

\* See the accounts of this pestilence collected from ancient records by Dr. Wilde in his Report on the Tables of Deaths in the Irish Census for 1851, where he gives,

on the authority of Mr. Eugene Curry, as above, the first explanation that has been afforded of the name of the sickness.



country, domestic wars and dissensions were not suspended. Diarmaid waged war against Guaire, king of Connaught, probably to enforce payment of a tribute; although it is stated that the monarch's object was to chastise Guaire for an alleged act of injustice, which is quite inconsistent with the character for piety and fabulous generosity which this latter king bears in Irish history. Diarmaid was the last king who resided at Tara. He held the last feast or convention of the states there in the year 554; and shortly after that date, owing to a solemn malediction pronounced on the place by St. Rodanus of Lothera, in Tipperary, in punishment for the violation of the saint's sanctuary by the king, the royal hill was deserted. No subsequent king dared reside there, but each selected his abode according to the dynasty to which he belonged. Thus, the princes of the northern Hy-Niall family resided in the ancient fortress of Aileach, near Derry; and the southern Hy-Niall kings lived at one time at the Rath, near Castlepollard, now called Dun-Turgeis, from having

become the residence of the Danish king Turgesius, and subsequently at Dun-na-Sciath, on the margin of Lough Ainninn, now Lough Ennell, near Mullingar. Thus, thirteen hundred years ago, the royal raths of Tara were condemned to desolation, although, even yet, their venerable traces have not been effaced from the grassy surface of the hill.\*

The crowning misfortune of Diarmaid's reign appears, however, to have been his hostility to St. Columbkille, and the unhappy consequences resulting from it; and this subject leads us to an account of one of the most illustrious persons of whom we read in the history of Ireland.

St. Columba, or, as he is generally called, Columbkille, that is Columba-of-the-church, was born in Gartán, a wild district of the county of Donegal, about the year 518 or 521, and was connected with the royal families of Ireland and British Dalriada.† On leaving his fosterage, Columba commenced his studies at Movill, at the head of Strangford Lough, where he became a pupil of the

\* Keneth O'Hartigan, who died in 1775, described the Hill of Tara as even then a desert, overgrown with grass and weeds. Among the ancient remains which have been identified by Dr. Petrie on the royal hill of Tara, by the aid of such venerable Irish authorities as the Dinneaneus, the poems of Cuan O'Lochain and others, are—the Rath na Riogh, or rath of the kings, which embraces within its great external circumvallation the ruins of the house of Cormac, the rath called Foradh, and the Mound of the Hostages; the Rath of the Synods, near which were the Cross of Adamnan, and the Mound of Adamnan, the latter being now effaced; the Teach Michuarta, or great banqueting hall; the Mounds of the Heroines, or women-soldiers; the Rath of Grainne, the faithless wife of Finn MacCoul; the Triple Mound of

Nesi, the mother of Conor MacNesa; the rath of king Laeghaire, in which St. Patrick preached; and the Well of Neavnach, the stream of which turned the first water-mill, erected by Cormac MacArt, in the third century.—(See *Petrie's Essay on the History and Antiquities of Tara Hill*.)

† St. Columba's father, Fedlime, was the grandson of Conall Gulban, son of Niall of the Nine Hostages, and (by his mother Erca) grandson of Lorn, one of the sons of Erc, who planted the Dalriadic colony in Scotland; and the saint's mother, Ethnea, was descended from Cathair Mor, king of Ireland, A. D. 120, and was thus of the royal race of Leinster. Such being the saint's parentage and connections, it is no wonder that his name should be mixed up in the state affairs of his time.



famous bishop St. Finnian; and from this seminary, when in deacon's orders, he proceeded to Leinster, where, after remaining some short time with an old bard named German, he entered the monastery or college founded by another St. Finnian at Clonard. Thence he proceeded to the monastery of Mobhi Clarainach at Glas Naoidhen, the present Glasnevin, near Dublin; but this community being broken up by the pestilence, which carried off its principal, in 544, he returned to the north, having previously been ordained priest by the bishop of Clonfad. Already Columba was distinguished, not only for talent and learning, but for extraordinary sanctity; and some miracles are said to have been performed by him before this time. In 545 or 546 he founded the monastery of Doire-Chalgaigh, the Derry of modern times, and about the year 553 laid the foundation of his great monastery of Darnagh, now Durrow, in the King's county, the chief house of his order in Ireland.\* The battle of Cooldrevny, which is popularly said to have taken place on his account, as we shall presently see, was fought, according to the Annals of Ulster, in 561; and two years after, being then forty-two years of age,

he left Ireland, accompanied by twelve chosen disciples, for the island of Hy, or Iona, which was given to him by his relative, Conall, the king of the Albanian Scots,† and which became the seat of one of the most celebrated monastic institutions of Northern Europe, and the head of his order. From this St. Columba proceeded on missionary journeys with his monks into the country of the Picts, whom he converted to Christianity.‡ Innumerable miracles are related of him, and even without these marks of divine favor, the account which is left to us by his biographer, St. Adamnan, of his singular holiness and many exalted qualities, is sufficient to enrol his name on the calendar as that of a great saint. St. Columba is regarded as the apostle of both the Picts and Scots of North Britain, although the latter had brought with them some knowledge of Christianity from Ireland, and he has shared with St. Patrick and St. Brigid the honor of being the joint patron of his native country. Iona for a long time furnished missionaries and bishops for many parts of Britain, and its monks took a leading part in the conversion of the Saxons, supplying the Saxon Church with many prelates and priests, for at least

\* The name *Doire* signifies an "Oak wood" (*Roboretum*), and that of *Darnagh* signifies the "Plain of the Oak," *Campus Roborum*, as Bede (*Hist. Eccl.*, Lib. iii. c. 4) translates it.

† Bede and the Saxon chronicle say that Iona belonged to the Picts when St. Columba came there.

‡ When he first went to announce the faith to the Pictish king Brude, he was refused admission to the interior of the royal fort; but at the saint's command

the gates miraculously flew open, and the king, filled with wonder at the event, came forth to receive him and was converted by his preaching. It is a remarkable circumstance, noticed more than once in the lives of the saint, that when he preached to the Picts he employed an interpreter to explain his words, thus showing that the Picts and Scots were not identical in race and did not speak the same language.



a couple of centuries. This relation between pastors and their spiritual children produced the friendly feeling of the Irish towards the Saxons of which Venerable Bede makes mention; and when the Christian Britons, in their hatred of their Saxon conquerors, refused to preach Christianity to them, or hold any communion with them after their conversion, their Scottish or Irish neighbors willingly performed that Christian duty for them. Aidan, king of the Scots of Britain, came to St. Columba in Iona to be inaugurated; and the saint having received instructions from heaven in a vision to perform the ceremony, anointed and blessed him; this being the first recorded instance, not only in these countries, but in Europe, of the Christian ceremony of anointing kings at their inauguration. In Ireland, forms handed down from pagan times remained still in use, while the kingdom of the Scots in Albion, commencing under Christian auspices, was more suited for a new order of things.\*

As to the quarrel with the king of Ireland and the battle of Cooldrevny, various circumstances are related by the old annalists, which show a degree of animosity against the saint on the part of the king. It is stated that St. Columbkille copied a portion of the sacred Scripture from a book which had been lent to him by St. Finnen,

without having the permission of the latter to do so. At that time a book was a most important object, and a discussion arising on the subject, King Diarmaid was chosen arbitrator, and decided against St. Columbkille, giving the copy as well as the book to St. Finnen, and assigning, as a ground for his unjust judgment, the maxim that "the calf should follow the cow." Another opportunity of showing Diarmaid's ill-feeling towards Columba presented itself about the same time. At the last assembly at Tara, already mentioned, a dispute took place between Curnan, a son of the king of Connaught, and another person, in which the latter was killed. Curnan fled for refuge to Columbkille, but Diarmaid dragged him from his sanctuary, and, notwithstanding the intercession of the saint, got him instantly put to death. It is said that St. Columba upon this threatened the king with the vengeance of his relatives, the Hy-Nialls of the north; but this is scarcely probable, as the saint endeavored to effect his escape, which Diarmaid tried to prevent, ordering the frontiers of Meath to be watched. Columba first retired to Monasterboise, and then made his way across the hills into Oriel; and with the provocation which had been offered, it must have been easy to stir up the hot blood of the warlike clans of Tirconnell, Tyrone, and Connaught. St. Columba may only have related what occurred, and then prayed for the success of his friends when they went to battle. Moreover,

\* See Adamnan's Life of St. Columba, edited for the Archæological and Celtic Society, by Dr. Reeves of Balymena. Also Colgan's Trias Thaumaturga.



as Cooldrevny, or Cuil-Dremni, the site of the battle, was in Carbury, to the north of Sligo, the very position of the armies would show that Diarmaid was all through the aggressor. This king's ideas of religion may be conjectured from the fact that he had druids in his camp, and trusted to their magic for success; but he was vanquished, with a slaughter of 3,000 of his men, while the army which was protected by the prayers of St. Columba came off with scarcely any loss.\* A large number of the clergy of Meath were induced by the representations of Diarmaid to hold a synod at Teltown for the purpose of excommunicating St. Columba; but St. Brendan of Birr, St. Finnian of Moville, and other eminent ecclesiastics who were present, protested against their proceedings, and the object of the synod was not carried out. It is said that battles were fought about the year 580 or 587, in which St. Columba also felt an interest; but the allusions to them are very obscure. His departure from Ireland was voluntary, and he returned there some years after to attend the convention of Drumceat, and to visit his house of Durrow, and St. Kieran's famous monastery of Clonmacnoise. He died in Iona, about the year 597 (the

Four Masters erroneously have it 592), in the 77th year of his age and the 35th year of his pilgrimage to that island.

On the death of Diarmaid, who was killed (A. D. 565) by Black Hugh, a prince of the Pictish race of Dalaradia, against whom both the northern and southern Hy-Nialls waged war, Ireland was ruled by two kings, reigning jointly, as frequently happened in subsequent times.

After some short and unimportant reigns, Aedh, or Hugh, son of Ainmire, came to the throne, and reigned twenty-seven years. By him was summoned, in 573, the great convention of Drumceat, the first meeting of the States of Ireland held after the abandonment of Tara.† The leading members of the clergy attended, and among them was St. Columbkille, who came from Iona for the purpose, accompanied by a great number of bishops and monks; the saint, although a simple priest, taking precedence of all the prelates of North Britain, in his capacity of Apostle or founder of the Church in that country. The king was friendly to St. Columba, being of the same family, but some of his court had little welcome for the saint, and a mob was employed

\* After this battle the copy of St. Finnen's book was restored to St. Columba.

† This manuscript," says Dr. O'Donovan, "which is a copy of the Psalter, was ever after known by the name of *Cathach* (Præliator).

It was preserved for ages in the family of O'Donoghue, and has been deposited in the Museum of the Royal Irish Academy, by Sir Richard O'Donnell, its

present owner."—(Four Masters, an. 555, note, and an. 1497, note.)

† The name of Drumceat is translated *dorsum Cete*—"The Whale's Back." The place where the synod, or convention, was held was a long mound in Roe Park, near Newtown Limavaddy, now called the Mullagh, and sometimes Daisy-hill.—(Ordnance Survey of Londonderry)



to insult his clergy. Partly, however, through the veneration in which he was held, and partly by the terror of the wonders which it pleased God to work by his hands among the rude people whom he taught, the saint induced King Hugh and his convention to decide as he recommended. One of the points to be settled concerned the relations between the Scottish colony of Alba (of which the king Aidan, St. Columba's friend, was present) and the mother country; and the saint, foreseeing the wars to which this matter would give rise, prevailed on the king of Ireland to abandon his claims against Alba, thus establishing the independence of the Scottish colony, and severing it forever from the mother country. Another question related to the immense number of bards, or, according to others, of idle, worthless persons under the name of students, with which the country was incumbered. The king wished to get rid of them altogether by a sweeping measure; but St. Columba induced him to adopt the wiser and more moderate course of merely diminishing their number, and limiting it for the future by certain rules.

A. D. 594.—Hugh Ainmire, while endeavoring to enforce that perpetual plague of ancient Ireland, the Leinster tribute, was killed in battle at Dunbolg,\* or the fort of the bags, a place so

called from a memorable circumstance connected with it. Bran Dubh, then king of Leinster, finding his army on this occasion unequal to that of the monarch in point of numbers, had recourse to stratagem, and entering Hugh's camp disguised as a leper, he spread a report that the Leinster men were prepared to submit, and were in fact coming with provisions and presents for the king's army. In the dusk of the evening a vast number of bullocks laden with leathern bags were seen approaching, and the drivers being challenged by the sentinels, announced that they were coming with provisions for the army of the king of Ireland; and this statement bearing out the story of the pretended leper, they were allowed to enter the camp, and to deposit their burdens without further inquiry until morning. Each bag, however, contained an armed man, and in the course of the night the chosen band thus introduced into the camp fell upon their enemies, and the slaughter lasted until morning, when the monarch was killed by Bran Dubh himself, and the remnant of his army put to flight. Thus was the Borumean tribute forfeited for that occasion. In the year 597 the annalists mention "the sword-blows of Bran Dubh in Bregia," showing that he had carried hostilities into the territory of Meath; but in four years after we find him crushed by the combined power of the Hy-Niall races at the battle of Slaibhre, where he was defeated; and after the battle he was

\* Now Dunboyke, near Hollywood, in the county of Wicklow.—O'DONOVAN.



treacherously killed by one of his own tribe, the herenach, or hereditary warden of Senboth-Sine.\*

The Irish annals, about this time, record the deaths of several holy persons. Thus, St. Brendan of Birr died in 571; St. Brendan of Clonfert, who in his seven years' voyage in the Western Ocean is believed to have been the first European discoverer of America, died at Enach Duin, or Annadown, near Lough Corrib, in the county of Galway, in 577; St. Canice, or Cainnech, to whom Kilkenny owes its origin and its name, died in 598; St. Kevin of Glendalough, who is said to have reached the age of 120 years, died in 617.

The Hy-Niall dynasty had now for a long time enjoyed the sovereignty of Ireland, but as the northern and southern branches of the race were almost constantly engaged in wars against each other, their broils lowered the position and weakened the power of the monarch. In process of time the southern Hy-Nialls, or Meath family, fell greatly in the estimation of the country, while of the northern Hy-Nialls it must be said, that whatever were the faults of some of their princes, they always maintained a character for the most chivalrous bravery. About this time, two kings who ruled the island jointly were murdered by Conall Guthvin, a prince of the southern Hy-Nialls; and the indignation of the country was so excited

by the crime, that his family was excluded from the throne of monarch for several generations. Congal Caech, king of Ulidia, of the Rudrician line, also drew upon himself public abhorrence by the crime of murder. He killed the reigning sovereign, Suivne Meann (A. D. 623), and was vanquished in the battle of Dunkehern, the following year, by Suivne's successor, son of Hugh Ainmire, and obliged to fly into Britain, where he remained nine years, and where he ingratiated himself so well with Saxons, Britons, Picts, and Albanian Scots, as to secure their aid against his countrymen.

Congal began (A. D. 634) the fatal game of introducing foreign auxiliaries into Ireland, and of showing them the weakness to which factions were capable of reducing his native country. It so happened, however, that in this instance there was no weakness displayed. Donnell, the reigning monarch of the northern Hy-Niall race, was able to muster an army capable of meeting the invading force together with Congal's own Ulidians, and in the battle which ensued, and which was renewed for six successive days, Congal's combined forces were almost annihilated and he himself slain, so that the remnant of his foreign auxiliaries found it difficult to escape back to their respective countries. This was the great battle of Magh Rath, or Moyra, in the county of Down, one of the most famous and important conflicts mentioned in the ancient annals of Ire-

† New Templeshanbo, at the foot of Mount Leinster, in Wexford



land.\* St. Adamnan laments the part which Donnell Breac, then the king of the Albanian Scots, took in that war, combining as he did with foreigners to invade the country of his ancestors, and, by breaking the bond between them, paving the way to future calamities for both countries.

A. D. 656.—This year commenced the second visitation of the *Buidhe Chonnaill*, which had ravaged the country a little more than a hundred years before, and which on the present occasion is said to have swept away two-thirds of the whole population. It was ushered in by a total eclipse of the sun the preceding year; and as at its former visit, it continued for about ten years, making its appearance about the beginning of August each year. After the year 667, this sickness is not again mentioned in the Irish annals. An improbable fable is related by some annalists to account for this visitation. It is said that the population had become so dense that food enough could not be produced by the entire soil of the country; and that, apprehending a famine, the rulers invited the clergy to meet together and pray that the lower class, or “inferior multitude,” might be thinned, lest all of them should starve. The displeasure of heaven was intimated through an angel, and the pestilence was sent to sweep away the higher as well as the lower classes. The two joint monarchs

of Ireland, the kings of Ulster and Munster, and many other persons of rank, were among its victims; and we read also that it carried off several abbots and holy personages, as St. Fechin of Fobhar, St. Ronan, St. Aileran the Wise, St. Cronan, St. Manchan, St. Ultan of Clonard, and others. Another St. Ultan, bishop of Ardbraccan, collected the infants who had been deprived of their mothers by the plague, and caused them to be fed with milk through the teats of cows, cut off for the purpose. This is the first instance we have of an hospital for orphan children founded in Ireland. Venerable Bede describes the ravages of the pestilence at the same time in Britain, and in doing so bears most interesting testimony to the learning, enlightened generosity, and hospitality of Ireland. He says:—“This pestilence did no less harm in the island of Ireland. Many of the nobility and of the lower ranks of the English nation were there at that time, who, in the days of bishops Finan and Colman, forsaking their native land, retired thither, either for the sake of divine studies, or of a more continent life. The Scots (that is, the Scoti of Ireland) willingly received them all, and took care to supply them with food, as also to furnish them with books to read, and their teaching, gratis.”†

Finnachta Fleadhach, or the Hospitable, who began his reign in the year

\* See the ancient historic tale of the Battle of Magh Rath, translated and edited by Dr. O'Donovan, for the Irish Archaeological Society, 1842.

† All the authorities on this pestilence are collected by Dr. Wilde, in his Report on the Tables of Deaths, pp. 49, &c., Census of 1851.



673. rendered his name memorable by yielding to the prayers and representations of St. Moling, and remitting the Borumean tribute, which he had just succeeded in forcing from the Leinster men in a bloody battle. After this act of piety and generosity we are not surprised to find, by the Annals of Ulster, that Finnachta in the same year (687) abdicated, and embraced a religious life. In the year 684 an army sent by Egfrid, the Saxon king of Northumbria, made an unexpected and unprovoked descent on the Irish coast, and laid waste the rich lands of Bregia, that is, the territory extending between the Liffey and the Boyne, sparing neither churches nor

monasteries in their sacrilegious plunder, and carrying off a great number of the inhabitants as slaves to Britain. Venerable Bede denounces and laments this act of rapine, and attributes the defeat and death of King Egfrid, the following year, in an expedition against the Picts, to the just vengeance of heaven for this aggression.\* St. Adamnan, the celebrated abbot of Iona, went on a mission into Northumbria, on the death of Egfrid, to reclaim the captives who had been taken from Ireland the preceding year. He was received with great honor, performed many miracles, and his application was granted without difficulty.†

\* Bede thus describes the event:—"In the year of our Lord's Incarnation 684, Egfrid, king of the Northumbrians, sending Berctus, his general, with an army into Ireland (Hiberniam) miserably wasted that inoffensive nation, which had always been most friendly to the English (*nationi anglorum semper amicissimam*); inso-much that in their hostile rage they spared not even the churches or monasteries. The islanders, to the utmost of their power, repelled force with force, and imploring the assistance of the Divine mercy, prayed long and fervently for vengeance; and though such as curse cannot possess the kingdom of God, it is believed that those who were justly cursed on account of their impiety did soon after suffer the penalty of their guilt from the avenging hand of God; for the very next year that same king, rashly leading his army against the Picts, . . . . was drawn into the straits of inaccessible mountains, and

slain, with the greater part of his forces, in the fortieth year of his age, and the fifteenth of his reign."—*Ecclesiastical History*, lib. iv., c. 26.

† The dates of several of the events mentioned in this chapter are thus fixed in the *Leabhar Breac*, or Speckled Book, an Irish MS. preserved in the Royal Irish Academy:—"33 years from the death of Patrick (493) to the death of Bridget, in her 70th year (523); 36 years from the death of Bridget to the battle of Cuil Dremni (559); 35 years from the battle of Cuil Dremni to the death of Columbkille, in the 76th year of his age (594); 40 years from the death of Columbkille, to the battle of Moira (637); 25 years from the battle of Moira to the (second) Buidhe Chonaill (662, *recte* 663); 25 years from the Buidhe Chonaill till Finachta, son of Maelduin, son of Aedh Slaine, remitted the Boru to Moling (687)."





## CHAPTER XI.

The Primitive Church in Ireland.—Its Monasticism.—Its Missionary Character.—St. Columbanus, his Life and Labors.—Foundation of Bobbio.—His Letter to the Pope.—Unity with Rome.—St. Gallus.—St. Aidan and the Church of Lindisfarne.—St. Colman.—The Paschal Controversy.—National Prejudices of the Irish.—Sectarian Misrepresentation.—Synod of Old Leighlin.—Saint Cummian.—Conference of Whitby.—Innisbofin.—Saint Adamnan.—“The Law of the Innocents.”—Saint Frigidian.—Saint Degan.—Saint Livinus.—Saint Fiacre.—Saint Fursey.—Saint Dicuil.—Saint Killian.—Saint Sedulius the Younger.—Saint Virgilius.—SS. Foilan and Ultan.—Saint Fridolin “the Traveller.”—Clemens and Albinus.—Dungal.—Donatus.—Irish Missions to Iceland.

SCARCELY was Ireland thoroughly converted to Christianity, when, as already observed, great monastic schools began to spring up in various parts of the country. The most celebrated of them, after that of Armagh, were Clonard, in Meath, founded early in the sixth century by St. Finan, or Finian; Clonmacnoise, on the banks of the Shannon, in the King's county, founded in the same century by St. Kieran, called the Carpenter's Son; Bennchor, or Bangor,\* in the Ards of Ulster, founded by St. Comgall in the year 558; and Lismore, in Waterford, founded by St. Carthach, or Mochuda, about the year 633. These, and many other Irish schools, attracted a vast concourse of students, the pupils of a single school often numbering from one to three thousand, several of whom came from Britain, Gaul, and other countries, drawn hither by the reputation for sanctity and learning which Ireland enjoyed throughout Europe. The course of instruction embraced all branches of knowledge as it then existed, and more especially the study of the Holy Scriptures; and as the students were not only taught, but supported gratuitously, their numbers became so burdensome to the country—whose hospitality indolent laymen often abused, under the pretext of seeking after knowledge—that legislation on the subject became necessary so early as the synod or convention of Drumceat (A. D. 575).

The number of monasteries, the extent to which religious education was carried, but, above all, the fervor which characterized the early ages of the Irish Church, had the effect of filling Ireland with holy ascetics, living either in com-

\* This celebrated monastery and school, of which all that now remains is the churchyard, was situated on the south side of Lough Laigh (Stagnum Vituli), now Bel-

fast Lough, in the county of Down, and must not be confounded with the place of the same name in Wales.



munities or in total solitude; so that scarcely an island round the coast or in the lakes of the interior, or a valley, or any solitary spot, could be found which, like the deserts of Egypt and Palestine, was not inhabited by fervent cœnobites and anchorites. In the lives of some of these holy persons who thus peopled the wild tempest-beaten rocks round the Irish coast, it is not unusual to read of others again who were found occasionally tossed on the waves in the frail boats of that period, "seeking," as the phrase was, "for a desert in the ocean;" and when, at length, they came to a resting place on earth, they only looked upon it as their "*locus resurrectionis*"—the place where their ashes should await the day of the resurrection. It was an age of simplicity and fervor, and may well be called the golden age of Ireland; for while barbarian swarms were inundating Europe, each wave of desolation plunging the nations over which it passed in social chaos and demoralization, Erin was engaged in prayer and study, and the general gloom of Europe only made her light shine the more brilliantly by the contrast, and enhanced her glorious distinction as the "Island of Saints."

As soon as religion had been thus matured by sacred study in the schools, and by divine contemplation and penitential discipline in the cloisters and in

the cells and caves of anchorites, it quickly assumed a more active development, for which the Irish mind exhibited an equally happy adaptation. We refer to the missionary career of the Irish Church, which dates from the time of St. Columbkille. A few Irish men prior to that epoch were engaged in the diffusion of Christianity in other countries, but it was only then that the missionary duty may be said to have been taken up by them with a steady and organized zeal. We have seen how St. Columba himself preached Christianity to the Picts. For that purpose he often crossed from Iona into Albion; and passing the *Dorsum Britannicæ*, or Grampian Hills, accompanied by his monks, travelled into the northern regions of that country. After his death (A. D. 597), his institution of Iona, and his other monasteries in those parts, continued to be supplied with Scottish monks from Ireland, who were the ordinary missionaries of the Picts and British Scots;\* their mission being extended still further south, when they were invited into Northumberland in 635 by king Oswald, and founded there the diocese and Columbian monastery of Lindisfarne.

The great father, however, of Irish foreign missions into countries beyond Britain, was St. Columbanus.† This illustrious saint was a native of Leinster,

\* The Scottish colony in North Britain, owing to various causes, does not appear to have devoted much attention either to religion or learning for a long time after this period and hence are the unfounded assumptions

of Dempster, and modern Scotch writers, in claiming all the celebrated Scots of those early ages as their own countrymen, the more absurd.

† The name of this saint is sometimes written Colum



and was of noble extraction. He was born about the year 539, studied under St. Comgall in Bangor, and, according to the most probable account, left Ireland in the year 589, accompanied by twelve other monks, for Gaul, passing through Britain, where he made only a brief stay. The former country being then in the possession of the Franks, we may call it by its modern name of France. Here our Scottic missionaries having penetrated into the territory which formed the kingdom of Burgundy, then ruled by King Thierry, or Theodoric, they (A. D. 590) founded the monastery of Luxovium, or Luxeuil, in the midst of a forest at the foot of the Vosges, where St. Columbanus established the rigid discipline of his native country, as he had received it from his master, St. Comgall. The fame of our countryman's sanctity soon spread to a distance, and the concourse of those who came to join his order, or to seek instruction, was so great that he was obliged, in a short time, to establish another monastery, to which he gave the name of Fontaines. Religion having been totally neglected under the barbarian sway of the Franks, the active zeal and rigorous life of the Irish monks strangely contrasted with the lax and torpid Christianity of all classes of the population by whom they were surrounded; and in denouncing the prevalent vices, our saint did not spare those

of King Theodoric himself or of his demoralized court. This zeal drew upon him the wrath both of the king and of the evil-minded queen dowager, Brunehault, and St. Columbanus became an object of relentless persecution. The privileges originally conceded to his monasteries were withdrawn, and his rule for excluding the laity from the interior of the cloisters having given offence, the king went himself, accompanied by a retinue of nobles, to intrude forcibly into the sacred inclosures. Having penetrated some distance, however, Theodoric became terrified at the prophetic denunciation of the saint, and desisted, contenting himself with ordering St. Columbanus to leave the country, and permitting only the Irish and British monks to accompany him.

A. D. 610.—The heroic Scot refused to leave his beloved monks unless torn from them by force; whereupon a company of soldiers were sent to carry out the tyrant's orders, and St. Columbanus was dragged from his cloister at Luxeuil, where he had spent twenty years, and conveyed with those monks who were allowed to share his fortunes as far as Nantes, where an attempt to ship them off to Ireland having been, as it would seem, miraculously frustrated, they were permitted to go at large.

St. Columbanus then repaired to the court of Clothaire, king of Soissons, by whom he was entertained in the most friendly manner. Thence he passed through the territory of Theodobert,

ba; and he has been often confounded, especially by foreign writers, with the great Apostle of the Picts and founder of Iona.



king of Austrasia, who, although the brother of Theodoric, treated our saint with the utmost kindness and distinction; and ascending by the Rhine into the country now called Switzerland, he there found that the population, who were Alemanni, had relapsed into idolatry, and that the Christian churches were converted into temples for idols. St. Columbanus preached here in different places, and sojourned for a year at Bregentz, at the southeastern extremity of the lake of Constance, where he left one of his Irish disciples, St. Gallus, or Gall, who was then sick, setting out himself with the remainder of his companions for Italy.

A. D. 613.—In the third year after his expulsion from the Vosges, St. Columbanus arrived at Milan, where he was received in the kindest manner by Agilulph, king of the Lombards, and his accomplished queen, Theodolinda. He was permitted to choose a site for a monastery, and selected for that purpose a place in the Apennines called Bovium or Bobbio, where he founded a great monastery, and built near his church an oratory dedicated to the Blessed Virgin. By this time his friend Clothaire had become king of all France, having seized the dominions of Theodoric after the death of the latter, who had only just before slain his brother Theodobert and taken his kingdom. St. Columbanus was thereupon pressingy invited by Clothaire to return to Luxeuil; but he declined, and contented himself with transmitting his

advice for the government of his old monasteries, where his rule continued to be strictly adhered to.

St. Columbanus found Northern Italy in a state of schism, owing to a theological controversy, known as that of the "Three Chapters;" and he was prevailed on by King Agilulph to write to Pope Boniface on the subject. The free tone of this epistle, so consistent with the unflinching character of the man, as well as with the spirit of those rude times; and also our saint's unaltered adherence to the mode of computing Easter, and to the form of liturgy which he had learned in his own country, and which had been introduced there by St. Patrick, are particularly dwelt on by those who wish to draw a distinction between the religion of the ancient Irish and that of Rome; but the attempts to show any such distinction are utterly fruitless. The discrepancies on points of discipline were only such as might have existed without detriment to the unity of the Church; and St. Columbanus, as well as every other Irish ecclesiastic who visited the continent of Europe in those early ages, found himself in the most perfect unison in matters of faith with the Church of Rome, that is, with the Universal Christian Church of that age. St. Columbanus told the Pope, "that although dwelling at the extremity of the world, all the Irish were disciples of SS. Peter and Paul, receiving no other than the evangelical and apostolical doctrine; that no heretic, or Jew, or schismatic, was to be found



among them, but that they still clung to the Catholic faith, as it was first delivered to them by his (the Pope's) predecessors, that is, the successors of the holy apostles; that the Irish were attached to the chair of St. Peter, and that although Rome was great and renowned, it was only on account of that chair it was so with them. Through the two apostles of Christ," he added, "you are almost celestial, and Rome is the head of all churches, as well as of the world." \*

St. Columbanus died at Bobbio, on the 21st of November, 615, at the age of 72 years; and his memory is still highly venerated both in France and Italy. In the latter country his name is preserved in that of a small town in the district of Lodi, called from him S. Colombano. From his writings it is obvious that he was acquainted with Greek and Hebrew, besides being an accomplished scholar in other respects; and as he did not leave his own country until he was about fifty years of age, and was afterwards occupied constantly in active duties, we may infer that he acquired all his knowledge in the schools of Ireland.†

We have seen that Gallus or Gall,

one of the disciples of St. Columbanus, was left in Helvetia, being prevented by sickness from accompanying his master. He was an eloquent preacher, and being acquainted with their language, a dialect of that of the Franks which he had acquired in Burgundy, he evangelized the Alemanni, and is called their apostle. He died on the 16th of October, about the year 645, in the 95th year of his age; and over his ashes rose a monastery which became the nucleus, first of an important town, and then of a small State, with the rank of a principality, called after the holy Irish monk. It was not until the year 1798 that the abbey lands of St. Gall, as the territory was called, were aggregated to the Swiss Confederation as one of the cantons. The old abbey church is one of the chief attractions in the city of St. Gall, and for the Irish traveller there are many objects of interest there in the relics of his ancient national literature and piety, and in the various associations with his country. The life of St. Gall was written by Walafrius Strabus, a writer of the ninth century.

A. D. 635.—Meanwhile St. Aidan, a monk of Iona, chosen by his brethren as a missionary for Northumbria, on the

\* The letters and other writings of St. Columbanus that have been preserved may be seen in Fleming's *Collectanea*, and in the *Bibliotheca Patrum*, tom. 12, ed. 1677. Some of them are published in Ussher's *Sylloge*.

† The Benedictines, in the *Hist. Litteraire de la France*, say:—"The light which St. Columbanus disseminated, by his knowledge and doctrine, wherever he presented himself, caused a contemporary writer to compare him to the sun in his course from east to west; and

he continued after his death to shine forth in numerous disciples whom he had trained in learning and piety." See also Muratori, *Annali di Ital.*, ad an. 612, where he describes the monastery of Bobbio as one of the most celebrated in Italy; Fleury, *Hist. Eccl.*, Liv. xxxvii., and all writers who have treated of the religious and literary history of Europe during the period in question. The life of St. Columbanus was written by Ionas, an Irish or British monk, the contemporary of some of the saint's disciples.



invitation of King Oswald, who had been for some time a refugee in Ireland, converted the Saxons of that country to Christianity, and established the see of Lindisfarne, of which he was the first bishop. He was accompanied by many of his countrymen on this mission. A monastery of the Columbian order was founded at Lindisfarne, and Irish masters were also obtained to instruct the children of the Northumbrian nobles in the rudiments of learning. St. Aidan, A. D. 651, was succeeded by St. Fintan or Finan, another Irishman and monk of Hy, who sent missionaries to preach the Gospel to the Middle and East Angles, and consecrated as first bishop of the former, and also of Mercia, Diuma, an Irishman, who was succeeded by another Irishman, named Kellach. St. Fintan, who died about the year 660, was succeeded, as bishop of Lindisfarne, by his countryman St. Colman; so that the church of the northern Saxon kingdoms was for a long time, at that period, almost wholly in the charge of Irish ecclesiastics. Colman was deeply involved in the controversy about the celebration of Easter, which had for some time been a subject of anxious discussion in Ireland and Britain; and as the question holds a prominent place in the history of the Irish Church of that age, it is necessary to enter into a brief explanation of it here.

It must be premised that a wide difference existed between the practice with regard to Easter as upheld so long in Britain and Ireland, and that which

formed a matter of dispute some centuries before with the churches of the East. A question arose in the very infancy of Christianity, whether the Christian Pasch should be solemnized, like that of the Old Law, on the fourteenth day of the moon which falls next after the vernal equinox, whatever day of the week that might be; or whether it should not always be observed on a Sunday, the day which our Lord had consecrated by His resurrection. The former practice was invariably disapproved of in the Western Church, and was condemned in the Council of Nice (A. D. 325); and a few churches of Mesopotamia, which persisted in it, and which were besides infected with Nestorianism, were consequently pronounced heretical. This constituted the Quarta-deciman heresy; but in the Catholic Church there still remained some obstacles to uniformity in the computation of Easter. Thus, while at Alexandria, which had the best astronomers, the cycle of nineteen years was employed for ascertaining the moon's age, the old Jewish cycle of eighty-four years continued to be received for a long time at Rome; and a difference of opinion also prevailed as to whether Easter-day should be held on the fourteenth of the moon when it fell on Sunday, or on the next succeeding Sunday; but these and some other details were finally adjusted between Rome and the principal churches of the East; the main point thus settled being that the fourteenth day should under no circumstances be



taken for Easter. General harmony now prevailed on the subject throughout Europe and the East, when it was found that the insulated Scottish (that is, Irish) Church still adhered to the old practice that had been introduced by St. Patrick, and that, apparently quite unaware of the discussion on the subject which had formerly agitated the rest of the world, and had been long since disposed of, the Irish clergy still celebrated Easter on the fourteenth day, if that day happened to be Sunday, and were only acquainted with the antiquated cycle of eighty-four years which St. Patrick had been taught to use in his time, both in Gaul and Rome, but which had been since laid aside for a computation of greater scientific accuracy.

Veneration for the customs of their fathers has always been a characteristic of the Scottic race. In this case they held on to the tradition of the great saints who planted Christianity in their country, and enriched it with their virtues, and no arguments could for a long time convince them that a usage sanctified by Patrick, Brigid, and Columkille, was erroneous. They were certainly guilty of obstinacy, and for that they deserve no praise. It is amusing to observe how little weight either

science or authority had with them against the tradition which they held from those whom they loved and venerated; but there cannot be a greater perversion of the truth than to pretend that this usage of the Irish Church indicated an Eastern origin, or an essential negation of conformity with Rome, seeing that that very usage had been brought from Rome itself. This point is important, as gross misrepresentation has been practised on the subject. Perfect uniformity, even in matters of discipline, was desirable; and a diversity of practice, from which it often followed that while some were still observing the fast of Lent, others in the same community or household were chanting the alleluias of Easter, was most objectionable; but the Irish and their brethren of Britain could not be brought for some time to yield up an old custom for the sake of uniformity in such matters; while on the other hand, their adherence to that custom did not exclude them from the unity of the Catholic Church, or prevent some of its warmest advocates, such as St. Columbanus, who wrote a strong letter on the subject to St. Gregory, from ranking as saints in the Roman martyrology.\*

A. D. 630.—This year, in consequence of an admonitory letter from Pope

\* It is a remarkable fact that thus, some two hundred years after the preaching of St. Patrick, no point of difference could be found between the faith and discipline of the Church of Ireland and the faith and discipline of the Church of Rome, except this slight one of the computation of Easter, and that of the tonsure, or mode of shaving the heads of the monks; a pretty conclusive

evidence that whatever the religion of Rome was in the sixth and seventh centuries, such was also the religion of Ireland found to be at the same period; and it is humiliating to find some writers at the present day so blinded by sectarianism as to assert the contrary, and to pretend that the religion which St. Patrick brought into Ireland was not the religion of the Western Church.



Honorius I., a synod was held by the Irish clergy at Lena or old Leighlin, to consider the paschal question. St. Lase-rian advocated the Roman practice, and St. Fintan Munnu, the Irish one; and both, it will be observed, are saints of the Catholic Church. It was decided that messengers should be sent to Rome to consult "the head of cities," and the ecclesiastics so deputed brought back word, after three years' absence, that the Roman discipline was that of the whole world. From the date of this announcement (633), the new Roman cycle and rules for Easter were received in the southern half of Ireland, embracing with Munster the greater part of Leinster, and part of Connaught. The attachment of the Columbian monks to the old practice still retarded the adoption of the correct one in the northern half of Ireland; and it was nearly a century after when the wrong method of finding Easter was finally abandoned by the community of Hy. St. Cum-mian, who belonged to the Columbian order, embraced the Roman custom at the synod of 630, and addressed a learned epistle to the abbot and monks of Hy, in vindication of himself, and of the practice of the Universal Church;\* and a few years after the clergy of Ulster addressed a letter to the Holy See, which was received there a little before the death of Pope Severinus, and was replied to by the Roman clergy while

the see was vacant; but the admonition of these latter on the Easter question appears to have had no effect upon their Scottish correspondents.

Such was the state of the controversy when it was renewed with increased vehemence in Northumbria, at the time (A. D. 664) that Colman succeeded Finan in the see of Lindisfarne. A conference was held that year at Whitby, at which kings Oswin and Alfrid presided; St. Wilfrid, a learned Saxon bishop, advocating the Roman observance, and St. Colman with the Irish clergy supporting their own national practice, while St. Ceadda, bishop of Mercia, and an adherent of the Scots, acted as interpreter between the parties.

The proceedings of this conference were most interesting, and resulted in a decision against St. Colman's usage; the kings and the bulk of the assembly declaring in favor of St. Wilfrid. St. Colman consequently resigned the see of Lindisfarne, and taking with him all the Irish and about thirty of the English monks of his establishment, he withdrew to the remote island of Innisbofin, or the "island of the white cow," off the western coast of Ireland, where he founded a monastery for his Irish monks, building another shortly after for his English followers on the plain of Mayo, called on that account Mayo-of-the-Saxons. He him-

\* This celebrated letter is published in Ussher's *Sylloge*; and its style and the learning it displays are

highly creditable to the venerable Irish ecclesiastic by whom it was written.



self resided in Innisbofin, until his death, in the year 676.\*

A. D. 684.—It was related at the close of the preceding chapter how Egfrid, king of Northumbria, sent an army on a piratic excursion into Ireland, to gratify, as it is believed, his private resentment; his brother Alfred having sought refuge in Ireland from his treachery, and been hospitably received there.† The next year, or the following one, Alfred succeeded him on the throne; and it was then (A. D. 685 or 686) that St. Adamnan, the ninth abbot of Hy, who is celebrated not only for his sanctity, but as the accomplished biographer of the great St. Columba, was sent into England to recover the captives and property of which Ireland had been plundered. Adamnan's mission to the friendly court of Alfred was most successful; and he appears to have repeated his visits there more than once in after years. This holy and learned abbot was one

of the most strenuous promoters of the new paschal computation, which he succeeded in introducing into the northern parts of Ireland, although his own monastery of Hy persisted in declining it for some years longer. In the year 697, he proceeded to Ireland from Hy, and took part in a synod or legislative council, held at Tara, which place, although it had ceased to be a royal residence, was still occasionally used as the seat of legislation. On this occasion he procured the enactment of a law, which was called the Canon of Adamnan, or the "Law of the Innocents," and sometimes "the law not to kill women."

It was usual amongst the pagan Irish, as we have seen, for women to go with the men to battle; but as we generally read of one woman being killed by another, it is probable that the female combatants of opposite armies encountered each other. This barbarous custom may have fallen partially into disuse after the conversion of the country

\* Venerable Bede (Ec. Hist., b. iii., chap. 25) gives a detailed account of the important conference of Whitby. Describing, in the following chapter, the departure of St. Colman and the Irish monks from Lindisfarne, he pays them the following tribute, which may be received as applicable to the Irish monks in general of that period: "The place which he (Colman) governed, shows how frugal he and his predecessors were, for there were very few houses besides the church found at their departure, indeed no more than were barely sufficient for their daily residence: they had also no money, but only some cattle; for if they received any money from rich persons they immediately gave it or the poor; there being no need to gather money to provide houses for the entertainment of the great men of the world; for such never resorted to the church except to pray and hear the word of God. . . . For the whole care of those teachers was to serve God, not the world—

to feed the soul, and not the stomach." And again (b. iii., chap. 27)—"During the time of Finan and Colman, many nobles and others of the English nation were living in Ireland, whither they had repaired either to cultivate the sacred studies, or to lead a life of greater strictness. Some of them soon became monks; others were better pleased to apply to reading and study, going about from school to school through the cells of the masters; and all of them were most cheerfully received by the Irish, who supplied them *gratis* with good books and instruction."

† Alfred and Oswald were not the only foreign princes who had been sheltered in Ireland; Dagobert II., king of Austrasia, having, in his youth, lived for fifteen years (655 to 670) in the monastery of Slane on the Boyne, whither he had been sent on the death of his father by Grimoald, mayor of the palace.



to Christianity, although we are not told that such was the case; but there was certainly no law against it, or any to exempt women from attending hostings in warfare until the time of St. Adamnan; and a characteristic incident is related in the *Leabhar Breac*, and the *Book of Lecan*, to account for that saint's interference in this matter. It happened, according to the story, that Adamnan was travelling one day through the plain of Bregia, while yet a young man, with his mother, Ronait, on his back, when they saw two armies engaged in conflict. The mother of Adamnan observed a woman with a sickle plunged into the breast of another woman, and thus dragging her about the field; and horrified at the spectacle, she exacted a solemn promise from her son that he would obtain a law to exempt women from warfare. Adamnan did not lose sight of the injunction of his parent, and it is likely that he employed his influence, as soon as it was powerful enough, to introduce the law in question.\* He celebrated Easter, according to the canonical computation, in the northern half of Ireland, in the year 703, and died the following year; and it was reserved for a Northumbrian monk, named Egbert, to bring the community of Hy to uniformity on this point, in the year 716, a hundred and fifty years, according to Bede, after the

controversy on the subject had commenced in these countries.

Returning to those Irish saints who, by their virtues and learning, spread the fame of their native land into foreign countries, we shall only enumerate the more celebrated of them. St. Frigidian was bishop of Lucca for twenty-eight years in the sixth century, and his memory is still held in great veneration in that part of Italy. Of St. Molua, or Lugid, it was said by the great Pope St. Gregory, that his monastic rule was like a hedge which reached to heaven. St. Degan travelled to Rome early in the seventh century, at the commencement of the paschal controversy, and embraced the canonical mode of computation. St. Livinus, an Irish bishop, erroneously called archbishop of Dublin, suffered martyrdom in Flanders, in the year 633, and his memory has always been venerated in that country, whither he had gone to preach the Gospel. Some beautiful verses, written by him in good classic Latin, have been preserved. St. Fiacre, who flourished in the year 622, erected a monastery in honor of the Blessed Virgin Mary, in a forest near Meaux, in France, and the fame of his sanctity rendered the pilgrimage to his tomb or hermitage so popular, that his name was given to the hackney coaches of Paris, of which so many were employed in conveying the

\* This law protected women and children against the barbarities of war, and hence it was called the *lex innocentium*, or law of the innocent or weak. The assembly in which it was enacted was held in the "Rath of the

Synods," on Tara Hill, near which rath, according to the *Dinnseanchus*, was the *Lathrach Pupaill Adamnain*, or "Site of the tent of Adamnan."



citizens thither. St. Fursey, who died in the year 648, founded a monastery in England, and another at Lagny, in France; and his disciples, St. Foilan, St. Gobban, and St. Dicuil, were the companions of his labors in those countries. St. Arbogast, an Irishman, was consecrated bishop of Strasburg in 646. St. Kilian, the illustrious apostle of Franconia, was martyred with his two companions, in the year 689. This great saint, faithful to the spirit of the Irish Church, would not commence his mission among the pagans of Wurtzburg, although he saw its necessity, until he had gone to Rome to obtain the sanction and blessing of the Pope. Two other saints of the same name flourished on the continent, one a disciple of St. Columbanus, and the other abbot of St. Martin's monastery at Cologne.

To this period belongs the illustrious patron of the metropolitan city of Tarentum, St. Cathaldus, whom some old continental writers erroneously supposed to have flourished in the second century. He was a native of Munster; was first a student, and then a professor at Lismore, where he is said to have

erected a church in honor of the Blessed Virgin; and as that renowned seminary was not founded until the year 633, it must have been some years later, perhaps about 650, when he left Ireland. Returning from a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, he passed through Tarentum, and having performed some miracles as he approached the town, he was received by the inhabitants with veneration, unanimously chosen as their bishop, and continued to govern the diocese with great zeal for many years. His brother, St. Donatus, probably travelled with him, as we find that he was bishop of Lecce, another city of the kingdom of Naples, and both are said to have lived for many years as hermits near a small town now called San Cataldo.\*

St. Cuthbert, the celebrated bishop of Lindisfarne, who died in the year 687, was, according to many distinguished authorities, an Irishman, but it is at least certain that he was educated by Irishmen.† St. Maccuthenus, who died about this time (A. D. 698), composed a hymn in praise of the Blessed Virgin. St. Sedulius, the younger, assisted at a council held in Rome, in the year 721,

\* The life of St. Cathaldus was written in prose by Bartholomeo Moroni, of Tarentum, and in verse by his brother, Bonaventura. His acts, written by others, are also extant. See them collected by Colgan, AA. SS. Hib. at the 8th of March; and a great deal concerning him in Ussher's *Primordia*, pp. 392, &c., folio edition. The poetic life of St. Cathaldus describes in beautiful language the conflux of students from different parts of Europe to the school at Lismore.

† Colgan, Ussher, Ware, and Harris, make St. Cuthbert an Irishman, but there does not appear to be any Irish authority for the story of his birth related in the

life quoted by Colgan from Capgrave. Professor Eugene Curry, in a note addressed to the author, says, "St. Cuthbert's name is not to be found in the lists of Irish Saints preserved in the Books of Leinster, Ballymote, Lecan, M'Firbis, or the Calendar of the Four Masters; but it does appear in what is called the Martyrology of Tam-lacht, copied by Father Michael O'Cleary. In this he is set down, at March 20th, as Cubrichta Saxonis, of Inis Menoc; and in the Festology of Aengus Cele De, Inis Menoc, or rather Inis Medcolt, is explained as an island on the north coast of Little Britain (rectè Great Britain) in which St. Aedan lived."



during the pontificate of Gregory II., and was sent on an ecclesiastical mission from Rome into Spain, being previously consecrated bishop of Oreto in that country. On his arrival in Spain, in order to show his claim to the regard and attention of the people, he wrote a book to prove that, being of Irish birth, he was consequently of Spanish descent, thus satisfactorily showing how fixed the traditions of the Milesian colony were at that early age on the minds of Irishmen.\* It is generally admitted that there were two Irish saints of this name: the elder Sedulius, called the Venerable, who flourished in the fifth century, and is celebrated for his sacred poetry, still used in the church offices; and the younger Sedulius, just mentioned, who wrote commentaries on some portions of the Scriptures.

Few of these ancient Irish missionaries have excited more interest than St. Virgilius, who is called "Ferghil the Geometer," in the Irish annals, and Solivagus, or, the "solitary wanderer," by Latin writers. He startled Europe by his scientific opinions in the eighth century, teaching that the earth was a sphere, and consequently that there were antipodes; but it is utterly false that, as some say, he was persecuted by the Church for this opinion. This remarkable Irishman set out from his own country, where he had been abbot of Aghaboe, in Ossory; and on his arrival in France he was graciously received

by Pepin, then mayor of the palace, and afterwards king of France. Our saint next travelled into Bavaria, about the year 745, and while on the mission at Saltzburg, a theological question arose between him and St. Boniface, a bishop whose jurisdiction extended to that place. The latter required that baptism, which had been administered in an ungrammatical form of words, should be repeated, and St. Virgilius held the contrary opinion, which is the correct one. The question was referred to Pope Zachary, who decided with St. Virgilius. But soon after a complaint was forwarded to the Sovereign Pontiff against the distinguished Irishman, accusing him of teaching that there was another world under this one, inhabited by men who were not of the race of Adam, and who consequently were not redeemed by Christ. That St. Virgilius gave a satisfactory explanation in answer to the charge is obvious, as in 756 he was appointed bishop of Saltzburg by Pope Stephen II. and King Pepin, a sufficient proof that his character was not stained by any blemish in the eyes of these high authorities. This Irish saint died at Saltzburg in the year 785, after a visitation of his vast diocese, which included Carinthia. He obtained his philosophical knowledge in the schools of his native land, as did also St. Dicuil, another Irishman, who about the close of the eighth century wrote a treatise, "*De mensura orbis terræ*," describing the then known world, upon the authority of the earlier geographers and of the

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\* Harris's Ware's Irish Writers, p. 47



commissioners appointed by the emperor Theodosius to measure the provinces of the Roman empire.\*

Even then Ireland was famed in foreign countries for its sweet and expressive music; and we find that saints Foilan and Ultan, the brothers of St. Fursey, were invited along with other Irishmen, by St. Gertrude, daughter of Pepin and abbess of Nivelles, in Brabant, to instruct her community in sacred psalmody. These holy men erected a monastery at Fosse, near Nivelles, and the religious houses at both places were considered to be Irish. St. Ultan also became the first superior of the monastery of St. Quintin, near Peronne, and lived until about the year 676.

St. Fridolin, "the Traveller," the son of an Irish king, founded monasteries in various parts of France, in Helvetia, and on the Rhine. He flourished about the close of the seventh and the commencement of the eighth century, and his memory has been preserved with veneration in many parts of the continent. A little later flourished Albuin, called also by the Saxon name of Wittan, or White, who preached the Gospel in Thuringia, or Upper Saxony, and was appointed by the pope bishop of Bura-burgh, near Fritzlar, in the year 741.

About a year after Charlemagne had become sole monarch of France—that is, A. D. 772—two remarkable Irish-

men made their appearance in his territories. Their names were Clemens and Albinus; and the method which they adopted to attract attention is related as a curious sample of the manners of the times. Observing that commerce of one kind or other occupied the people, they went about announcing that they had wisdom to sell, and thus collected crowds to hear their instructions. Their fame soon reached the ears of the great monarch, who was just then intent on the intellectual improvement of his people. He sent for them; entertained them for some time in his palace, and then placed them over two public schools which he founded, committing that of Paris to Clemens, and one founded at Pavia, in Italy, to his companion, Albinus. The names of these two eminent Irishmen were subsequently thrown partly into the shade by that of Alcuin, a Saxon, who, according to the custom of the age of taking Roman names, assumed the name of Albinus Flaccus. Alcuin arrived in France several years after our countrymen, Clemens and Albinus; he afforded great assistance to Charlemagne in his efforts to revive learning, accompanied him for the purpose of teaching a school of nobles in his palace, and has been rendered famous by his correspondence with the emperor and with other illustrious persons of his time. Charlemagne, however, patronized all the learned foreigners whom he could attract to his court, and, while he lived repaid with his friendship and sup

\* This ancient geographical treatise was published, with a critical dissertation and copious notes, by M. Le-tronne, in Paris, A. D. 1814.



port the two Irishmen we have mentioned.\*

A few years after Albinus, Dongal, another Irishman, and one of the most learned men of his time, was appointed professor of the school of Pavia by King Lothaire. He is celebrated, among other things, for an epistle which he wrote to Charlemagne on the two solar eclipses of 810; for a valuable gift of books, some of them relating to secular literature, which he made to the monastery of Bobbio; and for a work in defence of the use of sacred images in churches, against Clodius of Turin. St. Donatus, an Irishman, who flourished in the middle of the same (ninth) century, was made bishop of Fiesole, in Italy, and his disciple, Andrew, who had accompanied him on a pilgrimage to Rome, was deacon of the same church.†

Turning, finally, towards the north, we find that Irish monks were not only the first Christians, but most probable the first inhabitants, of the inhospitable region of Iceland, which they called Thule, or Tyle. Dicuil, who, as we

have seen, flourished in the latter part of the eighth and beginning of the ninth century, states that thirty years before he wrote his geographical work, he had got an account of Thule from some ecclesiastics who had been sojourning there; and when, in the latter part of the ninth century, the pagan Norwegians planted a colony in Iceland, the Irish monks, who fled on their arrival, left behind them sundry memorials of their religion, such as Irish books, small bells, and pastoral staffs.

The above circumstance is related by various Icelandic writers, who add that these Irish monks were called *papas* by the Norwegian settlers. When the first effort was made to introduce Christianity among the pagan colonists, two Irishmen, who are called Ernulph and Buo by their Icelandic biographer, Arngrim Jonas, were the missionaries; and another old Icelandic writer, Ara Multiscius, mentions an Irishman named John, in his enumeration of early Icelandic bishops.‡

\* The Monk of St. Gall, who wrote the life of Charlemagne in the ninth century, and who is believed to have been the celebrated Notkerus Balbulus, makes particular mention of Clemens and Albinus as "Scots of Ireland." Muratori, *Annali di Italia, anno 781*, refers to the learning and teaching of Albinus in Italy. See Lanigan, Ware, &c. Guizot omits all mention of them in his *History of Civilization*; he and some other modern writers, who have only glanced at the subject, having confined their attention to Alcuin and his disciples.

† To Donatus, the holy bishop of Fiesole, we are indebted for the graceful tribute to Ireland contained in the well-known lines:—

Finibus occiduis describitur optima tellus,  
Nomine et antiquis Scotia scripta libris.  
Insula dives opum gemmarum, vestis, et auri:

Commoda corporibus aere, sole, solo.  
Melle fluit pulchris, et lacteis Scotia campis,  
Vestibus, atque armis, frugibus, arte, viris.  
\* \* \* \* \*

In quâ Scotorum gentes habitare merentur,  
Inclyta gens hominum, milite, pace, fide.

‡ Some account of Ernulph and Buo is given in Colgan's *AA: SS. Hib.*, Feb. 2 and 5. Ara Multiscius (*Schedæ de Islandia, cap. 2*) relates how, in the first years of Harold Harfagre, who became king of Norway A. D. 885, Ingulph, the first Norwegian, fled into Iceland, and was soon followed by so many of his countrymen that it was feared Norway would be left desert, and he says:—"At that time Iceland was covered with woods, and there were then in it Christian men whom the Norwegians call *papas*; and these, being unwilling to remain with hea-



In the preceding account of the Irish saints and scholars of those early ages, we have omitted the name of one most remarkable Irishman, who could scarcely be placed in the same category with any of those whom we have mentioned. This was the celebrated John Scotus Erigena, or "the Irishman," who flourished in the middle of the ninth century, and whose extraordinary learning and eccentric genius filled Europe with amazement. John was not an ecclesiastic, nor was he a sound theologian. He mingled divinity with Platonic philosophy, and fell into the wildest errors about the nature and attributes of the Deity, grace and predestination, the future state of reward and punishment,

and other subjects; and some of his books were condemned by the Church. He resided chiefly in Paris, where he taught philosophy, and was on terms of friendship with the emperor Charles the Bald, at whose desire he translated the supposed works of Dionysius the Areopagite from Greek into Latin. He was the first who combined scholastic and mystic theology; and notwithstanding his pantheistic and other errors, he is said to have led an exemplary life. He died in France some short time before the year 875; and no other schoolman of his age attracted so much notice, or was the object of such diversity of opinions, both during his life and in after ages.\*

whens, went away forthwith, leaving behind them Irish books, and small bells, and (pastoral) staffs; whence it was easy to perceive that they were of the Irish nation." This is told in somewhat similar terms in the *Landnamaboc*, quoted by Johnston, *Antiq. Celto-Scand.*, p. 14.

\* Of this singular man Tennemann says:—"John Scotus, an Irishman, belonged to a much higher order (than Alcuin); a man of great learning, and of a philosophical and original mind: whose means of attaining

to such superiority we are ignorant of. His acquaintance with Latin and Greek, to which some assert he added the Arabic; his love for the philosophy of Aristotle and Plato; his translation, exceedingly esteemed throughout the West, of Dionysius the Areopagite; his liberal and enlightened (heretical) views respecting predestination and the Eucharist; all these entitle him to be considered a phenomenon for the times in which he lived."—*Hist. of Philosophy*, p. 215 (Bohn's edition).



## CHAPTER XII.

**Christian Antiquities of Ireland.**—Testimonies on the subject of Ireland's Pre-eminence for Sanctity and Learning—The Culdees.—Hereditary Transmission of Church Offices.—Lay Bishops and Abbots.—Comhorbas and Herenachs.—Termon Lands.—Characteristics of the Primitive Church in Ireland.—Inference therefrom.—Peculiarities in Discipline.—Materials used in building Churches.—Damliags and Duireachs.—Cyclopean Masonry.—The Round Towers.—Saints' Beds, Holy Wells, and Penitential Stations.

AT the risk of trenching on the duties of the ecclesiastical historian, the preceding chapter has been extended beyond its due proportion; yet the object in view—namely, that of exhibiting the aspect of Christian Ireland, as it was presented to Europe in the centuries preceding the Danish invasion—has been but imperfectly accomplished. Our list of the illustrious Irishmen who spread the fame of their country for learning and holiness into foreign lands, is far from being complete, and the subject is on the whole little more than glanced at. But even this slight sketch will show that there is sufficient ground for what has been so often said about the eminent position which Ireland once held in relation to the other countries of Christendom. That pre-eminence is no idle dream—no creation of the national imagination. It is as much a reality as any other fact in the range of history,

and may be, assuredly, a legitimate source of national pride. During the period which extended from the inroads of the barbarians in Europe in the sixth century, to the partial revival of education and mental energy under Charlemagne, in the ninth, this island was unquestionably the retreat and nursery of learning and piety, and the centre of intellectual activity. An old writer speaks of Ireland having been at this time reputed to be full of saints.\* Venerable Bede informs us that numbers were daily coming into Britain from the country of the Scots (Ireland), preaching the Word of God with great devotion.† “What shall I say of Ireland,” says Eric of Auxerre, a French writer of the ninth century, “which, despising the dangers of the deep, is migrating, with almost her whole train of philosophers, to our coasts?”‡ Thierry, after describing the poetry and literature of ancient

\* Marianus Scotus ; Chronicon. ad an. 674. Ussher remarks that the saints of this period might be grouped into a fourth order of the Irish saints.

† Eccl. Hist., Lib. iii., chap. 3.

‡ Letter to Charles the Bald.



Ireland as perhaps the most cultivated of all Western Europe, adds that Ireland "counted a host of saints and learned men, venerated in England and Gaul, for no country had furnished more Christian missionaries, uninfluenced by other motives than pure zeal to communicate to foreign nations the opinions and faith of their own land."\* Testimonies of ancient and modern writers to the same effect might be multiplied indefinitely, all representing (in the words of Dr. Lanigan) the migration which took place at that period from Ireland, as a swarm of holy and learned men, by whom foreign nations were instructed and edified.†

Then, as to the resort of foreigners to Ireland for the purposes of education, and of leading a life of greater perfection, we have also copious and conclusive evidence. St. Aengus the Culdee, in his litany written at the end of the eighth century, invokes the intercession of many hundreds of saints, Romans, Italians, Egyptians, Gauls, Germans, Britons, Picts, Saxons, and natives of other countries, who were buried and

venerated in Ireland, and whom he divided into groups, chiefly according to the localities of Ireland in which they had sojourned and died. The lives of St. Patrick, St. Kieran, St. Declan, St. Albeus, St. Enda, St. Maidoc, St. Senan, St. Brendan, and other Irish saints, furnish testimonies to the same effect.‡

Camden, in his description of Ireland, says:—"At that age our Anglo-Saxons repaired on all sides to Ireland as to a general mart of learning. Whence we read, in our writers, of holy men, that 'they went to study in Ireland;' *Amandatus est ad disciplinam in Hiberniam.*" We are told that three thousand students at a time attended the great schools of Armagh alone, and that many of these had come from other countries; but after making due allowance for exaggeration in such statements as this, we have still an overwhelming mass of evidence to show that Ireland was, in those remote ages, a nursery of saints and scholars; and such being her acknowledged character so soon after receiving Christianity, it would be, to say the least, rash to deny that she had

\* Hist. de la Conquête de l'Angleterre, Liv. x.

† Stephen White (Apologia, p. 24) thus sums up the labors of the Irish saints on the continent:—"Among the names of saints whom Ireland formerly sent forth, there were, as I have learned from the trustworthy writings of the ancients, 150 now honored as patrons of places in Germany, of whom 36 were martyrs; 45 Irish patrons in the Gauls, of whom 6 were martyrs; at least 30 in Belgium; 44 in England; 13 in Italy; and in Iceland and Norway 8 martyrs; besides many others." "One singular and extraordinary fact may be noted here," observes the late Rev. Dr. Kelly (Camb. Ever., vol. ii., p. 653), "namely, that to foreign sources almost exclusively are we indebted for a knowledge of those

Irish saints. From our native annals we could not know even their names, with very few exceptions, such as St. Virgilius, &c., &c."

It has been calculated that the ancient Irish monks had 13 monastic foundations in Scotland, 12 in England, 7 in France, 12 in Armorica Gaul, 7 in Lotharingia, 11 in Burgundy, 9 in Belgium, 10 in Alsatia, 16 in Bavaria, 6 in Italy, and 15 in Rhetia, Helvetia, and Suevia, besides many in Thuringia, and on the left margin of the Rhine, between Gueldres and Alsatia.

‡ Dr. Petrie (*Ecclesiastical Architecture of Ireland*, p. 139) gives an engraving of the stone which marks the grave of the "Seven Romans," near the church of St. Breacan, in the great island of Aran.



made any progress previously in the march of civilization.\*

We have now a few words of explanation to offer on some points of interest relating to our ecclesiastical antiquities, before we resume our civil history.

The question, Who were the Culdees? is one that has been often asked, and upon which many serious errors have been current. These errors seem to have originated in Scotland, the ancient history of which country is a tissue of anachronisms and fabrications. It has been asserted that the Culdees were an order of priests or monks who taught Christianity and ruled the Church without bishops, in North Britain and Ireland, before the time of St. Palladius and St. Patrick,—a fallacy which was embraced with avidity by the Scottish Presbyterians. But this notion was subsequently modified, especially after Dr. Ledwich had promulgated his false and silly statements on the subject; and it was then pretended that Culdees was only another name for the order of monks founded by St. Columbkille; that they were married men; that their religion was pure, compared with that of Rome; that they rejected the authority of the Pope, together with much more to the same effect.† This is simply a mass of groundless and shameful falsehood, without one word of truth,

or the slightest authority of antiquity to support it. As to the fanciful theory of the Culdees having been founded by St. Columbkille, Dr. Lanigan‡ correctly observes that “in none of the lives of that saint, nor in Bede, who very often treats of the Columbian order and monks, nor in the whole history of the monastery of Hy (Ion) and its dependencies, does the name of Culdees or any name tantamount to it ever once occur,” a circumstance which, as he justly concludes, “would have been impossible, had the Culdees been Columbians or members of the order or congregation of Hy.”

The true character of the Culdees may be gathered from the following note upon them, with which the author has been favored by that profound Irish scholar, Professor Eugene Curry, of the Catholic University. “The Culdees,” says Mr. Curry, “as far as I have been able to trace them, were to be found in Ireland since St. Patrick’s time, as the Tripartite Life of the apostle mentions that one of them attended him in his visit to Munster; that his name was Malach Brit, and that his church was subsequently built in the north eastern angle of the southern Decies—namely, Cill Malach. They appear to have been originally mendicant monks, but had no communities until the mid-

\* Dr. Johnson, in a letter addressed to Charles O’Conor, of Belanagar, dated 1777, alluding to the period of Irish history which he wished to see developed, writes:—“Dr. Leland begins his history too late; the ages which deserve an exact inquiry are those times,

for such there were, when Ireland was the school of the West, the quiet habitation of sanctity and learning.”—Boswell’s *Life of Johnson*.

† Ledwich’s *Antiquities*, p. 113, &c. second edition.

‡ Hist. Eccl., chap. xxxi., sec. 1



dle of the eighth century, when St. Maelruan, of Tamlacht (Tallaght, near Dublin), drew up a rule for them in Irish. Of this rule I have an ancient copy, which I am now preparing for publication. Aengus Cele De was for some time in Maelruan's establishment, and was a priest, but he does not appear to have before that belonged to any community of Culdees. They had a separate house at Clonmacnoise, A. D. 1031, of which Conn-na-mbocht (Con-of-the-poor) was head; but these were lay monks of the order, as was their prior or economist, Conn, who, it appears, was the first that collected a herd of cows for them there. Iseal Ciarain (their house at Clonmacnoise) was not founded at this time, but very long before, and the Cele De were attached to the church as lay monks. They are often mentioned in the Brehon laws as the recipients of certain unappropriated church dues or income; and they were at Armagh down to the year 1600, but appear to have been masons, carpenters, and men of other trades; all laymen, but unmarried."

From these facts it is clear that the Cele De (servants of God), called in

Latin Keledei, and afterwards corruptly Colidei, were religious persons resembling very much members of the tertiary orders of St. Dominic and St. Francis, in the Catholic Church at the present day, or one of the great religious confraternities of modern times. Their society was widely spread in Scotland, and was known in Wales about the same time; and it is scarcely necessary to add that their religious principles were identical with those of the Universal Church at that period.\*

The hereditary, or clannish principle, prevailed from a very early age in the transmission of ecclesiastical offices and property in Ireland, and became in course of time a fruitful source of abuses. Bishoprics, abbacies, and other benefices were thus, as it were, entailed on particular families, whether those of the founders or of local chiefs, so that on the failure of clergymen in these families or clans, laymen of the same families were invested with the titles and emoluments of the offices, while ecclesiastics of the proper order were delegated to perform the clerical functions belonging to them. Hence, we hear of laymen as nominally archbish-

\* Dr. Lanigan has collected a great deal of matter about the Culdees in the first six sections of chap. xxxi. of his Ecclesiastical History; but he was wrong in supposing them to be secular clergy or canons. Dr. Reeves, a Protestant clergyman, in his copious and learned annotations to Adamnan's Life of St. Columba (p. 368), says, the Keledei "had no particular connection with this (the Columbian) order, any more than had the Deoradhs, or the other developments of conventual observance; and in a foot-note he adds, that "*Culdee* is the most abused term in Scottish Church history." Dr. O'Donovan (*Four*

*Masters*, an. 1479, note l) says, "*Cele De* is often used as if it were a generic term applied to *Calibites*, or religious persons in general, and this is the sense in which Giraldus Cambrensis used *Colidei*. From all that he says about them no one could infer that they were any thing but *Calibites* or lay-monks. The term was, however, used in a restricted sense in Archbishop Ussher's memory, and applied to the priests, 'qui choro inservientes divina celebrabant officia.' The Scotch historians have written a vast deal of intolerable nonsense about the Culdees of the Columbian order, but they are entirely beneath criticism."



ops and bishops, and also as abbots and priors of monasteries; that is, who enjoyed the emoluments, temporalities, and privileges of these offices, and who, not being in holy orders, may have been married men. This custom often led to intolerable confusion; and it has been seized by some modern writers, either ignorant of its nature, or too anxious to make it answer their own prejudices, for the purpose of showing that the clergy were not bound to celibacy in the Irish Church. A more intimate knowledge of Irish authorities has, however, shown these writers that this was a grievous mistake, as every one who had studied the history of the Irish Church with a judgment unwarped by sectarian bias must have known. In no single instance does it appear that the marriage of any one in priest's orders was ever tolerated in the Church of Ireland.

The holders of the higher ecclesiastical offices, whether clerics or laymen, were, in the original foundations, called comhorbas, or successors. Thus, the archbishop of Armagh was comhorba of Patrick; the archbishop of Tuam, or

of Connaught, as he was often called, was comhorba of Jarlath: the abbot of Hy was comhorba of Columbkille; the abbot of Aran was comhorba of Enda, &c. The lands belonging to a church or monastery were rented or administered by an official, called a herenach, or airchinneach; that is, a warden who originally dispensed the profits of the lands for the support of the church and the relief of the poor. After a time the herenachs were all laymen. The office was generally hereditary in the family or sept of the founder: but if the sept could not agree in the election of a herenach, or if the sept or family became extinct, then the bishop and clergy elected one under certain conditions, the herenach being in such a case the tenant of the church lands for a stipulated rent or contribution. Herenachs were numerous, and were to be found in every part of Ireland.\*

The office of comhorba (or, as the name is often corruptly written, corba, corbes, or corbanus) was essentially different from that of herenach, and was originally one of dignity and juris-

\* Dr. Reeves, in a note on "Hereditary Abbacies" (Vita S. Colomb., p. 335), says: "The Book of Armagh gives us a most valuable insight into the ancient economy of the Irish monasteries, in its account of the endowment of Trim. In that church there was an *ecclesiastica progenies*, and a *plebilis progenies*, a religious and secular succession; the former of office in spirituals, the latter of blood in temporals, and both descended from the original grantor. . . . The lineal transmission of the abbatial office, which appears in the Irish annals, towards the close of the eighth century, probably had its origin in the usurpation of the *plebilis progenies* connected with the various monasteries of the functions of the *ecclesiastica progenies*, which would be the necessary re-

sult of the former omitting to keep up the succession of the latter. In each case the tenant in possession might maintain a semblance of the clerical character by taking tonsure and a low degree of orders. This is very much what Giraldus Cambrensis states concerning the *Abbatetlaici* of Ireland and Wales (Itinerar. ii., 4.)" Dr. Reeves proceeds to explain on this ground the recognition, in the Canons of St. Patrick, of the relation of the "Clericus et uxor ejus" (Canon 6); and it is to be hoped that after this candid expression by so eminent a Protestant divine of the result of his researches on this subject, we shall hear no more of the monstrous falsehood about married abbots, &c. in the Irish Church.



diction; and, although Colgan says that in his time (the 17th century) very few of the *comhorbas* were in holy orders, the contrary was certainly the case in the middle ages. When ecclesiastical dignities and benefices were held by men not in the proper orders, the tonsure or one of the minor orders was usually conferred, so that the holders were entitled to be called clerics.

The lands belonging to churches or monasteries were called Tarmon, or Termon lands, that is, lands of sanctuary or refuge; and their *termini*, or bounds, were defined by terminal crosses or other distinguishing objects. Hence, such names as Termonfechan, Termonfinean, Termonderry, &c., to be met with in some parts of Ireland.\*

In such literary monuments as remain to us of the primitive Irish Church formal expositions of doctrine are not to be expected. Where no diversity of creed was thought of, such expositions were not required: formularies of belief having been generally drawn up by the Church to oppose the erroneous teaching of sectaries. Of the religion of the early Irish Christians, however, we have written, as well as other monuments in abundance, which show that it was strongly marked by all the most

characteristic features of Catholic Christianity. From the conversion of the country by St. Patrick, the Irish Christians were devoted to monastic discipline. They practised celibacy, made long fasts, rose at night for prayer, lay on penitential beds of stone, and, in fact, habitually exercised all those austerities which Catholic ascetic writers have in all ages commended. They adored the Holy Eucharist, which they called the Body of Christ; they believed in the gift of miracles remaining in the Church, and, indeed, in the very frequent recurrence of miraculous intervention; they invoked the intercession of the saints, and venerated their relics; they prayed for the dead; instituted festivals in honor of the saints, and offered up the Mass on those festivals; they made very frequent use of the sign of the cross, and erected numerous public crosses; finally, they acknowledged Rome, as St. Columbanus wrote, to be "the head of all churches;" and as St. Cumman wrote, they looked to Rome "as children to their mother." In a word, they showed themselves to be identical in faith with all the other members of the Western Church, during the same ages.\*

The difference about the computation

\* For explanations of the offices and terms mentioned above, see Colgan's *Trias Thaum.*, pp. 8, 293, 630; Harris's *Ware*, vol. ii., p. 234; Lanigan, vol. iv., p. 80. Throughout the *Four Masters* the term *comhorba* is rendered "successor." It is derived from the words *comh* and *forba*, signifying the possessor of the same land or patrimony. Dr. O'Donovan explains the term *Airch-líneach* (Erenach) as signifying the hereditary Warden

of a church (*Four Masters*, an. 601, note). The tenants of church lands were called *Termorsers*.

† For evidence on all these points, we need only refer to Adamnan's *Life of St. Columba*, which high Protestant authority has pronounced to be "perhaps the most valuable monument of that institution (the Irish Church) that has escaped the ravages of time" (Reeves), and "the most complete piece of such biography that all Europe



of Easter, which caused so much controversy in Ireland and Britain for a century and a half, has been fully explained in the preceding chapter. Besides this, there was a peculiarity in the form of the Irish tonsure. Thus, while the Greek monks shaved the whole head, and the Roman monks only the crown, leaving a circle of hair all round, the Irish monks and clerics shaved or clipped the front part of the head from ear to ear. One mode of shaving the head appears quite as harmless as the others, but the subject was, nevertheless, made one of warm debate at the synod of Whitby, by St. Wilfrid, and other Saxon converts, who strenuously advocated the Roman custom, and the Irish monks ultimately abandoned their own method. From such disputes as these, and from any peculiarities of the Irish liturgy, which were only such as have been tolerated in various ancient Catholic liturgies, nothing can be more absurd than to argue that the primitive church of Ireland was not united in faith with the other churches in the communion of the see of Rome.

Hewn timber, wattles, and earth were, as we have seen, the ordinary building materials used for the dwellings of the ancient Irish; and we have the authority of Venerable Bede, and of some of

the oldest lives of Irish saints, for the fact that these materials were also employed in the construction of their churches and oratories in the seventh, eighth, and ninth centuries. We are told by St. Bernard that such continued to be the case, even in the time of St. Malachy, in the twelfth century; but there is also evidence enough to show that churches were frequently built in Ireland of stone and cement, even from the time of St. Patrick. As characteristic examples of the oldest style of our ecclesiastical architecture still in good preservation, Dr. Petrie, in his learned work on that subject, instances the monastic establishment of St. Molaise, on Inishmurray (Inis Muir-eadhaigh), in the bay of Sligo, erected in the sixth century; that of St. Brendan, on Inishglory, off the coast of Erris, in Mayo, of the beginning of the same century; and that of St. Fechin, on High Island, off the coast of Connemara, erected in the seventh century; and to these he elsewhere adds, as remains of the sixth century, some of the oratories and cells of the Isles of Aran, in Galway bay. In all these examples we find that mortar was only used in the churches; the houses or cells of the abbots and monks being invariably built of dry stone, without any kind of

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can boast of, not only at so early a period, but even through the whole middle ages" (Pinkerton). Also to various other lives of Irish saints, which the learned Usler and others have shown to belong to the sixth, seventh, and eighth centuries; to the portions of the *Liber Hymnorum* edited by the Rev. Dr. Todd; to the *Antiphonarium Benchorense*, a monument of the sev-

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enth century; to ancient monumental inscriptions to various passages of the Brehon Laws, and other authorities yet unpublished; and, indeed, to all that is most venerable in the written and monumental antiquities of Ireland, to which the scope and limits of this work will only allow us to make this general reference.



cement, and in that style of masonry which antiquaries call cyclopean, or Pelasgic, like the primitive stone houses and military structures of the Firbolgs, which we have already noticed. The cells were generally circular or oval, with dome-shaped roofs, constructed, not on the principle of the arch, but by the gradual overlapping of the stones; and the cluster of cells, with their oratory, were surrounded by a thick wall of the same rude cyclopean masonry.\*

At various periods between the sixth and twelfth centuries (some of them still later, but the greater number, perhaps, in the ninth and tenth centuries), were erected those singular buildings, the round towers, which have been so enveloped in mystery by the arguments and conjectures of modern antiquaries. It is only in recent times that people have thought of ascribing to these towers any other than a Christian and ecclesiastical origin; but of late years a variety of theories have been started about them, and they have been alternately made fire-temples and shrines of other kinds of pagan worship, anchorites' cells, or places for penitential seclusion, and beacons. The real uses of the Irish round towers, both as belfries and as ecclesiastical keeps or castles, have been satisfactorily established by Dr. Petrie,

in his important and erudite work on the ecclesiastical architecture of Ireland. For this twofold purpose they were admirably adapted. In a woody country, such as Ireland was in remote times, they may also have been useful as beacons, and may, moreover, have served as watch-towers. In fine, the wants and tastes of the country led to the adoption of a peculiar style in their structure, as we find to have been the case in most old Christian countries, where some local singularity in the design and structure of church towers is sure to attract the traveller's attention, although it might be now difficult to determine what circumstances led to the local adoption of each peculiarity. The style of our ancient round towers seems to have been peculiar to the Irish or Scottish race. These buildings were well contrived to supply the clergy with a place of safety for themselves, the sacred vessels, and other objects of value, during the incursions of the Danes, and other foes; and the upper stories, in which were four windows, were perfectly well adapted for the ringing of the largest bells then used in Ireland. We must refer to Dr. Petrie's work for an exposition of the principal theories that have been started about these round towers, and for the arguments in support of the true

\* The stone churches were called *damliags*, from *dom* or *domnach*, a church, and *liag* a stone. Thus, from the *damliag* of St. Kieran, who was consecrated bishop by St. Patrick, and who died in the year 490, Duleek, in Meath, has derived its name. The oratories, or smaller

churches, were called *duirachs* (*duirtheachs*), a name which, as some think, implies that they were constructed of oak, although many of them also were built of stone and mortar.



explanation of their use; but this much may be added here, namely, that the closest study of Irish antiquities leaves no doubt whatever that the principle of the arch, and the use of lime cement—both of which are to be found in the round towers—cannot be traced in any Irish remains which either historical evidence or popular tradition ascribes to a period anterior to the introduction of Christianity.\*

Those sacred remains called by the Irish peasantry "saints' beds," may have been, in some instances, the penitential stone beds used by the ancient ascetics; while others of them were, no doubt, the graves of the holy persons after whom they have been called. Some of these places, now frequented by the peasantry for the purposes of prayer, were unquestionably the peni-

tential stations of the ancient monasteries, or were at some time resorted to by the Irish saints for prayer, fasting, and mortification. Such places were the Skellig Mihil, on the coast of Kerry; Cruach Patrick, in Mayo; and the island of St. Patrick's Purgatory, in Lough Dearg; and many spots from which veneration has thus been preserved by the popular traditions, such as these saints' beds and holy wells, were consecrated in distant ages by some relations with the blessed servants of God. It is not necessary here to consider the question whether or not they merit our respect as memorials of the primitive saints of Ireland, and whether it be better to regulate the popular devotion which they inspire, rather than condemn them as objects of superstition.

\* Goban Saer, to whom tradition points as the architect of some of the Round Towers, flourished early in the seventh century, and was the son of Turvi, from whom Traigh Tuirbi, on the north coast of Dublin, takes its name. Of what race Turvi was is not known, but he is supposed to have been descended from the Tuatha de Dananna, who are said to have left Tara with Lewry of the Long Hand, A. M. 2764, according to the chronology of the Ogygia. He was, at all events, not of Milesian descent. The round towers built by Goban, were, accord-

ing to tradition, those of Kilmacduach, Killala, and Antrim. See Petrie's Round Towers, p. 385, &c., second edition, in which the *Dinnsenchus* is quoted on the subject. Adamnan's Life of St. Columba mentions, according to the general acceptation of the word, the erection of a round tower (*monasterii rotundi*) in the sixth century; and passages are quoted by Dr. Petrie (pp. 390, &c.) from the Irish annals, showing the erection of round towers in the tenth, eleventh and twelfth centuries.



## CHAPTER XIII.

Character of Irish History in the Seventh and Eighth Centuries.—Piety of some Irish Kings.—Renewed Wars for the Leinster Tribute.—The Poet Rumann.—Foundation of Tallaght.—St. Aengus the Culdee.—St. Colgu and Alcuin.—An Early Irish Prayer-book.—Signs and Prodigies.—The Lavchomart.—First Appearance of the Danish Pirates.—Their Character.—Their Barbarism and Inhumanity.—Heroic Resistance of the Irish.—Turgesius.—Domestic Wars.—Felim, King of Cashel.—Malachy I.—Danish Settlements in Waterford and Limerick.—Irish Allies of the Danes.—Cormac MacCuilenan.—Niall Glundubh.—Muirkertach and Callaghan Caishil.

*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—A. D. 800, Charlemagne crowned emperor of the West.—827, Dissolution of the Saxon heptarchy; Egbert sole king of England.—872–900, Alfred the Great; Danish invasions of England.—850, Final subjugation of the Picts by Kenneth, king of the Scots of Albany.—921, The Moors victorious in Spain.—932, Rollo, the Norman, founds the Duchy of Normandy.—987, Hugh Capet, king of France.—995, the Danegelt, or land-tax, paid in England to the Danes.

(THE EIGHTH, NINTH, AND FIRST HALF OF THE TENTH CENTURIES.)

RESUMING the thread of our civil history, we may glide rapidly over the events which intervene between the commencement of the seventh century and the epoch of the Danish invasions—the next era of great importance in our annals. During that interval, comprising a couple of centuries, the facts recorded are sufficiently numerous, but the details are meagre, and rarely afford a clew to the motives of the actors, or to the causes or consequences of events. The obituaries of ecclesiastics, eminent for learning or holiness, and for their exalted position in the Church, occupy a leading place in the chronicles of the times. The demise of kings, chieftains, and tanists, is also set down with fidelity; dearths, epidemics, and portentous phenomena, are duly recorded; and these, with the brief mention of battles, which would indicate an almost perpetual warfare between the several provinces, and between different districts of the same province, make up the staple of the venerable annals of the period.\* With

\* As to this frequent recurrence of petty wars, we must recollect that other countries present similar blood-stained annals in the same ages. The wars of the Saxon heptarchy were as numerous as the contemporary ones of the Irish pentarchy. Writing of Northumbria in the eighth century, Lingard says that “it exhibited successive instances of treachery and murder, to which no other country, perhaps, can furnish a parallel.” Its kings were engaged in perpetual strife; and Charlemagne pro-

nounced them to be “a perfidious and perverse race, worse than pagans.” The English Saxons seem to have fallen at this epoch into a state of utter demoralization so much so that their own historians affirm that the crimes of both princes and people had drawn down upon them the merited scourge of the Danish wars. See the testimonies of Henry of Huntingdon, and others, to this effect, collected by Mr. MacCabe, in his *Catholic History of England*, vol. ii. chap. 1.



all their hereditary feuds there was still mixed up a spirit of primitive chivalry. As a general rule, human life was safe except in the field of battle; and their pitched battles were usually prearranged, sometimes for a year or more, both as to time and place; so that both parties had an opportunity to collect their forces, and the conflict which ensued was a fair trial of strength. Several Irish kings, at this period, were remarkable for piety, and not a few of them ended their days in religious houses; and the same pages which record the carnage of battle, often show that distinguished saints were then dwelling in our monasteries and anchorites' cells. With such living examples in the midst of them, the people cannot have been destitute of piety and morality; and in the picture which that rude age presents we find a beautiful illustration of the way in which religion stood between society and barbarism, as it did at that time throughout Europe in general.

The pious generosity of Finachta, in relinquishing his claim to the Leinster tribute, at the prayer of St. Moling (about 687) was of little avail, as most of his successors waged war to renew it. The monarch Congal, of the race of Conal Gulban, scourged Leinster with his armies, either for this purpose, or, as some say, to avenge the death of his grandfather, Hugh, son of Ainmire, who was slain in the battle of Dunbolg. Congal died suddenly, in the year 708; and by his successor, Fergal, of the

Cinel-Eoghain branch of the Hy-Nialls, Leinster was "five times wasted and preyed in one year." In one of these inroads (A. D. 772) a great battle was fought at the celebrated hill of Allen, in the county of Kildare, when Fergal, and the chiefs of Leath Cuinn brought 21,000 men into the field, and the Leinster men could only muster 9,000. The latter, however, made up by their bravery for the disproportion of their numbers, and the slaughter which followed was terrific, the total amount of slain on both sides being seven thousand men, among whom was Fergal, king of Ireland. The annalists attribute the defeat of the northerns to the denunciations of a hermit who upbraided the king with violating the solemn engagements of his predecessor, Finachta, by endeavoring to reimpose the Borumean tribute.

In a battle fought in 730, between the men of Leinster and Munster, 3,000 of the latter were slain; and immediately after another invasion of Leinster by Hugh Allen, king of Ireland, and the Hy-Nialls of the north, took place, when, in a battle fought at a place now called Ballyronan, in the county of Kildare, the monarch, and Hugh, son of Colgan, king of Leinster, met in single combat. The latter was slain, and the Leinster army almost wholly exterminated.\* It is added that the people of the north rejoiced in thus wreaking

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\* Four Masters, A. D. 733. The date of this battle in the Annals of Ulster, is 737.



their vengeance on the Leinster men, nine thousand of whom fell in the carnage that day.

While recording these battles, the annals tell us that Beg Boirche, king of Ulidia (A. D. 704), "took a pilgrim's staff, and died on his pilgrimage;" that Flahertach, king of Ireland, having retired from the sovereignty in 729, embraced a monastic life, and died at Armagh in 760; that Donal, son of Murchad, after a reign of twenty years as king of Ireland, died on a pilgrimage in Iona, in 758\* (763); and that his successor, Niall Frassagh, retired from the throne in 765 (770), and became a monk at Iona, where he died in 778, and was buried in the tomb of the Irish kings in that island. Two or three of the next succeeding monarchs are also mentioned as remarkable for their repentance and religious preparation for death.†

In the year 742 (747) died Rumann, son of Colman, whom the annalists describe as an "adept in wisdom, chronology, and poetry," and who, in the Book of Ballymote, is called the "Virgil of Ireland." We mention him on account of a remarkable fact, namely, that he composed a poem for the Galls, or foreigners, of Dublin (Ath Cliach), and, by a ruse, contrived to get well paid for it in pinginns, or pennies; whence we

may conclude that, as the Danes had not yet visited Ireland, the foreigners in question were Saxons, of whom great numbers were then in this country.‡ It is added, in the account of Rumann that a British king named Constantine, who had become a monk, was at that time abbot of Rahen, in the King's county; and that at Cell-Belaigh, which appears to have been in the same neighborhood, there were "seven streets" of these foreigners. We know that, at the same period, Gallen, in the King's county, was called "Galin of the Britons," as Mayo was "Mayo of the Saxons," on account of the monasteries of those nations founded there.

The monastery of Tamlacht, or Tal-laght, near Dublin, was founded in the year 769, by St. Maelruain; and in the lifetime of the founder, St. Aengus the Culdee, the famous Irish hagiologist, flourished there. St. Colgu, surnamed the wise, lector of Clonmacnoise, and who appears to have been the tutor of many eminent Irish and foreign scholars, died about the year 791. By him was written the first prayer-book which we find mentioned in the Irish annals. It was called the "Besom of Devotion" (Scuaip-chrabhaidh), and Colgan said he had a copy of it, which he describes as a collection of very ardent prayers in the shape of litanies, and as a work

\* The events about this period are all antedated four or five years by the Four Masters; the dates given by Tighernach being proved to be correct.

† Cambrensis Eversus, cap. ix.

‡ See some account of Rumann, quoted in Petrie's *Ecclesiastical Architecture of Ireland*, pp. 353, &c. The

Galls having first refused any remuneration for the poem, Rumann said he would expect two *pinginns* from every good man, and would be content with ~~one~~ from each bad one. The result was, that all of them sought to be placed in the former category.



breathing fervent piety and elevation of the soul to God.\* Up to the close of this century we find the great abbey of Peronne, in France, founded about two centuries before by St. Fursey, still supplied with abbots from Ireland, and the city itself called, in the Irish annals, Cahir-Forsa, or Fursey's city.

Portentous signs and prodigies are frequently mentioned in the Irish annals at this period, such as showers of blood, and the darkening of the sun or moon, or the moon appearing as blood. In the reign of Niall Frassach there happened a dreadful famine; the monarch humbled himself, and in answer to his prayers there fell showers of silver, honey, and wheat. Hence his surname of Frassach, signifying "of the showers." McCurtin, who wrote about a century ago, says that in his time some of the coin made of the celestial silver was still preserved. As we approach the coming of the Danes the portents become more frequent and alarming. Eclipses of the sun and moon, pillars of fire in the sky, dragons seen in the air, and fleets of ships sailing through the clouds, filled the people with gloomy forebodings. In the year 767, and again in 799, occurred certain terrible fits of panic fear,

which are called in the annals *Lamhcho-mart*, or the "clapping of hands," "so called," say the Four Masters, "because terrific and horrible signs appeared at the time, which were like unto the signs of the Day of Judgment, namely, great thunder and lightning, so that it was insufferable to all to hear the one and see the other. Fear and horror seized the men of Ireland, so that their religious seniors ordered them to make two fasts, together with fervent prayer, and one meal between them, to protect and save them from a pestilence precisely at Michaelmas. Hence came the *Lamhcho-mart*, which was called the fire from heaven."†

The first descent of the Danish pirates on the coast of Ireland is mentioned thus by the Four Masters under the year 790: "The burning of Reachrann‡ by the Gentiles, and its shrines broken and plundered." England had been visited by them a few years earlier, and they did not again appear on the Irish coast until 793, when another party of them plundered and burned the church of St. Patrick's Island, near Skerries, on the Dublin coast, and carried off the shrine of St. Dochanna, committing other depredations on the sea-board of Ireland

\* Acta SS. Hib. p. 379, n. 9. Alcuin calls St. Colgu "master," and addresses him with great affection and veneration in a letter which is printed in Ussher's *Sylloge*.

† The annals mention a terrific storm with thunder and lightning, which occurred on the eve of St. Patrick's day, A. D. 799; and by which a thousand and ten persons were killed on the coast of Corcabaiscin, in Clare; and the island of Fitha (believed to be Inis-caerach, or Mutton island, opposite Kilmurry-Ibrickan, on that

coast) was partly submerged and divided into three islands.

‡ The island of Rathlin, on the coast of Antrim, and that of Lambay, in the bay of Dublin, were both anciently called Rechreinn, or Reachrann. The latter is the one here referred to. The date of the event, according to the Annals of Ulster, is 793; according to Tighernach, 793; and according to O'Flaherty's calculation, 795.



and Scotland. Henceforward their visits were repeated at shorter intervals, but for many years they came in small detached parties, apparently not acting in concert, but for the sole purpose of plunder, and without any view to a permanent settlement.

The people, popularly known in our history as Danes, comprised swarms from various countries in the north of Europe, from Norway, Sweden, Zealand, Jutland, and, in general, from all the shores and islands of the Baltic, who, compelled by their inhospitable soil to depend chiefly on the sea for a livelihood, devoted themselves, from an early period, to the adventurous and half-savage life of pirates or sea-rovers. In the Irish annals they are variously called Galls, or foreigners; Geinti, or Gentiles; and Lochlanni, or inhabitants of Lochlann, or Lake-land, that is, Norway; and they are distinguished as the Finn Galls, or White Foreigners, who are supposed to have been the inhabitants of Norway; and the Dubh Galls, or Black Foreigners, who were probably the people of Jutland, and of the southern shores of the Baltic Sea. A large tract of country, north of Dublin, still retains the name of the former. By English writers they have been called Ostmen and Vikings, and are known by the generic terms of Northmen or Scandinavians. They are scarcely heard

of in history until about the time their cruel depredations were first inflicted on southern nations, and long after that period they continued utterly illiterate, and seemed quite impervious to the light of Christianity. Their bold, adventurous, and ruthless spirit in the pursuit of pillage; the command of the ocean which their habits and numbers gave them; the combination in which they soon learned to act in their plundering excursions; the fierce barbarity with which they treated their victims; and, above all, the disunited and feeble state in which they found those countries upon which they preyed, gave them formidable advantages. Thus, for upwards of two centuries were they a scourge of the most fearful kind to Britain and Ireland, and to some of the maritime countries of Southern Europe. They were characterized by unparalleled daring, perseverance, and inhumanity. They seemed to have no tie of common humanity with those who fell into their power. With them there was no mercy for captives. At least such is the character which they receive from contemporary Saxon and French historians, for the Irish writers do not depict the atrocities of the Danes in the same colors, although the vivid traditions preserved even to the present day in Ireland show that their cruelties must have been appalling.\*

\* According to English writers, the butchery of children was a common practice with the Northmen in their first descents; their soldiers made a sport of flinging infants from the point of one spear to another, so as to

show their dexterity in catching the writhing bodies in mid air; and one of the Viking chiefs, described as a "brave pirate," received a nickname for his humanity in opposing this revolting pastime. See the authorities



But the plunder and desecration of churches and monasteries, and the slaughter of ecclesiastics, were the favorite exploits of these fierce pagans. Their descent upon any point was sure to be signalized by this sacrilegious rapine. Iona, or I-Columbkil, was laid waste by them in 797, and again in 801, when sixty-eight of its clergy and laity were massacred; the monastery of Inishmurray, off the coast of Sligo, was sacked and burned by them in 802, when they also penetrated into Roscommon; and in succeeding years, as these incursions became more frequent, all the religious houses of Ireland were subjected in their turn to the same process of devastation, and sometimes repeatedly within the same year. Armagh, with its cathedral and monasteries, was plundered by the Danes four times in one month; and in Bangor, 900 monks, with their abbot, were massacred by them in one day. "As few things of any value," observes a late writer, "could have survived such conflagrations, the mere wantonness of barbarity alone could have tempted them so often to repeat the outrage. The devoted courage, however, of those crowds of martyrs who still returned undismayed to the same

spot, choosing rather to encounter sufferings and death than leave the holy place untenanted, presents one of those affecting pictures of quiet heroism with which the history of the Christian Church abounds."\*

Dismayed, at first, and confounded by the assaults of the fierce and merciless invaders, who appeared at the same moment at several points, and the time and place of whose return could never be calculated, it was some time before the Irish made any regular stand against them. They soon, however, rallied from their panic, and discovered that their mysterious foes were as vulnerable as other men. When parties of the Danes landed unexpectedly, and were engaged in their work of pillage, a force was generally mustered in the neighborhood to resist them, and in innumerable instances the marauders were successfully attacked and driven back with slaughter to their ships. But these partial defeats had no effect on the desperate energies of the Northmen, who always returned in greater numbers the following year; and who, from their command of the sea, had their choice on all occasions of a landing-place, running up by the rivers into the heart of the country,

on these and many other atrocities of the Danes quoted in Sharon Turner's *History of the Anglo-Saxons*, vol. i.; and in MacCabe's *Catholic History of England*, vol. II., in which latter work the reader will find some just animadversions on Laing's "*Chronicle of the Kings of Norway*," in which Mr. Laing seems to like the northern pirates all the better for their paganism and fierceness, and attributes the easy conquest by them of the English Saxons to the effect upon the latter of "Romish superstition and church influence."

\* Moore's *History of Ireland*, vol. ii., p. 30. The appearance of some mysterious preacher is thus referred to in the *Irish Annals* under the year 806 (811):—"In this year the Ceile-Dei (culdee) came over the sea with dry feet, without a vessel; and a written roll was given him from heaven, out of which he preached to the Irish, and it was carried up again when the sermon was finished. This ecclesiastic used to go every day southwards across the sea, after finishing his exhortation."



and constructing fleets of small craft on the lakes in the interior, whence they were able, at any moment, to devastate the surrounding country.

The annals tell us that the foreigners were slaughtered by the men of Um-hal, in Mayo, in 812; by Covach, lord of Loch-Lein (Killarney), in the same year; by the king of Ulidia, and by Carbry, lord of Hy-Kinsella (south Leinster), in 827; by the men of Hy-Figeinte, in the west of Limerick, in 834, &c., but these and many similar defeats were of no avail, other parties of the adventurers being at the very same moment victorious at several points.\* After some twenty or thirty years had been consumed in these desultory attacks, the Danes determined on a more extensive scheme of invasion, and, combining their forces under one commander, fitted out large fleets for the purpose; but unfortunately, while the enemy were thus carrying out their plans for the subjugation of Ireland, the Irish princes and chieftains were wasting the energies of the country in wars among themselves, so that no combined effort against the common foe was ever even thought of.

Hugh (Aedh) surnamed Oirdnigh, or the legislator, son of Niall Frassach, of the northern Hy-Niall race, became monarch of Ireland in 793, and commenced his reign by desolating the province of Meath, then turning his arms against Leinster, which he devas-

tated twice in one month. When summoned to one of these sanguinary forays, the archbishop of Armagh and his clergy protested against the monstrous impropriety of the ministers of peace being obliged to attend their war-hostings. Such had hitherto been the custom; but Hugh now consented to leave the question to the decision of a holy and wise man called, from his knowledge of canon law, Fohy (Fothab) of the Canons; and the latter immediately prepared a statement, or essay, on the subject, the result being that ecclesiastics were henceforth exempted from the duties of war in Ireland.

A. D. 817.—Hugh Oirdnigh, after a reign of twenty-five years, was succeeded by Conor, who reigned fourteen years, during which period the Danish power was placed on a firm footing in many parts of Ireland, under a chief known in these countries as Tuirges, or Turgesius, but who cannot be traced by that name in any Scandinavian chronicles. He came to Ireland in 815, and fortified himself at Rinnduin, on the west side of Lough Ree, an expansion of the Shannon in Roscommon. All this time Ireland was laid waste as much by domestic wars as by the exactions, pillage, and burnings of the Northmen. While the latter were engaged in plundering Louth and some other districts, the men of Munster were at the work of plunder in Bregia, and Conor, the king

\* Eginhart, the historian of Charlemagne, clearly refers to the defeat of the Norsemen in Mayo, in 812, in the following passage:—"Classis Nordmannorum Hiber-

niam, Scotorum insulam, aggressa, commisso prælio cum Scotis, parte non modicâ Nordmannorum interfectâ, turpiter fugiendo domum reversa est."



of Ireland, instead of defending any of these territories, was himself busy plundering Leinster to the banks of the river Liffey.

A. D. 831.—Niall Caille, son of Hugh Oirdnigh, on assuming the now almost nominal sovereignty of Ireland, led an army against the Danes, whom he defeated at Derry, but his efforts were soon paralyzed. While the country was a scene of devastation from north to south—her people prostrate and hemmed in by foreign foes who extracted the marrow of the land—Felim (Feidhlimidh), king of Cashel, of the race of the Eoghanachts of South Munster, thought it a favorable opportunity to assert his own right to a share in the spoils. This selfish prince accordingly mustered an army and marched into Leinster to levy tribute, reviving the ancient claim of Eoghan Mor. The country must have been already little better than a wilderness, yet he found some work left for fire and sword; and went on in his career of plunder through the length of Ireland, till he reposed for a year in the primatial city of Armagh, having previously taken hostages from the unhappy monarch Niall, and from the king of Connaught. The annals of Innisfallen boast, on this account, that he was king of all Ireland. He also stopped at Tara; and on his return to the south, plundered and laid

waste the termon lands of Clonmacnoise, “up to the church door;” but he only survived this sacrilege one year, and died in 845, on his return to Munster. It does not appear from any ancient authority that this man’s parricidal arms were ever once turned against the Danes.

A. D. 843.—At this gloomy period appeared Meloughlin (Maelseachlainn) or Malachy, king of Meath, and monarch of Ireland, whose bravery and ability materially helped to save his country. His first exploit, while yet only king of Meath, was to get the tyrant Turgesius into his power, and make him pay the penalty of his atrocities by drowning him in Lough Owel, in Westmeath.\* This success was the signal for a general onslaught upon the foreigners in every part of Ireland. The people rose simultaneously, and either massacred them in their towns, or defeated them in the field; so that with the exception of some few strongholds, like that of Dublin (which they had seized in 836), the land of Ireland was freed from the Northmen. Wherever they could escape they sought refuge in their ships, but only to return in more numerous swarms than before.

A. D. 846.—Meloughlin being now monarch of Ireland, defeated the Danes at Farragh, near Skreen, in Meath, slaying 700 of them; while, in the

\* There is a romantic story told of the manner in which Meloughlin got Turgesius into his power. It is said that he pretended to give his daughter to the pirate chief but sent with her fifteen young men disguised

in female attire, who seized the tyrant and slew his attendants. This tale, however, only rests on the authority of Giraldus Cambrensis, and is rejected by Irish historians.



same year, Olchovar, the successor of Felim in Munster, aided by the Leinster men, inflicted another defeat, and a loss of 1,200 men on the Danes in Kildare. The foreigners suffered some further losses in that year, although they had at this time got some traitorous Irishmen into their ranks; and the following year, Meloughlin, assisted by Tighernach, lord of Lough Gower (near Dunshaughlin), plundered the Danes in their stronghold of Dublin.

A. D. 849.—Two contending parties now appeared among the Danes themselves. The Dubh Galls, or “Black Gentiles,” made a descent upon Ireland with a fleet of seven score ships, and assailed the Finngalls at different points, making an immense slaughter of them, and sacking their fortresses, so that the power of the white foreigners was quite crushed, until a reinforcement arrived to them in a fleet of one hundred and sixty sail (A. D. 850), when the conflict was renewed. The battle which ensued between them lasted three days and as many nights; and victory at length deciding in favor of the Black Galls, their opponents abandoned their shipping and fled inland. Next year, however (851), we find that all the foreigners in Ireland submitted to one chieftain, Amlaff, son of the king of Lochlann, or Norway, and that the Danish power was thus once more consolidated.

Amlaff lived in Dublin, and his brothers Sitric and Ivar fixed themselves, the former in Waterford, and the latter in Limerick; which towns, previously places of some note, were soon raised to considerable importance as Danish stations and commercial depots. An oppressive tax was now levied on the country by the Danes, in lieu of their previous system of predatory exactions, which, nevertheless, was not yet wholly abandoned.

Notwithstanding this tyranny and rapine on the one side, and indomitable resistance on the other, some symptoms of amalgamation between the Norsemen and natives are now visible, so that we begin to hear of the Dano-Irish, who partly adopted the Irish customs, and even the Irish language. During the remaining hundred and sixty years that the Northmen continued in Ireland on a hostile footing, we find them constantly in alliance with some recreant Irish chieftains, who aided them in their wars, both in Ireland and England, and availed themselves, in their turn, of their help to avenge private quarrels.\* The strangers, however, still continued inveterate heathens, and several persons who were put to death by them about this time are styled martyrs by the Irish annalists, intimating that they were slain for the sake of the Christian religion.

A. D. 857.—A great meeting of the

\* In one of the earliest of the alliances alluded to above, Kinna (Cineadh), lord of Cianachta Breagh, in the east of Meath, rebelled, with a Gentile force at his back, against Meloughlin, and, in the course of his depredations, burned the oratory of Trevet (Treoit), with

two hundred and sixty persons who had sought refuge in it; but, in the following year, he was captured by the monarch, and drowned in the river Nanny (Ainge, which flows through his own district.



chieftains of Ireland, with the archbishop of Armagh and other distinguished ecclesiastics, was collected this year by Meloughlin, at Rathugh, in Westmeath, "to establish peace and concord among the men of Ireland." Two chiefs who had been in temporary league with the Danes tendered their allegiance to the king on the occasion; namely, Kervall, or Carroll, lord of Ossory, and Maelgualai, king of Munster, the latter of whom was soon after stoned to death by the Danes. The first result of this meeting was a movement against the Hy-Nialls of the north, in which the monarch was aided by the other four provinces; and Hugh Finnliath, chief of the northern Hy-Nialls entered, in consequence, into an alliance with Am-laff, the Danish king of Dublin, and with his aid overran the territory of Meath. Three years later (860) the brave and magnanimous Meloughlin died, after a reign of sixteen years.

In the reign of this king the Irish historians mention an embassy from the king of Ireland to the emperor Charles the Bald, to inform him of the victories gained over the northern pirates, and to ask permission for the Irish monarch to pass through France on an intended pilgrimage to Rome. The name of Ireland was long before this time familiar in France; and it would even appear, from the statement

of Eginhart, the secretary and historian of Charlemagne, that the Irish kings had acknowledged that great monarch as their feudal lord.\*

Hugh Finnliath succeeded Meloughlin, and although we saw him just now ally of the Danes, it was only a temporary necessity that made him such, for no sooner had he established his authority by exacting submission and hostages from the chiefs of the several territories, than he directed his arms vigorously against the invaders, on whom he inflicted several discomfitures. The first of these was in 864, at Lough Foyle, where, after a sanguinary battle, the heads of twelve score Danes were piled in a heap before him; and again, two years after, he gained a decisive victory, with a band of one thousand men, over five thousand Danes and rebel Irish, at Cill-ua-nDaighre.† This battle, and other exploits of Hugh Finnliath, were favorite themes of the bards; and some beautiful Irish verses, quoted by the Four Masters in recording his death in the year 876, show with what feelings of enthusiasm this chivalrous Irish prince was regarded by his contemporaries. He was married to the daughter of the celebrated Kenneth MacAlpine, who conquered the Picts, and who became first sole king of Scotland, about the year 850; and after Hugh's death that lady married his successor, Flann, sur

\* Abbe MacGeoghegan, History of Ireland, p. 212.—The alliance between France and Ireland is said to have continued up to the English invasion; but Scottish writers, as in so many other instances, erroneously ap-

propriate to their own country this incident of Irish history.

† Probably Kiladerry, in the county of Dublin.—O'DONOVAN.











named Sinna, or of the Shannon, the son Meloughlin, and chief of the southern Hy-Nialls.\*

The monotonous tale of wars in which the several provinces are wasted and plundered by the Irish themselves, or by the Danes, or by Danes and Irish acting in concert, is varied during the long reign of Flann Sinna by two or three episodes, one of which, relating to the brief and eventful career of Cormac MacCuilennan, king and archbishop of Cashel, is worthy of particular mention.†

A. D. 896.—From a life of peace, devoted to the advancement of religion and the cultivation of literature, this holy prelate was taken, in one of the sudden political changes of the times, and compelled to ascend the throne of Munster, as chief of the Desmond sept of the Eoghanachts. To his horror, the good prelate found himself all at once involved inextricably in war. The territory of his friend, Lorcan, king of Thomond, was threatened with invasion by the king of Connaught, and repeated inroads were made about the same time into his own territories, as far as Limerick, by Flann, the monarch, who was in league with the men of Leinster. To make matters worse, his chief adviser or

minister, Flahertach, abbot of Inniscathy, who was also of the royal family of South Munster, was a man, according to all accounts, of a violent and obstinate temper, and of a disposition better suited to the field of battle than to the cloister. Impelled by the advice of this hot-headed counsellor, and by the circumstances in which he was placed Cormac made two campaigns against the combined forces of Connaught, Leinster, and Meath, in both of which he was victorious. In the first the engagement took place on the old battleground of Moy Lena, in the King's county; and in the second, Cormac's army marched as far as Roscommon, and was supported by a fleet of small vessels on the Shannon. These wars seemed so far just and inevitable; but they were followed by one of a more questionable kind. According to some, this latter war was undertaken at the instigation of Flahertach, and the chiefs of Munster, to enforce the tribute imposed on Leinster, as part of Leath Mogha in the days of Conary the Great; the same for which Felim laid waste the lands of Leinster some time before; but others assert that it was only intended to protect the abbey of Monasterevin, founded by Evinus, a Munster

\* In the reign of Hugh (861), the Danes bethought themselves of opening the vast sepulchral mounds of the Tuatha de Dananns, along the Boyne, in search of plunder. The caves under the great tumuli of New Grange, Knowth, Dowth, and Drogheda, were thus examined by them, we are not told with what success; but the record of the event is of interest in Irish antiquities, as fixing the sepulchral character of these remarkable

monuments.—See note of Dr. O'Donovan in the *Four Masters*, *ad an.*, and the arguments founded by Dr. Petrie on the fact in his "Essay on Tara Hill."

† Keating (*Hist. of Ireland*, part 2) has preserved from an ancient tract, now lost, a curious account of the reign of Cormac, and details of the battle in which he lost his life.—See Dr. Lynch's Latin translation of this account, *Four Masters*, vol. ii. p. 564, note b.



saint, on the confines of Leinster, and which the king of Leinster had now seized for his own people. Be this, however, as it may, Cormac was utterly opposed to this war. He referred the subject to a council of the chiefs, but their voice being unanimously for war, he made the necessary arrangements to carry out their wishes, at the same time that he tried sundry expedients to prevent hostilities. The men of Leinster were equally reluctant to go to battle, and sent ambassadors with very fair propositions, which the obstinacy of Flahertach and of those who agreed with him caused to be rejected. Cormac was grieved at this perversity, but was obliged to let things proceed. He foretold his own death, and made his will, bequeathing a number of valuable objects to Armagh, Inniscathy, and other churches and abbeys. He endeavored to conceal his forebodings from the soldiers, that they might not be dispirited: but the men had no confidence in their cause or their numbers; several fled before the battle, and many more at the beginning of the conflict; and when the combined forces of Leinster, Meath, and Connaught, with Flann at their head, met the small army of Munster, the victory was not long un-

certain. Cormac was killed, his horse rolling over him down the side of a declivity, rendered slippery by the blood of the slain; and a common soldier, discovering his body, cut off the head, and presented it to Flann, who only bewailed the death of so good and learned a man, and blamed the indignity with which his remains had been treated. Six thousand of the men of Munster, with a great number of their princes and chieftains, fell in this battle, which was fought (A. D. 903) at a place called Bealagh Mughna, now Ballaghmoon, in the county of Kildare, two or three miles north of the town of Carlow. Flahertach, who led one of the three divisions in which the Munster army was marshalled, survived the battle, and after some years spent in penance, became once more minister, and ultimately king of Munster, but entertained calmer views as he advanced in life.\*

A. D. 913.—Flann in his old age had the affliction to see his two sons, Donough and Conor, rebel against him; but Niall, surnamed Glundubh, or of the Black-Knee, son of Hugh Finnlaith, the northern Hy-Niall chief, led an army against them, and compelled them to give hostages for their submission to their father. Flann died the following

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\* The Annals of the Four Masters, whose chronology is generally followed in this history, unless when the contrary is stated, are here ante-dated five years, and the date of the death of Cormac was consequently 908. Cormac MacCuilennan has left a valuable Irish glossary, and is said to have been the compiler of the Psalter of Cashel. The number of scholars and eminent churchmen whose deaths are recorded in the Irish annals at this period, show that all the wasting warfare and bar-

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barities of the Danes, had not been able to extirpate piety or learning from the land of Erin. Among the distinguished names which we thus find, may be mentioned those of Maelmura of Fahan, who died in 885, and who has been already referred to in these pages as one of the oldest of the ancient poetic chroniclers of Ireland whose productions still survive; and Suivne, anchorite and scribe of Clonmacnoise, whose death occurred in 887



year (914), after a reign of thirty-eight years. and was succeeded by the chivalrous Niall Glundubh. About this time fresh forces of Northmen poured into Ireland, and they established an intrenched camp at Ceann Fuait (now Confey, near Leixlip), whence they sent out parties to pillage the country to a considerable distance. The spirit of unanimity which the men of Ireland exhibited on the occasion was cheering. A Munster army gained a victory over the Danes near the frontier of the southern province; and the gallant Niall Glundubh, notwithstanding the strong position which the foreigners then held in and around Dublin, was resolved to assail them in their principal fastnesses; but this attempt, although bravely made, was unsuccessful. In an assault on the Danish camp at Ceann Fuait, in 915, the Irish army was repulsed with great slaughter; and two years after the Irish received a disastrous defeat at Cill-Mosamhog or Kil-mashoge, near Rathfarnham, where they pressed upon the Northmen close to their stronghold of Ath-Cliath.\* Here Niall, with several Irish chieftains, fell, and his loss was bewailed long after by the bards in verses full of pathos and beauty. His reign was unfortunately too short for him to render his country the services for which his noble and heroic spirit so well fitted him.

Donough, son of Flann Sinna, succeed-

ed, and began his reign under favorable auspices, by slaughtering a great number of the Danes in Bregia; but he passed the remainder of it in comparative obscurity, one of the acts recorded of him being the slaying of his brother Donal treacherously. Godfred, the Danish chief of Dublin, plundered Armagh (A. D. 919), sparing the oratories with their Culdees; and from this clemency some infer that he had embraced Christianity, but we have no positive authority on the subject.

Two remarkable men, strongly contrasted in many points, now appeared on the scene in Ireland. These were Muirkertach, son of Niall Glundubh, next heir to the throne, and Callaghan of Cashel (Ceallachan Caisil), the king of Munster. The northern chieftain was a man of heroic and generous spirit, willing to sacrifice every personal feeling for his country. Twice did he find himself arrayed in arms against the worthless monarch Donough, but, as the annalists express it, "God pacified them;" or, in other words, Muirkertach was induced to yield for the sake of peace. Hitherto the Danish invaders had met no enemy so formidable as him in Ireland. Callaghan of Cashel was also renowned for heroism in war, but the love of country was no element in his character. The hereditary feud of the south and north was, in his mind, as strong an incentive to war as all the ravages of the heathen Danes; and we find him sometimes acting in concert with these plunderers, and sometimes

\* The true date of this battle is 919, the Annals of the Four Masters, which have it under 917, being at this period two years ante-dated.



against them. In the year 934, Callaghan, with his Munster army, pillaged Clonmacnoise a few months after it had suffered the same treatment from Am-laff and the Danes of Dublin; and again, in 937, he invaded Meath and Ossory in concert with the foreign enemy, laying waste the country without mercy. Two years after, Muirkertach took hostages from the men of Ossory and the Deisi, and forthwith Callaghan entered their territory and punished them for this act of compulsory submission to the Hy-Niall chieftain.

A. D. 939.—Muirkertach, having returned from an expedition against the Norsemen of the Hebrides, resolved to strike a desperate blow against the Danish power in Ireland, and to bring those who had acted with the enemy into submission to the monarch; and accordingly he set out, with an army of one thousand chosen heroes, on his famous circuit of Ireland. He commenced by carrying off, from Ath Cliath, Sitric, brother of Godfred, then king of the Danes, as a hostage, and proceeded on his march to the south. The men of Leinster mustered to oppose his progress, and assembled overnight in Glen-Mama near Dunlaven, through which his route lay; but as soon as they saw the northern warriors by the light of morning, they prudently retired, and Muirkertach marched on to Dus-Aillinn near old Kilcullen, where he took Lor-

can, king of Leinster, and fettered him as a hostage. The army of Munster was next in readiness to give battle to the warrior band; but they either thought better of it, and determined to surrender their king, Callaghan; or, according to other authorities, Callaghan himself requested them rather to give him up than to fight the Hy-Nialls. The king of Cashel was accordingly taken and put in fetters as Lorcan had been. Muirkertach then marched towards Connaught, when young Con-or, son of Teige of the Three Towers, king of that province, presented himself as a hostage, and was carried off, but not fettered. The son of Niall finally returned to Aileach with all his royal hostages, and having spent five months there in feasting, he handed them over to Donough the monarch, as his liege lord.\*

The heroic Muirkertach, called by our annalists "the Hector of the West of Europe," was slain by Blacaire, son of Godfred, king of the Danes, at Ar-dee, in Louth (941), in less than two years after this triumphant progress; and about ten years later (952), we find recorded the death of his old foe, Callaghan of Cashel, who had been permitted to return to his kingdom. This latter prince, who is celebrated in the romantic chronicles of the time, was the ancestor of the O'Callaghans, MacCarthys, and O'Keeffes.

\* Cormacan Eigeas, poet of Ulster, and the friend and counsellor of Muirkertach, celebrated this "circuit of Ireland" in a poem which has been published by the

Archæological Society of Ireland in the first volume of their Miscellany, 1841.



Donough, the feeble monarch of Tara, was succeeded in 942, after a reign of twenty-five years, by another nominal chief-king, Congallach, who, having fallen into a Danish ambuscade, in 954, was in his turn succeeded by Donnel O'Neill,\* son of Muirkertach.

The power of the Danes had greatly

increased at this period, and was exercised with as much barbarity as ever, and the victories gained over them by the Irish were comparatively few. But we have now arrived at an important epoch in the history of these Danish wars, which shall be developed in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER XIV.

Sequel of the Danish Wars.—Limits of the Danish power in Ireland.—Hiberno-Danish Alliances.—Danish Expeditions from Ireland into England, &c.—Conversion of the Danes to Christianity.—Consecration of Dano-Irish Bishops.—Subdivision of Territory in Ireland.—Alternate Succession.—Progress and Pretensions of Munster.—Brian Borumha.—Episode of his Brother's Murder.—Malachy II., Monarch of Ireland.—His victories over the Danes.—Wars of Brian and Malachy.—Deposition of Malachy.—Character of Brian's Reign.—His Pious and Wise Laws.—THE BATTLE OF CLONTARF.—Death of Brian.—Consequences of the Battle.

[FROM THE MIDDLE OF THE TENTH TO THE BEGINNING OF THE ELEVENTH CENTURY]

THE Danes never obtained the dominion of Ireland as they did that of England; nor was there consequently any Danish king of Ireland such as England had in her Canute or Harold. The first really formidable impression made by the Norsemen on Ireland was at the opening of the ninth century, when Cambrensis and Jocelin mention the viking Turgeis, or Turgesius, as king of Ireland. These writers also

make some obscure allusion to Gurmundus, the son of an African prince, as a conqueror of Ireland;† but this latter personage would appear to be purely fabulous, and the Irish annals clearly show that Turgesius never could have been justly styled king of Ireland.‡ Indeed, the authority of the Northmen in Ireland could not at any time be said to have extended beyond the ground occupied by their marauding

\* This is one of the first instances we meet of an hereditary surname in Ireland. It was assumed from Donal's grandfather, Niall Glundubh.

† The Danes were called Africans, or Saracens, in the medieval romances.

‡ Colgan (*Trias. Thaum.*, note on cap. 175, of Jocelin's *Life of St. Patrick*), says:—"Neither Gildas Moduda, nor John O'Dugan in the catalogue of the kings of Ire-

land, nor the Four Masters in the same catalogue or in the Annals, nor any other writer of Irish history, native, or foreign either, as far as I know, before Giraldus Cambrensis, enumerates Gurmundus or Turgesius among the kings of Ireland, although they make mention of Turgesius and other Normans as having, in 836 and the following years, disturbed the peace of that country by continual battles, and spoliations, and incursions."



armies. The Irish did not, like the Saxons, attempt to purchase peace from the Danes by money, but fought with desperate resolution in defence of themselves and their property, and generally made the northern freebooters pay dearly for the spoils they took. The latter were, however, permitted to establish themselves along the coast in Dublin, Wexford, Waterford, Youghal, Cork, and Limerick; and when some of these strongholds were occasionally taken by the Irish, the Danish inhabitants nevertheless purchased safety on easy terms. In these important seaports they became transformed from pirates to merchants, occupying small districts in their neighborhood for purposes of agriculture, and keeping up well-trained armies to levy black-mail in the interior. Sometimes they received such overthrows that the Irish annalists describe them as wholly driven from the country; but they invariably reappeared in greater force and with greater ferocity than before; and it is obvious that the expulsion was not on those occasions complete.

Thus, by degrees, did the Northmen become, as it were, a part of the recognized population of the country. They formed alliances, and made themselves indispensable as allies to one or other

of the Irish toparchs in every local quarrel. By their assistance the kings of Leinster were frequently able to resist the demands made for tribute both by the monarch and by the kings of Cashel. Sometimes the Danish chiefs of Dublin or Waterford left Ireland with their entire forces, apparently abandoning the country, for the purpose of making descents on England or Scotland, and in these excursions they were occasionally aided by Irish allies. In 916 there was an expedition by the Danes of Waterford against Alba, or Scotland, of which Constantine was then king, and the invaders were beaten. Again, in 925, the Danes are said to have left Dublin for six months; and in 937 they once more abandoned Dublin, led by Amlaff, or Olave, king of the Danes of Dublin and of the islands, and with numerous Irish auxiliaries invaded England. Constantine of Scotland, whose daughter was married to Amlaff, was this time an ally of the Northmen, who were also supported by the Welsh or Britons; but they were defeated by Athelstan, king of England, in the memorable battle of Brunanburgh in Northumbria.\*

The period of the conversion of the Danes to Christianity cannot be fixed with precision; but the general opinion

\* This battle is celebrated in verse in the Saxon chronicle; but on the death of Athelstan in 941, Amlaff returned to England and became king of Northumbria. Edgar, one of Athelstan's successors, in a charter dated at Gloucester, 964, boasts of having subdued "a great part of Ireland with its most noble city of Dublin," as well as "the Kingdoms of the Islands of the Ocean, with

their fierce kings; but as far as Ireland is concerned there is no ground whatever for the assertion, unless some defeat inflicted by Edgar on the Danes, not alluded to in our annals, be referred to. The charter is published in Ussher's *Sylloge*, p. 121. See also Ware's *Antiquities*, p. 14 (London, 1714).



is, that those of Dublin became Christians about the year 948, a date which is assigned to the foundation of St. Mary's Abbey, on the north side of the Liffey.\* Whatever time the change took place, the annals do not indicate any mitigation of cruelty on the part of the Danes to mark the period. In the very year in which the Danes of Dublin are said to have been converted, they burned the belfry of Slane, while filled with ecclesiastics and others, who had sought refuge there with some precious relics, among which was the staff of the holy founder, St. Erc.† At a later period it was usual for the Danish bishops of Dublin and Limerick to be consecrated by the archbishops of Canterbury, whose jurisdiction they acknowledged, so little was there of the community of Christian charity between them and their fellow-Christians in Ireland.

While matters were proceeding thus with the Danes in Ireland, the native political system of the Irish themselves was producing its worst fruits. An unlimited subdivision of territory was taking place, and the number of independent dynasts multiplying accordingly. The time had passed away when the division of the island into five provinces could be said to hold good. There were kings of North and South

Munster, besides independent lords of various territories in the southern province. Connaught was divided among two or three independent princes. Leinster, the battlefield of all the provinces, was at this time almost constantly in alliance with the Danes. Bregia was able to rebel against Meath, of which it was only a portion. The Hy-Nialls of the north were subdivided into Kinel-Connell and Kinel-Owen. The former of these were excluded from the sovereignty since the death of Flahertach in 760; and the dignity of monarch alternated from that time with tolerable regularity between the Kinel-Owen branch and the southern or Meath branch of the race of Niall of the Nine Hostages. The Uliadians, or people of eastern Ulster, had their own king, and were rarely on amicable terms with their Hy-Niall neighbors.

If the principle of alternate succession worked smoothly enough between the northern and southern houses of Hy-Niall, there was still no cordiality between them. One branch when in authority frequently devastated the territory of the other, to obtain hostages or enforce payment of tribute. But when the southern Hy-Niall, or Meath branch, was in possession of the crown, there was generally a palpable inferiority of power

\* The death of an abbot of Clonmacnoise named Connach, said to be one of the Finngalls, is mentioned in our annals so early as 866; and the Danish chief Godfred, who "spared the oratories and Culdees of Armagh" in 919, is conjectured by some to have been a Christian; but not upon sufficient grounds.

† Among the persons burned in the tower was Coen-

eachair, prefect of the school of Slane, whom Colgan (*Trias Thaum.* p. 219) believes to have been Probus, one of the biographers of St. Patrick. The event affords an illustration of one of the uses to which the Irish belfries or round towers were applied—namely, as places of retreat in time of war. No trace of the Slane tower is now visible.



displayed. Meath did not possess the resources of men, nor her princes often the vigorous activity and heroism which characterized the Kinel-Owen.

For some time the kingdom of Munster had been gradually attaining the importance to which its extent and resources entitled it. It suffered, to this time, less from war than any of the other provinces, and was thus rising not only within itself, but relatively by reason of the greater injury which the others underwent. The time had, therefore, arrived for its kings to reassert the old claim to the sovereignty of Leath Mogha, a claim which was the real cause of all the recent wars between Munster and Leath Cuinn; which served as a pretext for the aggressions of Felim, Cormac MacCuilennan, and Callaghan Cashel; and which was now about to rouse the energies of a more eminent man, whose career we are approaching—namely, Brian Borumha or Boru.\*

The sovereignty of Munster was to have alternated between the two great tribes of the Dalcassians, or North Munster race, and the Eoganachts, or race of South Munster; the former, as we have seen, descended from Cormac Cas, and the latter from Eoghan Mor, both sons of Oiliol Olum. But this rule was not observed; and for a long interval

the provincial crown was monopolized by the chiefs of Desmond, or South Munster. Cormac MacCuilennan wished to correct this injustice, although himself of the Eoganacht, or Eugenian line; and his friend Lorcan, king of Thomond, did succeed to the crown of Munster, or rather of all Leath Mogha, after two intervening Eugenian reigns. On the death of Lorcan, his son Kennedy (Cineidi) contested, in 942, the succession with the Eugenian prince, Callaghan Cashel, but yielded in a chivalrous spirit, and co-operated with him in some of his wars against the Danes and others. This Kennedy was the father of the illustrious Brian Borumha.

Mahon, the eldest son of Kennedy, successfully asserted his right to the crown of all Munster in 960, and performed many heroic exploits against the Danes of Limerick, and against the Connaught men, who had invaded Thomond. In his wars he was gallantly aided by his brother Brian, who distinguished himself for deeds of valor from his youth. Mahon's brilliant career filled his hereditary rivals of South Munster with envy and alarm, and a plot against his life was formed, A. D. 978, by Maelmhuaidh, or Molloy (ancestor of the O'Mahonys), king of Desmond, Donovan (ancestor of the O'Donovans), lord of Hy-Figeinte,† and Ivor, king of the

\* The surname of *Borumha*, or *Boraimhe*, is usually supposed to have been given from the tributes which Brian exacted; but its most probable derivation is from *Boromha*, now *Beal-Borumha*, an ancient fort on the Shannon, about a mile north of Brian's palace of Kin-

cora, or the present Killaloe.—*Four Masters*, vol. ii., p 1002, n. e.

† This important territory comprised the western part of the county of Limerick, and extended somewhat into the counties of Cork to the south, and Kerry to the west



Danes, of Limerick; this last-named person having, it is said, suggested the treacherous scheme. Mahon was invited to a banquet at the house of Donovan, at Bruree on the Maigue, and the bishop of Cork, with several others of the clergy, were induced to give him a solemn guarantee for his safety. He accordingly went, but was immediately seized by a band of Donovan's armed men, who handed him over to Molloy, who with a strong party lay in wait in the neighborhood; and next morning, in violation of the sacred pledge that had been given to him, he was basely put to death, a sword being plunged into his bosom.\* Brian took ample vengeance on the murderers of his brother. He slaughtered the Danes of Limerick in several battles,† slew the treacherous lord of Hy-Figeinte, and finally overthrew Molloy, who was killed in a battle at Ballagh Leachta, the scene of the murder, by Brian's son, Morough, then only fifteen years of age. Brian, on this, became king of both Munsters, and a few years later was acknowledged king of all Leath Mogha.

A. D. 979.—A battle was fought this year near Tara, in which the Danes of Dublin and the Islands were defeated with terrible slaughter, by Malachy, or Maelseachlainn, the king of Meath.

The rivers Maigue and Morning Star appear to have formed its boundary to the east as the Shannon did to the north.

\* This crime was perpetrated at a hill called Ballagh Leachta, which, according to some accounts, was at Redchair, on the confines of Limerick and Cork, but according to another authority, was in the vicinity of Mac-

Ragnal or Randal, son of Amlave, the Danish king of Dublin, was slain, with a vast number of his troops, and Amlave himself, soon after the defeat, went on a pilgrimage to Iona, where he died broken-hearted. Donnell O'Neill, son of Muirkertach, the monarch of Ireland, also died this year, after a reign of twenty-four years, and was succeeded by the king of Meath, Malachy II., sometimes styled the Great.

A. D. 980.—Flushed with success after the battle of Tara, Malachy, immediately on his accession to the sovereignty, marched against the Danes of Dublin, laid siege to the city, which he captured after being three days before its walls, and liberated two thousand Irish prisoners whom he found there, including the king of Leinster, besides taking a large amount of rich spoils. It was stipulated that all the race of Niall should be henceforth free from tribute to the foreigners; and Malachy issued a proclamation declaring every Irishman then in bondage to the Danes released from captivity.

Unfortunately, this auspicious commencement of Malachy's reign was soon marred by the bane of ancient Ireland—intestine wars. The successes and pretensions of the enterprising king of Munster excited the monarch's jealousy.

room, in Cork. See note by Dr. O'Donovan, *Four Masters*, an. 974 (*resté* 976).

† One of these battles was fought (A. D. 977) on Inis Cathy, where Brian made a fearful slaughter of the Danes; and he followed up this success by driving them from all the other islands of the Shannon.



Brian's claim to the sovereignty of Leath Mogha was, in fact, an imperative call to arms. Malachy accordingly entered the territory of the Dalcassians (A. D. 981), and, while laying waste the country, caused the great oak-tree of Magh Adhair,\* under which the kings of Thomond were inaugurated, to be taken up by the roots and destroyed. This was an unnecessary outrage, not easily to be forgiven, and showed the bitterness by which Malachy was animated.

The annals of the period present a chequered enumeration of plundering excursions, in which no party seems to have been free from blame. On various occasions Malachy showed his resentment against Brian. He sent a hostile army into Leinster in defiance of him, but this act was followed by a treaty, in which Brian's claim as king of Leath Mogha was admitted. Recalled from one of his forays by the reviving power of the Danes, Malachy again (A. D. 989) led an army against Dublin, defeated the Danes in battle, and laid siege "for twenty nights" to the Danish citadel, reducing the garrison to such straits that they were obliged to drink the salt water which they could procure when the tide rose in the river. At length he accepted terms, the Danes, in addition to former tributes, undertaking to pay him, annually on Christmas night during his reign, an ounce of gold for every garden attached to a dwelling in

Dublin. A few years later, Malachy and Brian were again at war, the latter being now, as far as we can judge, the aggressor; for, while the monarch was engaged in Connaught, Brian sent an army up the Shannon in boats and made an inroad into Meath, burning the royal rath of Dun Sciath. Upon this, Malachy, recrossing the Shannon, marched towards the south, burned Nenagh (Aenach-Tete), plundered all Ormond, and defeated Brian himself in battle (A. D. 994). He then marched once more against the Danes of Dublin, carrying away, among other spoils, the ring or chain of Tomar, a Scandinavian chief, who was killed, A. D. 846, in the battle of Sciath Neachtain, near Calstledermot.†

Three years after these events (A. D. 997 according to the Irish annals, but A. D. 998 according to our modern computation), we find Malachy and Brian, with the men of Meath and Munster, acting in conjunction, "to the great joy of the Irish," as the annalists tell us, and attacking the Danes of Dublin, whom they plundered of a great portion of their wealth. The following year the two kings gained an important victory over the Danes, who were led by Harold, son of Amlave, at Glen Mama, a valley near Dunlaven, in Wicklow, where Prince Harold was slain. The Irish army then marched to Dublin, where they remained for a

\* This is a place now called Moyre, near Tullagh, in the county of Clare. It derives its name from a Firbolg chief, Adhar, *vide supra*, p. 31, note.

† This exploit is the theme of Moore's popular melody "Let Erin remember the days of old," &c.



week, burned the citadel, expelled Sitric, son of Amlave, the Danish king, and took a number of prisoners and a large quantity of gold and silver. After so many defeats the Danish power must have been in a very feeble state; indeed, it only required unanimity, vigor, and foresight, on the part of the Irish princes, to expel all the Northmen from Ireland; but short-sighted policy still prevailed, and the tribute obtained from the Danes, together with the wealth brought by their merchants into the country, now made them objects of avarice rather than fear to the native kings.

A. D. 999 (1000).—This year is remarkable for the revolution which deposed Malachy, and raised Brian Borumha to the dignity of monarch of Ireland in his stead; but the accounts of the disputes between these two kings are so distorted by provincial partisanship that we can do no more than guess at the truth. The southern annalists represent Malachy as quite incapable of ruling Ireland, and Brian as only yielding to the solicitations of the other Irish princes in assuming the reins of government. They speak of general councils of the nation, and of a year's grace given in vain to Malachy to retrieve his credit. But the authentic annals of the Four Masters have not one word about all this, which, besides, is inconsistent with the active career of war and victory which we have seen Malachy thus far pursue. The character of Brian is popularly described as fault-

less; and if the unprejudiced mind finds it difficult to acquit him altogether of ambition and usurpation, still the use to which he converted the power he acquired, and the benefits, though transitory, which redounded from it to his country, to religion, and to civilization, may palliate faults not very heinous in themselves, considering the spirit and circumstances of the age in which he lived.

In the year last referred to the Four Masters say that Brian collected an army composed, in addition to his own Daí cassians and the men of Munster in general, of the forces of South Connaught, Ossory and Leinster, and of the Danes of Dublin, and marched against Malachy, with whom he is not stated to have had any cause of quarrel on this occasion. The Danish contingent, consisting of cavalry, dashed ahead into Bregia, to enjoy the first-fruits of the plunder, but they were encountered by the monarch himself, and cut off almost to a man. This sturdy reception which indicated no want of vitality on the part of Malachy, had its due effect, and Brian's invading army returned home without fighting or pillaging; but some assert that Malachy made concessions, and that Brian, though sure of victory, did not urge a battle. "This," say the northern annalists, "was the first turning of Brian and the Connaught men against Malachy."\*

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\* Dr. O'Donovan, in the *Annals of the Four Masters*, vol. ii., p. 742, note *d*, observes on this passage, that Tighearnach, who lived very near the period, calls Brian's



Next year a Munster army committed some depredations in Meath, and was compelled to relinquish its plunder. But the star of Malachy had waned, and, seeing that the feeling of the country was favorable to his rival, he submitted to his fate. Hence, when Brian, with an army composed partly of Danes, marched the following year, A. D. 1001 (1003 of the common era), to Athlone, Malachy gave him hostages, or in other words, surrendered to him the crown of Ireland.\* At the same time Brian received the hostages of Connaught; and then with a combined force, a section of which was led by Malachy himself, who followed Brian's standard as one of his lieges, he proceeded northward to bring Ulster into subjection. The northern Hy-Nialls, were not, however, yet prepared to acquiesce in the revolution; and Hugh, son of Donnell O'Neill, heir apparent to the sovereignty, with other northern chieftains marched out to oppose him, but the armies having met at

Dundalk (Dun Dealgan) separated without fighting, chiefly, as we are led to suppose, from Brian's unwillingness to shed the blood of his countrymen. It was some years, indeed, before he succeeded in reducing the Hy-Nialls of the north to submission; but in 1010 he compelled the Kinel Eoghain and the Ulidians to give him hostages, and in the following year he took the lord of Kinel Connell prisoner, and carried him to his palace at Kincora.† Hither he also conducted other refractory princes, and he at length succeeded in reducing the numerous petty kings and dynasts, whose mutual quarrels and aggressions were the curse of Ireland, into complete subordination. This led to that happy state of tranquillity and obedience to the laws which the bards have illustrated by the well-known fable of a beautiful lady carrying a gold ring on a white wand, and passing unmolested though the land.

What Brian had effected for his own province of Munster, before he became

opposition to Malachy "turning through guile or treachery:" and in a preceding note he remarks:—"Dr. O'Brien, in his *Law of Tanistry*, and others, assert that Maelseachlainn resigned the monarchy of Ireland to Brian because he was not able to master the Danes; but this is all provincial fabrication, for Maelseachlainn had the Danes of Dublin, Meath, and Leinster completely mastered, until Brian, whose daughter was married to Sitric, Danish king of Dublin, joined the Danes against him. Never was there a character so historically maligned as that of Maelseachlainn II. by Munster fabricators of history."

\* Mr. Moore (*Hist. of Ireland*, vol. ii., p. 101), says: "The ready acquiescence with which, in general, so violent a change in the polity of the country was submitted to, may be in a great degree attributed to the example of patience and disinterestedness exhibited by the immediate victim of this revolution, the deposed

Malachy himself. Nor, in forming our estimate of this prince's character, from a general view of his whole career, can we well hesitate in coming to the conclusion, that not to any backwardness in the field, or want of vigor in council, is his tranquil submission to the violent encroachments of his rival to be attributed; but to a regard, rare at such an unripe period of civilization, for the real interests of the public weal, and an unwillingness to risk, for his own personal views, the explosive burst of discord which, in so inflammable a state of the political atmosphere, a struggle for the monarchy would, he knew, infallibly provoke."

† The name Ceann Coradh signifies the Head of the Weir, and the site of this celebrated fortress and palace of Brian Borumha is comprised in the present town of Killaloe, that is, Cill Dalua, or the Church of St. Lua or Molua, a saint of the seventh century.



monarch of Ireland, he now, as far as possible, did for the whole country. He restored monasteries and schools destroyed by the Danes; caused the desecrated churches to be rebuilt and consecrated, and founded new ones; but, among the latter, the only ones mentioned by name are those of Killaloe and Iniscealtra. He built the round tower of Tuamgreine (Tomgrany) in the present county of Clare; erected new forts and strengthened old ones; encouraged commerce and promoted learning and piety. On visiting Armagh, at the commencement of his reign, he laid an offering on the principal altar there of twenty ounces of gold—a large

amount at that period—and made generous presents for the support of our religion in other churches.\*

Among the useful laws which Brian instituted was one for fixing surnames. Before this time (A. D. 1002) a few surnames, as that of O'Neill, were coming into use; but from Brian's reign they became imperative, and each family selected the name of some distinguished ancestor, which, with the prefix *Mac* or *O*, "son," or "grandson," was to be thenceforth the family name. With few exceptions, the ancestors thus chosen were men who flourished in the tenth, or the beginning of the eleventh, centuries.†

\* On this visit to Armagh in 1004, Brian got his secretary, Maelsuthain (*Calvus-perennis*) to write in his presence, in the Book of Armagh, a confirmation of certain dues to that church, which had been paid since the time of St. Patrick; and in the entry, which still exists, Brian is styled *Imperatoris Scotorum*. On this occasion he encamped for a week in the great fort of Emania the ancient palace of the kings of Ulster.

† The most ancient account, says Dr. O'Donovan, of the fact of Brian first establishing surnames, is found in a fragment of a MS. in the Library of Trinity College, Dublin (H. 2, 16), supposed to be part of MacLiag's Life of Brian Borumha, in which the following passage occurs:—"It was Brian that gave out seven monasteries both furniture, and cattle, and land; and thirty-two Cloictheachs (or Round Tower belfries); and it was by him the marriage ceremony was confirmed (made binding): and it was during his time that surnames were first given, and territories were allotted to the surnames, and the boundaries of every territory and cantred were fixed." The following is the origin of some of these surnames:—The MacCarthys of Desmond, from Carthach, who was slain in 1045; the Fitzpatricks, or MacGillapatricks of Ossory, from Gillaphadarig, lord of Ossory, who was slain in 995; O'Phelan, from Faelan, lord of the Deisi, whose son Donnell was one of those by whom the aforesaid Gillaphadarig was killed; MacMurrrough of Leinster, from Murchadh (son Diarmaid, son of Mael-na-moo, king of Leinster), who died in 1070; MacNamara of Thomond, from Cumara (dog of the sea), who

flourished in 1074; O'Brien of Thomond, from Brian Borumha; O'Callaghan of Desmond, from Ceallachan, who flourished in 1092, and was the fourth in descent from Ceallachan Caisil, king of Munster, and common ancestor of the MacCarthys; O'Conor of Connaught, from Conchobhar, or Conor, king of Connaught, who died in 974; O'Conor of Corcomroe, from Conor who was slain in 1002; O'Conor Kerry, from Conor, whose grandson, MacBeatha, was slain at Clontarf; O'Donnell of Tirconnell, from an ancestor who flourished in 950; O'Donoghue of Kerry, from an ancestor who flourished in 1050; O'Donovan, from Donovan, king of Hy-Fidhgeinte, slain by Brian Borumha in 976; O'Dowda of Mayo, from an ancestor in 876; O'Dugan, or Duggan of Fermoy, from Dubhagan, killed at Clontarf; O'Heyne, or Hynes of Galway, from Eidhin, whose grandson was killed at Clontarf; O'Kelly of Hy-Many, from an ancestor who flourished in 874; O'Madden of Hy-Many, from Madudhan, slain in 1008; O'Mahony of Desmond, descended from Kian (son of Molloy, who was present at Clontarf); O'Melaghlin of Meath, from Maelseachlain, or Malachy II., king of Ireland; O'Molloy of the King's county, from an ancestor in 1019; O'Neill of Tyrone, from Niall Glundubh, king of Ireland, in 919; O'Quin of Thomond, from Niall O'Cuinn, slain at Clontarf; O'Rourke of Breffny, from Ruarc, son of Tighearnan, who died in 893; O'Sullivan of Desmond, from Suillevan, about 950; and O'Toole of Leinster, from Tuathal, son of Ugaire, who flourished in 935.—(*Chiefly from Essays, by Dr. O'Donovan, on Irish names.*) Surnames were generally introduced



A. D. 1013.—Such is the glowing picture drawn by Irish historians of the victories, wise government, and many virtues of Brian Borumha; but the interval of tranquillity which he had created was brief, and the odium of violating it is cast upon Maelmordha MacMurrough,\* who, through the assistance of the Danes, had some years previously usurped the throne of Leinster. It is said that this prince received some offence from Brian's son Murrough, at the court of Kincora, and that in order to be revenged he stirred up his allies, the Danes of Dublin, to acts of aggression. Be the cause what it may, a storm was raised, which, though short, was the most serious in its results that Ireland had yet witnessed. The Danes and Leinster men commenced it (A. D. 1013) by an inroad into Meath, where they were routed by Malachy, who is then said to have solicited the assistance of Brian, but unsuccessfully; and it was only after another conflict near Ben Edar, or Howth, in which Malachy lost his son, Flann, and two hundred men, that the venerable hero of Kin-

cora became sensible of the menacing nature of the new outbreak. Brian now sent an army under his son, Morough, into Leinster to make reprisals, and they plundered the country "from Glendalough to Kilmainham (Cill-Maighneann);" and later in the year he himself marched at the head of a considerable force to the vicinity of Dublin, where he remained encamped for three months; but the enemy not venturing out, he returned to the south about Christmas, contenting himself with plundering the territory of the traitor Maelmordha.

A. D. 1014.—Meanwhile, the Danes had been making extraordinary preparations for war. Envoys were despatched for aid into Norway, the Orkneys, and the Baltic Islands; and the foreigners gathered, as the annals tell us, "from all the west of Europe." It was represented that an opportunity offered for obtaining complete possession of Ireland, and great numbers of the vikings accordingly came with their families for the purpose of taking up their residence permanently.† At this moment the

throughout Europe in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth centuries. The custom of the Irish was not to take names or titles from places, as in other countries; but, on the contrary, to give the family names to the lands or seigniories they held. See *Ogygia Vindicated*, p. 170; *Four Masters*, vol. iii. p. 90, n. p.

\* This king was the ancestor, not of the MacMurroughs or Kavanaghs, as some suppose, but of the O'Beirnes of Leinster. His sister, Gormliath, was first the wife of Amlave the Dane, by whom she had Sitric, king of Dublin; and she then became the second wife of Brian Borumha, who soon after repudiated her; and, according to the *Niala Saga*, in which she is called the beautiful Kormloda, it was she who, in revenge, stirred

up the northern sea-kings against Brian, and brought about the battle of Clontarf.

† In the chronicle of Ademar, monk of St. Eparchius of Anguoleme, quoted by Lanigan from Labbe (*Nova Bibl. MSS.* tom. 2, p. 177), it is stated that the Northmen came at that time to Ireland with an immense fleet, conveying their wives and children, with a view of extirpating the Irish and occupying in their stead "that very wealthy country in which there were twelve cities, with extensive bishoprics and a king, and which had its own language and Latin letters, and was converted by St. Patrick," &c. Labbe thinks the Chronicle was written before 1031, in which case the writer was contemporary with Brian Borumha, and the document the oldest,



same people were effectually making themselves masters of England. Sweyn was proclaimed king of England in 1013, and Canute the Great became undisputed monarch of England in 1017; so that it is little wonder if, flushed with a career of such triumph elsewhere, the Danes should have reckoned with certainty on finally obtaining the coveted soil of Ireland, on which they had now had a partial footing for two hundred years. A thousand Northmen, encased in ringed armor from head to foot, came under the command of Anrud and Carlus, sons of the king of Norway; Sigurd, son of Lodar, earl of the Orkneys, arrived at the head of a powerful band; and a numerous fleet of the northern vikings was under the command of their admiral, Brodar, who, according to Scandinavian accounts, was an apostate from Christianity, a great blasphemer, and an adept in magic. Neither was the king of Leinster idle, for he mustered all his fighting-men, to the number, it is said, of 9,000; and the Danes of all Ireland were prepared to strike a desperate blow for the recovery of their former power.

Brian could not have been aware of the full extent of these preparations; yet he, too, was resolved to make a gallant effort, and collected a considerable army, chiefly from the south and west. The year was ushered in with depredations by the Danes and Leinster men in Meath and Bregia, and a challenge from

Maelmordha to Brian to meet him with his army on the spacious plain of Moynealta, or, rather, on that part of it called Clontarf.\*

The Irish army arrived about the middle of April, A. D. 1014, at their usual camping ground of Kilmainham, which extended on both sides of the Liffey, and comprised the land now called the Phoenix Park; and Brian detached a body of his Dalcassians, under his son Donough, to devastate Leinster, which was unprotected in the absence of Maelmordha and his army. The Danish admiral, Brodar, with his auxiliaries, entered Dublin bay on Palm Sunday, the 18th of April, and Donough's movement having been communicated to Maelmordha by some traitor in Brian's camp, it was resolved that the battle should be hastened while the Irish army was weakened by his absence. According to a Danish legend, Brodar had been informed by some pagan oracle that if the battle took place on Friday Brian would fall, although victorious, while if it were fought on any other day of the week all his assailants would be slain; and it is said that the Danes therefore resolved to make the attack on Good Friday.

The exact site of the battle seems to be tolerably well defined. In Dr. O'Connor's edition of the Four Masters it is called "the battle of the fishing weir of Clontarf;† and the weir in

as Dr. Lanigan thinks, in which the name of *Irlanda* is applied to this country.

\* Cluain Tarbh, the lawn or meadow of the bulls.

† *Cath Coradh Cluana tarbh*—which Dr. O'Connor erroneously translates, "*Prælium heroicum Cluan tarbhæ*."



question was at the mouth of the Tolka or Tulcainn, where Ballybough bridge now stands. It also appears that the principal destruction of the Danes took place when in their flight they endeavored to cross the Tolka, no doubt at the moment of high water, when numbers of them were drowned; it is expressly stated that they were pursued with great slaughter "from the Tolka to Dublin." We may, therefore, presume that their lines extended along the coast, with their left wing resting on the little river just mentioned, and protected by the marshes which then covered the low ground between that and the mouth of the Liffey; while their right wing extended in the direction of Dollymount; the newly-arrived Danish fleet being anchored either at Howth or in the rear of the army.

The Danish and Leinster forces, numbering together about 21,000 men, were disposed in three divisions, of which the first, or that nearest to Dublin, was composed of the Danes of Dublin, under their king, Sitric, and the princes Dolat and Conmael, with the thousand mailed Norwegians under the youthful warriors Carlus and Anrud. The second, or central division, was composed chiefly of the Lagenians, commanded by Maelmordha himself, and the princes of Of-faly and of the territory of the Liffey;\* and the third division, or right wing, was made up of the auxiliaries from the

Baltic and the Islands, under Brodar, admiral of the fleet, and Sigurd, son of Lodar, earl of the Orkneys, together with some auxiliaries from Wales and Cornwall.

To oppose these the Irish monarch also marshalled his forces in three corps or divisions. The first, composed chiefly of the diminished legion of the brave Dalcassians, was under the command of his son Morough, who had also with him his four brothers, Teige, Donnell, Conor, and Flann, sons of Brian, and his own son, Turlough, who was but fifteen years of age. In this division was placed Malachy, with his contingent of a thousand Meath men; and here we may refer to the dishonorable charges made against this deposed king by all the southern chroniclers, who assert that he was the traitor who had apprised Maelmordha of Donough's departure from the camp with a large detachment of the Dalgais into Leinster and that on the morning of the battle he withdrew his troops from the Irish lines, and remained inactive throughout the day. This unworthy conduct is so inconsistent with the whole career of Malachy that the charge has been rejected by Mr. Moore in his *History of Ireland*, and by Dr. O'Donovan in his notes to the *Four Masters*; yet we believe it has not been imputed to him without sufficient grounds, and that more recent researches will be found to establish the fact that Malachy made overtures to Teige O'Kelly, the commander of the Connaught army, to

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\* The *Annals of Clonmacnoise* say the O'Mores and O'Nolans did not join the other Leinster septs at Clontarf.



abandon Brian on the eve of the battle. Malachy's sympathies were Meathian rather than national, and, considering the provocation which he had received from the man who usurped his crown, we may find some excuse for him in the circumstances; even admitting, what appears to be the fact, that he held aloof with the army of Meath during the early part of the fight. We shall presently see that before the close of the day he made amends for the morning's dereliction of duty.

Brian's central division comprised the troops of Desmond, under the command of Cian, son of Molloy (ancestor of O'Mahony), and Donnell, son of Duvdavoran (ancestor of O'Donoghoe), both of the Eugenic line; together with the other septs of the south, under their respective chiefs, viz.: Mothla, son of Faelan, king of the Desies; Muirkertach, son of Anmcha, chief of Hy-Liathain (a territory in Cork); Scannlan, son of Cathal, chief of Loch Lein, or Killarney; Loingseach, son of Dunlaing, chief of the territory of Hy-Conall Gavra, comprised in the present baronies of Upper and Lower Connello, in the county of Limerick; Cathal, son of Donovan, chief of Carbry-Eva (Kenry, in the same county); MacBeatha, chief of Kerry Luachra; Geivennach, son of Dugan, chief of Fermoy; O'Carroll, king

of Eile; and, according to some accounts, O'Carroll, king of Oriel, in Ulster.

The remaining Irish division, which formed the left wing opposed to the great body of the newly-arrived foreigners in the Danish right wing, was composed mainly of the forces of Connaught, under Teige O'Kelly, king of Hy-Many; O'Heyne, or Hynes, king of Hy-Fiachra Aidhna; Dunlaing O'Hartagan; Echtigern, king of Dal Aradia, and some others. Under the standard of Brian Borumha also fought that day the Maermors, or great stewards of Lennox and Mar, with a contingent of the brave Gaels of Alba. It would even appear, from a Danish account, that some of the Northmen who had always been friendly to Brian fought on his side at Clontarf. Some other Irish chiefs besides those enumerated above are mentioned in the Innisfallen Annals, as those of Teffia, &c. A large body of hardy men came from the distant maritime district of Connemara; many warriors flocked from other territories, and, on the whole, the rallying of the men of Ireland in the cause of their country on that memorable occasion, as much as the victory which their gallantry achieved, renders the event a proud and cheering one in Irish history. It is supposed that Brian's army numbered about twenty thousand men.\*

\* The Danes were better equipped in the battle than their antagonists, and the fame of their ringed and scaled armor was spread far through Ireland. In an Irish legend of the time, the Banshee, Eevin of Craglea, is represented as endeavoring to keep O'Hartagan from the fight by reminding him that while the Gaels were

only dressed in "satin shirts," the Danes were enveloped in "coats of iron." But the Irish battle-axes were better than any defensive armor. Cambrensis tells us that these terrible weapons were wielded by the Irish with one hand, and thus descended from a greater height and with greater velocity, "so that neither the crested hel



The Danes having resolved to fight on Good Friday, contrary to the wishes of Brian—who was unwilling to desecrate that day with a scene of carnage, and who also desired to await the return of his son Donough—and the respective armies being marshalled as we have described, the venerable Irish monarch appeared on horseback at break of day, and rode along the lines, animating the spirits of his men. While he grasped his sword in the right hand, he held a crucifix in the left, and addressing the troops, reminded them of all the tyranny and oppression of the hateful enemy who stood against them; of all their sacrilegious outrages; their church-burnings and desecration of sacred relics; their murders and plunder, and innumerable perfidies. “The great God,” he continued, “hath at length looked down upon our sufferings, and endued you with the power and the courage this day to destroy forever the tyranny of the Danes, and thus to punish them for their innumerable crimes and sacrileges, by the avenging power of the sword;” and raising aloft the crucifix, he exclaimed, “was it not on this day

that Christ himself suffered death for you?”

He then gave the signal for action, and the venerable king was about to lead his Dalcassian phalanx to the charge, but the general voice of the chieftains compelled him to retire into the rear, and to leave the chief command to his son Morough.\*

The battle then commenced, “a spirited, fierce, violent, vengeful, and furious battle, the likeness of which was not to be found in that time,” as the old annalists quaintly describe it. It was a conflict of heroes. The chieftains engaged at every point in single combat, and the greater part of them on both sides fell. The impetuosity of the Irish was irresistible, and their battle-axes did fearful execution, every man of the ten hundred mailed warriors of Norway having been cut down by the Dalcassians. The heroic Morough performed prodigies of valor throughout the day. Ranks of men fell before him; and hewing his way to the Danish standard, he cut down two successive bearers of it with his battle-axe.† Two Danish leaders, Carlus and Con-

met could defend the head, nor the iron folds of the armor the body. Whence it has happened, even in our times,” he continues, “that the whole thigh of a soldier, though cased in well-tempered armor, has been lopped off by a single blow of the axe, the limb falling on one side of the horse, and the expiring body on the other.” Besides these broad axes, which were exceedingly well steeled, the Irish, according to Cambrensis, used short lances and darts, and they were “very dexterous, beyond other nations, in slinging stones in battle, when other weapons failed them.” Top. Hib. dist. 3, cap. 10. Their swords were ponderous, of great length, and edged only on one side. Harris's Ware, vol. ii., p. 162

\* The age of Brian, according to the usually received accounts, was eighty-eight, and that of Morough sixty-three; but the date (941) given for the birth of Brian, in the Annals of Ulster, would make his age at the battle of Clontarf only seventy-three; and Dr. O'Donovan, who thinks that to be the true account, conjectures that his son Morough was no more than forty-three years of age. Morough's son Turlough was a youth of only fifteen years.

† This achievement is mentioned in the Danish account of the battle, in which Morough is called *Kerthialfadr*.



mael, enraged at this success, rushed on him together, but both fell in rapid succession by his sword. Twice, Morough and some of his chiefs retired to slake their thirst and cool their hands, swollen from the violent use of the sword and battle-axe, and the Danes, observing the vigor with which they returned to the conflict, succeeded by a desperate effort in filling up the brook which had refreshed them. Thus the battle raged from an early hour in the morning, innumerable deeds of valor being performed on both sides, and victory appearing still doubtful, until the third or fourth hour in the afternoon, when a fresh and desperate effort was made by the Irish; and the Danes, now almost destitute of leaders, began to waver and give way at every point. Just at this moment the Norwegian prince, Anrud, encountered Morough, who was unable to raise his arms from fatigue, but who with the left hand seized Anrud, and, shaking him out of his armor, hurled him to the earth, while with the other he placed the point of his sword on the breast of the prostrate Northmen, and leaning on it plunged it through his body. While Morough, however, was stooping for this purpose, Anrud contrived to inflict on him a mortal wound with a dagger, and the Irish warrior fell in the arms of victory. This disaster had not the effect of turning the fortune of the day, for the Danes and their allies were in a state of utter disorder, and along their whole line had commenced

flying towards the city or to their ships. They plunged into the Tolka at a time when the river must have been swollen with the tide, as great numbers were drowned. The body of young Turrough was found after the battle "at the weir of Clontarf," with his hands entangled in the hair of a Dane with whom he had grappled in the pursuit.

But the chief tragedy of the day remains to be related. Brodar, the pirate admiral, seeing the route general, was making his way through some thickets with only a few attendants, when he came upon the tent of Brian Borumha, left at that moment without his guards. The fierce viking rushed in and found the aged monarch at prayer before the crucifix, which he had that morning held up to the view of his troops, and attended only by a bevy; Conaing, the son of his brother Duncuan. Brian, however, had time to seize his arms, and died sword in hand. The Irish accounts say, that he killed Brodar, and was only overcome by numbers; but the Danish version in the Niala Saga is more probable, and in this Brodar is represented as holding up his reeking sword and crying:—"Let it be proclaimed from man to man that Brian has been slain by Brodar." It is added on the same authority that the ferocious pirate was then hemmed in by Brian's returning guards, and captured alive, and that he was hanged upon a tree, and continued to rage like a beast of prey until he was eviscerated; the Irish soldiers thus



taking savage vengeance for the death of their king, who but for their own neglect would have been safe.

To this period of the battle may be applied the statement of the Four Masters to which we have already alluded, namely, that the foreigners and Leinster men "were afterwards routed by dint of battling, bravery, and striking, by Maelseachlainn (Malachy) from Tulcainn (the Tolca) to Ath-Cliath (Dublin)." According to the account inserted in the Dublin copy of the Annals of Innisfallen, thirteen thousand Danes and three thousand Leinster men fell in the battle and the flight, but this is a modern exaggeration. The authentic Annals of the Four Masters say, that "the ten hundred in armor were cut to pieces, and at least three thousand of the foreigners slain;" the Annals of Ulster state that seven thousand of the Danes perished by field and flood; the Annals of Boyle, which are very ancient, count the number of Danes slain in the same way as the Four Masters do; so that, in all probability, the Ulster Annals include the Leinster men in their sum total of the Danish side. The loss of the Irish is also variously stated, but it cannot have been much less than that of the enemy. Ware seems to doubt whether the Irish had a decided victory, and mentions a report that the

Danes rallied at the close of the battle, but the doubt which he raises merits no attention, seeing that even the Danish accounts admit the total rout, and the great slaughter of their own troops. The Scalds of Norway sang dismal strains about the conflict, which they always call "Brian's Battle;" and a Scandinavian chieftain, who remained at home, is represented as inquiring from one of the few who had returned, what had become of his men? and receiving, for answer, "that all of them had fallen by the sword!" A contemporary French chronicler describes the defeat of the Northmen as even more sanguinary than it really was, stating that all of them were slain, and that a number of their women threw themselves in despair into the sea.\*

According to the Annals of Ulster, and other Irish authorities, there were among the slain on the side of the enemy, Maelmordha, son of Murchadh, king of Leinster; Brogován, tanist of Hy-Falgia; Dunlaing, son of Tuathal, tanist of Leinster; Donnell O'Farrell, king of the Fortuaths of Leinster; Duv gall, son of Amlave, and Gillakieran, son of Gluniarn, two tanists of the Danes; Sigurd, son of Lodar; Brodar, who had killed Brian; Ottir Duv; Suartgar; Duncha O'Herailv; Grisane; Luimni and Amlave, sons of Lagmainn, &c.

\* Ademar's Chronicle, as quoted above. This writer adds, what we know to be an error, that the battle lasted three days. The preceding details of the battle of Clontarf are collected from the Annals of Innisfallen, and other Southern authorities, quoted by O'Halloran,

Keating, &c.; the Annals of the Four Masters with O'Donovan's annotations; the *Niala Saga*, as given with a Latin version in Johnstone's *Antiquitates Celtae Scandicae*; and other sources.



Among the slain, on the Irish side, besides Brian, his son Morough, and his grandson Turlough, are mentioned Conaing, son of Doncuan, Brian's nephew; Cuduiligh, son of Kennedy; Mothla, lord of the Desies; Eocha, chief of the Clann Scannlain; Niall O'Cuinn\*—the three latter being the king's aides-de-camp or companions—Teige O'Kelly; Mulroney O'Heyne; Gevnach, son of Dugan; MacBeatha of Kerry Luachra, ancestors of the O'Conors-Kerry; Donnell, lord of Corcabaiscin; Dunlaing O'Hartagan; the great stewards Mar and Levin (Lennox), and many others. The annals add that Brian and Morough both lived to receive the last rites of the church,† and that their remains, together with the heads of Conaing and Mothla, were conveyed by the monks to Sord Columb Cille (Swords), and from thence, through Duleek and Louth, to Armagh, by Maelmuire (servant of Mary) the Coarb of St. Patrick; and that their obsequies was celebrated for twelve days and nights with great splendor by the clergy of Armagh; after which the body of Brian was deposited in a stone coffin on the north side of the high altar in the cathedral; the body of his son being interred on the south side of the same church. The remains of Turlough, and of several of the other chieftains, were buried in the old church-yard of Kilmainham, commonly known as "Bul-

ly's Acre," where the shaft of an ancient Irish cross still marks the spot.

The day after the battle, Donough, son of Brian, arrived with the spoils of Leinster, and met his brother Teige with the surviving Irish chieftains and the remains of their victorious army. He made rich presents to the clergy of Armagh, and to those of other churches; and about Easter Monday the camp broke up, and the chiefs with their respective forces took each the road towards his own territory. It is related that while the Dalcassians were on their march home through the territory of Ossory, MacGillapatrik, the prince of that country, attempted to oppose their progress and demanded hostages; but the sons of Brian, with their shattered battalion, prepared to give him battle; and the Dalcassians are said to have afforded on the occasion a memorable example of heroism. The wounded warriors were tied to stakes in the front ranks, each wounded man between two of his sound companions; but the men of Ossory, appalled by so desperate a preparation for resistance, or moved by some more honorable feeling, refused to fight against such an enemy, and the heroes of Thomond were allowed to proceed in peace.

Soon after we read of fresh instances of discord in the southern province. The two Desmonian chiefs, Cian and Donnell, son of Duvdavoran, fought

\* Ancestor of the O'Quinns of Thomond, of whom the earl of Dunraven is the present head.—O'DONOVAN.

† Marianus Scotus thus records the death of Brian in

his chronicles;—"Brian, king of Hibernia, slain on Good Friday, the 9th of the Calends of May (April 23d) with his mind and his hands turned towards God."



after their return from Clontarf, and the former, who was celebrated by the bards for his beauty and stature, was slain, together with some chiefs who were on his side; while the following year (1015), Donnell, who asserted his claim to the throne of all Munster even on the day after the battle of Clontarf, led an army to Limerick, where he was encountered and slain by the two sons of Brian, Donough and Teige.

Meanwhile Malachy resumed the authority of monarch with the tacit consent of the Irish chiefs, and by his frequent and successful attacks on the Danes of Dublin, and his onslaughts on the people of Leinster and of other territories, in the assertion of his sovereignty, he proved that he still possessed energy enough to rule the country. A month before his death he gained an important victory over the Danes of Dublin, at Athboy, or the Yellow Ford of Tlachta, in Meath, and died A. D. 1022, in Cro Inis, an island of Lough Ennel in Westmeath, opposite the fort of Dun Sciath, which had been his residence; having reigned eight years after the battle of Clontarf, and reached the seventy-third year of his age.

The Annals of Clonmacnoise state that Malachy "was the last king of Ireland of Irish blood that had the crown;

but that there were seven kings after without crown, before the coming of the English." Two of these kings, however, were acknowledged by the whole of Ireland. An interregnum of twenty years followed the death of Malachy, during part of which interval the country is stated, in some of the old annals, to have been governed by two learned men, "the one," say the Annals of Clonmacnoise, "called Cuan O'Lochan, a well learned temporal (lay) man, and chief poet of Ireland; the other, Corcran Cleireach (the Cleric), a devout and holy man, that was anchorite of all Ireland, and whose most abiding was at Lismore. The land was governed like a free state, and not like a monarchy by them."\*

As to the Danes, their power, though not annihilated in the battle of Clontarf, was so crushed by that memorable victory that they never after attempted hostilities on a large scale in Ireland, and were content to hold their position chiefly as merchants in Dublin, and the other ports already occupied by them. Their inability to avail themselves of the shattered and distracted condition in which Ireland remained for a long time after that bloody conflict is the best proof of the fearful amount of loss which they there sustained.

\* Cuan O'Lochan was killed by the people of Teffia, in the year 1024, and it is added in the Annals of Kilronan "that his murderers met tragical deaths, and that their bodies were so interred until the wolves and birds had preyed upon them;" moreover, it was said, that their posterity were known by an offensive odor; this being what the Irish called a "poet's miracle," that

is, a punishment drawn down by the malediction of a poet, or for an injury inflicted on a poet. Several of these "poetic miracles" are mentioned in the Irish annals of the middle ages. Three of the compositions of Cuan O'Lochan are mentioned in O'Reilly's *Irish Writers* (p. 75) as still existing. His colleague, Corcran, survived him many years.



## CHAPTER XV.

State of Learning in Ireland during and after the Danish Wars.—Eminent Churchmen, Poets and Antiquaries.—Tighernach and Marianus Scotus.—Irishmen Abroad in the Tenth and Eleventh Centuries.—The Monks of the Middle Ages.—Causes of Ignorance and Disorganization.—Donough O'Brien in Rome.—Tarlough O'Brien.—Progress of Connaught.—Wars of the North and South of Ireland.—Destruction of the Grianan of Aileach.—The Danes after Clontarf.—Invasion and Fate of King Magnus.—Relations with England.—Letter of Pope Gregory VII.—Murtough O'Brien and the Church.—Remarkable Synods.—Abuses in the Irish Church.—Number of Bishops.—St. Bernard's Denunciations.—Palliations.—St. Malachy.—Misrepresentations.—Progress of Turlough O'Connor.—Death of St. Celsus.

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*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—Pope Gregory VII., from 1073 to 1085.—Henry IV., Emperor of the West, died 1106.—Saxon line restored in England under Edward the Confessor, 1042.—England conquered by the Normans, 1066.—Philip the Fair, King of France, 1059.

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## THE ELEVENTH CENTURY AND FIRST THIRTY YEARS OF THE TWELFTH.)

**D**URING the long reign of war and rapine which prevailed from the first coming of the Danes into Ireland till their great overthrow at Clontarf, and the gloomy period of domestic disorganization which followed, it would be little wonder if learning had quite disappeared from this country. That such, however, was not the case, we have ample proofs in the frequent obituaries of men described in our authentic annals as eminent for learning as well as piety during that dreary lapse of ages; in the constant revival of plundered monasteries and schools, which these chronicles record; and in the number of distinguished Irishmen who still continued to flourish in France, Germany, and other parts of the continent. It

would be easy to make out a tolerably long list of the men who thus vindicate their age and country from the charge of barbarism, but a few names will suffice for our purpose.

Beginning with the tenth century, which modern writers generally style the "darkest of the middle ages," we might commence our list with Cormac MacCuillennan, whose career has been already described in the proper place. We might also enumerate, among other names already mentioned, those of Cormacan Eigeas, the chief poet of Ulster in the time of Muirkertach O'Neill, whose memorable circuit he celebrated; and of the lector Probus or Coenachair the biographer of St. Patrick, who was burned by the Danes in a round tower



at Slane. A little before this time, when the monastic institutions had been destroyed, and with them learning and religion almost wholly extinguished in England, a few Irish monks settled at Glastonbury, and for their support began to teach the rudiments of sacred and secular knowledge.\* One of the earliest and most illustrious of their pupils was the great St. Dunstan, who, under the tuition of these Irishmen, became skilled in philosophy, painting, music, and other accomplishments, a proof that education had made considerable progress among the Irish monks. St. Cadroe, the son of a king of the Albanian Scots, was at the same time in Ireland, studying in the schools of Armagh, where he acquired a knowledge of arithmetic, astronomy, natural history, &c. And the name of Trian Saxon, then applied to one of the quarters of that city, shows that thus, long before the English invasion, it must have been frequented by a large number of Saxon students.† St. Maccallin, an Irishman, flourished in France at the same period, as did also another, St. Columbanus, an Irish saint, whose memory has been preserved with great veneration in Belgium. In the same century Duncan, an Irish bishop, taught in the monastery of St. Remigius, at Rheims, and wrote, for the use of his

students, some works, of which two, on the liberal arts, and geography, are still extant.

At home, poetry, especially as applied to history, was a favorite pursuit. Kenneth O'Hartagan, who died in 975, is described as a famous poet of Leath Cuinn, and many of his compositions are to be found in Irish MS. collections. Eochy O'Flynn, who died in 984, has left us several historical poems of merit. He is frequently quoted as an authority for accounts of the early colonists of Ireland; having on these subjects embodied in his verses traditions of an age much older than his own. The names of MacLiag, the secretary of Brian Borumha; and of Cuan O'Lochan, one of the co-regents of Ireland, have been already introduced in these pages; and following up the list of those who belong to this class, we have Flann Mainistreach, the abbot of Monasterboice, who died in 1056, and Giolla Keevin, who died in 1072; both famous as bardic chroniclers, many of whose productions still survive.

The most accurate and judicious of our ancient annalists was Tighernach (Tiernach), abbot of Clonmacnoise, who wrote the Annals of Ireland from the reign of Cimbaeth, that is, from about the year before Christ, 305, to the period of his death, in 1088. His com-

\* These were the "viri sanctissimi, præcipuè Hibernici," of whom Camden writes, who, in process of time, received a salary from the king and educated youth in piety and the liberal arts. "They embraced a solitary life that they might devote themselves more tranquilly to sacred literature, and by their austerities they accus-

tomed themselves to carry the cross."—*Brit.* p. 193, London, 1600. Glastonbury, according to Camden, was anciently called "the first land of the saints in England."

† Annals of the Four Masters, *ad. an.* 1092; Colgan, *Trias Thaum.*



pilation, which is partly in Latin and partly in Irish, evinces a familiarity with Greek and Roman writers that is highly creditable to the Irish monk of that age.

It is remarkable that contemporary with this eminent domestic chronicler another Irishman, celebrated in the same department of literature, flourished abroad; the famous Marianus Scotus—whose great chronicles are the most perfect composition of the kind which the middle ages produced—having died in 1086, two years before his countryman Tighernach. National vanity induced some Scottish writers to claim Marianus as their countryman, but without a shadow of foundation.\* The name is the usual Latin form of Maelmuire, “the servant of Mary,” a name then common in Ireland; and there is reason to believe that the famous chronographer was first a monk of Clonard, in Meath. Having gone, as many learned Irishmen did in his time, to Germany, he first entered the Irish convent near Cologne, but subsequently became a recluse at Fulda, and was finally sent by his superiors to Metz, where he died. The existence of such men as Marianus Scotus and Tighernach, in the eleventh century, are facts

of great importance for their age and country.

When St. Fingen, an Irishman, who succeeded the Albanian Scot, St. Cadroe, as abbot of the monastery of St. Felix, at Metz, was also invested, in 991, with the government of the monastery of St. Symphorian in that city, it was ordered by the bishop that none but Irish monks should be admitted into this latter house, while they could be found; but when these failed the monks of other nations might be received.† The monastery of St. Martin, on the Rhine, near Cologne, was made over to the Irish for ever, in 975; and several other monasteries, either wholly or partially occupied by Irish monks, such as those of Erfurt, Fulda, &c., are known to have existed at that period in Germany and the Netherlands. Some Irishmen were associated with a community of Greek monks established at Toul, in France, by the bishop, St. Gerard, and are stated to have joined them in the performance of the Church service in the Greek language.‡

St. Dunchadh, abbot of Clonmacnoise, who died at Armagh, in 988, and was held there in great veneration, is said by Tighernach to have been the last of the Irish saints who resuscitated

\* See the authorities on this point collected by Langan, vol. iii., pp. 447, 448, and iv., pp. 5, 7, 8. When Henry IV. of England urged the authority of Marianus in support of his claim to the crown of Scotland, as Edward I. had done before, the Scottish States replied that the writer was a Hibernian not an Albanian Scot. Marianus is the first who is known to have applied the name of Scotia to the modern Scotland, which was pre-

viously only called Alba, an appellation which, in this form, or in that of Albuinn, or Albainn, has ever been the only Celtic name for North Britain.

† See a copy of the original diploma to that effect, published by Colgan, with the acts of St. Fingen in the AA. SS. Hib. p. 258.

‡ This curious fact is mentioned by the Benedictines in their *Histoire Littéraire*.



the dead.\* St. Aedh, or Hugh, lector of Trevet, in Meath, died at Armagh, in 1004, after affording for many years a bright example of holiness of life; and, under the date 1018, is recorded the death of St. Gormghal of Ardoilean, the remains of whose humble oratory and cloghan cell are still to be seen on that rocky islet, amid the surges of the Atlantic, off the wild coast of Connemara.† Did we not bear in mind the fact, that such men as these—and many others like them might be enumerated—lived, and taught, and, prayed at that period, we would be apt, in wading through the chaos of war and anarchy which the chronicles of the tenth and eleventh centuries present, to think that it was indeed the age of utter darkness and barbarism, which some writers unjustly represent it to have been.\*

Whether ignorance and vice prevailed on the continent to a greater extent before Charlemagne, or after that great monarch's reforms became obliterated in the tenth century, is a matter of discussion. In the former case they were produced by the deluge of barbarism from the north and east, and they resulted in the latter from the

rank growth of the feudal system with its abuses.

In Ireland disorganizing agencies, analogous though not identical nor contemporary, were in operation. Thus, although Ireland was not conquered by barbarians, the Danish wars—which raged without intermission for two centuries—were well calculated to produce the same ruinous results; and if the feudal system did not exist, one equally pregnant with political mischief prevailed. The numerous small and independent principalities into which the island was parceled out were perpetually engaged in mutual strife. They formed daily new complications; and as they increased in strength a central controlling power became more and more impracticable, and if raised up occasionally by force of arms, required incessant recourse to the same violent means to enforce even a formal recognition of its authority. Such, unhappily, was the state of things which prevailed without amelioration from the death of Malachy II. to the coming of the English in the latter part of the twelfth century.

Donough, son of Brian Borumha, hav-

\* In the Acts of St. Dunchadh it is stated that the miracle of restoring a dead child to life was performed through his prayers. AA. SS. Hib. Jan. 16.

† St. Gormghal is called "chief *anmchara* of Ireland." The word *anmchara* means "spiritual director," and is not to be confounded with *angore*, "an anchorite or recluse."

‡ It may be well to remind some readers, that war, rapine, and social confusion make up the great bulk of the history of other countries as well as that of Ireland, during the ages of which we are here treating. In those

turbulent times, the sole conservators of human knowledge as well as of religion in Christendom (for we except the Arabs), were the much abused monks; and those who ungratefully blame these for having kept all knowledge to themselves, forget that this was not the monks' fault. The laity were too intent upon war and other pursuits, and despised learning too much to devote attention to it; and the alternative was, the preservation of literature by ecclesiastics, or its final extinction.



ing, by the defeat of the Desmonians, and subsequently by the death of his brother, Teige (who was in 1023 treacherously slain, at his instigation, by the people of Ely O'Carroll), obtained the undisputed sovereignty of Munster, marched an army northward, and took the hostages of Meath, Bregia, Ossory, and Leinster. This was a step towards asserting his claim to the sovereignty of all Ireland; but his contemporary, Dermot MacMael-na-mbo, king of Leinster, had a superior title to that honor.\* Donough assembled a meeting of the clergy and chieftains of Munster at Killaloe, in the year 1050, to pass laws for the protection of life and property, against which outrages had been rendered more frequent in consequence of a dearth which then prevailed; and in 1063, being defeated in battle by his nephew Turlough, son of Teige, who was aided by the forces of Connaught and Leinster, he went on a pilgrimage to Rome, where he died the following year, after doing penance for the crime of implication in his brother's murder. It is stated that he took with him to Rome the crown of Ireland, probably the same which had been worn by his father, and that he presented it to the pope; and it is added, but not on good

authority, that this crown was given by Pope Adrian to Henry II., on the occasion of that king's invasion of Ireland.

Turlough O'Brien now became the most potent among the Irish princes, and on the death of Dermot MacMael-na-mbo, who was killed in battle together with a number of his allies or vassals, the Danes of Dublin, by the king of Meath, in 1072, the Dalcassian king was regarded as his successor in the rank of monarch of Ireland. Turlough proceeded to assert his authority by exacting hostages from the other kings; but in 1075 he received a check from the men of the north, at Ardee. At this time the MacLoughlins, a branch of the Hy-Nialls of Tyrone, reigned at Aileach, and the O'Melaghlins in Meath. The former retained their traditional character for indomitable bravery, and could rarely be compelled to admit the supremacy of any southern prince.

The power of Connaught had of late made considerable advances under the O'Conors; and Rory, or Roderic O'Connor, its present king, having evinced an aspiring disposition, Turlough O'Brien was resolved to humble him, and for that purpose led a powerful army into Connaught, in 1079, plundered the

\* Connell Mageoghegan, in his translation of the *Annals of Clonmacnoise*, A. D. 1041, says:—"The kings, or chief monarchs of Ireland, were reputed to be absolute (supreme) monarchs in this manner: if he were of Leigh-Con, or Con's halfe in deale, and one province in Leath-Moye, or Moy's halfe in deale, at his command, he was rought to be of sufficient power to be king of Taragh, or Ireland; but if the party were of Leath-Moye, if he

could not command all Leath-Moye and Taragh, with the lordshipp thereunto belonging, and the province of Ulster or Connaught (if not both) he would not be thought sufficient to be king of all. Dermott MacMoylenemo cou'd command Leath-Moye, Meath, Connaught, and Ulster, and therefore, by the judgment of all, he was reputed sufficient monarch of the whole" (of Ireland).



country as far as Croagh Patrick, and expelled Rory from his kingdom. Next year he led an army to Dublin, where the people of Meath, who were accompanied by the successor of St. Patrick, bearing the staff of Jesus, made their submission to him; and he appointed his son, Murtough, lord of the Danes of Dublin, a position which had some time before been held by a prince of Leinster. As to Rory O'Connor, after carrying on several petty wars successfully, he at length (1012) fell into the hands of the O'Flaherties of West Connaught, who always resisted the authority of the O'Connor family, and was by them treacherously blinded, the barbarous practice of that age being to put out the eyes of captive princes, in order to unfit them to command.

Turlough O'Brien\* was succeeded by his son Murtough, who subsequently became king of all Ireland; but in the mean time that honor devolved upon another prince; for in 1090 a great meeting took place between Donnell, son of MacLoughlin, king of Aileach; Murtough O'Brien, king of Cashel; Donnell O'Melaghlin, king of Meath; and Rory O'Connor, king of Connaught, besides other princes; and it was agreed that the king of Aileach should be acknowledged lord paramount, and hostages were accordingly delivered to him

as such by the other kings and chieftains.

The peace thus brought about was however, of short duration, if indeed there were any tranquil interval at all for the provinces not only continued at war with each other, but were split up by internal divisions; and more than once, about this time, the church threw itself into the breach between opposing armies, and caused a truce to be made. A pestilence raged in 1095, and a great part of the following year was spent in fasting and works of charity, in order to avert a mysterious scourge from heaven which the nation believed to be impending. Donnell O'Loughlin and the Clann O'Neill invaded the Ulidians in 1099, and there is an account of a decisive cavalry battle between them, in which the latter were defeated; while Murtough O'Brien had some trouble in contending with the Connaught men on one side, and with an insurrection of his own relatives, the sons of Teige O'Brien, on the other.

But the great struggle was between the south and the north, and Murtough directed all his resources and his great military ability to the one object of establishing his own power as monarch of Ireland. Twice—in 1097 and 1099—did the archbishop of Armagh and

\* A ludicrous story is told by the Four Masters of the remote cause of Turlough O'Brien's death. It is said that after an old enemy, Conor O'Melaghlin, king of Meath, had been killed, and his remains deposited at Clonmacnoise, Turlough ordered the head of the dead man to be taken away forcibly from the church and

brought to him. While feasting his eyes on that grim object, a mouse issued from it, and leaped into his bosom, and this gave him such a shock that he became ill, his hair fell off, and he remained in bad health from that time (1073) until death, in 1086.



the clergy of Ireland interpose between the two armies, when face to face, to avert the threatened blow; but Murtough was not to be diverted from his purpose. In 1100 he brought a fleet, chiefly composed of Danish ships, to Derry, but O'Loughlin succeeded in destroying them; and the following year (1101), a twelve-months' truce which the clergy had negotiated having expired, Murtough led a powerful army, composed of hostings from all the other provinces, to the north, and devastated the whole of Inis Eoghain, without meeting any opposition. He demolished the palace or stronghold of the northern Hy-Nialls, called the Grianan of Aileach,\* in revenge for a similar act of hostility inflicted on O'Brien's palace of Kinchora, by O'Loughlin, several years before; and to raze it the more effectually, he commanded that in every sack which had been used to carry provisions for the army, a stone of the demolished building should be placed, that the materials of it might be conveyed to Limerick. Murtough next took hostages of Ulidia and returned to the south, having made the entire circuit of Ireland, as the annals tell us, in six weeks, without encountering any army to dispute his progress.

The reader has observed that the overthrow of the Danes at Clontarf by no means implied their expulsion from

Ireland. They still continued to hold Dublin and the other maritime cities previously occupied by them; but chiefly in the capacity of merchants. Their subsequent predatory inroads were few; one of the last being in 1031, when they burned the great church of Ardbraccan, in Meath, together with 200 persons who had sought refuge in it, and carried off 200 more as captives. Afterwards these acts of aggression on their part were rare. The Danes of Dublin sent, at different times, expeditions against their countrymen in Waterford and Cork, which shewed that they had ceased to co-operate as a nation; and at length their lords or kings were occasionally expelled by the Irish, and Irish princes substituted for them.†

The Northmen, nevertheless, had not yet abandoned their old idea of conquering Ireland. Godfrey Crovan took possession of Dublin and part of Leinster, for a time, and a new expedition was set on foot by Magnus, king of Norway, after he had subdued the Danes of the Orkneys and of the Isle of Man, about the year of 1101. It is related in the Chronicle of Man, that Magnus sent his shoes to Murtough O'Brien, king of Ireland, commanding him, in token of subjection, to carry them on his shoulders, in his house on Christmas day. The news of so inso-

\* The remains of this celebrated stronghold are still visible on the summit of a small hill in the county of Donegal, about four and a-half miles N. W. of the city of Londonderry, and are called Greenan Ely.—*Ordnance survey of Londonderry.*

† It would appear that in the beginning of the eleventh century Ireland gave a king to Norway, in the person of Harold Gille, who was an Irishman. See Dr Latham's *Kelts and Northmen.*



ient a message roused the indignation of the Irish; but Murtough, according to this very improbable story, entertained the Norwegian ambassadors sumptuously; told them he would not only carry their master's shoes, but eat them rather than that one province of Ireland should be laid waste by an invasion; and having complied with the haughty demand of the barbarian, dismissed his messengers with rich presents. The report made by the ambassadors only strengthened the desire of Magnus to obtain a footing in Ireland. He made a truce of one year with king Murtough, the hand of whose daughter he obtained in marriage for his son Sigurd; but all his ambitious projects were frustrated the following year (1103); for, on landing to explore the country he and his party were cut off by the Ulidians, after some hard fighting, and his remains were respectfully interred near St. Patrick's church, in Down.\*

We meet many instances of intercourse with England during the period

of which we have been lately treating. Driella, daughter of earl Godwin and sister of Editha, the queen of Edward the Confessor, was married to Donough O'Brien, the Irish king; and during the rebellion of Godwin and his sons against king Edward, Harold, one of the sons, afterwards king of England, took refuge in Ireland. He remained during a winter with his brother-in-law, Donough, who gave him, on his return to England, nine ships to aid him in his enterprise. The Irish lent assistance in several other feuds of the Anglo-Saxons at this period. Lanfranc, the great archbishop of Canterbury, appears to have directed a watchful eye towards the Church of Ireland. He heard of irregularities of discipline, which gave him much uneasiness, and as he was in constant intercourse with the Danish bishops of Ireland, who had gone to him for consecration and promised obedience to him, the accounts which he received were sure not to diminish the evil. Lanfranc wrote an earnest epistle on the

\* Mr. Moore (Hist. of Ireland, vol. ii., p. 127) contrasting the resistance which the Danes encountered in Ireland, with the ineffective efforts made against them in England, says—"The very same year (that of the battle of Clontarf), which saw Ireland pouring forth her assembled princes and clans to confront the invader on the sea-shore, and there make of his myriads a warning example to all future intruders, beheld England unworthily cowering under a similar visitation, her king a fugitive from the scourge in foreign lands, and her nobles purchasing by inglorious tribute, a short respite from aggression; and while, in the English annals for this year, we find little else than piteous lamentations over the fallen and broken spirit both of rulers and people, in the records of Ireland the only sorrows which appear to have mingled with the general triumph are those breathed at the tombs of the veteran monarch and

the numerous chieftains who fell in that struggle by his side."

And William of Newbury, an old English historian, who was born in the year 1136, candidly says:—"It is a matter of wonder that Britain, which is of larger extent, and equally an island of the ocean, should have been so often, by the chances of war, made the prey of foreign nations, and subjected to foreign rule, having been first subdued and possessed by the Romans, then by the Germans, afterwards by the Danes, and lastly by the Normans; while her neighbor, Hibernia, inaccessible to the Romans themselves, even when the Orkneys were in their power, has been but rarely and then imperfectly, subdued; nor ever, in reality, has been brought to submit to foreign domination, till the year of our Lord 1171."—*Rerum Angl.* l. 2. c. xxxi.



subject to king Turlough O'Brien, addressing him as the king of Ireland, and lauding his virtues as a Christian prince in flattering and encouraging terms. The great Pope Gregory VII. also honored king Turlough with a letter, published, as well as the last-mentioned one, in Ussher's Sylloge, and addressed him as "The illustrious king of Ireland." It is stated in Hanmer's Chronicle that William Rufus obtained from Turlough O'Brien a quantity of oak timber for the roof of Westminster Hall, and that the trees cut down for the purpose grew on Oxmantown Green, then in the northern suburbs of Dublin, but now forming part of the city. A deputation of the nobles of Man and other islands waited on Murtough O'Brien, and solicited him to send them a king, and he accordingly sent his nephew, Donnell, who, however, was soon expelled on account of his tyranny; while another Donnell O'Brien, his cousin, was, at the same time, lord of the Danes of Dublin.

Among the high qualities which marked the character of Murtough O'Brien were his attachment to religion and his generosity to the church.

In the year 1101 he summoned a meeting of the clergy and chiefs of Leath Mogha, to give due solemnity to an act of extraordinary munificence—namely, that of granting the city of Cashel-of-the-kings for ever to the religious

of Ireland, free from all dues and from all lay authority—a grant, say the annalists, "such as no king had ever made before." The words in which the gift is recorded would seem to imply that the royal city was given to the monastic orders exclusively.

In 1111 a synod was convened at Fidh-Aengussa, or Aengus's Grove, described by Colgan as near the hill of Uisneach, in Westmeath. It was attended by 50 bishops, 300 priests, and 3,000 other ecclesiastics; and also by Murtough O'Brien, king of Leath Mogha, and by the nobles of his provinces. Among the heads of the clergy were St. Celsus, or Ceallach, archbishop of Armagh, and Maelmuire, or Marianus O'Dunain, archbishop of Cashel, who is styled "most noble senior of the clergy of Ireland;" the object of the synod being "to institute rules of life and manners for clergy and people." There is also mention of a synod of Rathbreasail held about this time, the particular year not being specified, nor the place identified by its ancient name.\* The abuses in matters of discipline which had grown out of old customs, and which the secluded position of Ireland had gradually allowed to extend themselves, had begun to give much uneasiness at this time in the Irish Church. One of these abuses was the excessive multiplication of the episcopal dignity, owing to the

\* It is said that Gilbert, bishop of Limerick, and first legate apostolic in Ireland, presided on this latter occasion; but although Dr. Lanigan holds the contrary opinion, it has been conjectured with great probability that

the synods of Fidh-Aengussa, or rather Fidh-mic-Aengussa, and Rathbreasail are one and the same—*Ecccl. Hist. of Ireland*, chap. xxv., sec. xiii.; also Dr. Kelly's edition of *Cambrensis Eversus*, vol. iii pp. 53 and 783



custom of creating chorepiscopi or rural bishops; and a principal object of the synod or synods in question was to limit the number of prelates and define the bounds of dioceses. It was decided that there should be but twenty-four bishops and archbishops: that is, twelve in the northern and twelve in the southern half of Ireland; but this regulation was not carried out for some time. The diocese of Cashel, as well as that of Armagh, was, at that time, fully recognized as archiepiscopal, and the successor of St. Jarlath was sometimes called archbishop of Connaught, although the formal recognition of the see of Tuam as an archbishopric did not take place until several years after.

Besides the practice of unnecessarily multiplying bishops, which was one that had been abolished in other churches centuries before this time, the more serious abuse prevailed in Ireland of allowing laymen to intrude themselves into church dignities, and to assume the title and revenues of bishops. These men, as we have already explained when treating of coarbs or comorbans, were obliged to transfer to ecclesiastics, regularly ordained and consecrated, the functions of the sacred offices which they usurped. We have no reason to believe that the practice was a general one; but we are told that in the church of Armagh there was a succession of eight lay and married intruders usurping the title of St. Patrick's successors. The father was succeeded by his son, and the highest dignity in the Irish

church was treated as a mere temporal inheritance. Some other corruptions of discipline had also crept in; such as the practice of consecrating bishops without the assistance of more than one prelate; and some irregularities in contracting marriage within prohibited degrees of kindred and affinity, and also in the form of marriage. But on these subjects our principal source of information is St. Bernard's Life of St. Malachy; and it is now universally admitted that as the illustrious abbot of Clairvaux knew nothing about Ireland or its usages, except what he learned from a few Irishmen who described to him partial or isolated abuses, and was besides an unsparing and zealous denouncer of all corruptions, he allowed his horror of everything that infringed upon the sanctity of religion to carry him too far in his description of the state of religion and morals in Ireland as they were found there by his friend St. Malachy.

The history of the Irish Church during the twelfth century, into which we have now entered, is replete with the deepest interest. The abuses which cast over it a temporary shade are to be deplored; but in the lives of such illustrious men as St. Celsus, St. Malachy, St. Gelasius, and St. Laurence O'Toole, we find an abundant source of consolation. These holy men were raised up at a favorable moment to crush the evil, and under Providence they restored to the Church of Ireland much of its pristine lustre.

When St. Malachy undertook the



care of the diocese of Connor, he found, it is true, a most deplorable relaxation of discipline prevailing; but it would be no wonder if the perpetual warfare, in which that and some other portions of Ireland were more especially involved during that turbulent period, had quite disorganized society. The monstrous abuse, too, of tolerating laymen in the see of St. Patrick, and that on the mere right of inheritance, may well have filled such a mind as that of St. Bernard with inexpressible grief and horror; yet such was the effect of usage upon men's opinions, that we find these very lay intruders mentioned by our annalists—themselves ecclesiastics—without any marked condemnation, and generally as having performed exemplary penance before their death. We may, therefore, seek for some charitable palliation of the usage in the insolence of the few powerful families who, in that rude age, were guilty of the usurpation.\* St. Anselm, the great archbishop of Canterbury, in his correspondence with the prelates of the south of Ireland, and with king Murtough O'Brien, in the years 1095 and 1100, although he evinces extreme anxiety for the interests of

religion, indicating that there were some irregularities to be reformed, still compliments the king on his excellent administration, and passes a high eulogium upon those bishops of whom he seems to have had any knowledge, namely, those of the southern dioceses.† We may, indeed, from this and many other circumstances, conclude, that the evils of which St. Bernard so eloquently complained, were at least not so general as his denunciations would imply, and did not continue for any lengthened period. It should be also observed that they have reference solely to matters of discipline and morality, and by no means to faith or doctrine. So that we must be on our guard against two very grievous misrepresentations of which the Irish Church of the eleventh and twelfth centuries has been the object; first, that there was some deviation from the faith of the Catholic or Roman Church in Ireland at that time, and, secondly, that the moral disorders which it must be admitted did exist, were general, or continued down to the time of the English invasion.‡

Resuming our civil history, and passing in silence over a number of petty

\* This abuse was not confined to Ireland. A canon of the Council of London was framed against a precisely similar abuse in 1125; and in the time of Cambrensis there were lay abbots in Wales who took all the real property of the monasteries into their own hands, leaving the clergy only the altars and their dues, and placing children or relatives of their own in the church for the purpose of enjoying even these.—*Itin. Camb.*, b. c. 4.

† See this correspondence printed in Ussher's *Sylloge*.

‡ The former of these charges is the mere suggestion of sectarian bias, without any foundation. Thus it is

falsely pretended that it was St. Malachy who actually brought the Irish church into communion with Rome, and that this arrangement was only made effective by Cardinal Paparo at the Synod of Kells in 1152. The other charge has been made by various writers who took it up at second-hand, and were actuated by unfriendly feelings towards Ireland. Dr. Milner, in particular, in his work on Ireland fell into the injurious error of supposing that the English on their arrival here found the abuses of which St. Bernard complained half a century before still prevalent.



wars, in which many districts, especially in the centre of Ireland, were desolated, we find that Murtough O'Brien was seized with illness, which in 1114 compelled him to retire from active life. His brother, Dermot, an ambitious man, took the opportunity to declare himself king of Munster; but this act recalled from his retreat Murtough, who, although reduced by age and sickness to the appearance of a skeleton, put himself at the head of his army, caused his unnatural brother to be made prisoner, and marched once more into Leinster and Bregia. This, however, was a last and feeble effort. He was obliged to relinquish the kingdom to his brother; and retiring into the monastery of Lismore, where he embraced the ecclesiastical state, he died in 1119. His old competitor, Donnell O'Loughlin, survived him two years, and in 1120 led an army in defence of the king of Meath against the forces of Connaught; when feeling his end approach, he retired into the Columbian monastery of Derry, and, after penitential exercises, died there the following year, in the 73d year of his age. It is remarkable that, although the power of his southern rival was, at least for many years, more extensively recognized than his, still O'Loughlin receives the title of king of Ireland more generally from the annalists; so much did the legitimate principle weigh with the Irish in favor of the ancient royal house of Hy-Niall. The contest between these two princes was never regularly fought out; for even in 1113,

the last time they confronted each other at the head of their respective armies, St. Celsus, archbishop of Armagh, with the crozier of St. Patrick, interposed, and brought about a truce.

Two other princes who had played important parts in Irish affairs also closed their career in an exemplary manner about this time. These were Rory O'Conor, who had been king of Connaught, but who having been blinded by the O'Flaherties many years before, entered into religion in the monastery of Clonmacnoise, and died there in 1118; and Teige MacCarthy, king of Desmond, who died at Cashel, in 1124, after affording many proofs of earnest piety.

A new set of characters now appear on the stage of Irish history. Of these, the leading part was taken by Turlough or Turdelvach O'Conor, son of the above-mentioned Rory, who found a clear stage for his ambition, and made rapid strides in raising himself to the sovereignty of Ireland. He plundered Thomond as far as Limerick in 1116, when Dermot O'Brien was able to make but a feeble resistance, trying to avenge himself by an inroad into Connaught during Turlough's absence. In 1118 Turlough O'Conor, aided by Murrough O'Melaghlin, king of Meath, and Hugh O'Rourke, lord of Breffny, led an army as far as Gleann-Maghair (Glanmire), near Cork, and divided Munster, giving Desmond to MacCarthy, and Thomond to the sons of Dermot O'Brien, and carrying off hostages from both. He en-



endeavored to crush the power of O'Brien by exalting that of the Eoghanachts or Desmonian family, who had been excluded since the time of Brian Borumha. He then marched without delay to Dublin, and took hostages from the Danes, from Ossory, and from Leinster, liberating Donnell, son of the king of Meath, whom the Danes held in captivity. The following year he scoured the Shannon with a fleet, hurled the royal palace of Kincora into the river, "both stones and timber," and remained there some time with his numerous allies, of Ossory, Leinster, and Dublin, consuming the provisions of Munster. These extreme acts of sovereign authority, or rather of unresisted aggression, were followed by others, such as the expulsion of his late ally and father-in-law, Murrough O'Melaghlin, from Meath, in 1120; the wholesale plundering of Desmond, from Traigh Li (Tralee) to the termon, or sanctuary land of Lismore, in 1121; and the giving of the kingdom of Dublin, as it was called, to his own son, Conor, in 1126; all the intermediate time being devoted to various acts of hostility which it is needless to enumerate. "There was," say the annalists, "a great storm of war throughout Ireland, in general, so that Ceallach (St. Celsus) successor of Patrick, was obliged to be for one month and a year absent from Ard Macha, establishing," or rather endea-

voring to establish, "peace among the men of Ireland, and promulgating rules and good customs everywhere among the laity and clergy."

In 1127, Turlough O'Conor led his forces, both by sea and land, to Cork, and driving Cormac MacCarthy from his kingdom, divided Munster into three parts. Cormac retired to Lismore, where it is supposed by some that he assumed holy orders, being a prince of a religious disposition;\* but being urged to leave his retreat he resumed the reins of government on Turlough's withdrawal, and his brother, Donough, who had been placed on the throne by that king, fled to his patron in Connaught, with 2,000 followers.

At length (1128) a year's truce between Connaught and Munster was made by St. Celsus; and the following year that holy archbishop, worn out by his austerities and indefatigable labors in the cause of religion and peace, although only fifty years of age, died at Ardpatrick, in the southern part of the present county of Limerick, where he was on his visitation; and his remains, having been conveyed to Lismore, were interred there in the cemetery of the bishops.†

In the year 1129 the great church of Clonmacnoise was robbed of several objects of value, among which was a model of Solomon's Temple, presented

\* He is called St. Cormac by Lynch.—*Cambrensis Eversus*, chap. xxi.

† Bishop Maelcolum O'Brolchan of Armagh, who died in 1122, in the reputation of sanctity, and who is usu-

ally described as the suffragan or coadjutor of St. Celsus, had been, no doubt, one of the acting bishops who officiated for the lay intruders during their incumbency.



by a prince of Meath, and a silver chalice plated with gold, and beautifully engraved with her own hand, by a sister of king Turlough O'Connor. The enumeration of the articles stolen affords an illustration of the taste and luxury displayed by Irish princes in objects of domestic use or ornament, and of the accomplishments of an Irish princess. The robber was a Dane of Limerick, who having been arrested while at-

tempting to escape from the country, was hanged for the crime the following year.

Having now approached the eve of the most eventful epoch of Irish history, that of the Anglo-Norman invasion, we shall reserve for the next chapter a summary of the events which may explain the circumstances, moral and political, in which the country was found on that occasion.

## CHAPTER XVI.

**St. Malachy.**—His Early Career.—His Reforms in the Diocese of Connor.—His Withdrawal to Keary.—His Government of the Church of Armagh.—His Retirement to Down.—Struggle of Conor O'Brien and Turlough O'Connor.—Synod at Cashel.—Cormac's Chapel.—Death of Cormac MacCarthy.—Turlough O'Connor's Rigor to his Sons.—Crimes and Tyranny of Dermot MacMurrough.—St. Malachy's Journey to Rome.—Building of Mellifont.—Synod of Inis-Padraig.—The Palliums.—St. Malachy's Second Journey and Death.—Political State of Ireland.—Arrival of Cardinal Paparo.—Synod of Kells.—Misrepresentations Corrected.—The Battle of Moin-Mor.—Famine arising from Civil War in Munster.—Dismemberment of Meath.—Elopement of Der vorgil.—Battle of Rahin—A Naval Engagement.—Death of Turlough O'Connor, and Accession of Roderic.—Synod of Mellifont.—Synod of Bri-Mic-Taidhg.—Wars and Ambition of Roderic.—St. Laurence O'Toole.—Synod of Clane.—Zeal of the Irish Hierarchy.—Death of O'Loughlin.—Roderic O'Connor Monarch.—Expulsion of Dermot MacMurrough.—Great Assembly at Athboy.

*Contemporary Sovereigns.*—Popes: Innocent II., Celestine II., Lucius II., Eugenius III., Anastasius IV., Adrian IV.—Kings of England: Stephen, 1185, Henry II., 1154.—King of France: Louis VII., 1137.

(A. D. 1130 TO A. D. 1168).

**ST. CELSUS**, or Ceallach, the archbishop of Armagh, although a member of the usurping family, was deeply impressed with the enormous irregularity of making the see a family inheritance and desired by his will that St. Malachy should be chosen his successor. This latter holy personage

(whose name in Irish was Maelmaedhog O'Morgair) was known to St. Celsus from his youth. He belonged to a noble family, although it is believed that his father filled the office of lector, or professor, in the school of Armagh. The account of his early training under the abbot Imar O'Hagan, of Armagh,



shows that sufficient resources for the pious and enlightened education of youth had still survived the past centuries of foreign invasion and domestic tumult in Ireland. While yet a young man he undertook the restoration of the famous monastery of Bangor, of which only a few crumbling ruins then remained, the abbey lands being possessed by a layman who enjoyed the title of abbot. St. Malachy associated with himself a few religious men, and having constructed a small oratory of timber, they entered into the true spirit of monastic life. Soon, however, this tranquil existence was interrupted by his election as bishop of Connor; and the episcopal duties which he was compelled to assume were of the most arduous nature, as he found his diocese in a deplorable state of disorder. In fact, little more than the traces of religion were left among the people; but St. Malachy went zealously to work, and by God's blessing, and the assistance of his little community of monks, who accompanied him from Bangor, he soon succeeded in restoring discipline and reviving religion among his flock. Scarcely had he effected this happy result when war destroyed the fruits of his labor. Some hostile prince invaded the territory, and St. Malachy, driven from his diocese, repaired, with 120 monks, to the territory of Cormac Mac Carthy, king of Desmond, whose friendship he had acquired in the monastery of Lismore where he was at the time that Cormac made it his retreat on being

driven from his kingdom by Turlough O'Connor. The withdrawal of St. Malachy to Munster took place some short time after the death of St. Celsus at Ardpatrik in 1129; and as soon as the death of that holy prelate was known in Armagh, a layman, named Muirker-tach, or Maurice, claimed the see as his inheritance, and, by the aid of his powerful clan, got himself proclaimed successor of St. Patrick, and maintained himself in the sacrilegious usurpation. This Maurice was son of Donald, the predecessor of St. Celsus, and grandson of Amalgid, another of the nominal archbishops, or comorbans.\*

In the year 1132, bishop Gilbert, of Limerick, apostolic delegate, and bishop Malchus, of Lismore, assembled several bishops and chieftains, who went in a body to St. Malachy, in the monastery which he had erected at Ibrach,† in Munster; and partly by entreaties in the name of the clergy and people, partly even by threats of excommunication, compelled him to leave his retreat and assume the government of the church of Armagh, on the condition, however, that he might retire when he had restored order in the diocese. For the next two years a melancholy schism prevailed; the intruder still persevering in his occupation of the see with its revenues, and St. Malachy performing the functions of archbishop without venturing into

\* This family belonged to the royal house of Oriel.

† Supposed by Dr. Lanigan to be Ivragh, in Kerry part of Cormack MacCarthy's kingdom.



the city, lest a tumult should take place, and human life be sacrificed. Conspiracies against his life were formed, but he was providentially defended against them; and, at length, in 1134, the usurper died, after, as it is stated, giving tokens of sincere repentance. Another intruder, however, arose in the person of one Niell, or Nigellus. Against this man popular feeling became so strong, that he was obliged to fly; but he contrived to take with him St. Patrick's crozier and that apostle's book of the Gospels, and, by the aid of these venerable relics, he continued for a while to impose on some persons, with the pretence that he was the rightful successor of St. Patrick.\*

Ecclesiastical discipline having been restored, and the independence of the church vindicated in Armagh, through the indefatigable zeal of Malachy, that holy pontiff made a visitation of Munster in 1136; and the following year he resigned the primatial dignity, which, after another attempt of Nigellus, as some annalists say, to intrude himself, was conferred on Gelasius, or Gilla MacLiag, "the son of the poet," then abbot of the great Columbian monastery of Derry,† St. Malachy, himself, being installed as bishop of Down, which had previously been

united to his old diocese of Connor, over which another prelate now presided.

Returning to Turlough O'Conor, whom we left extending his sway with little impediment to his ambition, since the death of his northern rival, Donnell O'Loughlin, we find him, at length, receiving a serious check from Conor O'Brien, who had succeeded his father, Dermot, on the throne of North Munster. Conor O'Brien, in 1131, carried off hostages from Leinster and Meath, and defeated the cavalry of Connaught; and the following year he sent a fleet to the coast of Connaught, destroyed the castle of Bun Gaillve, or Galway, and plundered West Connaught. In the former of these years the men of the north also invaded Connaught; and in 1133, Conor O'Brien and Cormac MacCarthy made an incursion there, on both which occasions Turlough O'Conor was glad to make a year's truce with his opponents.

A synod of the bishops and clergy of Munster was held in Cashel in 1134, to celebrate, with special pomp, the consecration of a church just erected there by Cormac MacCarthy. This was the building now so well known as Cormac's Chapel, on the rock of Cashel, one of the most beautiful specimens of Romanesque architecture in

\* The Four Masters, an. 1135, say: "Maelmaedhog Ua Morgair (St. Malachy), successor of Patrick, purchased the Bachall-Isa (staff of Jesus), and took it from its cave on the 7th day of the month of July." Whence it appears, that Nigellus extorted a sum of money for

its restoration. The death of that wretched man is recorded in the year 1139.

† The name of this prelate appears as St Gelasius in the Martyrology of Marianus Gorman, and his life is published by Colgan in the *Acta. SS. Hib.* at the 27th of March



these countries, and the erection of which has been erroneously ascribed to Cormac MacCuilennan in the tenth century.\* Cormac MacCarthy was, in 1138, treacherously killed in his house by Turlough, son of Dermot O'Brien, and by the two sons of the O'Connor Kerry.

Turlough O'Connor is described by our annalists as a stern vindicator of justice; but the justice of that age was not very refined in its judgments. For some offence, the nature of which we are not told, he caused the eyes of his son, Aedh, or Hugh, to be put out, in 1136; and the same year he cast Roderic, or Rory (Ruaidhri), another of his sons, into prison. It would appear that Roderic was liberated chiefly through the interference of the clergy; but seven years later he was again imprisoned by his inexorable father, "in violation of the most solemn pledges and guarantees." On this latter occasion the prelates and clergy, with the chieftains of Connaught, finding all their entreaties to obtain his liberation in vain, held a public fast at Rathbrendan, praying heaven to mollify the father's heart, but it was not until the following year that Roderic was released from his fetters. Murrough O'Melaghlin, king of Meath, was seized at the same time with Roderic in spite of solemn guarantees, but was set at liberty through the interference of his sureties, who

conveyed him into Munster, and his territory was given by Turlough to his own son, Conor, who was killed the following year by the men of Meath as a usurper. No tie or obligation was now allowed by Turlough O'Connor to stand in the way of his caprice or ambition.

Dermot MacMurrough, or Diarmaid-na-Gall, that is, Dermot of the foreigners, as he is often called, the infamous king of Leinster who betrayed his country to the English, now appears on the scene, and, from the commencement, his ill-omened career is marked by crime. In the year 1135, according to Mageoghegan's Annals of Clonmacnoise, he took the abbess of Kildare from her cloister, and compelled her to marry one of his men, at the same time killing 170 of the people of Kildare who attempted to prevent the sacrilegious outrage. After being involved in various feuds in the interval, he endeavored, in 1141, to crush all resistance to his tyranny by a barbarous onslaught upon the nobles of his province. He killed Donnell, lord of Hy-Faelain, and Murrough O'Tuathail; put out the eyes of Muirkertach Mac Gillamochalmog, lord of Feara Cualann, or Wicklow, and killed or blinded seventeen other chieftains, besides many of inferior rank.

Conor O'Brien died in 1142, at Kilaloe, after rigid penance, and was succeeded by his brother Turlough, who commenced his reign by a war with Turlough O'Connor, and an invasion of

\* See Dr. Petrie's *Ecclesiastical Architecture*, &c. pp. 290, &c., where the question whether Cormac MacCarthy were a bishop as well as king is discussed.



Leinster.\* In 1144, O'Connor and O'Brien held a peace conference, but their truce did not extend beyond a year; and in 1145 the Four Masters introduce a long catalogue of predatory incursions in every part of the country, by the expressive words, that this year Ireland was made "a trembling sod." The O'Loughlins of Tyrone were at war with their neighbours, the Ulidians; a deadly feud was carried on between Meath and Breffny; O'Connor and O'Brien were engaged in hostilities; and Teffia and other territories were also scenes of bloodshed and devastation.

In the midst of these tumults, the church endeavored to carry on its action—internally, by the promotion of discipline and morality, and externally by efforts, often fruitless, for the restoration of peace. It had long been a favorite project with St. Malachy to obtain from the Holy See a formal recognition of archiepiscopal sees in Ireland, by the granting of palliums. For that purpose he proceeded to Rome shortly after he had become bishop of Down; and as the fame of his sanctity and zeal had gone before him—a character which his mortified appearance was well calculated to sustain—he was received with every mark of love and veneration by the reigning pontiff, Inno-

cent II. The Pope, descending from his throne, placed his own mitre on the head of the Irish saint, presented him with his own vestments and other religious gifts and appointed him apostolic legate, instead of Gilbert, bishop of Limerick, who was then a very old man. When St. Malachy, however, asked for the palliums, the Holy Father prudently observed that that was a matter of great moment, and that the demand should have come from a synod of the Irish church, which should, he suggested, be held for that purpose. After a stay of one month, visiting the holy places in Rome, St. Malachy set out on his return to Ireland; having, both going and returning, paid visits to the great St. Bernard, at Clairvaux, and laid the foundation of that friendship which forms so remarkable an incident in the lives of both these eminent saints, and in the history of the Irish Church.

On his arrival in Ireland, St. Malachy set earnestly about his favorite mission for the more regular organization of church affairs. By virtue of his legatine powers he held local synods in several places, and travelled on foot all through Ireland. He rebuilt and restored many churches that had, in various parts of the country, been destroyed by the Danes, or fallen into decay dur-

\* When Turlough O'Brien invaded Connaught in 1143, he cut down the Ruaidh-Bheithigh, or red birch tree of Hy-Fiachra Aidhne, which was probably one of those trees under which the Irish kings were inaugurated; like the Bile Maighe Adhair, of Thomond, which

was destroyed by Malachy II. in 918; and the tree of Craev Tulcha (now Creeve, near Glenavy, in Antrim), under which the kings of Ulidia were inaugurated, and which was destroyed by Donnell O'Loughlin, in 1099.



ing the constant wars of those times. In 1142, he founded, near Drogheda, the famous Cistercian abbey of Mellifont, which was liberally endowed by O'Carroll, king of Orghial (Oriel), and was supplied with monks from Clairvaux, whither St. Malachy had sent some Irishmen to be trained for the purpose.\*

The synod from which the formal application for the palliums emanated was convened by St. Malachy as legate, and Gelasius as primate, in 1148. It was held in Inis-Padriag, or St. Patrick's Island, near Skerries,† and was attended by fifteen bishops, two hundred priests, and several other ecclesiastics. After three days spent in the consideration of other matters, the synod treated of the palliums on the fourth; and, although unwilling that St. Malachy should again leave Ireland, the assembled clergy consented to his departure on this occasion, as it was known that Eugene III., who had been a Cistercian monk, was visiting Clairvaux, and that, therefore, St. Malachy would not have

to travel farther than France to see the sovereign pontiff. The saint set out immediately on his journey; but having been detained some time in England, owing to a prohibition issued by King Stephen against bishops leaving the country, he found on arriving at Clairvaux, that the Pope had returned to Rome. St. Malachy was not permitted to carry out his cherished project; he was seized with his death-sickness four or five days after his arrival at Clairvaux, and expired there, on the 2d of November that year (1148), attended by St. Bernard, and surrounded by a number of the abbots and religious of the order.‡

All this time a fierce warfare was carried on among the chieftains of the north, but the primate brought about a meeting between them at Armagh, in the latter part of 1148, and arranged terms of peace, to which they bound themselves on the crozier of St. Patrick; the chieftains of Oriel, Ulidia, and the other northern territories, giving hostages to Muirkertach, Murtough, or

\* St. Bernard's letters to St. Malachy on this subject are printed in Ussher's *Sylloge*. On the occasion of building the church of this monastery, some wrong-headed person opposed St. Malachy's plan, urging that the undertaking greatly exceeded the means at his disposal; that none of them would ever see the work completed; that a wooden oratory in the old Irish fashion would suffice, and that it was wrong to introduce the customs of other countries, even in the shape of fine architecture for God's house, adding:—"we are Scots, not Frenchmen." The saint persevered successfully, and the objector's prophecy was only verified in himself, as he died before a year, and did not see the work finished.

† The Synod was held in the island above mentioned, and not at Holm Patrick, on the mainland, as Dr. Lani-

gan supposes; the monastic establishment not having been transferred to the latter place until some time between 1213 and 1228. Archdall, *Monast. Hib.* p. 218.

‡ The festival of St. Malachy was transferred from 2d of November, the day of his death, to the following day, owing to the commemoration of All Souls, which would interfere with its due solemnization. This illustrious man is admitted to have been one of the greatest saints not only of the Irish but of the universal Church. His life, by St. Bernard, which is an important authority in our ecclesiastical history, was written not later than the year 1151; and he was solemnly canonized in 1190 by Pope Clement III. We may here remark that the pretended prophecy about the Popes, formerly attributed to St. Malachy, has been long rejected as apocryphal.



Maurice O'Loughlin, king of Tyrone, in token of submission. O'Loughlin proceeded to Dublin the following year, accompanied by O'Carroll, when Dermot MacMurrough also paid homage to him, and peace was established in that part of Ireland. In 1150, the hostages of Connaught were brought to O'Loughlin, without a necessity for any hostile demonstration, and his sovereignty was thus acknowledged by all Ireland, with the exception of the southern province.

Murrough O'Melaghlin, king of Meath, having by his crimes incurred general odium, was anathematized by the primate, and expelled from his kingdom by the monarch, O'Loughlin, who divided Meath into three parts, giving one to Turlough O'Conor, king of Connaught, another to O'Rourke of Breffny, and the third to O'Carroll of Oriel. Immediately after this, Turlough O'Brien, king of Munster, led an army to Dublin, where he received the submission of the Dano-Irish; and he was proceeding to avenge a defeat which some of his subjects had received shortly before from the men of Breffny and Oriel, when O'Loughlin marched from the north to the aid of the latter, and the forces of Leath Cuinn and Leath Mogha met at Dun Lochad near Tara, but the Dano-Irish interfered, and arranged a year's truce between them.

A. D. 1152.—Cardinal John Paparo arrived in Ireland about the close of 1151, bringing the palliums which had

been solicited by St. Malachy; and the following year was rendered memorable by the national council of Ceananus, or Kells, at which these insignia of the archiepiscopal dignity were conferred. The palliums were for the archbishops of Armagh, Cashel, Tuam, and Dublin, the two latter sees being then for the first time regularly created archbishoprics; although, as already stated, we find the bishops of Tuam often styled archbishops long before that period. Dissatisfaction was felt in other parts of Ireland that this honor should be conferred on Dublin and Tuam, and it is stated that some of the Irish prelates remained away from the council on that account. The bishops who attended were those of Armagh (St. Gelasius); Lismore (Christian, the Pope's legate for Ireland); Cashel (Donald O'Lonergan); Dublin (Gregory); Glendalough; Leighlin; Portlargo, or Waterford; the vicar-general of the bishop of Ossory; the bishop of Kildare; the vicar-general of the bishop of Emly; the bishops of Cork, Clonfert, Kerry, Limerick, Clonmacnoise, East Connaught, or Roscommon; Lugnia, or Achonry; Conmacne Hy Briuin, or Ardagh; Kin-el Eoghain; Dalaradia, or Conor; and Ulidia, or Down. Cardinal Paparo presided, and about 300 clergy of the second order, and monks, were also present. The suffragan sees for each metropolitan were named; several laws against simony, usury, and other abuses were framed: and the payment of tithes for the support of the church was or



dained. This was the first introduction of tithes into Ireland; but they were not enforced until after the English invasion. This synod of Kells is one of the incidents of Irish history which have been most frequently misrepresented by English historians, and by Irish Protestant writers, who pretend to trace to it the connection of Ireland with Rome, or the establishment of "Popery," as they call it, in this country; but how utterly unfounded such an inference is we need not impress upon the unprejudiced reader, who has followed with us the thread of our history thus far.\*

While the heads of the Church were thus occupied a civil war raged in Munster. Turlough O'Brien was, in 1151, deposed by Teige, another son of Dermot O'Brien, and the aid of Turlough O'Connor being solicited by Teige, the king of Connaught speedily availed himself of the opportunity to carry desolation into the southern province. O'Connor's forces were joined by those of Dermot MacMurrough; and they plundered Munster before them, as the annalists say, until they reached Moin

Mor,† where they encountered the Dalcassian army, under Turlough O'Brien, returning from the plunder of Desmond; and a dreadful battle was fought, in which the men of North Munster suffered a fearful slaughter, leaving 7,000 dead upon the field, and among them several of their chieftains. This terrible sacrifice of life is attributed to the obstinate bravery of the Dalcassians, who would never either demand quarter or fly from the field of battle. On this occasion Turlough O'Brien was banished, and Turlough O'Connor assumed the sovereignty of Munster; his son, Roderic, making another raid into Thomond, and carrying fire and sword as far as Cromadh, or Croom, in Lime rick.

A. D. 1152.—O'Connor led a second army into Munster this year, and divided the country, giving Desmond to the son of Cormac MacCarthy, and Thomond to Teige and Turlough O'Brien and the annalists say that both Thomond and Desmond had now suffered so fearfully from their mutual wars, that a dearth followed, and that the peasantry were dispersed into Leath

\* We could not express ourselves more to the purpose on this subject than in the words of Moore:—"It is true," observes this writer, "from the secluded position of Ireland, and still more from the ruin brought upon all her religious establishments during the long period of the Danish wars, the intercourse with Rome must have been not unfrequently interrupted, and the powers delegated to the prelate of Armagh, as *legatus natus*, or, by virtue of his office, legate of the Holy See, may, in such intervals, have served as a substitute for the direct exercise of the Papal authority. But that the Irish Church has ever, at any period, been independent of the

spiritual power of Rome, is a supposition which the whole course of our ecclesiastical history contradicts. On the contrary, it has frequently been a theme of high eulogium upon this country, as well among foreign as domestic writers, that hers is the only national Church in the world which has kept itself pure from the taint of heresy and schism."—*History of Ireland* vol. ii., p. 193.

† Dr. O'Donovan (*Four Masters*, an. 1151, note), suggests, with great probability, that this may have been the place now called Moanmore, in the parish of Emly county of Tipperary.



Cuinn, after many of them had perished by the famine.

This year, also, Meath was dismembered by the monarch, O'Loughlin, aided by Turlough O'Conor, Dermot MacMurrough, and other princes. From Clonard westward was given to Murrough O'Melaghlin, who had been formerly deposed, and from the same point eastward to Murrough's son, Melaghlin. Tiernan O'Rourke, lord of Breffny, was also dispossessed of his territory by this host of confederated princes; and at the same time another mortal injury was inflicted on him, his wife, Dervorgil (Dearbhforgaill), being carried off by MacMurrough the king of Leinster.

The time and other circumstances of this abduction have been strangely distorted by historians to give a coloring of romance to the account of the English invasion, with which it cannot have had the least connection. It occurred, according to our authentic annals, in 1152, and Dermot's flight to England, and invitation to the invaders, did not take place till 1166. Dervorgil was at the former of these dates forty-four years of age, and her paramour sixty-two. She was shamefully encouraged by her brother, Melaghlin O'Melaghlin, just then made lord of East Meath, to

abandon her husband, who appears to have treated her harshly before that, and to have deserved little sympathy as a hero of romance.\* On leaving O'Rourke, she took with her the cattle and articles which formed her dowry; and the following year, when she was rescued from MacMurrough by Turlough O'Conor, and restored to her family, the same cattle and other property were also restored. It is probable that she did not reside again with her husband, but retired immediately to Mellifont, where she endeavored by charity and rigid penance during the remainder of a long life, to expiate her misconduct.†

A. D. 1153.—The monarch, Murtough O'Loughlin, espoused the cause of Turlough O'Brien, and led an army towards the south, to reinstate him in his territories. Teige O'Brien, the usurper, and his ally, Turlough O'Conor, marched to oppose the northern army; but before their forces could form a junction, near Rahin, in the King's county, O'Loughlin, by a rapid movement with two battalions of picked men, encountered Teige O'Brien's small force, which he cut to pieces. Turlough O'Conor was then glad to retreat into Connaught by Athlone; and while his son, Roderick O'Conor, with a portion of

\* The Four Masters relate, under the year 1128, that a sacrilegious attack was made on St. Celsus by this Tighearnan O'Ruarke and his people, who robbed the primate and killed one of his clergy; and that Conor MacLoughlin, then lord of Cinel Eoghain, sent his cavalry, who attacked and defeated the cavalry of O'Ruarke, and killed many of his partisans.

† Dervorgil performed many acts of generosity to the Church; and in 1167 erected a chapel for the convent of nuns at Clonmacnoise. She died in 1193 at the venerable age of 85, and her brother died of poison, at Durrow, in 1155.



his army, was preparing to encamp, O'Loughlin, with his northern heroes, poured in upon them unexpectedly, and, slaughtering great numbers, put the rest to flight.

A. D. 1154.—Turlough O'Connor now collected all the ships of Dun Gaillve, Conmacna-mara, Umhall, or the O'Malleys' country, Tir-Awley and Tir-Fiachrach, in northern Connaught, and with this fleet, which was under the command of O'Dowda, he plundered the coasts of Tir-Conaill, and Inis Eoghain. To meet this aggression, Murtough O'Loughlin hired ships from the Gall-Gael or Scoto-Danes, of the Hebrides, from Ara, Ceanntire, Manainn, or Man, and "the borders of Alba in general;" and the fleet thus mustered was commanded by MacScelling, a Dano-Gael. The two fleets engaged near Inis Eoghain, and fought with desperate fierceness. A great number of Connaught men, with their admiral, O'Dowda, were slain, but the victory was nevertheless on their side; the foreign ships being completely shattered, so that their crews were, for the most part, obliged to abandon them, and, as many as could, to escape on shore. MacScelling came off with the loss of his teeth.

Hostilities between O'Loughlin and O'Connor were still carried on by land, and the corn-crops of a great part of Connaught were destroyed by the former in the harvest of this year; but

two years after (1156), Turlough O'Connor closed his turbulent career in death, and Murtough O'Loughlin then became the unopposed monarch of Ireland; his claims to that honor, previously, having been sturdily contested by the king of Connaught. Turlough died in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and reigned over Connaught fifty years. He distributed, by his will, a large amount of gold and silver, with many cows and horses, among the churches of Ireland, and was buried beside the altar of St. Kieran at Clonmacnoise. His son, Roderic, succeeded as king of Connaught, and began his ill-fated reign by imprisoning three of his brothers, one of whom he blinded. During this time Ulidia, Meath, Breffny, and Leinster were all disturbed by war.

A. D. 1157.—A synod, which was attended by the primate, the bishop of Lismore, who was legate, and seventeen other bishops, and at which there were also present the monarch, with the kings of Ulidia, Oriel, Breffny (Tier-nan O'Rourke), and a great number of the inferior clergy and nobility, together with a multitude of the people who assembled to witness the proceedings, was held this year in the abbey of Mellifont.\* The primate having solemnly consecrated the abbey church, the lay princes consulted with the bishops on the conduct of Donough O'Melaghlin, prince of Meath, who had become the

\* Synods, or rather mixed conventions, had become very frequent about this time, being often, as in this case,

attended by lay princes for the purpose of consulting on measures for the general management of the state.



common pest of the country. He was the friend and ally of Dermot Mac-Murrough, by whose aid he had usurped the kingdom of Meath; just before the assembling of the synod he murdered Cu-ulla O'Kynelvan, a neighboring chief, in violation of solemn guarantees; and in an old translation of the Annals of Ulster he is called a "cursed atheist." This bad man was accordingly excommunicated by the clergy, and sentence of deposition being then pronounced against him by the king of Ireland and the other princes, his brother, Dermot, was made king of Meath in his place. At this synod the monarch, O'Loughlin, granted "to God and to the monastery of Mellifont" the lands of Finnabar-na-ninghean, a townland on the south side of the Boyne, opposite the river Mattock, together with one hundred and forty cows and sixty ounces of gold. O'Carroll, prince of Oriel, also presented the monastery, on the same occasion, with sixty ounces of gold; and Dervorgil, the wife of O'Rourke, presented as many ounces, together with a golden chalice for the altar of Mary, and cloth, or sacred vestments, for each of the other nine altars of the church.

A synod of the clergy was convened the following year (1158) at Bri-mic-Taidhg, near Trim, and was attended by the legate and twenty-five other bishops. Derry was on this occasion erected into an episcopal see; Flahertach O'Brolchain, the abbot of St. Columbkille's monastery, there, being con-

secrated the first bishop. The bishops of Connaught, while proceeding to this synod, were intercepted and plundered by the soldiers of Dermot, king of Meath, on crossing the Shannon, near Clonmacnoise, and two of their attendants were killed. They therefore returned to Connaught, and held a synod of their own province in Roscommon.

Roderic, king of Connaught, exhibited great activity, and spared no pains to attain the position which his father, Turlough, had held, and to divide the sovereignty of Ireland with O'Loughlin. While the latter was engaged in Munster, in 1157, expelling Turlough O'Brien (whom he had formerly supported) from Thomond, and dividing Munster between Dermot, son of Cormac MacCarthy, as king of Desmond, and Conor, son of Donnell O'Brien, whom he made king of Thomond, Roderic O'Conor led an army to plunder and lay waste Tyrone, and, as soon as O'Loughlin had left the south, proceeded thither to reinstate Turlough O'Brien. MacCarthy promised Roderic a conditional submission; that is, in case O'Loughlin should not be able to support him against Roderic. An offensive and defensive league was entered into between O'Conor and Tier-nan O'Rourke; and their combined forces, with a battalion of the men of Thomond, marched in 1159, into Oriel, as far as Ardee, when they were met by Murtough O'Loughlin with the army of Kinel Connell and Kinel Eoghain.



and of the north in general. A battle ensued, in which the Connaught men and their allies were defeated with great slaughter; and the northern army, after returning home in triumph, subsequently entered Connaught and devastated a great portion of that country.

During the next two years commotion and disorder reigned in various parts of Ireland. An insurrection of the Kinel Eoghain was put down by O'Loughlin, with the aid of the men of Oriel and Ulidia; and a fresh partition was made of Meath. In the latter part of 1161 a general meeting of the clergy and chieftains of Ireland took place at Dervor, in Meath, when all the other princes gave hostages to Murtough O'Loughlin.

A. D. 1162.—The Irish Church, fertile in saints, now presents to us another of the most illustrious of her sons, in the person of St. Laurence O'Toole (or, as his name is called in Irish, Lorcan O'Tuathal), who was chosen this year to succeed Greine, or Gregory, the Danish archbishop of Dublin. This great saint, whom patriotism as well as religion endears to the hearts of Irishmen, belonged to one of the noblest families of Leinster, whose patrimonial territory, of which his father was chieftain, was called Hy-Muirahy, a district nearly conterminous with the southern

half of the present county of Kildare.\* In his youth he entered the monastery of St. Kevin, at Glendalough, of which he was chosen abbot when only twenty-five years old; and even after his elevation to the episcopacy—a dignity which he most reluctantly accepted—he continued to practice all the austerities of monastic discipline. His predecessors in the see of Dublin had been consecrated by the archbishops of Canterbury, to whose jurisdiction they subjected themselves; but this external authority was not resorted to in his case, as he was consecrated by St. Gelasius, successor of St. Patrick. St. Laurence O'Toole was one of twenty-six prelates, who, with a large number of abbots and inferior clergy, attended a synod held at Clane, in Kildare, the year of his consecration. At this synod the college of Armagh was virtually raised to the rank of a university, as it was decreed that no one who had not been an alumnus of Armagh should be appointed lector or theological professor in any of the other diocesan schools of Ireland.

The extraordinary energy displayed at this period by the hierarchy and clergy of Ireland, in restoring discipline and promoting reforms, must soon have produced the most salutary effect on society, and raised the country to its just position among nations; but, un-

\* The true position of Hy-Muireadhaigh (Hy-Muirahy, or Hy-Murray), the ancient territory of the O'Tooles, is shown by O'Donovan, in a valuable note to the *Four Masters*, A. D. 1180. The mountain district of Imaile, in

Wicklow, was not occupied by them until after the English invasion, when they were driven from their original territory.



happily, their efforts were about to be interrupted and frustrated. Even then the scheme was hatched which was so soon to crush all these generous tendencies, and extinguish for centuries every native germ of social progress.\*

Sundry wars and hostile inroads occurred about this time, presenting no peculiar feature; but in the year 1166 a fatal outrage was committed by the monarch, O'Loughlin, on Eochy Mac-Dunlevy, prince of Dalaradia. One of the petty wars, so usual at that period, having been arranged between these two princes the preceding year, a peace was ratified by the successor of St. Patrick and some of the neighboring chieftains. Urged, however, by some new feeling of exasperation, from what cause we are not told, O'Loughlin came suddenly upon the Dalaradian chief, put out his eyes, and killed three of his principal men. This savage aggression so provoked the princes who had been guarantees for the treaty, that they mustered an army, composed of choice battalions of the men of Oriel, Breffny, and Conmacne, under the command of Donough O'Carroll, and

marched to the north. At Leiter Luin, a place in the present barony of Upper Fews, county of Armagh, and then part of Tir Eoghain, they encountered O'Loughlin, who, although he had but a few troops, gave battle. In the fierce contest which ensued the Kinel Eoghain were defeated, and the monarch himself slain; and thus fell Murtough O'Loughlin, who, of all the Irish kings since the days of Malachy II. had the most unquestionable right to the title of monarch of Ireland.

A. D. 1166.—Roderic O'Conor lost no time in getting himself recognized as sovereign, on the death of O'Loughlin; and this appears to have been a mere matter of parade in his case, as there was no serious opposition to his claim. He first led an army to Easrua, in Donegal, and took the hostages of Kinel Connell. Thence he marched across Ireland to Dublin, being joined on the way by the men of Meath and Teffia, and he was there inaugurated with more pomp than any Irish king had ever been before. This was, indeed, the first solemn act in which we see Dublin treated as a metropolis, and on this oc-

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\* The rebuilding of the great church of Derry, destroyed by fire many years before, was completed, in 1164, by Flahertach O'Brolchain, bishop, and formerly abbot of Derry, with funds which he had collected in the course of a mission that he had undertaken through a part of Ireland for that purpose. The primate had also, about this time, made a visitation of Ireland to collect funds for rebuilding the religious establishments of Armagh destroyed by fire in 1150. The contributions which the primate received in his visitation of Tyrone on this occasion, were a cow from every biatach or farmer, a horse from every chieftain, and twenty cows from the king; and when Flahertach O'Brolchain made

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a visitation of the same territory to repair his monastery, he obtained a horse from every chieftain, a cow from every two biatachs, a cow from every three freeholders, the same from every four villains, and twenty cows from the king. He also got a gold ring of five ounces, his horse and his battle axe, as a personal gift from the king (Murtough O'Loughlin). A "wonderful castle" was built this year (1164) by Roderic O'Conor, at Tuam, but as the castle of Galway, and other similar strongholds, had been erected in Connaught long before, the term "wonderful" must have been applied rather on account of the strength of the building than of its singularity.





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CHOSEN LEAF OF BARD AND CHIEF  
OLD ERIN'S NATIVE SHAMROCK

Moore's Ballad







casian Roderic paid the Dano-Irish of that city a stipend in cattle, and levied for them a tax of 4,000 cows on Ireland at large.

From Dublin he proceeded to Drogheda (Droicheat-atha), where O'Carroll and the men of Oriel paid homage, and gave him hostages. Attended by a great hosting of the men of Connaught, Breffny, and Meath, he marched back to Leinster, advancing into Hy-Kinsella, where Dermot MacMurrough gave him hostages; and submission was made in a similar form by the various chiefs of Leinster and Ossory, and of North and South Munster.

By the death of the late monarch, Dermot MacMurrough was deprived of his only supporter; and on the accession of Roderic—the firm ally of his old enemy, O'Rourke—he saw what his fate must inevitably be. According to the friendly authority of Giraldus Cambrensis, this prince was detested by all. Equally hateful to strangers and to his own people “his hand was against every man, and every man's hand against him.” He accordingly prepared for the worst by burning his castle of Ferns, and soon saw his fears realized by the approach of an army conducted by Tiernan O'Rourke, and composed of the men of Breffny and Meath, of the Dano-Irish of Dublin, and of the chiefs of his own kingdom of Leinster. A precipitate flight was his only resource, and while he sought refuge in England his kingdom was given to another member of his family.

A. D. 1167.—A great assembly of the clergy and chieftains of Leath Cuinn, or the northern half of Ireland, was convened by Roderic, at Athboy, in Meath. Among those who attended were the primate; St. Laurence O'Toole, archbishop of Dublin; Catholcus O'Duffy, archbishop of Tuam; and the chieftains of Breffny, Oriel, Ulidia, Meath, and Dublin. Thirteen thousand horsemen are said to have assembled on this occasion; and the meeting, from its magnitude, has been supposed by some, although incorrectly, to have been a revival of the ancient Feis of Tara. It has been also remarked how sadly this display of the resources, and awakening of the olden glories of the country, contrasted with the fatal circumstances of the moment; and how little the men then congregated at Athboy could anticipate the ruin which was just about to come upon themselves and upon their nation! Several useful regulations, affecting the social and religious interests of the people, were adopted on this occasion, and the convention tended materially to promote respect for the laws, and to give *éclat* to the commencement of the new sovereign's reign.

Roderic, with a large army composed of contingents from every other part of Ireland, entered the territory of Tyrone (Tir-Eoghain) and divided it between Niall O'Loughlin and Hugh O'Neill, giving to the former the country lying to the north of Slieve Gallion, in the present county of Londonderry and to



the latter the territory south of that mountain. This might be considered as the last act of undisputed sovereignty exercised by a native king of Ireland. Roderic was a man of parade, not of action, and totally unfit for the emergency in which the unhappy des-

tiny of Ireland had placed him. No monarch of Ireland, up to his time, was ever more implicitly obeyed, or could command more numerous hostings of brave men; yet in his hands all this power was miserably worthless and inoperative.

## CHAPTER XVII.

### THE ANGLO-NORMAN INVASION.

**Dermot's Appeal to Henry II.—His Negotiations with Earl Strongbow and others.—Landing of the first English Adventurers in Ireland.—Siege of Wexford.—First Rewards of the Adventurers.—Apathy of the Irish.—Incursion into Ossory.—Savage Conduct of Dermot.—His Vindictiveness.—Shameful Feebleness of Roderic.—The Treaty of Ferns.—Dermot aspires to the Sovereignty.—Strongbow's Preparations for his Expedition.—Landing of his Precursor, Raymond le Gros.—Massacre of Prisoners by the English.—Arrival of Strongbow, and Siege of Waterford.—Marriage of Strongbow and Eva.—March on Dublin.—Surprise of the City.—Brutal Massacre.—The English Garrison of Waterford cut off.—Sacriligious Spoliations by Dermot and the English.—Imbecility of Roderic.—Execution of Dermot's Hostages.—Synod of Armagh.—English Slaves, nefarious custom.—Horrible Death of Dermot MacMurrough.**

(A. D. 1168—1171.)

**M**EDITATING vengeance against the country from which he was compelled to fly in disgrace, the fugitive king of Leinster arrived at Bristol, where he learned that Henry II., to whom he had determined to apply for aid, was absent in Aquitaine. Thither he immediately proceeded; and having at length found the English king, he laid before him such a statement of his grievances as he thought fit. He offered to become Henry's vassal, should he, through his assistance, be reinstated in his kingdom, and made the most abject protestations of reverence and submission. Henry lent a willing ear to his statement, and must have been forcibly struck by this invitation to carry out a project which he himself had long entertained, and for which he had been making grave preparations many years before. That project was the invasion of Ireland. As his hands were, however, just then full of business—for he was engaged in bringing into submission the proud nobles of the province in which he then was, while at home the resistance of St. Thomas à Becket, who would not suffer him to trample on the rights of the church with impu-



nity, was become daily more irksome—he could not occupy himself personally in Dermot's affairs, but gave him letters patent, addressed to all his subjects—English, French, and Welsh—recommending Dermot to them, and granting them a general license to aid that prince in the recovery of his territory by force of arms.

A. D. 1168.—With this authorization Dermot hastened back to Wales, where he gave it due publicity, but for some time his efforts to induce any one to espouse his cause were unavailing. At length, he was fortunate enough to find some needy military adventurers suited to his purpose. The chief of these was Richard de Clare, commonly called Strongbow (as his father, Gilbert, also had been), from his skill with the crossbow. This man, who was earl of Pembroke and Strigul, or Chepstow, being of a brave and enterprising spirit, and of ruined fortune, entered warmly into Dermot's design. He undertook to raise a sufficient force to aid the king of Leinster in the recovery of his kingdom, for which Dermot promised him his daughter, Eva, in marriage, and the succession to the throne of Leinster. Two Anglo-Norman knights, Maurice FitzGerald and Robert FitzStephen, also enlisted themselves in the cause of Dermot. These men were half-brothers, being the sons of Nesta, who had been first the mistress of Henry I., then the wife of Gerald of Windsor, governor of Pembroke and lord of Carew, to whom she bore the former of these ad-

venturers, and finally the mistress of constable Stephen de Marisco, who was the father of Robert FitzStephen. These knights were men of needy circumstances, and Dermot promised to reward them liberally for their services, by granting them the city of Wexford with certain lands adjoining. Such were the obscure individuals by whom the first introduction of English power into Ireland was planned and carried out.

The year was now drawing to a close, and Dermot MacMurrough, relying on the promises which he had obtained, ventured back to Ireland, and remained, during the winter, concealed in a monastery of Augustinian canons which he had founded at Ferns. There is some uncertainty as to the date of the first landing of the Anglo-Normans in Ireland; and it may also be doubted, whether some of the proceedings of Dermot and his foreign auxiliaries, mentioned obscurely in the native annals, occurred previous to the arrival of FitzStephen, and the surrender of Wexford, in May, 1169, or were identical with those recorded after that time. Thus it is stated, that early in the year a few of Dermot's Welsh auxiliaries arrived, and that with their aid he recovered possession of Hy-Kinselagh; but that this movement on his part was premature, and that at the approach of a force, hastily collected by Roderic O'Connor and Tiernan O'Rourke, a battle in which some of the Welsh were killed, having been fought at Cill



Osnadh, now Kellistown, in the county of Carlow, Dermot, who only wanted to gain time, made a hypocritical peace with the monarch, giving him seven hostages for ten cantreds of his former territory. It is added, that he gave a hundred ounces of gold to O'Rourke, as an atonement for the injury he had formerly inflicted on him; but all this seems to be only a confused version of some of the events which we are now about to relate in order, on the authority of Giraldus Cambrensis and Maurice Regan.\*

A. D. 1169. —According to the most probable account of the first Anglo-Norman descent, Robert FitzStephen, with 30 knights all his own kinsmen, 60 men-at-arms, and 300 skillful archers, disembarked in May, this year, at Bannow,† near Wexford. One of the knights was Hervey de Montemarisco, or Mountmaurice, a paternal uncle of earl Strongbow; and the next day, at the same place, landed Maurice de Prendergast, a Welsh gentleman, with 10 knights and 60 archers. Dermot, on receiving notice of their arrival, marched with the utmost speed to join them with 500 men, being all that he could then muster; and with the joint force, he proceeded immediately to lay

siege to the town of Wexford, the inhabitants of which were Dano-Irish. The first assault was repelled with great bravery, the inhabitants having previously set fire to the suburbs, that they might not afford a cover to the enemy; but when the Anglo-Normans were preparing to renew the attack next morning, the townspeople demanded a parley, and terms of capitulation were negotiated by the clergy; Dermot, though with great reluctance, consenting to pardon the inhabitants on their returning to their allegiance. In the first day's assault eighteen of the English had been slain, and only three of the brave garrison. FitzStephen burned the shipping which lay before the town; and it is said that he destroyed also the vessels which had conveyed his own troops from England, to show that they were resolved never to retreat. The lordship of the town was then, according to the contract, made over to him and to FitzGerald, who had not yet arrived, and two cantreds of land, lying between the towns of Wexford and Waterford, were granted by Dermot to Hervey of Mountmaurice.‡

Dermot now conducted his allies to Ferns, where they remained inactive for three weeks, without molestation, and

\* The authority referred to as that of Maurice Regan is a metrical narrative written by an anonymous Norman rhymist from the oral account which he received from Regan, the secretary and "Lattimer," or interpreter, of Dermot MacMurrough. An old translation into English, by Sir George Carew, was published in Harris's *Hibernica*.

† Cuan-an-bhainbh, "the creek of the sucking pigs."

The place of FitzStephen's debarkation is called Baganbun by the Anglo-Irish historians.

‡ This land is comprised in the present baronies of Forth and Bargie, county of Wexford, and was the first place in Ireland colonized by the English. The isolation of its inhabitants for centuries after that time, and the peculiarities of manner and language, of which the remnant is still preserved among them, are well known facts



indeed without appearing to excite any attention on the part of king Roderic and the other Irish princes. This apathy of the Irish, which appears to us so unaccountable, and which was so lamentable in its consequences, partly arose, no doubt, from the insignificance of the invaders, in point of numbers. Never did a national calamity, so mighty and so deplorable, proceed from a commencement more contemptible than did the English occupation of Ireland. The Irish were accustomed to employ parties of Danish mercenaries in their feuds. They had also mixed themselves up more than once in the quarrels of the Welsh; and they looked upon MacMurrough's handful of Welsh and Normans as casual auxiliaries who came on a special duty and would depart when it was performed. The Irish annalists expressly state that the monarch, with a number of subordinate princes and a large army, entered Leinster at this very time, and "went to meet the men of Munster, Leinster, and Ossory," but "set nothing by the Flemings," as the first party of the invaders are called in these records.\* As to Roderic, he showed no fore-

sight or prudence, no energy of character or real bravery, and no regard for the interests of Ireland as an integral nation, throughout the whole of this most fatal crisis in his country's fortunes. About this time he celebrated the fair of Tailtin, when the concourse assembled was so great that the horsemen are said to have been spread over the tract of country from Mullach Aiti, now the hill of Lloyd, west of Kells, to Mullach Tailtin, a distance of about six and a half miles; yet, while this display of numbers was made within a couple of days' march, Dermot, with his handful of foreign auxiliaries, was permitted to overrun the province of Leinster, and to brave the anger of the imbecile monarch.†

Emboldened by the inactivity of his enemies, Dermot resolved to act on the offensive; and as he had a cause of quarrel with MacGilla Patrick, prince of Ossory, who, actuated by a feeling of jealousy, had put out the eyes of Enna, a son of MacMurrough's who was in his power as a hostage, he determined to make him the first object of his vengeance.‡ Between the forces of his province and the garrison of Wexford,

\* Four Masters, A. D. 1169. No English or Anglo-Irish authority makes any mention of these Flemings; yet, observes Dr. O'Donovan, certain analogies as well as the existence of an ancient Flemish colony in Pembrokeshire, whence the first adventurers came, would show that the Irish annalists had some grounds for the application of the name.

† The annalists say that this year (1169), "Rory O'Connor granted an (increase of) pension of ten cows yearly, from himself and his successors, to the lector (chief master) of Armagh (seminary), in honor of Pat-

rick, to instruct the youth of Ireland and Alba in literature."

‡ The barbarous custom of blinding was a mode of punishment common to other nations at that period. It was indeed only three or four years before the time at which we have arrived when Henry II., king of England, took vengeance on the people of Wales by causing the children of the noblest families of that country, whom he held as hostages, to be treated in the same manner; ordering the eyes of the males to be rooted out, and the ears and lips of the females to be amputated.



Dermot was enabled to muster 3,000 men, but his principal reliance was on his foreign friends, in whose ranks he chiefly remained; and the Wexford men were so hated and distrusted by him, that they were not allowed to encamp at night with the rest of the army. Thus Dermot marched into Ossory, where the inhabitants made a brave stand; but after a good deal of fighting, having been decoyed from a strong position into one where they were exposed to the Norman cavalry, they were ultimately defeated, and three hundred of their heads were piled up before Dermot as a trophy of victory. This ferocious monster is said to have leaped and clapped his hands with joy at the sight; and Cambrensis adds that he turned over the heads in the ghastly heap, and that recognizing one of them as the head of a man to whom he had particular aversion, he seized it by both ears, and with brutal frenzy bit off the nose and lips of his dead enemy. Such is the character which we receive of this detestable tyrant, even from contemporary English authorities.

Roderic, awakening at length to a sense of the duty which devolved on him, convened a meeting of the Irish princes at Tara, and, in obedience to the summons, a large army was mustered; while Dermot, who had already carried desolation through a great por-

tion of Ossory, became dismayed at the first symptoms of preparations against him, and, halting with his English friends in their career of havoc, returned to Ferns, and hastily entrenched himself there. Scarcely, however, had the Irish army assembled, when dissensions broke out in its ranks, and on marching as far as Dublin, Roderic thought fit to dispense with the services of MacDunlevy of Ulidia, and of O'Carroll of Oriel, who accordingly drew off their respective contingents, and returned home. Still the monarch arrived before Ferns with an army sufficient to annihilate the small force which he found collected there round Dermot; for it must be observed, that on the news of an Irish army being in the field, the king of Leinster was abandoned by a great number of his Irish followers.

The conduct of Roderic on this occasion lamentably illustrates the weakness of his character. Instead of proceeding at once to crush the dangerous foe, or insisting on the unconditional submission of Dermot, he entered into private negotiations, first with FitzStephen, and then with Dermot; endeavoring to induce the former to abandon the king of Leinster, and to return to his own country, or to detach the latter from his foreign allies, and bring him to an humble admission of his allegiance. Such attempts showed the feebleness of

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Hence, when we read of such tortures in Irish history, we are not to conclude that they were indicative of any peculiar barbarity. More than two hundred years after,

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in the reign of Henry IV., this barbarous practice prevailed in England, and it was necessary to make a law against it.—*Hume*, c. 18.



his councils, and only excited the contempt of both FitzStephen and Dermot. Roderic's overtures were therefore rejected with disdain, and preparations were made on both sides for battle. We cannot now judge how far the strength of the position occupied by the enemy justified the reluctance of the Irish monarch to attack; but we find him again endeavoring to avert the necessity of fighting by further treating with the perfidious Dermot, so that it was Roderic, and not the besieged, who appeared to supplicate for peace. At length terms were agreed on, Roderic consenting to give the full sovereignty of Leinster to Dermot and to his heirs, on his own supremacy being acknowledged; and Dermot on the other part, giving his favorite son, Conor, as a hostage to the monarch, and binding himself solemnly by a secret treaty to bring over no more foreign auxiliaries, and to dismiss those now in his service, so soon as circumstances would permit him to do so.

About this time Maurice de Prendergast withdrew from Dermot, with his followers, to the number of 200; and finding that his departure from Ireland was prevented, he offered his services to the king of Ossory. This defection alarmed Dermot, and enabled his enemy, MacGilla Patrick, to make some reprisals; but Maurice soon abandoned the latter also, and returned for a short time to Wales.

Dermot, who only desired to gain time, soon betrayed the insincerity of

his concessions to Roderic; for Maurice FitzGerald having in a few days after arrived with a small party of knights and archers at Wexford, he hastened to meet his new ally, regardless of his treaty, and, with this addition to his force, marched to attack Dublin, which had thrown off its allegiance to him, and was then governed by Hasculf Mac-Turkill, a prince of Danish descent. The territory around the city was soon laid waste in so merciless a way, that the inhabitants were obliged to sue for peace; and the king of Leinster having glutted his revenge, accepted their submission, for the purpose of being free to lend assistance to Donnell O'Brien, prince of Thomond, who had married a daughter of Dermot's, and half sister of Eva, and had just then rebelled against the monarch, Roderic. This opportunity of weakening the power of the latter was, to the vindictive king of Leinster, too gratifying to be neglected; and Dermot felt so elated by repeated successes, that he was no longer content with his position as a provincial prince, but set up a claim to the sovereignty of Ireland, which he grounded on the right of an ancestor. In this ambitious aim he was encouraged by his English auxiliaries; and in a consultation with FitzStephen and FitzGerald, it was resolved that a message should be sent immediately to Strongbow, pressing him to fulfill his engagements, and to come to their aid with as little delay as possible.

A. D. 1170.—Strongbow on his part



felt himself in a difficult position. He could no longer act upon Henry's letters patent, Dermot being now reinstated in his kingdom; and a new sanction being necessary to authorize a hostile expedition to Ireland, he repaired to Normandy, where the English king then was, to solicit his permission. Henry, who was naturally jealous and suspicious, and entertained a particular aversion to the ambitious earl of Pembroke, in order to rid himself of his importunity, gave him an equivocal answer, which Strongbow pretended to understand as the required permission. He thereupon returned to Wales, set about collecting men with all possible diligence, and sent Raymond le Gros with ten knights and seventy archers as his advanced guard. This party landed at a small rocky promontory then called Dundolf, or Dwndonnell, near Waterford, and being joined by Hervey of Mountmaurice, they constructed a temporary fort, to enable them to retain their position until Strongbow should arrive. The citizens of Waterford, aided by O'Faelain, or O'Phelan, prince of the Deisi, and O'Ryan, of Idrone, sent a hastily collected force to dislodge the invaders; but through the bravery of Raymond, aided by accident, the besieged were not only able to defend themselves, but effectually to rout the undisciplined mul-

titude who came against them, killing, it is said, 500 men, and taking seventy of the principal citizens' prisoners.\* Large sums of money were offered to ransom the latter, but the English, as some say, swayed by the sanguinary counsel of Hervey of Mountmaurice, rejected these offers; and for the purpose of striking terror into the Irish, brutally massacred the prisoners by breaking their limbs, and hurling them from the summit of the precipice into the sea. This atrocity was a fitting prelude to the English wars in Ireland; but most historians vindicate Raymond le Gros from the stigma which it cast upon the English arms.

In the mean time Strongbow had assembled his army of adventurers and mercenaries at Milford, and was about to embark, when he received a peremptory order from Henry forbidding the expedition. What was to be done? His hesitation, if any, was very brief, and he adopted the desperate alternative of disobeying his king. He accordingly sailed, and with an army of about 1,200 men, of whom 200 were knights, landed near Waterford on the 23d of August, the eve of St. Bartholomew's day. Here he was immediately joined by his friend Raymond le Gros, who had been then three months in Ireland; and the very next day he proceeded to lay siege to Waterford. The citizens displayed

\* The English, on their landing, had, it appears, swept off a large number of cattle from the surrounding country, and placed them in the outer enclosure of their camp; and these, terrified by the noise of the battle,

and rushing furiously out through the Irish assailants, spread confusion in their ranks, of which their enemy took deadly advantage.



great heroism in their defence, and twice repulsed the attempts of the assailants. At length a large breach was made in the wall by the fall of a house which projected over it, and which came toppling down when the props by which it had been supported were cut by Raymond's knights; and the besiegers pouring into the city made a dreadful slaughter of the inhabitants. A tower in which Reginald, or Gillemaire, as the Irish annalists call him, a lord of Danish extraction, and O'Phelan, prince of the Deisi, continued to defend themselves, was taken; and these two brave men were on the point of being massacred by their pitiless captors, when Dermot MacMurrough arrived, and for the first and only time we see mercy exercised at his request. The carnage of the now unresisting inhabitants was suspended. Dermot expressed great exultation at the arrival of earl Strongbow, and insisted upon paying him at once his promised guerdon. He had taken his daughter, Eva, with him for that purpose; the marriage ceremony was hastily performed, and the wedding cortege passed through streets reeking with the still warm blood of the brave and unhappy citizens.

Immediately after the nuptials of Strongbow and Eva, Dermot and his allies set out on a rapid march to Dublin, leaving a small party to garrison Waterford. Roderic had collected a large army and encamped at Clondalkin near Dublin; and Hasculf, the gov-

ernor of that city, encouraged by their presence, revolted against Dermot. Hence the haste of the confederate army to reach Dublin; and as they proceeded along the high ridges of the Wicklow mountains in order to escape the fortified passes by which their march would have been impeded in the valleys, they arrived under the walls of Dublin long before their presence there could be calculated on. This rapid movement, and the now formidable array of the Anglo-Norman army, filled the citizens with consternation, and recourse was had to negotiation; the illustrious archbishop of Dublin, St. Laurence O'Toole, being commissioned to arrange terms of peace with Dermot. While the parley, however, was still proceeding in Strongbow's camp, two of the English leaders, Raymond le Gros and Milo de Cogan, regardless of the usages of civilized warfare—though some say the time for the conference had expired—led their troops respectively against the weakest or most neglected parts of the fortifications, and obtained an entrance. The inhabitants, relying on the negotiations which were going forward, were quite unprepared for this assault, and flying panic-stricken, were butchered in the most merciless manner. We may conceive the horror with which St. Laurence, hastening back to the city, found its streets filled with carnage. He exposed his life in the midst of the massacre, endeavoring to appease the fury of the soldiers; and subsequently he had the bodies of the



slain collected for decent burial, interceded for the clergy of the city, and procured the restoration of the books and ornaments of which the churches had been plundered.

Roderic would appear to have had some skirmishes with the enemy for two or three successive days previous to this, and then to have withdrawn with his large but ill-organized army; but the Irish annalists, in mentioning the transaction, accuse the citizens of Dublin of bad faith, probably for refusing to act in concert with the Irish, or for endeavoring to make a peace for themselves; and they also allude to a conflagration produced in the city by lightning, which, no doubt, added to the panic. "As a judgment upon them," say the Four Masters, "Mac-Murrough and the Saxons acted treacherously towards them, and made a slaughter of them in their own fortress, in consequence of the violation of their word to the men of Ireland." Hasculf and a number of the principal citizens made their escape in ships, and repaired to the Hebrides and Orkneys; and Roderic, without striking a blow, drew off his army into Meath to sustain O'Rourke to whom he had given the eastern portion of that territory. About the same time the English garrison, which had been left in Waterford, was attacked and defeated by Cormac MacCarthy, king of Desmond, but we are not told of any consequence which resulted.

The government of Dublin was now

entrusted to Milo de Cogan; and Dermot, with his allies, marched into Meath, which they ravaged and laid waste with an animosity perfectly diabolical. The churches of Clonard, Kells, Teltown, Dowth, Slane, Kilskeery, and Desert-Kieran, were plundered and burned, and, as a matter of course, the towns or villages which surrounded them were not treated with greater mercy. This predatory incursion was extended into Tir Briuin, or the country of the O'Rourkes and O'Reillys in Leitrim and Cavan; and although the monarch himself appears to have avoided all collision with the enemy, we are told that at last a portion of the latter were twice defeated in Breffny by O'Rourke. Donnell, prince of Bregia, who had been deposed by Roderic, sided with Mac-Murrough, as did also Donnell's adherents among the people of East Meath, and some of the men of Oriel.\*

Alarmed at these events, Roderic foolishly imagined that he could arrest the progress of Dermot by threatening him with the death of his hostages. He accordingly sent ambassadors to remonstrate with him for his perfidy in breaking his engagements, and for his unprovoked aggressions, and to announce that if he did not withdraw his army within his own frontier, and dismiss his foreign auxiliaries, the heads of his hostages should be forfeited. Dermot treated this menace with derision. As far as we can judge of his character,

\* Four Masters.



he would have preferred the gratification of his revenge to the lives of all his children, had they been at stake. And he sent back word to Roderic that he would not desist until he had fully asserted his claim to the sovereignty of all Ireland, and had dispossessed Roderic of his kingdom of Connaught into the bargain.

There is a difference of opinion as to whether Roderic fulfilled his threat. Cambrensis, a contemporary writer, informs us that he did. Keating says that he would not expose himself to so much odium as the execution of the hostages would entail; but the Four Masters, who are a much better authority, and would not have made the statement without sufficient grounds, say that "the three royal hostages" were put to death at Athlone. These were Conor, the son of Dermot; his grandson (the son of Donnell Kavanagh); and the son of his foster-brother, O'Caellaighe. The act was cruel, but in it Roderic did not exceed his strict right; and the same year Tiernan O'Rourke put to death the hostages of East Meath, which had rebelled against him.

Giraldus Cambrensis\* furnishes some interesting particulars of a synod held at Armagh about the close of this year (1170). It appears from it that there prevailed in England a barbarous custom of selling children as slaves, and that the Irish were the principal purchasers in that abominable market.

There are other authorities also to show this nefarious practice was prevalent in England; the twenty-eighth canon of the council of London, held in 1102 having been enacted for its prohibition.† The custom of buying English slaves was held by the Irish clergy to be so wicked, that, after deliberating on the subject, the synod of Armagh pronounced the invasion of Ireland by Englishmen to be a just judgment upon the country on account of it; and decreed that any of the English who were held as slaves in Ireland should immediately be set free. It was a curious and characteristic coincidence that an Irish deliberative assembly should thus by an act of humanity to Englishmen, have met the merciless aggressions which the latter had just then commenced against this country.

A. D. 1171.—In the midst of his ambitious and vindictive projects, Dermot MacMurrough died at Ferns, on the 4th of May, 1171. His death, which took place in less than a year after his sacrilegious church-burnings in Meath, is described as accompanied by fearful evidence of divine displeasure. He died intestate, and without the sacraments of the church. His disease was of some unknown and loathsome kind, and was attended with insufferable pain, which, acting on the naturally savage violence of his temper, rendered him so furious that his ordinary attendants were compelled to abandon

\* Hib. Expug. l. 18.

† Wilkins' Consilia, i. 383; also Howel, p. 86.



him; and his body became at once a putrid mass, so that its presence above ground could not be endured. Some historians suggest that this account of his death may have been the invention of enemies; yet it is so consistent with what we know of MacMurrough's character and career, from other sources, as to be nowise incredible. He reached the age of eighty-one years, and is known in Irish history as Diarmaid-na-Gall, or Dermot of the Foreigners.

On the death of Dermot, earl Strongbow, regardless of his duty as an English subject, got himself proclaimed king of Leinster; and as his marriage with Eva could not under the Irish law confer any right of succession, he grounded his claim on the engagement made by the late king, when he first agreed to undertake his cause. As this was the first step in the establishment of English power in Ireland, it is well the reader should bear in mind the way it was effected. There was here no conquest. The only fighting which the invaders yet had was with

the Dano-Irish of Wexford, Waterford, and Dublin; and against these, as well as in their predatory excursions, the Anglo-Normans acted in conjunction with their Irish allies in Leinster. They can hardly be said, so far, to have come in collision with an Irish army at all, and most certainly, as Leland observes, "the power of the nation they did not contend with." "The settlement of a Welsh colony in Leinster," as the same historian, notwithstanding his strong anti-Irish prejudice, continues, "was an incident neither interesting nor alarming to any, except, perhaps, a few of most reflection and discernment. Even the Irish annalists speak with a careless indifference of the event;" but "had these first adventurers conceived that they had nothing more to do but to march through the land, and terrify a whole nation of timid savages by the glitter of their armor, they must have speedily experienced the effects of such romantic madness."\*

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\* Leland's History of Ireland, b. 1., chap. 1.



## CHAPTER XVIII.

## REIGN OF HENRY II.

*Difficulties of Strongbow.—Order of Henry against the Adventurers.—Danish attack on Dublin.—Patriotism of St. Laurence.—Siege of Dublin by Roderic.—Desperate state of the Garrison.—Their Bravery and Success.—FitzStephen Captured by the Wexford People.—Attack on Dublin by Tiernan O'Rourke.—Henry's Expedition to Ireland.—His Policy.—The Irish Unprepared.—Submission of several Irish Princes.—Henry fixes his Court in Dublin.—Bold Attitude of Roderic.—Independence of the Northern Princes.—Synod of Cashel.—History of the Pope's Grant to Henry.—This Grant not the Cause either of the Invasion or its Success.—Disorganized State of Ireland.—Report of Prelates of Cashel, and Letters of Alexander III.—English Law extended to Ireland.—The "five bloods."—Parallel of the Normans in England and the Anglo-Normans in Ireland.—Fate of the Irish Church.—Final Arrangements and Departure of Henry.*

(A. D. 1171 AND 1172.)

FORTUNE thus seemed in many respects to favor Strongbow and his band of Anglo-Norman and Welsh adventurers, yet their position was one of considerable embarrassment. The king of England was jealous of their success, and indignant at the slight which they had put upon his authority. He was also annoyed at finding his own designs against Ireland anticipated by men who were likely to become insolent and troublesome; and he accordingly (A. D. 1171) issued a peremptory mandate, ordering every English subject then in Ireland to return within a certain time, and prohibiting the sending thither of any further aid or supplies. Alarmed at this edict, Strongbow dispatched Raymond le Gros to Henry with a letter couched in the most submissive terms; placing at the king's disposal all the lands which he had acquired in Ireland. Henry was at the moment absorbed in the difficulties in which the murder of St. Thomas à Becket—if not at his command, at least at his implied desire, and by his myrmidons—had involved him, and he neither deigned to notice the earl's letter, nor paid any further attention to the Irish affair for some time; so that Strongbow, still tempting fate, continued his course without regarding the royal edict. To add to his difficulties, his standard was deserted by nearly all his Irish adherents, on the death of Dermot, which took place soon after the date of the royal mandate; and during his absence from Dublin that city was besieged by a Scandinavian force, which was collected by Hasculf, in the Orkneys, and conveyed in sixty



ships, under the command of a Dane called John the Furious. Milo de Cogán, whom Strongbow had left as governor, bravely repulsed the besiegers, but was near being cut off outside the eastern gate, until his brother Richard came to his relief with a troop of cavalry, whereupon the Norwegians were defeated with great slaughter, John the Furious being slain, and Hasculf made captive. The latter was at first reserved for ransom, but on threatening his captors with a more desperate and successful attack on a future occasion, they basely put him to death.

The great archbishop of Dublin, St. Loran, or Laurence O'Toole, whose illustrious example has consecrated Irish patriotism, perceiving the straits to which the Anglo-Normans were reduced, and judging rightly that it only required an energetic effort, for which a favorable moment had arrived, to rid the country of the dangerous intruders, went among the Irish princes to rouse them into action. For this purpose he proceeded from province to province, addressing the nobles and people in spirit-stirring words, and urging the necessity for an immediate and combined struggle for independence. Emissaries were also sent to Godfred, king of the Isle of Man, and to some of the northern islands, inviting co-operation against the common enemy.

Earl Strongbow, becoming aware of the impending danger, repaired in haste to Dublin, and prepared to defend himself; nor was he long there when he saw

the city invested on all sides by a numerous army. A fleet of thirty ships from the isles blocked up the harbor, and the besieged were so effectually hemmed in that it was impossible for them to obtain fresh supplies of men or provisions. Roderic O'Connor, who commanded in person, and had his own camp at Castleknock, was supported by Tiernan O'Rourke and Murrough O'Carroll with their respective forces, and St. Laurence was present in the camp animating the men, or, as some pretend, though very improbably, even bearing arms himself. The Irish chiefs, relying on their numbers, contented themselves with an inactive blockade, and for a time their tactics promised to be successful; the besieged being soon reduced to extremities from want of food, Strongbow solicited a parley, and requested that St. Laurence should be the medium of communication. He offered to hold the kingdom of Leinster as the vassal of Roderic; but the Irish monarch rejected such terms indignantly, and required that the invaders should immediately surrender the towns of Dublin, Wexford, and Waterford, and undertake to depart from Ireland by a certain day. It is generally admitted that under the circumstances, the propositions of Roderic were even merciful, and for a while it was probable that they would, however unpalatable, be accepted.

At this crisis, Donnell Kavanagh, son of the late king of Leinster, contrived to penetrate in disguise into the city, and brought Strongbow the intel



ligence that his friend FitzStephen was, together with his family and a few followers, shut up in the Castle of Carrig, near Wexford, where he was closely besieged, and must, unless immediately relieved, fall into the hands of his exasperated enemies. This sad news drove the garrison of Dublin to desperation; and at the suggestion of Maurice FitzGerald it was determined that they should make a sortie with their whole force, and attempt the daring exploit of cutting their way through the besiegers. To carry out this enterprise, Strongbow disposed his men in the following order; Raymond le Gros, with twenty knights on horseback, led the van; to these succeeded thirty knights under Milo de Cogan; and this body was followed by a third, consisting of about forty knights, commanded by Strongbow himself and FitzGerald; the remainder of their force, said to consist only of 600 men, bringing up the rear. It was about three in the afternoon when this well organized body of desperate men sallied forth; and the Irish army, lulled in false security, and expecting a surrender rather than a sortie, was taken wholly by surprise. A great number were slaughtered at the first onset; and the panic which was produced spreading to the entire besieging army, a general retreat from

before the city commenced; so that Roderic, who with many of his men was enjoying a bath in the Liffey, had some difficulty in effecting his escape. The English, on their side, astonished at their own unexpected success, returned to the city laden with spoils, and with an unlimited supply of provisions.\*

Strongbow once more committed the government of Dublin to Milo de Cogan, and set out with a strong detachment for Wexford to relieve FitzStephen. but after overcoming some difficulty in the territory of Idrone, where his march was opposed by the local chieftain, O'Regan, he learned on approaching Wexford that he came too late to assist his friend. Carrig Castle had already fallen, and it is said that the Wexford men were not very scrupulous on the occasion in their treatment of foes who had proved themselves sufficiently capable of treachery and cruelty. The story is, that FitzStephen and his little garrison were deceived by the false intelligence that Dublin had been captured by the Irish army, that the English, including Strongbow, FitzGerald, and Raymond le Gros, had been cut to pieces, and that the only chance of safety was in immediate surrender; the Dano-Irish besiegers undertaking to send FitzStephen with his family and followers unharmed to England. It is

\* Leland supposes that the Irish annalists passed over the whole of this transaction in silence; but the Four Masters mention the siege, and their version is as follows:—"There were conflicts and skirmishes between them" (i. e. the besiegers and besieged) "for a fortnight.

O'Connor then went against the Leinster men to cut down and burn the corn of the Saxons. The earl and Milo afterwards entered the camp of Leith Cuinn, and slew many of the commonalty, and carried off their provisions, armor, and horses.



added, that the bishops of Wexford and Kildare presented themselves before the castle to confirm this false report by a solemn assurance; but this circumstance, if not a groundless addition, would only show that a rumor, by which the bishops themselves had been deceived, prevailed about the capture of Dublin, a thing not at all improbable. False news of a similar kind is sometimes circulated even in our own times. At all events, the stratagem, if it was one, succeeded; and FitzStephen on yielding himself to his enemies was cast into prison, and some of his followers were put to death. Scarcely was this accomplished, when intelligence arrived that Strongbow was approaching, and the Wexford men, finding themselves unable to cope with him single-handed, and fearing his vengeance, set fire to their town, and sought refuge with their prisoners in the little island of Beg-Erin, whence they sent word to the earl that if he made any attempt to reach them in their retreat they would instantly cut off the heads of FitzStephen and the other English prisoners.\* Thus foiled in his purpose, Strongbow with a heavy heart directed his course to Waterford, and immediately after invaded the ter-

ritory of Ossory, in conjunction with Donnell O'Brien.

During the earl's absence, Tiernan O'Rourke hastily collected an army of the men of Breffny and Oriel, and made an attack on Dublin, but he was repulsed by Milo, and lost his son under the walls. With this exception, no attempt was made to molest the invaders at a period when they could have been so easily annihilated; and intestine wars were carried on among the northern tribes, and also between Connaught and Thomond, as if there had been no foreign enemy in the country.

Strongbow, on the other side, learnt at Waterford, from emissaries whom he had sent to plead his cause with Henry, that his own presence for that purpose was indispensable, and he accordingly set out in haste for England. He found the English monarch at Newnham in Gloucestershire, making active preparations for an expedition to Ireland. Henry at first refused to admit him to his presence; but at length suffered himself to be influenced by the earl's unconditional submission, and by the mediation of Hervey of Mountmaurice; and consented to accept his homage and oath of fealty, and to confirm him

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\* Regan, or the Norman rhymist, relates an honorable trait of Maurice de Prendergast on this occasion. The Welsh knight undertook to bring the king of Ossory to a conference, on obtaining the word of Strongbow and O'Brien that he should be allowed to return in safety. Understanding, however, during the conference, that treachery was about to be used towards MacGilla Patrick, he rushed into the earl's presence, "and sware

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by the cross of his sword that no man there that day should dare lay hands on the kyng of Ossory." Having redeemed his word to the Irish prince by conducting him back in safety, and defeated some of O'Brien's men whom they met on the way with the spoils of Ossory, he spent that night with MacGilla Patrick in the woods, and returned next day to the earl.



in the possession of his Irish acquisitions, with the exception of Dublin and the other seaport towns and forts, which were to be surrendered to himself. He also restored the earl's English estates, which had been forfeited on his disobedience to the king's mandate; but, as it were to mark his displeasure at the whole proceeding of the invasion of Ireland by his subjects, he seized the castles of the Welsh lords to punish them for allowing the expedition to sail from their coasts contrary to his commands. It is probable that in all this hypocrisy and tyranny were the king's ruling motives. He hated the Welsh, and took the opportunity to crush them still more, and to garrison their castles with his own men. These events took place not many months after the murder of St. Thomas à Becket, and it is generally admitted that the king's expedition to Ireland, if not projected, was at least hastened, in order to withdraw public attention from that atrocity, and to make a demonstration of his power before the country at a moment when his name was covered with the odium which the crime involved.

Henry II., attended by Strongbow, William FitzAdelm de Burgo, Humphry de Bohen, Hugh de Lacy, Robert Fitz-Bernard, and other knights and noblemen, embarked at Milford, in Pembrokeshire, with a powerful armament, and landed at a place, called by the Anglo-Norman chroniclers, Croch—probably the present Crook—near Water-

ford, on St. Luke's day, October 18th, A. D. 1171. His army consisted, it is said, of 500 knights, and about 4,000 men-at-arms; but it was probably much more numerous, as it was transported, according to the English accounts, in 400 ships.

Henry assumed in Ireland the plausible policy which seemed so natural to him. He pretended to have come rather to protect the people from the aggressions of his own subjects than to acquire any advantage for himself; but at the same time, as a powerful yet friendly sovereign, to receive the homage of vassal princes, and to claim feudal jurisdiction in their country. It is impossible, of course, to reconcile pretences so inconsistent in themselves; but they served the purpose for which they were invented. He put on an air of extreme affability, accompanied by a great show of dignity, and paraded a brilliant and well-disciplined army with all possible pomp and display of power.

The Irish, on the other hand, seemed at a loss what to think or how to act. An event had occurred for which they were not prepared by any parallel case in their history. They neither understood the character nor the system of their new foes. Perpetually immersed in local feuds, they had not gained ground either in military or national spirit since their old wars with the Danes. The men of one province cared little what misfortune befel those of another, provided their own territory was safe. Singly, each of them had



been hitherto able to cope with such foes as they were accustomed to; but where combined action could alone suffice there was nothing to unite them; they had no sentiment in common—no centre, no rallying principle.

MacCarthy, king of Desmond, was the first Irish prince who paid homage to Henry. Marching from Waterford to Lismore, and thence to Cashel, Henry was met near the latter town by Donnell O'Brien, king of Thomond, who swore fealty to him, and surrendered to him his city of Limerick. Afterwards there came in succession to do homage, Mac-Gilla Patrick, prince of Ossory, O'Phellan, prince of the Deisies, and various other chieftains of Leath Mogha. All were most courteously received; many of them were of course not a little dazzled by the splendor of Henry's court and his array of steel-clad knights; some were perhaps glad to acknowledge a sovereign powerful enough to deliver them from the petty warfare with which they were harassed and exhausted; but none of them understood Anglo-Norman rapacity, or could have imagined that in paying homage to Henry as a liege lord they were conveying to him the absolute dominion and ownership of their ancestral territories.

So well was it known in Ireland that Henry disapproved of the invasion of that country by Strongbow and the other adventurers, that the people of Wexford, who had got FitzStephen into their hands, pretended to make a merit of their own exploit, and sent a

deputation to Henry on his arrival to deliver to him the captive knight as one who had made war without his sovereign's permission. Henry kept up the farce by retaining FitzStephen for some time in chains and then restored him to liberty.

From Cashel Henry returned to Waterford, and thence proceeded to Dublin, where he was received in great state, and where a temporary pavillion, constructed in the Irish fashion of twigs or wickerwork, was erected for him outside the walls,\* no building in the city being spacious enough to accommodate his court. Here he remained to pass the festival of Christmas, and such of the Irish as were attracted thither by curiosity were entertained by him with a degree of magnificence and urbanity well calculated to win their admiration. Among the Irish princes who paid their homage to the English king in Dublin, were O'Carroll of Oriel, and the veteran O'Rourke; but the monarch Roderic, though thus abandoned by his oldest and most powerful ally, the chief of Breffny, as he had been already by so many others of his vassals, still continued to maintain an independent attitude. He collected an army on the banks of the Shannon, and seemed resolved to defend the frontiers of his kingdom of Connaught to the last; thus regaining by this bold and dignified demeanor some at least of the esteem and sympathy

\* "Near the church of St. Andrew, on the southern side of the ground now known as Dame street."—*Gilbert's Hist. of Dublin*, vol. ii. p. 258.



which by his former weakness of character he had forfeited. Henry, whose object appeared to be not fighting, but parade, did not march against the Irish monarch, but sent De Lacy and Fitz-Adelm\* to treat with him; and Roderic, on his own sovereignty being recognized, was, it is said, induced to pay homage to Henry through his ambassadors, as it was customary in that age for one king to pay to another and more potent sovereign. We have no Irish authority, however, for this act of submission; and as to the northern princes, they still withheld all recognition of the invader's sway.

A. D. 1172.—At Henry's desire, a synod was held at Cashel in the beginning of this year. It was presided over by Christian, bishop of Lismore, who was then apostolic legate, and was attended by St. Laurence O'Toole, of Dublin, Catholicus O'Duffy, of Tuam, and Donald O'Hullucan, of Cashel, with their suffragan bishops, together with abbots, archdeacons, &c.; Ralph, archdeacon of Landaff, and Nicholas, a royal chaplain, being present on the part of the king. It was decreed at this synod that the prohibition of marriage within the canonical degrees of consanguinity and affinity should be more strictly enforced; that children should be catechised before

the church door, and baptized in the fonts in those churches appointed for the purpose; that tithes of all the produce of the land should be paid to the clergy; that church lands and other ecclesiastical property should be exempt from the exactions of laymen in the shape of periodical entertainment and livery, &c.; and that the clergy should not be liable to any share of the eric or blood fine levied on the kindred of a man guilty of homicide. There was also a decree regulating wills, by which one-third of a man's movable property, after payment of his debts, was to be left to his legitimate children, if he had any; another third to his wife, if she survived; and the remaining third for his funeral obsequies.†

These decrees constitute the boasted reform of the Irish Church introduced by Henry II. It will be observed that they indicate no trace of doctrinal error to be corrected, or even of gross abuse in discipline, unless it be the too general use of private baptism, and the celebration of marriage within the prohibited degrees, which at that time extended to very remote relationships. But the subject of this synod leads us to an incident of the Anglo-Norman invasion of Ireland, which has been a fertile source of controversy—namely, the so-

\* This name is variously written Aldelm, Andelm, and Adelm.

† The decrees of this synod refer solely to matters of ecclesiastical law, or church temporalities; and the immunity which they grant in one case to the clergy, as well as the setting apart of a portion of each testator's

property for the church, or for the "good of his soul," as it was generally expressed, were usages which existed in Ireland before the coming of the Anglo-Normans. As to tithes, they had also been introduced by the Irish synod of Kells. See the observations on this subject in Dr. Kelly's *Cambrensis Eversus*, vol. ii., p. 546, &c., note.



called subjection of Ireland to the dominion of the king of England, by the bulls of Adrian IV. and Alexander III.

The temporal power exercised by the popes in the middle ages opens up a question too general for discussion here. It is enough for us to know that modern investigation has removed much of the misrepresentation by which it was assailed. Irrespective of religious considerations, we see in the Roman pontiffs of that period the steadfast friends of order and enlightenment; in their power the bulwark of the oppressed people against feudal tyranny, of civilization against barbarism; and we should consider well the circumstances under which they acted, and the received opinions of the age, before we condemn these vicegerents of Christ for proceedings in which their authority was invoked in the temporal affairs of nations. If this authority was sometimes perverted to their own purposes by ambitious kings, or its exercise surreptitiously obtained, that was not the fault of the popes nor of the principle; as we shall find illustrated in the case we are now about to consider.

Nicholas Breakspere, an Englishman, was elected pope under the title of Adrian IV., December 3d, 1154, and Henry II., who had come to the throne of England about a month earlier, sent soon after to congratulate his country-

man on his elevation. This embassy was followed by another insidious one,<sup>1</sup> the object of which was to represent to the pope that religion and morality were reduced to the lowest ebb in the neighboring island of Ireland; that society there was torn to pieces by factions, and plunged in the most barbarous excesses; that there was no respect for spiritual authority; and that the king of England solicited the sanction of his Holiness to visit that unhappy country in order to restore discipline and morals, and to compel the Irish to make a respectable provision for the church, such as already existed in England. This negotiation, which indicates how long the idea of invading Ireland was entertained by the English king,\* was entrusted by Henry to John of Salisbury, chaplain to Theobald, archbishop of Canterbury, who urged, according to an opinion then received, that Constantine the Great had made a donation of all Christian islands to the successor of St. Peter; that, therefore, the pope, as owner of the island of Ireland, had the power to place it under the dominion of Henry; and that he was bound to exercise that power in the interests of religion and morality.

A hostile authority confesses that "the popes were in general superior to the age in which they lived;"† but we have no right to expect that, on a sub-

\* From an obscure expression used by a contemporary writer in the Saxon Chronicle under the date of 1087, it may be inferred that even William the Conqueror had some idea of invading Ireland; as it is said that that

king, "if he had lived two years longer would have subdued Ireland by his prowess, and that without a battle;" that is, that the terror of his name would have been sufficient.

† Roscoe, "Leo X."



ject of this temporal and political nature, they should have been so far in advance of the ideas of their times as to anticipate the political knowledge and discoveries of subsequent ages. We must also recollect that, however exaggerated the statements made to Adrian about Ireland may have been, they were not wholly without foundation. It is not consistent with human nature that society should not have been disorganized more or less by the state of turbulence in which we know, from our authentic history, that this country was so long plunged at that period. It was precisely the period when the moral character of Ireland had suffered most in the estimation of foreign nations. St. Bernard's vivid picture of the vices and abuses against which St. Malachy had to struggle, in one part of Ireland, had only just then been presented to the world. St. Malachy was not long dead, and his reforms were less known than the abuses

which had so loudly called for them. The recent efforts of the Irish prelates and clergy to restore discipline in the church, and piety and morals among the people, had only begun to produce their effects. Vices may have been as prevalent in other countries, but this did not render Ireland stainless. In fact, although Pope Adrian IV. had been himself the pupil of a learned Irish monk, named Marianus, at Paris, and had other sources of information on the subject, we are not to wonder that he should have formed a low estimate of the state of religion and morals in Ireland, and lent a credulous ear to the exaggerated representations of Henry's emissary. Little knowing the mind of the ambitious king, he, therefore, addressed to him his memorable letter, or bull, which was accompanied by a gold ring enriched with a precious emerald, as a sign of investiture.\*

The importance of this bull in our

\* The following is the bull of Pope Adrian, as translated by Dr. Kelly from the Vatican version, published by Lynch in the *Cambrensis Eversus*, (vol. ii., p. 410, ed. of 1850):—

"Adrian, bishop, servant of the servants of God, to his most dear son in Christ, the illustrious king of the English, greeting and apostolical benediction.

"The design of your Greatness is praiseworthy and most useful, to extend the glory of your name on earth and to increase the reward of your eternal happiness in heaven; for, as becomes a Catholic prince, you intend to extend the limits of the Church, to announce the truth of the Christian religion to an ignorant and barbarous people, and to pluck up the seeds of vice from the field of the Lord, while, to accomplish your design more effectually, you implore the counsel and aid of the Apostolic See. The more exalted your views and the greater your discretion in this matter, the more confident are our hopes, that with the help of God, the result will be more favorable to you because whatever has its

origin in ardent faith and in love of religion, always has a prosperous end and issue. Certainly it is beyond a doubt (and thy nobility itself has recognized the truth of it), that Ireland, and all the islands upon which Christ, the sun of justice, has shone, and which have embraced the doctrines of the Christian faith, belong of right to St. Peter and the holy Roman Church. We, therefore, the more willingly plant them with a faithful plantation, and a seed pleasing to the Lord, as we know by internal examination, that a very rigorous account must be rendered of them. Thou hast communicated to us, our very dear son in Christ, that thou wouldst enter the island of Ireland, to subject its people to obedience of laws, to eradicate the seeds of vice, and also to make every house pay the annual tribute of one penny to the Blessed Peter, and preserve the rights of the Church of that land whole and entire. Receiving your laudable and pious desire with the favor it merits, and granting our kind consent to your petition, it is our wish and desire that, for the extension of the limits of



history has been monstrously exaggerated. It can have had little, if any, influence on the destinies of Ireland. After the bull had been obtained on a false pretence, and to give a color to an ambitious design, a council of state was held in England to consider the projected invasion; but partly through deference to his mother, the empress, who was opposed to it, and partly from the pressure of other affairs, the project was for the present abandoned by Henry, and the papal document deposited in the archives of Winchester. Thirteen years after we have seen Dermot MacMurrough at the feet of Henry, imploring English aid. A few years more pass away, and we behold the English monarch making a triumphant progress through Leinster, and receiving the submission of the kings of Desmond and Thomond, and Ossory, and Breffny, and Oriel, if not that of Roderic himself; yet, not one word is breathed, all this time, about the grant from Adrian IV. We have no ground for supposing that the existence of that grant was even

known to the Irish prelates, who, following the example of their respective princes, also paid their homage, and assembled at the call of Henry in the synod of Cashel; nor does one word about it appear to have transpired among the clergy or people of Ireland until it was promulgated, together with a confirmatory bull of Alexander III., at a synod held in Waterford in 1175, some twenty years after the grant had been originally made, and when the success of the invasion had been an accomplished fact. Some Irish historians have questioned the authenticity of Pope Adrian's bull; but there appears to be no solid reason for doubt upon the subject.\* Others, like Dr. Keating, assign, as a ground for the right assumed by the pope, a tradition that Donough, son of Brian Borumha, had made a present of the crown of Ireland to the reigning pontiff, when he went on a pilgrimage to Rome about the year 1064; but this story merits no attention. The equally fabulous donation of Constantine the Great, even if it had

the Church, the checking of the torrent of vice, the correction of morals, the sowing of the seeds of virtue, and the propagation of the religion of Christ, thou shouldst enter that island, and there execute whatever thou shalt think conducive to the honor of God and the salvation of that land, and let the people of that land receive thee with honor, and venerate thee as their lord, saving the right of the Church, which must remain untouched and entire, and the annual payment of one penny from each house to Saint Peter and the holy Church of Rome. If then thou wishest to carry into execution what thou hast conceived in thy mind, endeavor to form that people to good morals; and both by thyself and those men whom thou hast proved duly qualified in faith, in words, and in life, let the Church of that country be adorned, let the religion of the faith of Christ be planted

and increased, and all that concerns the glory of God and the salvation of souls be so ordained by thee, that thou mayest deserve to obtain from God an increase of thy everlasting reward, and a glorious name on earth in all ages. Given at Rome, &c., &c."

\* See this point ably handled by Dr. Lanigan, *Eccl. Hist.*, vol. iv. p. 164, &c., also the notes and illustrations of the *Macariæ Excidium*, p. 242, &c. Adrian's bull appears in the *Bullarium Romanum*, though Alexander's bull does not. It was inserted by Radulfus of Diceto, a contemporary writer, in his *Ymagines Historiarum*, and was published by Cardinal Baronius from a *Codex Vaticanus*. It was recited by the Irish princes in their remonstrance to John XXII., in the reign of Edward II., and appears in the *Scoti-Chronicon* of John of Fordun, and in other old writers.



been made, could not have included Ireland, to which the power of the Roman empire never had extended. Irish Catholic historians have always been sufficiently free in their animadversions on the "English pope," as Adrian IV. is styled, for his grant; but a consideration of the real circumstances, as we have endeavored to explain them, would show how unwarrantable such severity has been. The character of that pontiff was altogether too exalted to afford any ground for supposing that he acted from an unworthy motive. We have no reason to think that his intentions were other than the religious ones he expresses, or that they were not wholly opposed to the ambitious views of the English monarch; and we know how utterly the conditions specified in the bull were disregarded in the Anglo-Norman invasion and subsequent government of Ireland. Some show of fulfilling these conditions was necessary, and hence the pretended reform of the Irish Church, which the synod of Cashel was summoned to effect. We have enumerated the decrees of that synod to show in what the reform consisted. The prelates assembled at Cashel, and who acted only from a sense of duty, joined in a report or wrote letters for transmission to the then pope, Alexander III., and it would appear that whatever faults were laid to the charge of the Irish were, in this document or documents, neither diminished nor excused. The Archdeacon of Llandaff accompanied this report by a more ample

one, in which the representations as to the vices of the people, the power and magnanimity of the king, and the salutary effect which his authority had already produced, were no doubt highly colored. Just as Adrian's letter had been granted to Henry before that prince's vicious character was developed, and before he had begun to wage war on the church in England; so had the same unprincipled and hypocritical monarch contrived to expiate his crimes in the eyes of the pope, and to exhibit himself as an humble son of the church before Alexander was called upon to interpose in his favor. Hence, appeased by the king's submission, which was the humblest and seemingly the most contrite possible, and with the bull of his predecessor, Adrian, and the reports he had just received from Ireland before him, the sovereign pontiff was induced to confirm the former grant. At the same time he issued three other letters, dated September 20th, one addressed to Henry himself, approving of his proceedings; another to "the kings and princes of Hibernia," commending them for their "voluntary" and "prudent" submission to Henry, admonishing them to preserve unshaken the fealty which they had sworn to him, and expressing joy at the prospect of peace and tranquillity for their country "with God's help, through the power of the same king." The third letter was addressed to the four archbishops of Ireland and their suffragans; and in it the pope refers to the information



which he had received from "other reliable sources," as well as from their communications relative to "the enormous vices with which the Irish people were infected;" he designates that people as "barbarous, rude, and ignorant of the divine law;" rejoices at the improvement which had already begun to manifest itself in their manners; and exhorts and commands the prelates to use all diligence in promoting and maintaining a reform so happily commenced, and in taking care that the fidelity plighted to the king should not be violated.\* Such is the history of those famous papal grants, of which sectarian industry, as well as wounded national feelings, has greatly magnified the importance and misrepresented the origin.

Besides the synod of Cashel, which was convoked for ecclesiastical purposes, a council was held about this time at Lismore, in which it was decreed that the laws and customs of England should be introduced into Ireland, for the use of the British subjects settling there. The native Irish, however, still lived under their own laws and traditional usages; but the protection and benefits of English law were extended in process of time to five Irish septs or families, who in the law documents of the period are called the "five bloods." These were the O'Neills of Ulster, the O'Melaghlin of Meath, the O'Conors of Con-

naught, the O'Briens of Thomond, and the MacMurroughs of Leinster. It was several hundred years later, namely, in the reign of James I., when English law was extended to Ireland in general, and even then it was found necessary to modify it for the purpose of adaptation.

Henry made a new grant of the principality of Leinster to Strongbow, subject to the feudal condition of homage and military service. He appointed Hugh de Lacy justiciary of Ireland, and granted him the territory of Meath, to be held by similar feudal service. A large territory in the south of Ireland was conferred about this time on FitzGerald, the ancestor of the earls of Desmond; and thus was commenced, on a large scale, that wholesale confiscation by which the land of Ireland was taken indiscriminately from its ancient possessors, and granted, without any show of title, to the Anglo-Norman adventurers. This was only a repetition of what had taken place in England itself on the conquest of that country by William the Norman. The Saxons incurred the contempt of their invaders from the facility with which they suffered themselves to be subdued, and their property was everywhere confiscated; so that the Saxon element in the English character affords, historically speaking, no ground for national boasting. The descendants of the plunder

\* These three letters, which escaped the attention of preceding Irish historians, are published in Mr. O'Callaghan's *Macaria Excidium*, p. 225, *et seq.*, and again

from another source in the Appendix to that learned and laborious work.



ers, equally rapacious, found a new field for spoliation in Ireland, and carried out their old system there with a total disregard of both mercy and justice. Subduing a territory generally signified among the ancient Irish only a transitory act of plunder or the exacting of hostages. With the Anglo-Normans of the days of Henry II. and of after times, to obtain superiority of power in a country, whether by conquest or otherwise, signified, on the contrary, the complete transfer to themselves of every foot of land in the country, and the plunder, and, if possible, extermination of its ancient population.

Nor did the Church of Ireland fare better than the laity, notwithstanding the provision of Pope Adrian's bull, that it should be preserved intact and inviolate. Giraldus Cambrensis, describing what he witnessed himself, and certainly without any friendly leaning towards the Irish, says:—"The miserable clergy are reduced to beggary in the island. The cathedral churches mourn, having been robbed by the aforesaid persons (the leading adventurers) and others along with them, or who came over after them, of the lands and ample estates, which had been formerly granted to them faithfully and devoutly. And thus the exalting of the church has been changed into the despoiling or plundering of the church." And again he confesses that "while we (the Anglo-Normans) conferred nothing on the church of Christ in our new principality, we not only did not think it wor-

thy of any important bounty, or of due honor; but even, having immediately taken away the lands and possessions, have exerted ourselves either to mutilate or abrogate its former dignities and ancient privileges."\*

Besides the princely rewards bestowed on Hugh de Lacy, as already mentioned, he was also appointed lord constable; Strongbow is supposed to have borne the dignity of lord marshal; the office of high steward or seneschal was conferred on Sir Bertram de Vernon; and Sir Theobald Walter, ancestor of the earls of Ormonde, was appointed to the then high office of king's butler, whence his descendants derived their family name. By the creation of these and other offices, the king organized a system of colonial government in Ireland.

Intercourse with England having been for a long while interrupted by tempestuous weather, Henry, while at Wexford, whither he had removed from Dublin, at length received alarming intelligence, to the effect that an investigation relative to the murder of St. Thomas à Becket was proceeding by the pope's orders in Normandy, and that if he did not speedily appear there to defend himself, his dominions were threatened with an interdict. He accordingly prepared to depart from Ireland without waiting to complete his arrangements there, and sailed on Easter Monday, April 17th. On landing

\* *Hib. Expug.*, as quoted by Dr. Lanigan. *Eccles. Hist.* vol. iv. p. 256.



the same day in Wales, he went as a pilgrim to St. David's church, and thence hastened to Normandy, where he humbled himself in the presence of the papal legates and of the bishops and barons; sparing no humiliation to purge himself of his crimes in the eyes of the sovereign pontiff, who thus, as we have already seen, became reconciled to him.

The city of Dublin was granted by Henry to the inhabitants of Bristol, and Hugh de Lacy left as governor, with Maurice FitzGerald and Robert Fitz Stephen to assist him, each of the three having a guard of twenty knights. The city of Waterford was given in

charge to Humphry de Bohen, who had under him Robert FitzBernard and Hugh de Gundeville, with a company of twenty knights; while Wexford was committed to William FitzAdelm, whose lieutenants were Philip de Hastings and Philip de Breuse, with a similar guard. Henry also ordered strong castles to be built without delay in these towns; and thus after a six-months' stay in Ireland, did he abandon that unhappy country as a prey to a host of greedy, upstart adventurers, whom he enriched with its spoils, that they might have an interest in defending their common plunder.

## CHAPTER XIX.

### REIGN OF HENRY II. CONTINUED.

**Death of Tiernan O'Rourke and treachery of the Invaders.—Strongbow's Expedition to Offaly, and Defeat.—The earl called to Normandy.—His speedy Return.—Dissensions among the Anglo-Normans.—Raymond's Popularity with the Army.—His Spoliations in Offaly and Lismore.—His Ambition and Withdrawal from Ireland.—An English Army cut to pieces at Thurles.—Raymond's Return and Marriage.—Roderic's Expedition to Meath.—The Bulls Promulgated.—Limerick Captured by Raymond.—Serious Charges against him.—His Success at Cashel, and Submission of O'Brien.—Treaty between Roderic and Henry II.—Attempt to Murder St. Laurence O'Toole.—Death of St. Gelasius.—Episode of the Blessed Cornelius.—Raymond le Gros in Desmond.—Hostile Proceedings of Donnell O'Brien.—Death of Strongbow.—His Character.—Massacre of the Invaders at Slane.—De Courcy's Expedition to Ulster.—Conduct of Cardinal Vivian.—Battles with the Ulidians.—Supposed Fulfilment of Prophecies.—The Legate's Proceedings in Dublin.—De Cogan's Expedition to Connaught, and Retreat.—John made King of Ireland.—Grants by Henry to the Adventurers.**

(A. D. 1172 TO A. D. 1178.)

**O'ROURKE**, to whom the territory of East Meath had been given by the monarch, Roderic, on the expulsion of the usurper O'Melaghlin, called Donnell of Bregia, in 1169, did not submit without remonstrance to the encroachments of Hugh De Lacy; who, by no other title than that which he obtained from the king of England, claimed the whole of the ancient kingdom of Meath



as his property; and a conference was arranged between them shortly after the departure of Henry. The interview took place at Tlachtgha, now the Hill of Ward, near Athboy, and it was settled that the two chieftains should meet alone and unarmed on the summit of the hill. The Irish prince had left the party of foot soldiers by whom he was escorted at some distance from the foot of the hill; but De Lacy came attended by a small band of well-mounted knights in armor, who tilted around the hill and on its side; but while displaying, as it were, their skill with lance and buckler, were intent upon a more serious game. Maurice Fitzgerald, whose nephew, Griffith, was in command of this guard, also accompanied De Lacy. We are told by Giraldus that this Griffith dreamt the preceding night that O'Rourke would attack his master; that the movements of the mounted troop were consequently directed to guard against such a contingency; and that the dream was, in fact, on the point of being fulfilled, as they saw O'Rourke beckon to his men to approach, and then raise a battle-axe to strike De Lacy. The chiefs having met without arms, we should have been told where O'Rourke found the battle-axe. It is said that De Lacy fell twice in his endeavors to escape—a circumstance not much to his credit, considering that his antagonist was a very old

man. The arm of the interpreter was cut off by a blow from O'Rourke's battle-axe aimed at De Lacy, and it was only then, forsooth, that the knights rushed to the rescue, cut down O'Rourke, and slaughtered the party of Irish infantry, who were coming to their prince's aid. As related thus by their own historian, the story indicates a premeditated act of treachery on the part of the Anglo-Normans; and the Four Masters are, we may be sure, justified in saying that O'Rourke was treacherously slain by Hugh De Lacy and Donnell O'Rourke, his own kinsman, who was probably the interpreter alluded to. He was beheaded, and his remains conveyed ignominiously to Dublin, where his head was placed over the gate of the fortress, and his body gibbeted with the feet upwards on the northern side of the city. The English account adds, that the head, after this insulting treatment, was sent into England to Henry. Thus perished the brave and unfortunate Tiernan O'Rourke, after a long and eventful career.\*

About this time Strongbow led an army of 1,000 horse and foot into Offaly, to lay waste the territory of O'Dempsey, who had refused to attend his court; and meeting with no opposition, he spread desolation wherever he came. Returning, however through a defile, laden with spoils, he was set

\* The Four Masters, under the year 1175, say that "Manus O'Melaghlin, lord of East Meath, was hanged by the English after they had acted treacherously towards him at Trim;" and it appears that some writers have

confounded this act of treachery with that mentioned above. Moore charges MacGeoghegan with an intentional error on this subject; but unjustly, for War and Cox had fallen into the same mistake before him



upon in the rear by O'Dempsey, who had been collecting his adherents, and who gave the English a serious overthrow, slaying several of their knights, and among them young Robert De Quincy, who had only just been married to Strongbow's daughter by a former marriage, with whom he had obtained a large territory in Wexford as a dowry. Before he could take any step to repair this defeat, the earl received an order from Henry to attend him with a reinforcement of men in Normandy, where the king was endeavoring to make head against a formidable league entered into against him by his own sons. The prompt obedience of Strongbow on this occasion was commended and rewarded by Henry; but as the Irish chieftains had begun to repent of their hasty and humiliating submission, and disunion had appeared in the Anglo-Norman ranks in Ireland, the king thought it better to send the earl back, and in doing so invested him with the rank of viceroy, and granted to him, in addition to his other possessions, the city of Waterford, and a castle at Wicklow.

A. D. 1173.—A jealousy had arisen between Strongbow's uncle, Hervey of Mountmaurice, who held chief command in the army of Ireland, and his lieutenant, Raymond le Gros. The latter was the favorite of the soldiers, who presented themselves in a body before the earl on his return, and threatened that if Raymond did not get the command, they would either abandon the country or go over to the Irish.

Strongbow was compelled to yield to their mutinous demand, and Raymond, who understood their wishes and was willing to indulge them, led them forth to plunder the Irish. They first marched into the centre of Offaly, and having ravaged that territory, they next entered Munster, and proceeded as far as the ancient town of Lismore, which, as well as the surrounding districts, was also abandoned to their merciless spoliation. Of the immense quantity of plunder collected, a large portion was placed on board some boats which had just arrived at Lismore from Waterford, for conveyance to the latter city. The convoy was attacked at the mouth of the river by a squadron of small vessels sent for the purpose by the Ostmen of Cork, but after a sharp conflict the latter were defeated, and the booty was carried off in triumph. MacCarthy, prince of Desmond, was coming to the aid of his subjects of Cork, when Raymond, with a strong body of cavalry, encountered him on the way, and fortune again favored the Anglo-Normans, who drove before them 4,000 cows and sheep along the coast to Waterford. Upon this, Raymond, whose ambition rose with his success, demanded of Strongbow his sister, Basilia, in marriage, and the appointment of constable and standard-bearer of Leinster, that is, the civil and military command of that province, which had been held by the earl's son-in-law, De Quincy; but the haughty request was rejected, and Raymond retired in disgust to Wales,



where his father had died about this time.

A. D. 1174.—On the departure of Raymond, the command of the army once more devolved on Hervey, by whose advice an expedition, with Strongbow himself at its head, was undertaken against Donnell O'Brien. This campaign was disastrous to the English. The earl, finding that he had a more powerful army than he expected to contend with, sent to Dublin for reinforcements, which were to meet him at Cashel; but, according to the Anglo-Norman accounts, these fresh troops, which, say they, consisted of the Ostmen of Dublin in the English service, were set upon by O'Brien in their march, and while overcome by sleep at their quarters, were cut off almost to a man, 400 of them having been slaughtered nearly without resistance. This account is framed to conceal the disgrace of the defeat; but the Irish annalists give a different version. They say that king Roderic marched to the aid of the king of Thomond, and that the English on hearing of his arrival in Munster solicited the assistance of the Ostmen of Dublin, who obeyed the summons, and made no delay till they came to Durlas of Eliogarty, the modern Thurles. Here they were attacked by Donnell O'Brien, with his Dalcassians, who were supported by the battalions of West Connaught and of the Sil-Murray, or O'Connor's country, and, after hard

fighting, the English (or, rather, Ostmen) were defeated, seventeen hundred of them according to the Four Masters, or seven hundred, according to the annals of Innisfallen—which is probably the correct number—having been slain in the battle. Strongbow fled, with the few men who remained, to Waterford, where—or as some say, in the Little Island near that city—he shut himself up in a state of deep affliction.

This success over the invaders was a signal to the Irish chieftains in general to throw off the foreign yoke. Even Donnell Kavanagh set up a claim to his father's territory,\* and Gillamochalmog, and other Leinster chiefs who had been in alliance with the English, revolted. The loss of their properties and the system of military rapine to which their country was subjected, drove them to this course. At the same time Roderic O'Connor, with a numerous army, invaded Meath, causing the Anglo-Norman garrisons to fly in trepidation from the castles which they had erected at Trim and Duleek. In this emergency Strongbow had no resource but to send to Raymond le Gros in Wales, inviting him to return speedily with all the troops he could raise, and promising him the hand of Basilia and the offices which he had demanded. Raymond joyfully obeyed this summons, and arrived in Waterford with the least possible delay, accompanied by a force of thirty knights, all of his own kin-

\* The Four Masters say that Donnell Kavanagh, who was so called from Kilcavan, near Gorey, in Wexford,

where he was fostered, was treacherously slain, in 1175, by O'Foirtchern and O'Nolan.



dred, 100 men-at-arms, and 300 archers. This succor was most timely, as the Ostmen of Waterford were meditating a massacre of the Anglo-Normans, which was actually carried into execution after Strongbow and his immediate followers had left the city to accompany the newly-arrived force to Wexford. From the Annals of Innisfallen it would appear that this massacre, in which 200 of the Anglo-Norman garrison fell, took place immediately after the battle of Thurles, but the more consistent account is that just given; and it happened that a number of the garrison escaped into Reginald's tower, from which they were subsequently able to recover possession of the city, compelling the Ostmen to submit to severe terms.

The nuptials of Basilia and Raymond were celebrated with great pomp and rejoicings at Wexford, but in the midst of the festivities news of Roderic's advance almost to the gates of Dublin was received, and the next morning the bridegroom was obliged to march with all the available troops towards the north. Accustomed only to desultory warfare, the Irish were always content with the success of the moment, and rarely thought of following up a blow; so that Roderic's army, satisfied with the destruction of a few of the enemy's strongholds, and with the devastation of the territory, had already broken up, and each detachment had withdrawn to its own district before Raymond could arrive; although it is said the latter fell on the rear of some of the retiring

parties and cut off 150 men. Hugh Tyrrel, who had been left by de Lacy in command of the castle of Trim, was now ordered to restore the forts which the Irish army had demolished; and thus Roderic's expedition ended like any ordinary foray.

A. D. 1175.—In this posture of affairs Henry II. thought it high time to try the effect of the Papal bulls, which, although mentioned already in connection with the events of a preceding year, now came, for the first time, to the knowledge of either the clergy or the people of Ireland. For this purpose he commissioned William FitzAdelm and Nicholas, prior of Wallingford, to carry these documents to Ireland, where they were publicly read at a synod of the bishops convened for the occasion at Waterford; but how the bulls were received, or what effect they produced at the moment, we are not told.

For the twofold purpose of gratifying the insatiable rapacity of the soldiery and of taking revenge on Donnell O'Brien for the defeat at Thurles, Raymond led an army against Limerick, which was captured through the gallant conduct of his nephews and himself in fording the Shannon, and was then abandoned to carnage and plunder. But on the return of FitzAdelm and Nicholas of Wallingford, they represented to Henry that these sanguinary exploits of Raymond's led to the disorganization of the army, and to outbreaks and resistance on the part of the Irish. The soldiers, they said, were converted



into mere rapacious marauders, and the hostility of the Irish rendered doubly inveterate; while, to make the complaint more serious, it was stated that the popular general had formed a plan to usurp, by the aid of the army, the dominion of the island. This report emanated from Hervey, who detested Raymond; but there can be no doubt that a great portion of it was strictly true, although the last-mentioned charge was probably malicious and unfounded. Commissioners were immediately despatched by the king to bring Raymond before him in Normandy; but at this juncture, and when Raymond seemed most desirous to obey the summons in order to vindicate his character, news arrived that the ever-active king of Thomond had laid siege to Limerick, where the Anglo-Norman garrison could not long hold out. Strongbow ordered an army to march from Dublin to their relief, but the men refused to move unless their favorite general was put at their head. The royal commissioners were consulted, and, by their advice, Raymond was once more placed in command, and marched towards Limerick with a force consisting of nearly 300 cavalry, of whom fourscore were heavy

armed, and 300 archers, a large body of Irish infantry under the princes of Ossory and Hy-Kinsellagh joining them on the route. At the approach of this army, O'Brien raised the siege, and took up a position in a pass near Cashel, where he hoped to intercept their march. The prince of Ossory, seeing his Anglo-Norman allies, as he thought, hesitate in the face of the enemy, addressed them menacingly, and told them that if they allowed themselves to be vanquished they would have to fight against the men of Ossory as well as against those of Thomond. Meyler FitzHenry led the vanguard and forced the pass, and the Thomond army was routed with considerable slaughter.

The result of this defeat was the submission of O'Brien, and some negotiations on the part of Roderic with Raymond. But the Irish monarch, instead of treating definitively with a subordinate, sent ambassadors to Henry II. himself, and in September, 1175, Cadhla or Catholicus O'Duffy, archbishop of Tuam, Concors, abbot of St. Brendan's of Clonfert, and the illustrious archbishop of Dublin, who is here called "Master Laurence, his chancellor,"\* proceeded to England as his

\* Although the signature of St. Laurence was one of those attached to the treaty of Windsor, Dr. Lanigan does not seem to think he was identical with "Master Laurence," Roderic's chancellor.—(Eccl. Hist., chap. xxix., sec. ix.) It is probable that the good archbishop had gone to England, on business connected with his diocese; and it was on this occasion, while proceeding one day to celebrate mass in the cathedral of Canterbury, where he was received with great veneration by the monks, that a madman who had heard a great deal of his sanctity, and thought it would be a good action to

confer on him the crown of martyrdom, attempted to kill him at the foot of the altar, by striking him on the head with a huge club. The monks, in great alarm, believed that the holy archbishop was mortally wounded, but he desired them to wash the wound on his head with some water, over which he had previously said the Lord's Prayer and made the sign of the cross, and he was immediately healed and enabled to go through the sacred ceremonies. The king, who was then at Canterbury condemned the intended assassin to be hanged, and St. Laurence had great difficulty in obtaining his pardon.



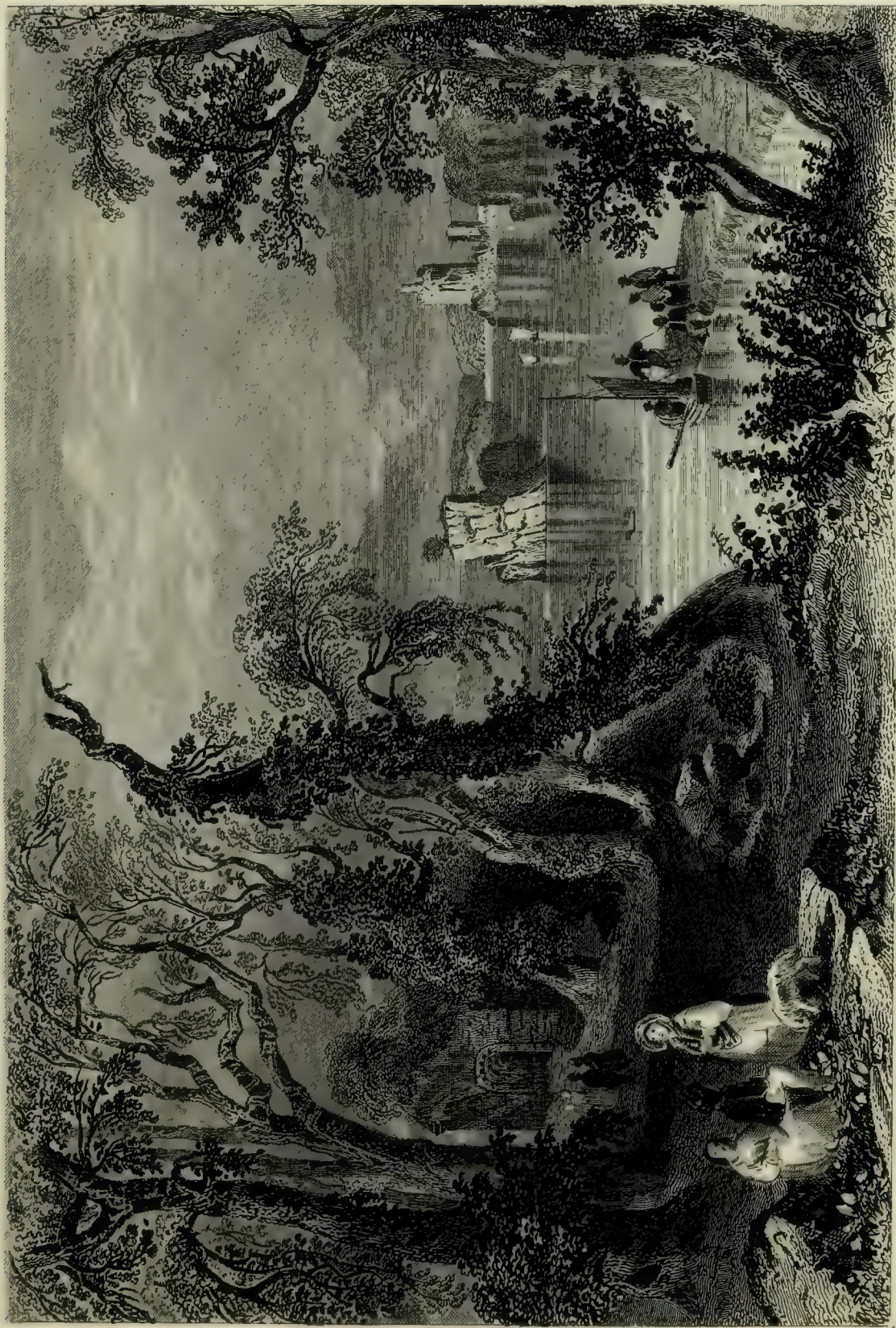
plenipotentiaries. A council was held at Windsor, within the octave of Michaelmas, and a treaty was agreed on, the articles of which were to the effect that Roderic was to be king under Henry, rendering him service as his vassal; that he was to hold his hereditary territory of Connaught in the same way as before the coming of Henry into Ireland; that he was to have jurisdiction and dominion over the rest of the island, including its kings and princes, whom he should oblige to pay tribute, through his hands, to the king of England; that these kings and princes were also to hold their respective territories as long as they remained faithful to the king of England and paid their tribute to him; that if they departed from their fealty to the king of England, Roderic was to judge and depose them, either by his own power, or, if that were not sufficient, by the aid of the Anglo-Norman authorities; but that his jurisdiction should not extend to the territories occupied by the English settlers, which at a later period was called the English Pale, and then comprised Meath and Leinster, Dublin, with its dependent district, Waterford, and the country thence to Dungarvan. The annual tribute required from the Irish was a merchantable hide for every tenth head of cattle killed in Ireland; and the princes who gave hostages were, besides, for feudal service, to give presents of Irish wolf-dogs and hawks; any of the Irish who had fled from the territories

occupied by the English barons were to be at liberty to return and to reside there in peace; and the king of Connaught might compel any of his own subjects to come back from the other territories, and to remain quietly in his land.

The terms of this remarkable treaty fix the nature and extent of the power which Henry II. claimed in Ireland. Nothing was added to it to the extent of territory within which the dominion of the king of England was acknowledged. He was recognized as a superior feudal sovereign; but, as we have already remarked, the Irish princes did not conceive that by these new relations the fee-simple of the soil was transferred to Henry. So far, the territory over which his actual dominion extended, seems to have been almost unresistingly yielded up to him; but, as if to compensate for the fatal apathy with which this intrusion was allowed to take place, every further encroachment was resisted by the Irish of that and of subsequent times with manful and desperate energy. Thus, not only was the English colony long circumscribed within its first limits, which comprised less than a third of the island, but it became after a few reigns much more restricted; while throughout the rest of the country the Irish language, laws, and usages prevailed as they had hitherto done. Yet we constantly hear of the "conquest" of Ireland by Henry II.

As the first exercise of his authority





W. H. Bartlett.

J. C. McRae

*— 20 —*  
*Imaginations*







under the treaty, Henry appointed an Irishman named Augustin to the then vacant see of Waterford, and sent him, under the care of St. Laurence, to receive consecration from the archbishop of Cashel, as his metropolitan. This act was intended as a concession to the Irish clergy.

The venerable primate, Giolla Mac-liag, or St. Gelasius, as he is called by Colgan, died in the year 1173, at the patriarchal age of eighty-seven years. He did not attend the synod of Cashel in 1172, although he went on a visitation of Connaught, and presided at a synod of that province the same year, on which occasion three churches were consecrated. He, however, paid his respects to Henry II. in Dublin, and the circumstance of his having in his train a white cow, on the milk of which he chiefly

subsisted, is mentioned by Cambrensis. He was succeeded in the see of Armagh by Conor MacConcoille, previously abbot of the church of SS. Peter and Paul in that city, and who has recently become familiar to Irish readers as the Blessed Cornelius, under circumstances of an interesting character.\* Among other remarkable Irish ecclesiastics who closed their career about this time, was Flahertach O'Brollachan, comharb of St. Columbkille, and first bishop of Derry, a man eminent for his learning and liberality. He died in 1175, having resigned his see some years before and retired to his monastery; and from his time the ancient Columbian order would seem to have almost wholly given way to the continental religious orders.†

On the overthrow of O'Brien, near

\* Very soon after his consecration as archbishop, Conor or Conchobhar MacConcoille proceeded, on the affairs of his diocese, to Rome, and was supposed to have died there, his death being recorded in the Irish chronicles as having occurred in Rome in 1175 or 1176. It appears, however, that the holy prelate had left Rome, where he was treated with great distinction by Pope Alexander III., and that hastening towards his own afflicted country, he had got on his return as far as Savoy, where he fell sick, and died in 1176, in the monastery of St. Peter of Lemenc, near the city of Chamberry. The sanctity of his manners and of his death inspired both the monks and the people with singular veneration for his memory. Several miracles are recorded as having been performed at his shrine, from the time immediately following his death down to a very recent date, and his festival is annually celebrated there, with great solemnity, on the 4th of June, the anniversary of his death. By providential circumstances, the fact of this veneration for an ancient archbishop of Armagh, in a distant country, was brought to the knowledge of the present distinguished successor of St. Patrick, the Most Rev. Dr. Dixon, while visiting Rome in 1854, to be present at the declaration of the dogma of the Immaculate

Conception. His Grace directed his homeward route through Chamberry, obtained some of the relics of his sainted predecessor for his own ancient church of Armagh, and, on his return, wrote a very interesting book in which all the facts relating to this subject, so full both of historical and religious interest, are detailed. [See "The Blessed Cornelius; or, some tidings of an archbishop of Armagh who went to Rome in the 12th century, and did not return," &c. By the Most Rev. Joseph Dixon, archbishop of Armagh. Dublin: James Duffy.] The Irish name of Conchobhar, now pronounced Conor, sounded to foreign ears like the French word *Concord*, which is the name by which this holy Irish prelate has been known in Savoy. It has been traditionally Latinized Cornelius. The circumstances connected with the Blessed Cornelius afford a striking illustration of the veneration paid in foreign countries to Irish saints, whose names have almost dropped from the memory of their own.

† A holy person, whose name appears in the Irish Calendars as St. Gilda-Mochaibeo, and who is praised for superior learning and wisdom as well as piety, died the preceding year. He was a contemporary of St. Malachy, and was abbot of the Augustinian Canons Regular



Cashel, in 1175, Raymond was invited into Desmond by Dermot MacCarthy, to aid him in putting down the rebellion of his son Cormac. The invitation was eagerly accepted. Dermot was reinstated, and he rewarded Raymond with the district in Kerry of which Lixnaw is the centre, where his youngest son, Maurice, became the founder of the family of Fitzmaurice,\* while the troops returned to Limerick, glutted with plunder. MacCarthy was again assailed by his unnatural son, and cast into prison; but, while there, he found means to procure the death of the rebel Cormac, whose head was cut off. The Anglo-Normans, as we shall see in the sequel, sided with equal readiness with a son against his father, or with a father against his son. They only sought pay and plunder, and increase of territory for themselves.

The Irish Annals, under the date of 1175, accuse Donnell O'Brien of sundry acts of aggression. Donald MacGillpatrick, son of the prince of Ossory, was slain by him, and he also slew the son of O'Connor of Corcomroe, a Thomond prince; and put out the eyes of his own relatives, Dermot, son of Tiege O'Brien, and Mahon, son of Turlough O'Brien, in their house at Castleconnell, the death of Dermot following from the outrage. Upon this Roderic O'Connor marched into Munster, and expelled

Donnell O'Brien from Thomond, which he laid waste. It has been suggested that this expedition was undertaken by Roderic in compliance with the terms of his treaty with Henry; but it was only the course which his duties as monarch, even without that treaty, required him to adopt. As to the expulsion, it was of short duration.

A. D. 1176.—While Raymond was still at Limerick, earl Strongbow died in Dublin; and as it was important, in the precarious state of the colony, to keep his death a secret until some one adequate to fill his place should be at hand, his sister Basilia sent an enigmatical message to Raymond, stating that “her great tooth, which had ached so long, had fallen out,” and begging him to return to Dublin with all possible speed. Raymond understood the message, and perceived that not a moment was to be lost; but he could not afford to leave a garrison behind in Limerick, and how was he to abandon a place which had cost so dearly? In this emergency he applied to Donnell O'Brien, whom he solicited to take charge of the city as one of the king's barons! The mockery of a formal surrender of trust was gone through; but as the last man of the Anglo-Norman garrison had recrossed the Shannon they saw the bridge broken down behind them, and the city in flames in

of SS. Peter and Paul, Armagh; and in the same year, 1174, is recorded the death of Flann O'Gorman, chief lecturer of Armagh, “a learned sage, versed in sacred and profane philosophy;” and who is said to have spent

twenty-one years studying in France and England, and twenty years in the direction of the schools of Ireland.

\* The Marquis of Landsowne is the present representative of this family.



four different points. English historians have accused O'Brien of perfidy for this act; but the mock trust could have deceived no man. It was an insult which the warlike prince of Thomond was not likely to brook; and, in destroying Limerick, he said it should never again be made a nest of foreigners.\*

On Raymond's arrival in Dublin the obsequies of earl Strongbow were performed with great solemnity. St. Laurence, as archbishop of Dublin, presided at the ceremony; and the remains were deposited in the Cathedral Church of the Holy Trinity, now Christ's Church. Strongbow's celebrity has been entirely due to his fortuitous position. He possessed none of the qualities of mind that constitute a great man. Even his eulogist, Cambrensis, states that he formed no plans of his own, but executed those of others. To the Irish he was a rapacious and a merciless foe. The native annalists call him "the greatest destroyer of the clergy and laity that came to Ireland since the time of Turgesius;" and they attribute his death, which was caused by an ulcer in his foot, to a judgment of heaven.† He died about the 1st of May, according to some authorities, and about the last of that month, according to others; and left, by his wife Eva, daughter of MacMurrough, an infant daughter, Isabel, who was heiress to his vast possessions, and was afterwards married to William

Marshal, earl of Pembroke. Strongbow founded and richly endowed a priory for the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, at Kilmainham, near Dublin.

As soon as Henry II. received notice of the earl's death, he appointed William FitzAdelm seneschal, or justiciary, with John de Courcy, Robert FitzStephen, and Milo de Cogan as coadjutors, and a suitable number of knights to serve as a guard for each. Raymond, who was still an object of jealousy and suspicion to the king, hastened to Wexford to meet the new viceroy, and surrendered to him, with good grace, the authority which he had temporarily held. It is said, that on seeing Raymond approach at the head of a numerous and brilliant staff of knights, all of his own kindred, and with the same arms blazoned on their shields, FitzAdelm vowed that he would check that pride and disperse those shields; and even to that early period is traced the origin of the jealousy so often exhibited by the British government, in after times, towards the illustrious family of the Geraldines, of which Raymond was a member.

Meanwhile a disaster befel the invaders in Meath. The Hy-Niall prince, MacLoughlin, with the men of Kinel-Owen and Oriel, attacked the castle of Slane, which was held for De Lacy by Richard le Fleming, and from which it was usual to send parties to plunder the neighboring territories. The garrison

\* The Four Masters state that he recovered Limerick by siege, but this is evidently a mistake.

† Annals of Innisfallen, and Annals of the Four Masters.



and inmates, to the number of five hundred, were all put to the sword; and this act of vengeance so terrified the adventurers, that next day they abandoned three other castles which they had erected in Meath, namely, those of Kells, Galtrim, and Derrypatrick.

A. D. 1177.—FitzAdelm's administration soon became unpopular with the colony. Whether his policy was dictated by king Henry himself or not, it is certain that he was now decidedly opposed to the system of military plunder and aggression which had hitherto been the only principle recognized by the Anglo-Normans in Ireland. He discountenanced spoliation, and was openly accused of partiality to the Irish. De Courcy, one of his aids in the government, became so disgusted with his inactivity, that he set out, in open defiance of the viceroy's prohibition, on an expedition to the north, having selected a small army of 22 knights and 300 soldiers, all picked men, to accompany him. It is said that he obtained a conditional grant of Ulster from Henry II., though by what right the grant was made it would be difficult to determine, as the northern princes had never given the English king even a colorable pretence for dominion over them. John De Courcy was a man of great stature and enormous physical strength; to which qualities he added great courage and daring, with military ardor and impetuosity fitted for the most desperate enterprise. By rapid marches he arrived the fourth day at Downpatrick, the chief

city of Uladh or Ulidia, and the clangor of his bugles ringing through the streets, at the break of day, was the first intimation which the inhabitants received of this wholly unexpected incursion. In the alarm and confusion which ensued the people became easy victims; and the English, after indulging their rage and rapacity, entrenched themselves in a corner of the city. Cardinal Vivian, who had come as legate from pope Alexander III. to the nations of Scotland and Ireland, and who had only recently arrived from the Isle of Man, happened to be then in Down, and was horrified at this act of aggression. He attempted to negotiate terms of peace, and proposed that De Courcy should withdraw his army on condition that the Ulidians paid tribute to the English king; but any such terms being sternly rejected by De Courcy, the cardinal encouraged and exhorted MacDunlevy,\* the king of Ulidia or Dalaradia, to defend his territories manfully against the invaders. Coming, as this advice did, from the pope's legate, we may judge in what light the grant of Ireland to Henry II. was regarded by the pope himself.

Dunlevy returned at the end of a week with a large undisciplined force, which he had collected in the meantime; and the English took their stand in a favorable position outside the town, to give him battle. The Irish fought

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\* The original name of the Ulidian kings was O'Haughy (Uah Eochadha), which from Punslevy O'Haughy became MacDunslevy or Dunlevy



with great bravery, but owing to the tumultuary nature of their army, to the effect of their former panic, which had not yet wholly subsided, and, in a great measure also, to the singular personal strength and prowess of De Courcy himself, who was bravely seconded by a young man named Roger le Poer, they were vanquished in the conflict. This battle was fought about the beginning of February, and, on the 24th of the following June, De Courcy again defeated the Ulidians; one of his knights, who was wounded in this second conflict, being Armoric de St. Lawrence, ancestor of the noble family of Howth.

A notion prevailed, among both Irish and English, that certain prophecies of Merlin and of Saint Columbkille were fulfilled in this invasion of Down, and while the idea encouraged the latter it had a contrary effect on the former. De Courcy assumed that he was "the White Knight, mounted on a white steed, with birds upon his shield," as described by the British prophet, and he took care that the resemblance should be as perfect as possible. It was also understood that he answered the description of the "certain poor and needy fugitive from abroad," who, according to the words ascribed to the Irish saint, was to be the conqueror of Down. De Courcy carried about with him a book of St. Columbkille's prophecies, and turned the popular interpretation of them to his account.

Cardinal Vivian, having proceeded to Dublin, held a synod of bishops and

abbots, at which he set forth the obligation of yielding obedience to the authority of Henry, in virtue of the papal bulls. He was probably induced by the English functionaries to take this step, as it does not appear that he had any commission from the pope to do so. On his passage through England, when coming from Rome, he had even been treated with much discourtesy, and was not permitted to proceed on his mission until he had bound himself by oath to do nothing against the king's interests. He was further induced, at the synod, to grant a general leave to the English soldiers to take whatever provisions they might want on their expeditions out of the churches, in which the Irish were accustomed to deposit them as in an inviolable sanctuary; but he required that a reasonable price should be paid to the rectors of these churches for what might be thus taken away.

The celebrated abbey of St. Thomas the Martyr (à Becket), was founded in Dublin by FitzAdelm, by order of Henry II. The site was the place now called Thomas'-court; and in the presence of cardinal Vivian and St. Laurence O'Toole, the deputy endowed it with a carucate of land called Donore, in the Liberties of the city. After the synod the cardinal passed over to Chester on his way to Scotland.

Murrough, one of the sons of Roderic O'Conor, rebelled against his father, and, at his solicitation, Milo de Cogan was sent by the deputy with a hostile



force into Connaught, in direct violation of the treaty of Windsor. Roderic was then in Iar Connaught, and De Cogan, in his progress, found the country abandoned; the inhabitants having burned the houses and fled to their woods or mountains, taking with them, or concealing in subterranean granaries, all their provisions, so that the English could find neither food nor plunder. Having penetrated as far as Tuam, which they found also deserted, the invaders were obliged to retrace their steps; but Roderic hastened from the west, pressed on their rear, and at length came up with them, or, as others say, lay in wait for them, in a wood near the banks of the Shannon, where he defeated them with considerable slaughter. The unnatural Murrough, who had acted as a guide to the English, was made prisoner, and being condemned by the Connacians with the consent of his father his eyes were put out—a punishment which, in the case of this traitor, was too merciful. To the credit of the men of Connaught, not one of them joined the rebellious son on this occasion.

In the course of May, this year (1177), Henry II., having previously obtained the sanction of pope Alexander III., assembled a council of prelates and barons at Oxford, and in their presence solemnly constituted his youngest son, John, still only a child, “king in Ireland.” This step, which was another violation of the treaty of Windsor, by conferring on John a title recognized as belonging to Roderic O’Conor, did not lead to the

settlement of Irish affairs, which Henry may have anticipated from it; nor did John ever assume any other title in this country but that of lord of Ireland and earl of Moreton.

A new grant of Meath to Hugh de Lacy was made out in the joint names of Henry II. and John; and Desmond, or, as it was then called, the kingdom of Cork, was granted by charter to Robert FitzStephen and Milo de Cogan, with the exception of the city of Cork and the adjoining cantreds, which the king reserved to himself. For some years after, however, they were able to obtain possession of only seven cantreds in the neighborhood of the city. In the same way the kingdom of Limerick, or Thomond, was granted to two English noblemen, brothers of the earl of Cornwall, who declined the dangerous gift. It was then given by Henry to another baron, Philip de Braosa; and this new claimant, on coming in sight of the city, accompanied by De Cogan and FitzStephen, with an army to put him in possession, was seized with such fear, that, notwithstanding the entreaties of his confederates, he fled to Cork and left the country.

De Braosa was not a coward, as his actions in subsequent years clearly proved; but the determination exhibited by the inhabitants of Limerick, who fired their city on his approach, that it might not fall into the hands of the invaders, inspired him with awe; and he had no confidence in his own followers, who are said to have been



the scum of society from the Welsh marches. The territory of Waterford was granted to Roger le Poér, the ancestor of the le Poers, or Powers; but, as in other cases, the city, with the district immediately adjoining, was reserved by Henry for himself.

Grants were also made to other hungry adventurers, with total indifference, as in the case of those already mentioned, to the rights of the Irish themselves, or to any treaty existing

with them, and even without any right established by force of arms; so that Sir John Davies, the English attorney-general of James I., remarked, that "all Ireland was, by Henry II., cantonized among ten of the English nation; and though they had not gained possession of one-third of the kingdom, yet in title they were owners and lords of all, so as nothing was left to be granted to the natives."\*

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\* A family connection existed between several of the first English invaders, as appears from the following account:—Nesta, daughter of Rees ap Twyder, prince of South Wales, had, while mistress of king Henry I., a son, Henry, who was the father of Meyler and Robert FitzHenry. While wife (or, as some say, mistress) of Stephen, constable of Cardigan, she bore Robert FitzStephen; and, finally, when married to Gerald of Windsor, she had three sons: first, William, the father of Raymond le Gros, or the Corpulent (who married Basilia, Strongbow's sister, and was the ancestor of the Graces of Wexford, and of the FitzMaurices of Kerry), and of Griffith; second, Maurice FitzGerald (ancestor of the Geraldines of Kildare and Desmond), who had four sons, William, who married Ellen, another sister of Strongbow, or, as some say, Alma, a daughter of Strongbow, Gerald, Alexander, and Milo; and third, David, bishop of St. David's. There was another Nesta, the daughter, according to some, and the grand-daughter, according to others, of the former one, and she was married to Hervey of Mountmaurice, the uncle of Strongbow. A daughter of the first Nesta was married to William de Barri, a Pembroke-shire knight, by whom she had four sons, Robert, Philip, Walter, and Gerald, the last-named being the well-known chronicler of the invasion, Giraldus Cambrensis. The other leading men

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of the early adventurers, not mentioned among the preceding, were: Robert de Bermingham, Walter Bluet, Humphrey de Bohun, William and Philip de Braosa, Adam Chamberlain, Milo and Richard de Cogan, Raymond Canteton, or Kantune, Hugh Cantwell (according to Hanmer), or Gundeville (according to Camden) or Hugh Cantilon (according to Cambrensis), John de Courcy, Reginald de Courtenay, Adam Dullard, William FitzAdelm de Burgo (ancestor of the Burkes), William Ferrand, Robert FitzBernard, Richard and Robert FitzGodobert, Raymond FitzHugh, Theobald FitzWalter (ancestor of the Butlers), Richard and Thomas le Fleming, Adam de Gernemie, Reginald de Glanvil, Geoffrey de Hay, Philip de Hastings, Adam de Hereford, Hugh de Lacy, William Makrell, Gilbert Nangle, or de Angulo, William Nott, Gilbert de Nugent, Richard and William Petit, Robert, Roger, and William le Poer, Maurice and Philip de Prendergast, Purcell, Robert de Quiney, or Quincy, John and Walter de Ridelsford, or Ridensford, Adam de Rupe, or Roche, Robert de Salisbury, Robert Smith, Almeric de St. Laurence (ancestor of the Howth family), Hugh Tyrrell, Richard Tuito, Bertram de Verdon, Philip Welsh, Philip de Worcester, &c., &c.—*Vide* Giraldus Cambrensis, Camden's *Hibernia*, Hanmer's *Chronicle*, Harris's *Hibernica*, and the Rev. C. P. Meehan's translation of *The Geraldines*, p. 22.



## CHAPTER XX.

## REIGN OF HENRY II. CONCLUDED. REIGN OF RICHARD I.

Reverses of De Courcy in the North.—Feuds of Desmond and Thomond.—Unpopularity of FitzAdelm with the Colonists.—Irish Bishops at the Council of Lateran.—Death of St. Laurence O'Toole.—His Charity and Poverty.—De Lacy suspected by Henry II.—Death of Milo de Cogan.—Arrival of Cambrensis.—Death of Hervey of Mountmaurice.—Roderic Abdicates and Retires to Cong.—Archbishop Comyn.—Exactions of Philip of Worcester.—Prince John's Expedition to Ireland.—His Failure and Recall.—English Mercenaries in the Irish Service.—Singular Death of Hugh de Lacy.—Synod in Christ Church.—Translation of the Relics of SS. Patrick, Columba, and Brigid to Down.—Expedition of De Courcy to Connaught.—His Retreat.—Death of Henry II.—Death of Conor Moinmoy, and Fresh Tumults in Connaught.—Last Exploits and Death of Donnell More O'Brien.—Dissensions in the English Colony.—Successes of Donnell MacCarthy.—Death of Roderic O'Conor.—His Character.—Foundation of Churches, &c.—The Anglo-Irish and the "mere" Irish.

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*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—Popes Lucius III., Urban III., Gregory VIII., Clement III., and Celestine III.—King of France, Philip Augustus.—Third Crusade (1188–1194).

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(A. D. 1178 TO 1199.)

JOHN DE COURCY, notwithstanding the prestige of his successes in the north, was not invincible. After sweeping off, in 1178, a large spoil of cattle from Machaire Conaille, or the plain of Louth, he encamped, on his return to Down, in Glenree, the vale of Newry river, and was there attacked by O'Carroll of Oriel, and MacDunlevy of Ulidia, and defeated with great slaughter. On this occasion he lost 450 men, many of whom were drowned in attempting to cross the river, while the Irish had only 100 killed. Some time after he went on a plundering excursion into Dalaradia, and was defeated by Cumee O'Flynn, lord of Hy-Tuirtre and Firlee, in Antrim, when, according to Giraldus, he escaped from the field on foot, with only eleven followers, and reached his camp after a flight of two days and nights without food. The English historians attribute this disaster to the number of cattle which he was carrying away, and which, being driven back upon his ranks by the Irish, caused such confusion that his men fell an easy prey to the enemy.

The Annals of Innisfallen mention a desolating war which raged this year between the Irish of Thomond and Desmond, in which the latter territory was so wasted that some of its ancient families, as the O'Donovans, princes of Hy-



Eigeinte, and the O'Collinses, subordinate chiefs of Hy-Conail Gavra, an ancient sub-division of the former territory, were driven from their patrimonies to seek refuge in the southern parts of the present county of Cork. The native chroniclers also record internecine quarrels, at the same period, between the Irish of Ulster and those of West Meath and Offaly, the English acting as allies in the ranks of the latter.

FitzAdelm, as already observed, had become so unpopular with the English colonists, from his opposition to rapine and suspected partiality to the Irish, that Henry found it necessary to remove him, and appointed De Lacy in his stead, with the title of procurator. FitzAdelm was, however, made constable of Leinster; Wexford was entrusted to his care, and Waterford to that of Robert le Poer.

A. D. 1179.—Several Irish bishops proceeded this year to Rome, on the summons of Alexander III., to attend the third general council of Lateran. These prelates were—St. Lorcan, or Laurence, of Dublin; O'Duffy, of Tuam; O'Brien, of Killaloe; Felix, of Lismore; Augustine, of Waterford; and Briccius, of Limerick. In passing through England they were obliged to take an oath not to act in any manner prejudicial to that country or its king. The pope treated St. Laurence with special kindness, appointed him his legate for Ireland, and conferred particular favors on the diocese of Dublin, confirming its jurisdiction over the suffragan sees of its

province. There can be no doubt that the Holy Father learned, on this occasion, the unhappy results which had followed from the Anglo-Norman invasion of Ireland.

A. D. 1180.—Having returned from Rome, St. Laurence devoted himself, with his accustomed zeal, to his archiepiscopal and legatine duties; and he was particularly strict in punishing the lax manners of some of the Anglo-Norman and Welsh clergy who had come over with the adventurers. In the course of this year he went to England on a mission from Roderic O'Connor, one of whose sons accompanied him as a hostage; but the English king refused either to listen to his representations or to permit him to return to Ireland, and left for Normandy, whither the saint, after a few weeks' stay at the monastery of Abingdon, in Berkshire, set out to follow him. The holy archbishop, however, was able to proceed no further than Augum, or Eu, on the borders of Normandy, in a monastery, at which place he fell sick, and died on the 14th of November, 1180. When asked by the monks to make his will, he called God to witness that "he had not as much as one penny under the sun;" and a little before he expired he said in Irish, speaking of his unhappy countrymen, "Alas, foolish and senseless people! What will you now do? Who will heal your differences? Who will have pity on you?" His charity was unbounded. During a famine which prevailed for three years in Dublin, he made extra-



ordinary sacrifices to relieve the poor. His spirit of mortification was worthy of the primitive saints. His love for his ill-fated country was that of an ardent patriot, yet his country's enemies were compelled to confess and revere his virtues. Several miracles are recorded of him, and he was canonized by Honorius III., in the year 1226.\*

At this time the power of Hugh de Lacy greatly exceeded that of any other English baron in Ireland. Giraldus observes that "he amply enriched himself and his followers by oppressing others with a strong hand;" yet he was less hateful to the Irish than most of the other foreigners. He married, as his second wife, a daughter of Roderic O'Connor, without previously asking the permission of Henry II.; and this alliance, together with the popularity which he enjoyed, excited the jealousy of the English monarch, who abruptly removed him from the government. De Lacy's ready obedience in yielding up his office restored him, however, to the king's confidence, and he was reinstated in power with Robert, bishop of Shrewsbury, as his counsellor, or rather as a spy on his proceedings.

A. D. 1182—Milo de Cogan, one of the most chivalrous of the first adventurers, fell a victim this year to the

hostility which the aggressions of the English stirred up in every quarter. He was proceeding from Cork to Lismore, accompanied by a son of Robert FitzStephen and a few other knights, to hold a conference with some of the people of Waterford, when he was set upon by MacTire, prince of Imokilly, and cut off with all his party. Giraldus says that he was invited by MacTire to pass the night in his house, and that he was treacherously murdered when seated with his knights in a field; but this statement appearing, as it does, in the midst of a tissue of slanders, merits little credit. The event was a signal for a general rising of the chieftains of Munster, and FitzStephen was so closely besieged by them in the city of Cork, that he was on the point of succumbing, when his nephew, Raymond le Gros, brought succor by sea from Wexford, and raised the siege. Richard de Cogan, brother of Milo, was sent over by Henry to aid FitzStephen in the government of Cork, and was accompanied by two of FitzStephen's nephews, Philip and Gerald Barry.\*

As new adventurers appear, the earlier ones vanish from the scene. Among the latter was Hervey of Mountmaurice, whose opposition to the more warlike Raymond has been so often noticed.

\* See his life, by the Rev. John O'Hanlon, of Dublin; also Surius, quoted by Ussher, in the *Sylloge*, note to Epist. xlviii. "The beautiful church of Eu, in which the remains of St. Laurence are preserved, has been recently restored, and on the walls of the little oratory which marks on the hill over the town the spot where the saint exclaimed, '*hæc est requies mea*,' &c., the names

of several Irishmen are inscribed." (Dr. Kelly's *Camb. Ever.*, vol. ii., p. 648, d.)

\* The latter was the oft-quoted Giraldus Cambrensis, a vain, conceited writer, and compiler of silly fables and malicious calumnies about Ireland and her people, although his *Hibernia Expugnata* is by far the most important record we possess of the Anglo-Norman invasion



He founded the beautiful abbey of Dunbrody, in Wexford; and disgusted, as it would seem, with the scenes of rapine which he had witnessed in Ireland, he retired from the strife of the world, and became a monk at Canterbury, giving to the abbey there a portion of the property which he had acquired in Ireland. We find De Lacy, in Meath, and De Courcy, in Ulster, also founding religious houses with a portion of the plunder which they had unscrupulously taken from the native clergy and people of Ireland.

De Courcy obtained, this year, at Dunbo, in Dalaradia, a decisive victory over Donnell O'Loughlin and the Kinel Owra, which, for some time, checked the heroism of the northern chieftains, and enabled him to strengthen his position and overrun the province without opposition.

A. D. 1183.—The Irish annals are filled, at this, as at other periods, with accounts of feuds among the native princes, but such of them as left no visible traces on our history we pass in silence. The strife which had long existed in the family of the unhappy monarch, Roderic, broke out now with increased violence; and after vain efforts, on the part of neighboring princes, to settle the differences, even at the point of the sword, the wretched king, according to the annals Kilronan, retired this year to the abbey of Cong, leaving the kingdom of Connaught to his son, Conor Moinmoy.

A. D. 1184 —On the death of St.

Laurence O'Toole, Henry sent a commissioner to collect the revenues of the diocese of Dublin into the royal coffers. He then caused a number of the Dublin clergy to assemble at Evesham, in Worcestershire, and at his recommendation they elected John Comyn, or Cumming, an Englishman, to the vacant see. Comyn proceeded to Rome, and was ordained priest, and subsequently consecrated archbishop, by pope Lucius III., at Veletri. The pope also granted him a bull, exempting the diocese of Dublin from the exercise of any other episcopal authority within its limits and without the permission of its archbishop. This privilege was intended as a protection against the power of the primate, who could not, at that time, be considered as a subject of the English king; and it was the first of a series of acts, upon which the controversy which subsequently arose as to the relative prerogatives of the sees of Armagh and Dublin was founded. The new archbishop did not come to Dublin until 1184, and his presence then was intended as a preparation for the approaching visit of prince John.

A. D. 1185.—Henry's suspicions of De Lacy were not, it appears, unfounded, as that ambitious baron is understood to have really aspired to the sovereignty of Ireland. He was, therefore, once more deprived of the government, in 1184, and in his stead was sent over Philip of Worcester, who eclipsed all his predecessors by his exactions and injustice. This man's first act was to



resume, for the king's use, lands which had been sold to O'Casey by his predecessor. He levied contributions without regard to justice or mercy; and proceeding with an army to Ulster, a territory which had been hitherto left exclusively to De Courcy's enterprise, he exacted money from all parties, but chiefly from the clergy. He was accompanied by a worthy coadjutor, Hugh Tyrrel, who stripped the clergy of Armagh by his extortions, carrying off, among other things, their large brewing pan, which he was obliged to abandon on the way, as the horses which drew it were burned in a stable where they halted for the night, and he himself was seized with violent griping pains, which, in the opinion of his contemporaries, were a just punishment for his rapine.\*

This year is memorable for the wretched experiment which Henry made to govern Ireland through his son John, a step which proved utterly inconsistent with the king's boasted wisdom. The young prince, then in his nineteenth year, arrived at Waterford from Milford Haven the week after Easter, with 400 knights and a well-equipped force of horse and foot, conveyed in sixty transports. He assumed simply the title of earl of More-

ton and lord of Ireland, although he had been invested some years before with the nominal rank of king.† He was attended by Gerald Barry, or Cambrensis, as his tutor, and by Ranulph de Glanville, justiciary of England; but he was surrounded by a retinue of insolent young Norman courtiers of as profligate manners as he notoriously was himself. The proceedings of the new visitors were most inauspiciously commenced. Some Leinster chieftains waited upon John, at his arrival, to pay their respects, but their costume and appearance excited the mirth of him and his brainless attendants, who treated them with derision, and went so far as to pluck their beards. Justly incensed at the insults offered them, the Irish princes hastily quitted the camp and removing their families and followers from the territory occupied by the English, repaired to Connaught and those parts of Munster yet free from the foreign yoke, proclaiming everywhere the insolent treatment which they had received, and stirring up their countrymen to resistance.

John and his courtiers pursued their mad career, regardless of the storm which was gathering. Some Irish septs, who had hitherto remained peaceably

\* This plunder of the clergy of Armagh took place in the course of the Lent, and it is probable that it was then the celebrated crozier of St. Patrick, called the Staff of Jesus, was removed from the primatial city to Dublin, although it is usually stated that this transfer was made by FitzAdelm, who does not appear to have exercised any authority in the north.

† When John was about to proceed to Ireland, in 1185, his father applied to pope Lucius III for permis-

sion to crown the young prince, but the Pope declined giving his sanction. On the accession of Urban III., at the close of the same year, the application was renewed, and this time the required leave was granted, and a crown, made of peacock's feathers interwoven with gold, was sent from Rome by the Pontiff, on the occasion; but John's expedition having in the mean time failed, his intended coronation was abandoned.



in the English territory, were expelled, and driven to swell the ranks of their disaffected countrymen, their lands being given to the new comers; the old Welsh settlers were forced to leave the towns and reside in the marches, and the early Anglo-Norman colonists were harassed with exactions. Castles were erected by John's orders at Tip-raid-Fachtna, now Tibraghny, in the county of Kilkenny, at Ardfinan, overlooking the Suir, in Tipperary, and at Lismore; and from these strongholds parties were sent to plunder the lands of Munster. But the indomitable Donnell O'Brien took the field, and the English were defeated by him in several encounters. He took the castle of Ardfinan, by stratagem, and put the garrison to the sword. Several of the bravest English knights were cut off in battle: Roger le Poer was slain in Ossory, Robert Barry at Lismore, Raymond FitzHugh at Olechan, and Raymond Canton in Idrone. After being decimated in detail, the remnant of John's discomfited army retired to the cities, where the men, following the example of their captains, indulged in every vice, and left the surrounding country exposed to the incursions of the Irish, who destroyed the crops of the colonists. The money collected by oppressive exactions was squandered in dissipation by John, while the troops were left unpaid, and the whole colony was reduced by famine and losses to the very brink of ruin.

Things had been going on thus for

several months before king Henry became aware of the real state of affairs. He then hastily recalled his hopeful son, who, on his return to England, threw the whole blame of his disasters upon De Lacy, whom he represented as leagued with the Irish, and as setting himself up for king. It is indeed asserted that De Lacy had at this period assumed the title of king of Meath, and that he received tribute as such from Connaught, and had got a diadem made for himself; but so far from his being on friendly terms with the native Irish, the territory of Meath was, at this very period, invaded by an Irish army, which was defeated by William Petit, a feudatory, or liegeman of De Lacy. About this time Dermot MacCarthy, king of Desmond, was killed at a conference in Cork, by Theobald FitzWalter, the chief butler.\*

Parties of the older English adventurers were now in the habit of hiring themselves as auxiliaries to different Irish princes. Thus some English aided Donnell O'Brien in an inroad which he made this year into West Connaught, while another party of them served in the army of Conor Moinmoy; when he retaliated by plundering Killaloe and pillaging Thomond. "The English," say our annalists, on this latter occasion, "came as far as Roscommon with the son of Roderic, who gave them 3,000 cows as wages."

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\* MacCarthy was not, as Moore says, defeated in battle—See Ware's Annals.



A. D. 1186.—Hugh de Lacy did not live to vindicate himself from the charges laid against him by prince John. This remarkable man, whom the Irish annals describe as the “profaner and destroyer of many churches,” and the “lord (or king) of the English of Meath, Breffny, and Oriel; of whose English castles all Meath, from the Shannon to the sea, was full,” was killed this year while inspecting the works of a castle which he had just completed on the site of St. Columbkille’s great monastery of Durrow, in the present King’s county. He was accompanied by three Englishmen, and was stooping to direct the operations of the workmen, when a young man named O’Meyey, or Meey, belonging to an ancient family of that country, finding the enemy of his race in his power, smote him with a battle-axe which he had carried concealed, and with one blow severed his head from his body, both head and trunk rolling into the castle ditch. Fleet as a greyhound, the young man bounded away, and was soon safe from pursuit in the wood of Killcare; nor did he stop until he announced his success to the Sinnagh (the Fox) O’Caharny, whose

territory of Teffia at one time included Durrow; and at whose instigation, the annalists say, this perilous exploit was undertaken.

Thus perished the most powerful of the English invaders; and Henry II., who feared or suspected him, did not conceal his satisfaction at his death. The king’s first step, on hearing the news, was to order his son, John, to return to Ireland and take possession of De Lacy’s lands and castles during the minority of the late baron’s eldest son, but the death of the king’s third son, Geoffry, duke of Bretagne, caused this arrangement to be abandoned.\*

Archbishop Comyn held a provincial synod this year in the church of the Holy Trinity in Dublin.† This year, also, on the 9th of June, the solemn translation of the relics of SS. Patrick, Colomba, and Brigid, took place in the cathedral of Down. The remains of these great saints of the primitive church of Ireland were, it is alleged, discovered in a miraculous manner in an obscure part of that church the preceding year, and the permission of the pope having been obtained for the purpose, they were solemnly transferred to one suita-

\* Sir Hugh de Lacy left two sons by his first wife, Rosa de Munemene, Walter, lord of Meath, and Hugh, earl of Ulster; by his second wife, the daughter of Roderic O’Conor, he had a son called William Gorm, from whom (according to Duaid MacFirbis) the celebrated rebel, Pierce Oge Lacy of Bruce and Bruff, in the reign of Elizabeth, was the eighteenth in descent, and from whom also the Lynches of Galway are descended. Walter and Hugh left no male issue, but Walter had two daughters, who were married, one to Lord Theobald Verdon, and the other to Geoffry Geneville; and Hugh

had one daughter, Maude, who married Walter de Burgo (grandson of FitzAdelm de Burgo), who became, in her right, earl of Ulster. See *Four Masters*, vol. iii., p. 75, note; also, O’Flaherty’s *Iar Connaught*, p. 36.

† The synod was opened on the fourth Sunday in Lent, and the canons which were adopted at it, and were soon after confirmed by Pope Urban III., are, says Harris, extant among the archives of Christ Church. See abstracts of these canons by Harris, in Ware’s *Bishops*, p. 316; and by Lanigan, *Eccl. Hist.* ch. xxx., sect. 7.



ble monument, cardinal Vivian, who was sent over on the occasion, being present at the ceremony.

A. D. 1188.—Divided and weakened by mutual and implacable dissensions, the northern chieftains were yet able to check the foreigners by some serious defeats. On one of these occasions a strong force of the invaders issued from their castle of Moy Cova in Down, and were plundering the territory of Tyrone, when they were met at a place called Cavan na Crann-ard, or the hollow of the lofty trees, by Donnell O'Loughlin, lord of Aileach, and defeated with great slaughter, although the brave Irish chieftain himself fell in the conflict. The death of this gallant chief left De Courcy at liberty to turn his arms against Connaught; Conor Moinmoy, with Melaghlin Beg, of Meath, having burnt the English castle of Kilara in West Meath, and cut off its garrison the preceding year. The Connaught chieftains rallied at the call of their prince, who also obtained the aid of Donnell O'Brien, and Conor Moinmoy was thus able to present such an array that De Courcy avoided a collision with him. The English army then marched northward with the intention of penetrating into Tirconnell, and had advanced as far as Eas dara, or Ballysadere, in Sligo, when they found the Tirconnellian chief, Flaherty O'Muldory, prepared with a sufficient force to receive them. De Courcy once more made a disgraceful retreat, having first burnt the town, but in crossing the

Curliu mountains he was attacked by the Connaught men and the Dalcassians, and after suffering considerable loss, escaped to Leinster with difficulty.

A. D. 1189.—The troubled and eventful career of Henry II. was at length brought to a close. That profligate and ambitious monarch died in France, broken-hearted and defeated, cursing his rebellious sons with his dying words. Some think that it was unfortunate for Ireland that the pressure of other cares had prevented Henry from devoting more attention to the government of that country; and regret that he was unable to follow up his invasion by a complete conquest. "The world would in that case," observes Mr. Moore, "have been spared the anomalous spectacle that has been ever since presented by the two nations: the one, subjected, without being subdued; the other, rulers but not masters; the one doomed to all that is tumultuous in independence, without its freedom; the other endued with every attribute of despotism except its power."\*

But we cannot sympathize in any such vain regret. Divided as the Irish were, Henry might have done much to exterminate or crush them in detail. But that he, or any English king of his period, would have governed them with justice and moderation, or that the Irish chieftains would have patiently submitted to the wholesale spoliation of their country, are hypotheses which

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\* History of Ireland, vol. ii., p. 299



we cannot make. Had the native Irish race been extinct, Ireland would not the less have been ruled as a colony and for the supposed interests of England exclusively; and the subsequent history of the Anglo-Irish will show us, that the happiness or tranquillity of this country would not have been a whit more secure.

The chivalrous Richard I., occupied, during his short reign, with the Crusades, left Ireland wholly to the management of his unprincipled brother, John, who does not seem to have given himself much trouble about its affairs. John appointed as lord justice Hugh de Lacy, son of the former lord of Meath, to the great disgust of John de Courcy, who felt himself slighted, and retired to Ulster; but the English barons were allowed to prey on the Irish as best they could, and this they contrived to do effectually by enlisting in the service of the Irish princes indiscriminately, scarcely any battle being fought in which English and Irish were not in the armies on both sides.

Conor Moinmoy, as a just punishment for his rebellion against his father, fell a victim, in 1189, to a conspiracy of

his own chieftains. He was, however distinguished by courage and generosity, and was acknowledged as sovereign by the majority of the Irish princes, who accepted stipends from him, even the unhappy Roderic submitting patiently to his usurpation. On his death Connaught was once more plunged into domestic strife. Roderic was recalled, and received homage from several chiefs; but his brother, Cathal Crovderg (Croibhdhearg), or the Redhanded, and his grandson, Cathal Carragh, the son of Conor Moinmoy, were rival claimants for the sovereignty. The attempt to settle the matter by negotiation proving fruitless, Cathal Crovderg next year established his rights either by battle or by the show of superior force, there being some obscurity in our annals as to the manner in which the event was brought about.\* As to Roderic, he went from province to province among the Irish chieftains and the English barons, soliciting help to restore him to the throne of Connaught, but his applications were rejected by all; and he was at length recalled by his sept and received the lands of Tir Fiachrach Aidhue and

\* Moore and some other Irish historians would make it appear, that it was to commemorate a victory on this occasion that Cathal Crovderg founded the celebrated abbey of Knoc Moy, or *De Colle Victoriae*, in the county of Galway; and Hammer, Leland, and others after the Book of Howth, which Leland only knew as "Lambeth MSS.," repeat a romantic story about Sir Armoric St. Lawrence, to account for the origin of the same abbey; but Dr. O'Donovan (Four Masters, an. 1218, note q), explodes the popular errors on this subject, and shows that the name was Cnoc Muaidhe, or the hill of Muaidhe (a

woman's name), and that "*Collis Victoriae*," by which the stories in question were suggested, is but a fanciful translation of the name, as if it had been Cnoc mbuaidh. It may be well to correct another popular error with reference to this abbey, viz., the idea that the almost obliterated frescoes still traceable on the walls of the sanctuary, represent the execution of MacMurrough's son and other points of Irish history; the subjects being unquestionably those favorite ones of the mediæval artists, the martyrdom of St Sebastian, the "Three Kings," &c



Kinelea of Aughty, or the O'Shaughnessy's country, in the southwestern part of the present county of Galway.

A. D. 1192.—The indomitable king of Thomond again appears in arms against the English, who, with a powerful army collected from all Leinster, marched as far as Killaloe. Here they were repulsed by O'Brien and his Dalcassians; and at Thurles, in Eliogarty, they were completely overthrown by the same brave men of Thomond. In the course of this expedition the English erected the castles of Kilfeakle and Knockgrafon, in Tipperary.

Two years after, the English were delivered by the death of Donnell More O'Brien from the most formidable antagonist whom they had yet met in Ireland. Brave and liberal, but capricious, this prince, as soon as the real intentions of the invaders became obvious, was the first to break through the formal submission which had been made to the English king; and with few and brief intervals he continued ever after in arms against the enemies of his country. About the same time fell two other famous Irish chieftains: Cumee O'Flynn, who had defeated De Courcy at Firlee, was slain by the English in 1194; and O'Carroll, prince of Oriel, having been taken by them the year before, was first deprived of his eyes and then hanged.

The affairs of the English colony were at this time any thing but prosperous. New lords justices followed each other in quick succession. Hugh de Lacy was succeeded by William Petit, in 1191,

and he again, the same year, by William, earl of Pembroke, and earl marshal of England, who had married Isabel, the daughter of Strongbow, and obtained all the Irish possessions of that nobleman. The insolence of this latter governor did more to rouse the Irish princes to resistance than the spoliation to which they had been subjected by others, and it was during his administration that Donnell O'Brien, as we have seen, so severely chastised the invaders in Thomond. Peter Pipard succeeded him as lord deputy, and was followed by Hamon de Valois, who, finding the treasury empty, seized without scruple the church property. Archbishop Comyn strenuously remonstrated, but seeing that the pillage of the church went on, and that he could obtain no redress from the Irish government, he laid the diocese under an interdict, and proceeded to England to make complaints, which were equally unheeded there.

Meanwhile the fatal dissensions of the Irish princes continued to do the work of the common enemy most effectually; Murtough O'Loughlin, lord of Kinel-Owen, was slain, in 1196, by Blosky O'Kane, a subordinate chief; and Rory MacDunlevy having thereupon raised an army, composed partly of English and Connaught auxiliaries, marched against the Kinel-Owen, but was defeated with dreadful slaughter, on the plain of Armagh. The men of the south, however, at this moment exhibited a brilliant exception to this state of parri-



cidal warfare. Donnell McCarthy, son of Dermot, the late king of Desmond, aided by the forces of Cathal Croiderg, and of Donogh Cairbrach O'Brien, defeated the English in several battles in the course of the year 1196. He destroyed their castles of Kilfeacle and Imokilly, for some time held possession of the city of Limerick, and it is asserted that he reduced the English of Cork to submission.

The English had also some reverses in the north. One Rotsel, or Russel, whom De Courcy had left in command of a castle at Eas Creeva, or the Salmon Leap, near Coleraine, was defeated on the strand of Lough Foyle by Flaherty O'Muldory, who was now recognized as chief of both Kinel-Conell and Kinel-Owen. O'Muldory, however, died very soon after (in 1197), and Eachmarcach O'Doherty, who then assumed the chieftainship of Kinel-Conell, was killed in a fortnight after this event, together with 200 of his people, in a sanguinary engagement with De Courcy, at the hill of Knoc Nascaín, near Lough Swilly, in Inishowen.

A. D. 1198.—This year died the deposed and unfortunate monarch, Roderic O'Conor. If individual misfortune could have expiated the fatal imbecility of his earlier life, he suffered enough to merit

our forgiveness. The unnatural rebellion of his children, and the irretrievable downfall of his country, which he witnessed, and which a few years before he could so easily have prevented, might well have broken a more manly heart than his. "The only feeling his name awakens," observes Moore, "is that of pity for the doomed country which at such a crisis in its fortunes, when honor, safety, independence, national existence, were all at stake, was cursed, for the crowning of its evil destiny, with a ruler and leader so utterly unworthy of his high calling."\* He died at the advanced age of 82, after several years spent in penitential exercises in the beautiful abbey which he had founded himself at Cong. on the shores of Lough Corrib, and his remains were conveyed to Clonmacnoise, where they were interred at the north side of the altar of the great church.

To the events connected with our ecclesiastical history, which have been mentioned in the course of this chapter, may be added the building of St. Patrick's cathedral, in Dublin, by archbishop Comyn, in 1190; the translation of a large portion of the relics of St. Malachy from Clairvaux to Ireland in 1194;† the building of the cathedrals of Limerick and Cashel, and the founda-

\* Hist. of Ireland, vol. ii., p. 340. It is only fair to state that a different estimate of Roderic's character is formed by some; and an accomplished writer has not hesitated to describe his efforts against the Norman power as heroic and self-devoted, and himself as "a great warrior and a fervent patriot." "Brave, learned, just, and enlightened beyond his age," writes his amiable apologist, "he alone, of all the Irish princes, saw the direful tendency of the Norman inroad. All the

records of his reign prove that he was a wise and powerful monarch."—*Dublin University Mag.* for March, 1856. The descendants of Roderic, in the male line, have been long extinct; but it is said that the Lynches of Galway descend from him in the female line, as also the Lacies of Limerick.—*Vide supra*, page 232, note.

† For the disposal of the relics of St. Malachy, see the Rev. Mr. O'Hanlon's admirable life of that great saint chap. xviii.



tion of several religious houses by Donnell More O'Brien. Several of the noblest religious foundations of Ireland date from this period; and, if some of them were the offerings made by rapine to religion, or were erected by such men as Dermot MacMurrough, the fact only illustrates one point of distinction between the bad men of that age who may have founded monasteries, and those of the present who do not; namely, that the former were not able, like the latter, wholly to throw off the trammels of faith, to which they, sooner or later, repentantly returned, or, at least, offered a tribute of recognition.\*

Henceforth we shall have to treat of

\* From the list of the Cistercian Abbeys of Ireland preserved in Trinity College library, and published in an appendix to Grace's annals (p. 169), it appears that many of them were founded before the English invasion. They appear in the following order in this list, but the founders' names, and some of the dates, are added from other authorities:—St. Mary's, Dublin (founded by the Danes for Benedictines in 948, and reformed to Cistercian in 1139); Mellifont, in Louth, by O'Carroll of Oriel, in 1142; Bective, Meath, by O'Melaghlin, in 1148; Baltinaglass, Wicklow, by Dermot MacMurrough, in 1148 or 1151; Boyle, Roscommon, in 1148; Monasternenagh, or, de Maggio, Limerick, by O'Brien, in 1148; Athlone, Roscommon, in 1152; Newry, Down, by MacLoughlin, king of Ireland, in 1153; Odorney, Kerry, in 1154; Inislounagh, Tipperary, by Donnell O'Brien, in 1159; Fermoy, in 1170; Maur, in Cork, by Dermot MacCarthy, in 1172; Inis Samer, Donegal, by Rory O'Canannan, in 1179; Jerpoint, Kilkenny, by MacGillapatrik of Ossory, in 1180; Middleton, Cork, by the Barrys, in 1180; Holy Cross, Tipperary, by Donnell O'Brien, in 1181; Dunbrody, Wexford, by Hervey of Mountmaurice, in 1182; Abbeyleix, Queen's Co., by Cuchry O'More, in 1183; Inis Courcy, Down, by John de Courcy, in 1188, as restitution for the Irish abbey of Carraig, destroyed by him; Monasterevan, Kildare, by O'Dempsey of Offaly, in 1189; Knockmoy, Galway, by Cathal Crovderg O'Connor, in 1190; Grey Abbey, Down, by Affrica, wife of John de Courcy, in 1193; Cumber, Down, in 1198; Tintern, Wexford, by William Marshall, in 1200; Corcomroe, Clare, by Donat O'Brien, in 1194; Kilcooly,

two races as constituting the population of Ireland, namely, the Anglo-Irish and the "mere Irish." The latter were, with certain exceptions, excluded from the privileges and protection of the English law, and were legally known, even during peace, as the "Irish enemy." Dissensions were constantly fomented among them by the powerful English barons, who thus made them an easy prey, and stripped them gradually of their territories; while the Anglo-Irish, especially when residing beyond the English Pale, often shared the fate of the original Irish, with whom they became, in course of time, identified in language, manners, and interests.

Tipperary, by Donat O'Brien, in 1200; Kilbeggan, West Meath, by the Daltons, about 1200; Douske Kilkenny, by William Marshall, about 1200; Abingdon, or Wothenay, Limerick, by Theobald FitzWalter, in 1205; Abbeylorha, Longford, about 1205; Tracton, Cork, by the MacCarthys, about 1205, or 1224; Moycosquin, Derry, about 1205; Loughseudy, West Meath, about 1205; and Cashel, Tipperary, by Archbishop MacCarwell, in 1272. All these Cistercian abbeys were dedicated to the Blessed Virgin, except that of Holy Cross, and the abbey of Athlone, dedicated to St. Peter and St. Benedict. There were, also, minor houses, cells to some of the preceding. Archdeacon Lynch enumerates about 40 monasteries erected by Irishmen about the period of the invasion, several of them being included in the preceding list. One was the Dominican house of Derry, founded by Donnell Oge O'Donnell, prince of Tirconnell, at the request of St. Dominic himself, who sent him two brothers of the order. Vide *Cambrensis Eversus*, ii., 535, &c.; O'Sullivan's *Decas Patriciana*, lib. 9, c. 2; and Lanigan, vol. iv. The last-named writer enumerates the following primitive monastic institutions as existing at the close of the twelfth century:—viz., Armagh, Derry, Bangor, Maghbiele, or Moville, Devenish, Clogher, Clones, Louth, Clonfert, Inchmacnerin, Aran Isles, Cong, Mayo, Clonard, Kells Lusk, Kildare, Trim, Clonmacnoise, Killeigh, Glendalough, Saiger, Isle of All Saints on Lough Ree, Roscommon, Ballysadare, Drumcliff, Aghaboe, Lorra, Lismore Molana, Cork, Iniscathy Inisfallen, &c., &c.



## CHAPTER XXI.

## REIGN OF JOHN.

Renewed Wars of Cathal Carragh and Cathal Crovderg.—Tergiversation of William de Burgo, and Death of Cathal Carragh at Boyle Abbey.—Massacre of the English Archers in Connaught.—Wars in Ulster.—Fate of John de Courcy.—Legends of the Book of Howth.—Death and Character of William de Burgo.—Tumults and Rebellions of the English Barons.—Second Visit of King John to Ireland.—Alarm of the Barons.—Submission of Irish Princes.—Independence of Hugh O'Neill.—Division of the English Pale into Counties.—Money Coined.—Departure of John.—The Bishop of Norwich Lord Justice.—Exploits of Cormac O'Melaghlin and Hugh O'Neill.—War in the South.—Catastrophe at Athlone.—Adventures of Murray O'Daly, the Poet of Lissadill.—Ecclesiastical Occurrences.

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*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—Pope Innocent III.—King of France, Philip Augustus.—Emperor of Germany Frederick II.—King John resigned his dominions to the Pope, and did homage for them, 1213.—Magna Charta signed at Runnymede, 1215.]

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(A. D. 1199 TO A. D. 1216.)

ONE of the first acts of John, on ascending the throne of England, in 1199, was to appoint Meyler Fitz-Henry chief governor of Ireland. At that time a fierce war was raging in Connaught between the rival factions of the O'Connor family. Cathal Carragh, son of Conor Moinmoy, engaged the services of William Burke, or De Burgo, better known to the reader as William FitzAdelm, and of the English of Limerick, and by their aid he expelled Cathal Crovderg, and re-established himself on the throne of Connaught.

The expelled prince enlisted the sympathy of Hugh O'Neill, who had recently appeared as chief of Tyrone, and had distinguished himself both in 1198 and 1199, by successes against De Courcy and the English of Ulster.\* Cathal Crovderg and Hugh entered Connaught with an army, but finding their force inadequate, commenced a retreat, when they were overtaken at Ballysadare in Sligo by Cathal Carragh and his English auxiliaries, and routed with great loss; O'Hegny, then chief of Oriel, being among the slain in the northern army.

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\* The collateral Hy-Niall branch of MacLoughlin (sometimes also called O'Loughlin), which had taken its name from Lochlainn, the fourth in descent from Niall Glundubh, and had given two distinguished monarchs to Ireland, disappears in the books of genealogy with

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Muircheartach, or Murtough MacLoughlin, monarch of Ireland, who was slain 1166. With the Hugh mentioned above, called Aedh Toinleasc, the O'Neills resume their sway as chiefs of Tyrone.



Cathal Crovderg next succeeded in securing the aid of John de Courcy and of young De Lacy, and marched with a strong English force as far as Kilmacduagh, where Cathal Carragh and the Connacians gave them battle. Cathal of the Red Hand was once more unfortunate, and his army was defeated with such slaughter that only two out of five battalions, of which it consisted, escaped, and these were pursued as far as the peninsula of Rinn-duin, or Rindown\* on the shore of Lough Ree, where they were hemmed in and many of them killed, others being drowned in endeavoring to cross the lake in boats.

Meyler, the lord justice, now marched against Cathal Carragh, and plundered Clonmacnoise; and Cathal Crovderg, undaunted by his former losses, resolved to try the expedient of detaching De Burgo from the side of his enemy, and of purchasing his services for himself. The result proved that he calculated rightly on the mercenary character of the Anglo-Norman. The English barons recognized no principle in these wars but their own interest, and were only too glad to help the Irish in exterminating each other, while at the same time they could aggrandize and enrich themselves. Crovderg proceeded to Munster, where, by large promises, he purchased the aid of De Burgo, and obtained also that of MacCarthy of Desmond. Some of our annals state that a war raged about this very time

between the O'Briens and the Desmond families, and that William de Burgo with all the English of Munster joined the former; but the contest to which this account refers did not interfere with that between the O'Conors, and most probably followed it.

A. D. 1201.—Cathal Crovderg, with William de Burgo, the sons of Donnell O'Brien and Fineen or Florence MacCarthy, and their respective forces, marched from Limerick to Roscommon, where the army took up its quarters in the abbey of Boyle. Every part of the sacred precincts was desecrated by the soldiery, and nothing was left of the abbey but the walls and roof, even these being partially destroyed. De Burgo had begun to surround the monastery with an entrenchment, when Cathal Carragh arrived, and several skirmishes took place between the two armies, in one of which Cathal Carragh himself, having got mixed up with some retreating soldiers, was slain in the melee. This event decided the struggle. Crovderg's Munster auxiliaries were dismissed to their homes, and Cathal and De Burgo repaired to the abbey of Cong, where they passed the Easter, having first billeted the English archers through Connaught for the purpose, as some accounts express it, of "distraining for their wages." The Four Masters say that De Burgo and O'Flaherty of West Connaught entered into a conspiracy against Cathal the Red Handed,

\* This point is now called St. John's, and contains the magnificent ruins of a castle built in 1227, by Geoffry

Mares, or De Marisco.—See Dr. Petrie's account of it in the Irish Penny Journal, pp. 73, &c.



which the latter timely discovered; and that De Burgo having then demanded the wages of his men, the Connacians rose upon them and killed 700 of them. The Annals of Kilronan, however, explain the event differently, for they say that a rumor got abroad in some mysterious manner to the effect that De Burgo was killed, and that by a simultaneous impulse the whole population rose and slew all the English soldiers who were dispersed among them. De Burgo then demanded an interview with Cathal, but the latter avoided seeing him; and the Anglo-Norman, whose rapacity was foiled for once in so fearful a manner, set off for Munster with such of his men as had escaped the massacre. Three years after he took ample vengeance by the plunder of the whole of Connaught, "both lay and ecclesiastical."

Ulster during this time was a scene of constant warfare between the Kinel-Connell and the Kinel-Owen, and of domestic strife among the latter. Hugh O'Neill was deposed and Conor O'Loughlin substituted; but the former appears to have been restored in a few years, after some sanguinary conflicts.

A. D. 1204.—This year exhibited, in the downfall of John De Courcy, one of the many instances of retribution with which the history of the first English settlers in Ireland is filled. It is said that De Courcy incurred the anger of John, by openly speaking of him as a usurper, and as the murderer of the young prince Arthur, the "rightful heir,"

to the crown of England; but at all events the "Conqueror of Ulidia" was proclaimed a rebel, and his old enemies, the De Lacys, were ordered to deprive him of his lands, and seize his person. The English army of Meath, therefore, marched against him, and he was driven to seek protection from the Irish of Tyrone. It would appear that he was ultimately captured at Downpatrick, after a long siege, and sent to London, where he was confined in the tower for the remainder of his life. The Book of Howth relates how he was treacherously taken on Good Friday, when unarmed and engaged in his devotions in the church-yard of Downpatrick; how he seized a wooden cross and slew thirteen of his assailants on that occasion; how De Lacy punished, instead of rewarding, these persons who had betrayed their master by indicating when he might be found without arms; how De Courcy was afterwards liberated from the tower to fight a French champion, who fled from the lists on beholding him; how he then showed his strength by cleaving a helmet and coat of mail with his sword; how John thereupon pardoned him, and granted him the privilege which he asked for himself and his successors, to remain with his head covered in the royal presence; and how, by some mysterious agency, he was prevented from returning to Ireland; but it is needless to say that all this is mere fiction, although it has been mixed up with real history by Hanmer, and subsequent Irish historians, on no better authority



than that repertory of Anglo-Irish legends the Book of Howth. As to Hugh De Lacy, who was then lord justice, he was rewarded by John with the possessions of De Courcy and the title of earl of Ulster.\*

The same year our annals record the death of the famous William FitzAdelm de Burgo, the ancestor of the Burke family in Ireland. Giraldus Cambrensis describes him as a man addicted to many vices; bland and crafty; sweet-tongued to an enemy, and oppressive to those under him; as a man full of wiles, and concealing enmity under a smooth exterior. The Four Masters state that he died unshriven, and of some disgusting disease, in punishment of his sacrilegious plundering of churches; but other old writers, as Duall MacFirbis, and the translator of the Annals of Clonmacnoise, endeavor to vindicate his character.†

About this period the utmost disorganization prevailed among the English barons in Ireland, their mutual feuds

being as capricious and sanguinary as any which we have had to lament among the native Irish. In 1201, Philip of Wigornia, or Worcester, and William de Braose, laid waste a great part of Munster in their broils. King John sold to the latter for four thousand marks the lands of the former and of Theobald Walter; but Walter redeemed his own for five hundred marks, and Philip re-entered upon his by force of arms. A few years later, the tables are turned, and De Braose appears as a defeated rebel, flying from the country, and his family falling into the hands of the tyrant John, who barbarously caused his wife and his son to be starved to death in Corfe castle.‡ Geoffrey Mares, or De Marisco, also rebelled, and Munster was once more laid waste by contending English armies. Confusion was worse confounded by the rebellion of the De Lacys, between whom and Meyler a bloody civil war was waged, until "Leinster and Munster," as our annals say, "were brought to utter destruc-

\* Nothing authentic is known of the fate of Sir John De Courcy, save that he fell into the hands of De Lacy, who took him by the king's orders, and that he was confined in the tower of London. His wife, Affrica, daughter of Godfred, king of the Isle of Man, died A. D. 1193, and he left no male issue; the MacPatricks or De Courcys of Cork, who claim descent from him, being possibly the descendants of his brother who was killed during Sir John's lifetime. The privilege claimed by the barons of Kinsale, as De Courcys, to wear their hats in the presence of royalty is only supported by modern practice suggested by the above-mentioned legend.—See the subject amply discussed by Dr. O'Donovan, *Four Masters*, vol. lii., pp. 139–144, note n.

† Giraldus, who was prejudiced against FitzAdelm, says he was:—"Vir corpulentus, tam staturæ quam *facturæ*—vir dapsilis et curialis. . . . Imbellium

debellator, rebellium blanditor; indomitis domitus, domitis indomitus; hosti suavissimus, subdito gravissimus: nec illi formidabilis, nec isti fidelis. Vir dolosus, blandus, meticulosus, vir vino Venerique datus, &c."—*Hib. Exp.*, ii., cap. xvi. The Annals of Kilronan mention, under the date of 1203, the erection of a castle at Meelick, on the Shannon, in the eastern extremity of the present county of Galway, by William Burke, who had been previously seated at Limerick, and the English of Munster, and that in constructing the castle they filled up a church with stones and earth. This would appear to have been De Burgo's only occupation of territory in Connaught, although he is called the conqueror of that province.

‡ On returning from Ireland, in August, 1210, John took with him the captives, Maude, wife of William de Breusa, or Braose, and her son, the father having some



tion." Cathal Crowderg and O'Brien of Thomond aided the lord justice, Meyler, in besieging Limerick and reducing De Burgo to subjection. Some of the English fortified themselves in their castles, and plundered the country indiscriminately like highwaymen, as we find one Gilbert Nangle to have done until he was obliged to fly from Ireland.

A. D. 1209.—Dublin having been desolated by pestilence, was partly re-peopled from Bristol, to which city the Irish metropolis had been capriciously granted by Henry II. The new colonists not understanding, as it would seem, the actual state of society in Ireland, were in the habit of resorting on holidays for amusement to Cullen's Wood, in the southern suburbs. A great number were thus assembled on Easter Monday, this year, when a party of the Irish septs of O'Byrne and O'Toole, who had been deprived of their patrimonies, and forced into the mountains of Wicklow by the English, poured down upon them, and cut to pieces some three hundred men. The citizens of Bristol repaired the loss by a fresh supply of colonists, but for hundreds of years after, Black Monday, as it was called, was commemorated as

a festival by the citizens, who paraded in arms on the field of slaughter, and made a show of challenging the Irish enemy to the fight.

A. D. 1210.—While matters were going on thus in Ireland—England, all this while lying under the spiritual horrors of an interdict, or deprivation of the sacraments, and the king himself under a sentence of excommunication in punishment of his sacrileges and his contumacy against the church—John resolved to visit his Irish dominions for the purpose of restoring order there. Some of the oppressive exactions, under which the unhappy Jews groaned in this tyrant's reign, were levied for the expenses of this expedition. He landed at Crook, near Waterford, on the 20th June, this year, with a numerous and well-equipped army, which was conveyed in 700 ships. The presence of the king, with so powerful a force, struck awe into his rebellious subjects, and produced an immediate calm throughout the land. The De Lacys fled to France at his approach.\* Others, like De Braose, followed their example. As to the Irish, they were, in fact, not at war with the English government at that moment, and as many as twenty

time before having escaped to France. They were committed to Corfe Castle, in the Isle of Purbeck, where, by the king's orders, they were confined in a room, with a sheaf of wheat and a piece of raw bacon for their only provisions. On the eleventh day their prison was opened and both were found dead, in a sitting posture, the mother between her son's legs, with her head leaning on his breast. In the last pangs of hunger she had gnawed her son's cheeks, probably after his death. When William de Braose heard the tragical end of his

wife and son, he died in a few days. Such is the account given by a contemporary Flemish writer, who appears to have been in the service of John.—See Wright, *History of Ireland*, vol. 1., p. 129.

\* One of the crimes with which the De Lacys were charged was the murder of Sir John De Courcy, lord of Raheny and Kilbarrack, near Dublin, a relative of the famous earl of Ulster, says Ware (*Annals*, an 1213) See O'Donovan's note on the De Courcys, quoted above.



Irish chieftains are said to have done homage to him during his stay in this country. He proceeded to Dublin, and thence to Meath, where Cathal Crovderg made his submission to him.\* In compliance with the king's summons, Hugh O'Neill also repaired to the royal presence; but departed without agreeing to any terms of submission. He appears to have encamped with a numerous force near the English camp, and on leaving carried off considerable spoils from the neighboring country. John took Carrickfergus Castle, after a short siege, from De Lacy's people, and placed a garrison of his own there; and the king of Connaught, who had accompanied him with a great retinue, then returned home. Shortly after, John was at Rathguair, now Rathwire, near Kinnegad, in West Meath, and Cathal Crovderg again came, bringing four hostages, but not his son, whom it appears he had promised to bring, and whom John was to have taken under his special charge.

There being no military operations to occupy the king, he set about introducing English laws and customs into Ireland. He divided Leinster and Munster into twelve shires or counties, namely, Dublin, Kildare, Meath, Uriel (Louth), Catherlough (Carlow), Kil-

kenny, Wexford, Waterford, Cork, Limerick, Kerry, and Tipperary; but, as Sir John Davies observes, "these counties stretched no further than the lands of the English colonists extended. In them only were the English laws published and put into execution; and in them only did the itinerant judges make their circuits, and not in the countries possessed by the Irish, which contained two-thirds of the kingdom at least."† John also caused sterling money to be coined in Ireland of the same standard as that of England, and took his departure from this country in the last week of August, leaving as lord justice, John de Gray, bishop of Norwich, the man whom he wished to make archbishop of Canterbury in spite of the pope, and who was thus the cause of his quarrel with the Holy See.

The remaining events of our history during John's reign are not of much importance, and have no relation to the memorable transactions of which England was at that period the scene—the final submission of John to the pope, his war with the barons, the granting of the magna charta, &c. Cormac, head of the ancient Meath family of O'Melaghlin, wrested Delvin, in West Meath, from the English, and carried on a long war with them and their auxiliaries; and

\* Cathal Crovderg, appears to have entered into terms with Meyler FitzHenry a few years before this, and to have consented to yield two parts of Connaught to the English king, retaining the third part as his feudatory, and paying for it an annual sum of one hundred marks. The Close rolls contain an entry of the letter, in which John expresses his satisfaction to Meyler at this arrange-

ment. On John's arrival at Waterford, in 1210, Donough Cairbreagh O'Brien, son of Donnell More, made his submission, and received a charter for Carrigogonnell and the lordship thereto belonging, for which he was to pay sixty marks.

† Davis' Hist Tracts, p. 93.



Hugh O'Neill of Tyrone, and Donnell O'Donnell of Tyrconnell, having settled their old differences, co-operated in beating the English on two or three occasions. The castle erected by the English at Caol Uisge, on the Erne, was captured by them, and its commandant, MacCostello, slain; and Hugh O'Neill burned the castle of Carlingford and slaughtered its garrison.

A. D. 1215.—In the south, we are told by the Annals of Innisfallen, that a war in which the English took part, as usual, on both sides, and which was probably fomented by them, raged between the two brothers, Dermot and Cormac Finn MacCarthy, princes of Desmond; and that the result was the acquisition by the English of an enormous increase of territory in that quarter, where they fortified themselves by the erection of about twenty strong castles in Cork and Kerry.

The "English bishop," as De Gray is called, built a bridge of stone over the Shannon at Athlone in 1210 (1211), and erected a castle there on the site of one which had been built by Turlough More O'Connor in 1129; but one of the towers, when just finished, fell and crushed beneath its ruins Richard Tuite, the most powerful of the English barons since the departure of the De Lacys, together with his chaplain and seven other Englishmen. The outworks of the castle extended into the sanctuaries of St. Peter and St. Kiernan, and the Irish attributed the catastrophe to this desecration.

The Four Masters, under the date of 1213, relate a story which curiously illustrates the manners of the period. Donnell More O'Donnell, lord of Tyrconnell, sent a steward named Finn O'Brallaghan into Connaught to collect a tribute which he claimed in the northern portion of that province. One of the first places which the steward visited was the house of the poet, Murray O'Daly, at Lissadill, in Sligo; and being a coarse, ignorant fellow, he began to wrangle with the poet, who, enraged at his conduct, seized a battle-axe and killed him on the spot. To escape the anger of O'Donnell, the poet fled to Clanrickard in the present county of Galway, whither he was pursued by the angry prince of Kinel-Connell, so that MacWilliam (that is, Richard Burke, son of the late William de Burgo) was obliged to send him to seek refuge elsewhere. Thus was the unfortunate O'Daly compelled to fly to Limerick, and thence to Dublin, and finally to Scotland; O'Donnell pursuing him with an army, besieging towns, and plundering the country to compel the inhabitants to surrender the fugitive. In his last asylum O'Daly found time to compose three poems in praise of O'Donnell, which soothed the anger of the latter, and procured the poet's pardon. In one of these poems he complains that the cause of the hostility against him was very small indeed, namely, the killing of a clown who had insulted him!

Cadhla, or Catholicus O'Duffy, the venerable archbishop of Tuam, a con-



temporary of St. Malachy and St. Laurence O'Toole, died at an advanced age in the abbey of Cong, in 1201; and the same year John de Monte Celio, the pope's legate, came to Ireland, and held synods at Dublin and Athlone. John Comyn, the first English archbishop of Dublin, died in 1213, and was interred in Christ Church; and his successor was Henry de Londres, a great friend and adherent of king John's, through all his troubles, and who, with William Marshall, earl of Pembroke, was among

the few on the king's side at Runnymede, and signed the magna charta as such. Some Irish bishops attended the fourth general council of Lateran, in 1215; as we find that Dionysius O'Loneran, archbishop of Cashel, died at Rome that year; that Cornelius O'Heaney, bishop of Killaloe, died on his return from Rome; and that the death of Eugene MacGillavider, archbishop of Armagh, took place in the Eternal City the following year.\*

\* Besides several of the religious houses enumerated in the note at the end of the last chapter, the following were also founded in Ireland, about the period treated of in the present chapter; viz.:

The Priory of Kells, in Kilkenny, founded in 1193, by Geoffrey FitzRobert, for canons regular of St. Augustin, under the Invocation of the Blessed Virgin Mary; the Priory of Kilrush, in Kildare, for canons regular, and the commandery of St. John and St. Brigid, in Wexford, for knights hospitallers, by William Marshall, earl of Pembroke; the Priory of Tristernagh, in West Meath, for canons regular, by Geoffrey De Constantine, in 1200;

the Priory of Great Conall, on the banks of the Liffey, in Kildare, for the same, by Meyler FitzHenry, in 1202; the Priory of Canons Regular, at Inistiogue in Kilkenny, by Thomas, Seneschal of Leinster, in 1206; and the Priory of the same order at Newtown, on the north bank of the Boyne, by Simon Rochford, bishop of Meath, in the same year. Earl Marshall founded the Convent of St. Saviour on the site occupied by the present Law Courts in Dublin, in 1216—it was first held by the Cistercians, but was transferred eight years after to the Dominican friars.





## CHAPTER XXII.

## REIGN OF HENRY III.

**Extension of Magna Charta to Ireland.**—Return of Hugh de Lacy.—Wars between De Lacy and Earl Marshall — Surrender of Territory to the Crown by Irish Princes.—Connaught granted by Henry to De Burgo.—Domestic Wars in Connaught.—Interference of the English.—Famine and Pestilence.—Hugh O'Connor Seized in Dublin and Rescued by Earl Marshall.—His Retaliation at Athlone.—Death of Hugh, and Fresh Wars for the Succession in Connaught.—Felim O'Connor.—English Castles in Connaught Demolished.—The Islands of Clew Bay Plundered.—Melancholy Fate of Earl Marshall.—Connaught Occupied by the Anglo-Irish.—Divisions and War in Ulster.—Felim O'Connor Proceeds to England.—Deaths of Remarkable men.—Expeditions to France and Wales.—The Geraldines make War at their own Discretion.—Rising of the Young Men in Connaught.—Submission of Brian O'Neill.—Battle of Creadrankille and Defeat of the English.—Death of FitzGerald and O'Donnell.—Domestic War in the North.—Battle of Downpatrick.—Wars of De Burgo and FitzGerald.—Defeat of the English near Carrick-on-Shannon.—General View of this Reign.

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*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—Popes: Gregory IX. to Clement IV.—St. Louis IX., king of France, died 1270; St. Dominick died 1221; St. Francis died 1226.—Guelphs and Guibelines in Italy, 1230.—Seventh Crusade, 1248; Eighth Crusade, 1268.

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(A. D. 1216 TO 1272.)

**HENRY III.**, on the death of his father, John, in 1216, ascended the throne, while yet in his tenth year, and William Marshall, earl of Pembroke and lord of Leinster, was appointed protector both of the king and kingdom; Geoffry de Marisco being continued in the office of custos, or chief governor of Ireland. The great power enjoyed by earl Marshall, his intimate ties, both of family and property, with Ireland, and his wisdom in the management of the state, secured special attention at court to the affairs of this country; and, accordingly, we find that a statement of grievances, made by the English settlers, was immediately fol-

lowed by the transmission to Ireland of a duplicate of the magna charta, altered in some points to suit the difference of circumstances. Legal privileges were, however, only conceded to persons of English descent, and general extension of them to the Irish being opposed by the barons; although, in individual cases, charters of "English law and liberty" were granted to some Irish who applied for them.

One of the first acts of the reign was the pardon of Hugh de Lacy, and an invitation to him to return to his Irish estates; but William Marshall, who performed this service for him, having died soon after (A. D. 1221), and being



succeeded by his son, William, a feud arose between De Lacy and the latter, whose father had obtained some of De Lacy's lands while this nobleman was in exile, and all Meath was ravaged in the fierce war which raged between them. The fact of Hugh de Lacy being supported by Hugh O'Neill in this contest, led the Irish annalists to suppose that the former had returned to Ireland without the king's permission, and that he had joined O'Neill in a war against the English. "The English of Ireland," they tell us, "mustered twenty-four battalions at Dundalk, whither Hugh O'Neill and De Lacy came against them with four battalions; and on this occasion the English conceded his own demands to O'Neill." In this war Trim was gallantly defended by De Lacy against William Marshall; and immediately after the war, a strong castle was erected there.

About this time died Henry de Londres, archbishop of Dublin, and lord justice of Ireland, by whom the chief part of Dublin Castle was erected.\* There is great confusion as to the order in which the lords justices then succeeded; the names of William Marshall, Geoffry de Marisco, and Maurice Fitz-Gerald, appearing in a different order, according to different authorities.

\* This English prelate was nick-named "Burn-bill," from a very improbable circumstance related of him. It is said that, having got all the instruments by which the tenants of the Irish archiepiscopal estates held their lands into his hands, on the pretence of examining them, he cast them into the fire; but that a tumult thereupon arose which compelled him to fly, and that he was subsequently obliged to confirm

The Anglo-Irish historians tell us that several of the Irish chieftains surrendered their territories to the English king, receiving back a portion of their lands, for which they paid rent as tenants of the crown. Thus O'Brien, of Thomond, made a formal surrender, and received from Henry this year (1221) a great part of his own territory, for which he was to pay an annual rent of one hundred and thirty marks; this desperate course being resorted to by the Irish chiefs for the purpose of obtaining the protection of government against the aggressions of the unprincipled and rapacious barons. How futile, however, their hopes of security against wrong were, even purchased by such sacrifices, was soon evinced in the treatment of the Connacians by Henry III., who, notwithstanding such an arrangement with Cathal Crovderg, made a grant of the whole province of Connaught to Richard de Burgo, to take effect on the death of Cathal.†

A. D. 1224.—This year, in which an awful shower is said to have fallen in Connaught, and to have been followed by murrain, Cathal Crovderg, who was distinguished not less for the purity of his morals than for his valor, died in the habit of a grey friar at Knockmoy, or, as the Annals of Clonmacnoise have it, at

the tenants' tenures. The story rests on an old tradition.

† Cox, Leland, &c. The Irish annalists make no mention of this surrender of their territories by the Irish princes. The particulars of the Connaught war, which follow in the text, are taken exclusively from our native annals, the accounts of it published on Anglo-Irish authority being full of error



Briola, near the Suck, in Roscommon, and his son, Hugh, assumed the government of Connaught; but the succession became the source of a most lamentable and desolating war. Henry issued a mandate, dated June, 1225, to earl Marshall, ordering him to seize the whole country of Connaught, as forfeited by O'Connor, and to deliver it to Richard de Burgo; but the Irish appear not to have been aware of any such order, or, if they were, to have treated it with contempt. Alas! there needed not the mandate of the English king to kindle the flame of war on the occasion, or to instigate the destruction which the infatuated people were too ready to execute upon themselves!

A. D. 1225.—The claims of Hugh, son of Cathal Crovderg, to the crown of Connaught, were immediately disputed by his cousins, Turlough and Hugh, sons of Roderic; and O'Neill, urged by Mageraghty, chief of Sil-Murray, from motives of private vengeance, mustered a large force and marched into Connaught to assist the two latter princes. Upon this all the Connaught chieftains, with the exception of MacDermot, of Moylurg, and a few minor chiefs, rose against Hugh, son of Cathal; and O'Neill, having inaugurated Turlough at Carnfree,\* and paid himself by the plunder of Hugh's house at Lough Nen, returned with his army to Tyrone. The English barons had a large army assem-

bled at this time at Athlone, either for the purpose of executing king Henry's orders, or of watching the progress of affairs in Connaught. To them Hugh, the son of Cathal, repaired, and he was received with open arms. Most of them had already been bountifully rewarded by his father or himself for military services, and they rejoiced at the present prospect of an inroad into Connaught under his standard. A strong English army, with the lord justice himself at its head, and Donough Cairbrach O'Brien, and O'Melaghlin, with their forces, as auxiliaries, besides the forces of Mac-Donough and other friends of Hugh, now entered Connaught, where, after the departure of O'Neill, there was no adequate force to oppose them, and the enemies of Hugh fled in various directions at their approach, carrying off their families, cattle, and other movables. After some skirmishing with detached parties, Hugh led the English army in pursuit of the sons of Roderic, by a route which they could not have discovered themselves, as far as Attymas, in the north-east of Mayo, and they plundered and depopulated several districts. Numbers of fugitives, endeavoring to effect their escape across Ballymore Lough, in the present parish of Attymas, were drowned, and the baskets of the fishing weirs were found filled with the bodies of children. "Such of them," say the Annals, "as escaped, on

\* This was the usual inauguration place of the O'Conors, and has been identified by Dr. O'Donovan as a small cairn of stones and earth near the village of

Tulsk, about three miles S. E. of Rathcroghan, in the county of Roscommon.—*Four Masters*, vol. iii., p. 221, note (a)



this occasion, from the English and from drowning, passed into Tirawley, where they were attacked by O'Dowda, who left them not a single cow." The sons of Roderic now resolved to defer any further effort until Hugh's English allies should have left him; and some of their staunchest adherents accordingly made a feigned submission to Hugh, who soon after dismissed the English battalions, to whom he delivered, as hostages for their wages, several of the Connaught chiefs, who were subsequently obliged to ransom themselves, while he himself remained with his Irish friends to watch the O'Flahertys and others, whose fidelity he with good reason suspected.

During these hostilities, the English of Desmond and Murtough O'Brien, one of the Thomond princes, without any invitation from Hugh O'Conor, made an irruption into the south of Connaught, burning villages and slaying the inhabitants where they could be found, and all this only to share in the spoils which the lord justice and his followers were enjoying in the northern part of the province. "Woful, indeed, was the misfortune," as the annalists exclaim, "which God permitted to fall upon the best province in Ireland at that time! For the young warriors did not spare each other, but preyed on and plundered each other to the utmost of their power. Women and children, the feeble and the lowly

poor, perished of cold and famine in that war!"

The respite which ensued was very brief. As soon as the main body of the English army had left, the Connaught chieftains again revolted, and again Hugh, son of Cathal, was obliged to call on the foreigners for help. The call was responded to cheerfully and without delay; and well was the promptitude of the English rewarded. "for their spoil was great, and their struggle trifling." The country was once more overrun with armies; but the sons of Roderic were ultimately deserted by their adherents, who judged their cause to be hopeless, and they sought refuge, together with Donn Oge Mageraghty, at the court of Hugh O'Neill.

Year after year the crops had been left on the ground all the winter: "the corn remained unreaped until after the festival of St. Bridget" (the 1st of February), "when the ploughing had commenced;" fearful dearth and sickness were the consequence; and, as the words of the old chronicles affectingly describe it, "the tranquillity which now followed was wanting, for there was not a church or territory in Connaught which had not been destroyed by that day. After the plundering and killing of the cattle, people were broken down by cold and hunger, and a violent distemper\* raged throughout the whole country—a kind of burning disease by

\* Annals of Kilronan and of the Four Masters. Dr. Wilde thinks "the hot, heavy death-sickness which succeeded to the war and famine, that desolated large

portions of Ireland at this period, was our Irish typhus."—*Census of Ireland for 1852; Report on Tables of Deaths.*



which the towns were desolated, and left without a single living being."

A. D. 1227.—Very soon after the events just described—some say in 1226—Hugh O'Connor was inveigled into the power of his late English allies in Dublin; and under the form of some pretended criminal proceedings they were about to take away his life, when earl Marshall came to his rescue, and taking him by force out of the court, escorted him safely to Connaught—his son and daughter remaining in the hands of the English. The king of Connaught found an opportunity in a week after to retaliate, and he availed himself of it without scruple. A conference between him and William de Marisco, son of Geoffry, the lord justice, was appointed to take place at the Lathach, or slough, to the west of Athlone. Hugh was accompanied by a few chosen men, and William came to the rendezvous attended by eight mounted knights. As soon as they met, Hugh seized De Marisco, and the other Irish chiefs rushing upon his companions, overpowered them, one English knight, the constable of Athlone, being killed in the fray. Hugh then proceeded to plunder and burn the market-place of Athlone, which had become an English garrison; and in exchange for his prisoners he obtained his own son and

daughter, and some Connaught chiefs whom the English had got in their power.

A. D. 1228.—The career of Hugh O'Connor was as brief as it was troubled. Before the close of 1227, the sons of Roderic, to whose side the English had turned, once more made their appearance in Connaught; Hugh, the younger brother, with Richard de Burgo and a great army, in the northern districts, and Turlough, with the lord deputy, in the central plain of Connaught, where they erected a strong castle on the peninsula of Rindown in Lough Ree. The son of Crovderg fled to Tirconnell, but his reception there was not encouraging; and returning with his family, almost unattended, he had a narrow escape from his enemies near the Curlieu mountains, his wife falling into their hands, and being delivered by them to the English. Next year (1228) he and the lord deputy, Geoffry de Marisco, were apparently reconciled, and he was in the house of the latter when an Englishman, inflamed with jealousy at an act of levity on Hugh's part, rushed upon him and slew him on the spot.\*

The removal of one competitor for the crown of Connaught left the affairs of that unhappy province as complicated as ever. The brothers Hugh and Turlough now struggled against each other

"The cause of killing the king of Connaught," say Mageoghegan's Annals of Clonmacnoise, "was that after the wife of an Englishman" (who was an attendant in the deputy's house) "had so washed his head and body with sweet balls and other things, he, to gratifie her for her service, kissed her, which the Englishman seeing,

for more jealousie, killed O'Connor presently at unawares. The murderer was hanged next day by the deputy's orders. The Four Masters say Hugh "was treacherously killed by the English in the mansion of Geoffrey Marisco (de Marisco), after he had been expelled by the Connaughtians."



for the prize—so completely had the principle of succession, according to the Irish law, ceased to be respected. Hugh, the younger brother, was supported by Richard de Burgo, now justiciary of Ireland, and he was also recognized by the majority of the Connaught chieftains as their king, although Turlough had been already inaugurated by O'Neill. There was also a new competitor in the person of Felim, brother of the late king, Hugh, son of Cathal Crovderg. "An intolerable dearth," say the Four Masters, "prevailed in Connaught in consequence of the war of the sons of Roderic. They plundered churches and territories (that is, the property of the church and of the laity); they banished the clergy and *ollaves* into foreign and remote countries, and others of them perished of cold and famine."

A. D. 1229 (or 1230).—The scene in Connaught now presents some redeeming features, although it is still one of bloodshed and anarchy. Several of the chieftains declared that they would not serve a prince who would keep them in subjection to the English; and Hugh, who had just received his crown at the hands of Englishmen, complied, not unwillingly perhaps, with their wishes. But this step comes too late, after exhausting themselves by so much mutual slaughter. Hostilities ensue. Richard de Burgo enters Connaught with an overwhelming force; desolates a large portion of the country; slays, among many others, Donn Oge Mageraghty, the most indomitable of the chieftains;

hurls Hugh, son of Roderic, from his precarious throne, and proclaims Felim, son of Cathal Crovderg, king in his stead. Hugh finally seeks refuge with Hugh O'Neill, king of Tyrone—a prince who had never yielded hostages or tribute to the foreigners, nor indeed acknowledged any superior, Irish or English, and whose death, in 1230, removed another bulwark of Irish independence.

Thus does this sad and dreary Connaught history proceed. Insane counsels, hopeless strife, pitiless devastation, make up the sickening tale; while the foreign enemy, who has been goading on the infatuated combatants, and aiding them in their work of mutual destruction, strides in grim triumph over the wreck which he and they conspired to make, uses the rival princes as puppets, and seizes their territories with impunity. In 1231 Felim was taken prisoner at Meelick, in violation of solemn guarantees, by Richard de Burgo, who had two years before made him king; and next year Hugh, son of Roderic, went through the mockery of recognition as king of Connaught, although before the end of the year Felim was set at liberty by the English, and thus placed in a position to re-assert his rights.

A. D. 1233.—Felim O'Connor once more raised his standard, round which his friends soon rallied in sufficient numbers to enable him to take the field. He went in pursuit of Hugh, and in his encounter with him slew that prince, together with one of his brothers, his son, and many of his leading men, both English and Irish.



He next demolished the castle Bungalvy, or Galway, which had been erected the preceding year by Richard de Burgo, and also castle Kirk, on Lough Corrib, the Hag's castle on Lough Mask, and the castle of Dunamon on the river Suck, in Roscommon, all of which had been built or fortified by the sons of Roderic and the English.

A. D. 1235.—Felim's hardihood, however, was speedily punished; for Richard de Burgo entered Connaught with an enormous force, and plundered the country without mercy. Not meeting any resistance, he proceeded to Thomond, at the instigation of O'Heyne, who desired to be revenged on Donough Cairbrach O'Brien, and was committing great depredations there, when Felim, although he could not save his own territory, flew to the aid of his southern ally. A pitched battle was fought. Their cavalry, archers, and coats of mail, gave the English an advantage; and O'Brien, to whose rashness the defeat was partly due, having made peace with the invaders, the Connacians returned home, the English army following close in their rear. Felim now fled with his cattle, and all those who chose to follow his fortunes, to the north, and sought refuge with O'Donnell of Tirconnell, while the English scoured the entire province for spoils. O'Flaherty, who had been all along hostile to Felim, joined the English (who would otherwise have plundered his own territory), and conveyed his flotilla of war boats from Lough Corrib, by land, to the sea

at Leenaun, the head of Killery bay. With these boats the English, who had already marched as far as Achil, which they plundered, were enabled to lay waste the Insi Modh, or islands of Clew bay, in which Manus O'Connor, son of Murtough Muimhneach had, with many others from the main land, sought refuge. Numbers were thus slaughtered on the islands, but Manus fled in his vessels; the O'Malleys, who always possessed a numerous fleet, remaining inactive spectators of the scene, as they were not on friendly terms with him. There was not a cow left on the islands, and those to whom the cows belonged would have been compelled by hunger and thirst, say the annalists, to abandon them, had they not been themselves killed by the English, or carried off as prisoners. After devastating all Umallia, and taking a prey from O'Donnell at Eas dara, the English army laid siege to the castle held for O'Connor by MacDermot on the Rock of Lough Key, in Roscommon, and captured it by the aid of "wonderful machines;" but a few nights after MacDermot recovered the castle by the help of an Irishman, who closed the gate against the English garrison when they had left on a marauding party; and the fortress was then demolished, that it might not again fall into the hands of the English. By this expedition the English left the Connacians "without food, raiment, or cattle, and the country without peace, the Irish themselves plundering and destroying one another; but they did



not obtain hostages or submission. Felim made peace the same year with the lord justice, and was left in possession of "the king's five cantreds" (or baronies), which were probably the mensal lands of the kings of Connaught.

We now turn to an episode in the history of the Pale.

William Marshall, the powerful earl of Pembroke, and protector of the realm during the king's minority, left at his death five sons, all of whom inherited in succession his title and estates; but as all died childless, the family became extinct in the male line. It is said that the father died under the ban of excommunication, inflicted on him by an Irish bishop for his plunder of the church, and that the sons refused to yield up any of the wealth which their sire had taken by the sword, whether sacrilegiously or otherwise. Be this as it may, misfortunes fell heavily upon them in the sequel. Earl Richard, one of the brothers, having taken a leading part in the rebellious proceedings of the English barons, was deprived of his vast possessions, and, taking up arms, he joined the standard of Llewellyn, the heroic prince of Wales. He defended himself successfully against the royal troops in one of his own castles; but a most vile and treacherous conspiracy, to which he fell a victim, was now formed against him. Maurice FitzGerald (the lord justice), Hugh and Walter de Lacy, Richard de Burgo, Geoffry de Marisco, and in fact all the leading Anglo-Irish barons, are said to

have been led by the English minister into this nefarious plot, the object of which was, to inveigle earl Richard to Ireland, and to get him by some means into the hands of his enemies, the bribe offered being no less than the distribution among them of all the earl's Irish possessions. The plan succeeded so well that in 1234 the earl came to Ireland with a few followers, and took the field in the assertion of his rights. He recovered some of his own castles, and captured Limerick after a siege of four days; but this was all brought about to hasten his ruin. A truce was now proposed, and a mock conference took place on the Curragh of Kildare. At a signal given, the great body of his followers suddenly deserted, drawn off by De Marisco, who is called a deceitful old man, and who had treacherously urged him on from the beginning. Seeing that he was betrayed, he took an affectionate leave of his young brother, Walter, who is described as a youth of beautiful mien, and whom he directed a servant to conduct from the field; and then, with scarcely any one by him but fifteen knights who had accompanied him from England, and assailed by overwhelming numbers, he continued bravely to defend himself; until at length, after being unhorsed, a traitor from behind plunged a knife into his back. He was then conveyed, all but lifeless, to one of his own castles, of which Maurice FitzGerald was in possession, and there he expired in the midst of his enemies. Thus perished



“the flower of the chivalry of his time.” His sad end, and the base means employed against him, excited a strong feeling both in England and Ireland; tumults took place in London; the king became alarmed, as it was discovered that the royal seal had been employed to give sanction to the first suggestion of the plan; and Maurice FitzGerald repaired to England to clear himself by oath from the guilt of the foul transaction. But the affair merits our attention chiefly as illustrating the character of the men who then held in their hands the destinies of Ireland.

A. D. 1236.—A conference was the usual mode with the unprincipled men of that time to get an enemy into their power, and Felim O’Conor was invited, for that purpose, to attend a meeting of the English at Athlone. He came, but having received timely intimation of their object, he made his escape, although pursued as far as Sligo, and repaired to Tirconnell, his usual asylum on such occasions. The government of Connaught was then committed by the English to Brian O’Conor, son of Turlough, son of Roderic; but all the power of his foreign patrons was insufficient to keep him in the office. Felim returned the following year, and took the field against his competitors. His first encounter was with the soldiers of the lord justice, who were overwhelmed at the onset by the impetus of Felim’s attack; and Brian’s people, seeing the English soldiers routed, took to flight themselves, and were so dispersed that,

after that day, none of the descendants of Roderic had a home in their ancestral territory of the Sil-Murray. Felim plundered their lands, and, among other deeds of vengeance, expelled Cormac MacDermot, chief of Moylurg, from his territory.

A. D. 1238.—About this time we find in our annals the significant entry that “the barons of Ireland went to Connaught, and commenced erecting castles there.” The country had been made a wilderness, and they had little more to do than to enter and take possession. The expulsion of the O’Flahertys from their hereditary territory of Muintir-Morroughoe, on the east shores of Lough Corrib, to the bogs and mountains west of that lake, where they became very powerful in after times, dates from this year, but they are styled lords of West Connaught, long before this period.

A. D. 1239.—The scene now shifts from Connaught to Ulster, where FitzGerald, the lord justice, with Hugh de Lacy, and others, entered with a large army, deposed Donnell MacLoughlin, who had succeeded Hugh O’Neill, as lord of Tyrone, and placed Brian O’Neill in his stead; but the former recovered his position after a battle fought the same year at Carnteel. This was the game which the English had played so successfully in Connaught. In that period of disorganization there were always half a dozen claimants for the chieftaincy in each territory, and it was only necessary to pit them against each other to secure the ruin of all.



A. D. 1240.—Wearied with the aggressions of Richard de Burgo, and with the elements of strife, English and Irish, which that nobleman kept constantly in motion, the unhappy king of Connaught proceeded to England, and complained bitterly to Henry III. of the injustice with which he had to contend. The English king soothed him with empty honors, confirmed to him the five cantreds already mentioned, and soon after wrote to Maurice FitzGerald, the lord justice, ordering him “to pluck out by the root that fruitless sycamore, De Burgo, which the earl of Kent, in the insolence of his power, had planted in those parts.”\*

A. D. 1241.—Donnell More O'Donnell, the warlike lord of Tirconnell, who also asserted the right of chieftainship over Lower, or Northern Connaught, as far as the Curlieu mountains, died in the monastic habit, among the monks of Assaroe, and was succeeded by Melaghlin O'Donnell, who aided Brian O'Neill in recovering Tyrone from MacLoughlin, the latter chieftain being killed in battle, with ten of his family, and several chiefs of the Kinel-Owen. Some other celebrities of Irish history made their exit about the same time. Walter de Lacy died this year; Donough Cairbrach O'Brien, son of Donnell More, lord of Thomond, the following year; and the

great earl, Richard de Burgo, the year after (1243), while proceeding with some troops to join Henry III. in an expedition against the king of France

A. D. 1245.—The king of England being hard pressed in a war with the Welsh, summoned, or rather invited, the Irish chiefs, and the Anglo-Irish barons, to muster round his standard in the principality. At this time these barons claimed exemption from attending the king outside the realm of Ireland, and Henry would appear to have conceded the privilege, as, in his writ of summons, he expressly stated that their attendance on that occasion should not be made a precedent against them. Felim O'Connor accompanied the lord justice, FitzGerald, on this expedition, and was treated with great honor by Henry; but FitzGerald incurred the king's weighty displeasure by the tardiness of his attendance, and was consequently deprived of office; Sir John, son of Geoffry de Marisco, being appointed justiciary in his stead. The English army in Wales had suffered a great deal, waiting for the Irish reinforcement, and the king's feelings were embittered by the subsequent failure of the expedition. After this time we find the Geraldines in Ireland acting independently of the royal authority, and making war and peace at their own discretion.

\* The earl of Kent here mentioned was Hubert de Burgo, who had been chief justice of England. There is extant a letter from Felim O'Connor to Henry III., thanking him for the many favors which he had conferred upon him, and especially for having written in

his behalf against Walter de Burgo, to his justiciary William Dene; but this letter, although published in Rymer (vol. i., p. 240) under the date of 1240, must refer to a period not earlier than 1260, when William Dene was justiciary.



A. D. 1247.—Maurice FitzGerald led an army this year into Tirconnell, and by a stratagem, cleverly carried out by one of his Irish auxiliaries, Cormac, a grandson of Roderic O'Connor, he gained a victory at the ford of Ballyshannon over O'Donnell, who was slain. A great number of FitzGerald's men were, however, killed in the fight or drowned. A rivalry for the chieftainship of Tirconnell was then promoted between Godfrey O'Donnell and Rory O'Canannan, and in the domestic strife which ensued the English were able for a while to crush the patriotic ardor of the Tirconnellians. Meanwhile another army penetrated into Tyrone under Theobald Butler, now lord justice; and the Kinel-Owen held a council, at which they came to the prudent conclusion, "that the English having now the ascendancy over the Irish, it was advisable to give them hostages, and to make peace with them for the sake of their country."

A. D. 1248.—Urged by the frightful state of oppression under which their country groaned, the young men of the ancient families of Connaughnas rose in arms against the English, devastated their possessions, and left them no security outside the walls of their castles. Turlough, son of Hugh O'Connor, and FitzPatrick, of Ossory, entered Connaught, and burned the town and castle of Galway, and the O'Flaherties defeated an English plundering party, who had penetrated into Connemara. The leader of the youthful warriors, who thus harassed the invaders in Con-

naught, was Hugh, son of Felim; and when Maurice FitzGerald arrived, in 1249, with two armies, to avenge the English settlers, Felim, dreading the storm which his son's rash heroism had brought about his ears, retired, as usual, to the north, with his movable property; and his nephew Turlough accepted, at the hands of the English, the office of ruler in his stead. Next year Felim came back with a numerous force, expelled Turlough, and was again returning northward, across the Curliu mountains, sweeping off all the cattle of the land, when the English, thinking it better to make peace on any terms, sent after him to offer propositions, and restored him to his kingdom.

Florence or Fineen MacCarthy, who had given the English very little rest in Desmond, was slain by them this year, and, after long and sanguinary hostilities, peace was restored for a while in that quarter. In the north, Brian O'Neill, lord of Tyrone, made his submission to the lord justice in 1252; yet, the very next year his territory was invaded by Maurice FitzGerald, with a great hosting of the English, who, however, were defeated with considerable slaughter.

Felim O'Connor held a friendly conference in 1255, with MacWilliam Burke, as Walter, the son of Richard More, and chief of the De Burgo family, was styled; and the following year Hugh, son of Felim, who appears to have participated in his father's authority at this time, met Alan de la Zouch, the justiciary, at



Rinn Duin, and ratified a peace with him. The next year, Felim got a charter for his five cantreds. Thus, the English always contrived to keep some of the Irish princes on their hands, while they carried on an exterminating war against others, and at this moment their main object was to crush the independence of Tirconnell. A furious battle was fought in 1257, between Godfrey O'Donnell, lord of that territory, and a numerous English army, under the command of Maurice FitzGerald, who was once more lord justice. The armies engaged at Creadran-Kille, in a district to the north of Sligo, now called the Rosses. O'Donnell and FitzGerald met in single combat, and severely wounded each other; and after a fierce and protracted struggle the English were defeated, the result being their expulsion from Lower Connaught. Godfrey was unable, from his wound, to follow up his success; but he demolished the castle which the English, to overawe the Kinel-Connell, had erected at Caol Uisge, now Belleek, on the Erne river.

The deaths of the two chiefs who fought so bravely against each other, at this battle, followed soon after. Maurice FitzGerald retired into a Franciscan monastery which he had founded at Youghal, and, after putting on the habit of a monk, departed tranquilly in the bosom of religion; the only stain which historians have observed in his character, being the part, whatever that may have been, which he took in the ruin and death of Richard, earl Marshall. The

death of Godfrey O'Donnell was not so peaceable. Hearing that O'Donnell was on his death-bed, from the wound he received at Creadran-Kille, Brian O'Neill sent to require hostages from the Kinel-Connell, but the messengers who carried the insolent demand, fled the moment they delivered their errand, and the dying chieftain only answered it by ordering a general muster of his people. He then directed his men to place him on the bier which should take him to the grave, and to carry him on it at the head of his forces. Thus did the Tirconnellian army march to meet that of Tyrone. A sanguinary battle was fought on the banks of the river Swilly, in Donegal, and victory declared for O'Donnell, whose bier was then laid down in the open street of a village, which, at that time, existed at the place now called Conwal, near Letterkenny, and there he expired. What a pity that such heroism should have been perverted by Irishmen to their mutual destruction, while the common enemy was driving them from the green fields of their forefathers! On hearing of O'Donnell's death, O'Neill sent again to demand hostages, but while the men of Tirconnell were deliberating on an answer, a youth only eighteen years of age, the son of Donnell More O'Donnell, having just arrived from Scotland, presented himself in the council and was elected chieftain. He is called Donnell Oge in the Irish annals.

That O'Neill's pretensions were not without some foundation may be con-



cluded from the fact, that the same year (1259) these transactions took place, Hugh, son of Felim, and Teige O'Brien, of Thomond, probably with other chieftains, met him at Caol Uisge, and conferred on him the sovereignty of Ireland—an empty title, it is true, at that time.\*

A. D. 1260.—The result of the conference of Irish chiefs at Caol Uisge, was that O'Neill and O'Connor turned whatever forces they could muster against the English, and that a battle, in which the Irish were defeated, was fought at Druim-dearg, near Downpatrick. Brian himself was killed, together with fifteen of the O'Kanes, and many other chiefs, both of Ulster and Connaught. Cox says, the battle took place in the streets of Down, and that three hundred and fifty-two of the Irish were killed. The English were commanded in this encounter by the lord justice, Stephen Longespé.

A. D. 1261.—In the south the English were not so fortunate. The Geraldines were defeated in Thomond by Conor O'Brien, and suffered fearful loss in another battle at Kilgarvan, near Kenmare, in which they were defeated by MacCarthy; their loss, according to English accounts, including Thomas FitzThomas FitzGerald and his son, eight barons, fifteen knights, and a countless number besides. William Denn, the justiciary, Walter de Burgo,

earl of Ulster, and Donnell Roe, son of Cormac Finn MacCarthy, with several other leading men, aided the Geraldines in this battle. Nearly all the English castles of Hy Conaill Gavra, and other parts of Desmond, were demolished by the Irish after this victory; and Hammer says, "the Geraldines durst not put a plough into the ground in Desmond." The next year (1262) another sanguinary struggle took place between the English under MacWilliam Burke and MacCarthy at Mangerton, in Kerry, and both sides suffered severely.

A. D. 1264.—Walter de Burgo (who was earl of Ulster by right of his wife, the daughter of Hugh de Lacy) and FitzGerald now waged war against each other, and a great part of Ireland was desolated in their hostilities. The lord justice took part against De Burgo, and this circumstance drew from Felim O'Connor the expression of gratitude to Henry III. already alluded to.† De Burgo, however, succeeded in taking all FitzGerald's Connaught castles. To such a pitch did the feuds among the Anglo-Irish barons proceed at this time, that, in one of them, Maurice FitzMaurice FitzGerald, aided by others of his family, seized, at a conference, the persons of the lord justice and other noblemen, and confined them in castles until they were released by a parliament or council, held in Kilkenny for the purpose.‡

\* Some Munster historians deny that Teige O'Brien joined in conferring this distinction on O'Neill.

† See note, page 237.

‡ For a most interesting illustration of the state of society at this turbulent period, we may refer the reader to the Anglo-Norman ballad of the "Entrenchment of



War and peace continued to alternate in rapid succession in Connaught until 1265, when Felim O'Connor died, and was succeeded by his son, Hugh, who, in the following year, having recovered from an illness, during which Connaught was trodden under foot by the English, mustered a large force, and with renewed energy carried on the war against Walter de Burgo. The lord justice, Sir James Audley, alarmed at the formidable rising of the Irish, at length came to the aid of De Burgo with an army, and some Irish auxiliaries also fought under his standard. De Burgo thought to patch up a peace in the usual way, until a better opportunity to strike would offer; but Hugh was a match for him in the treacherous diplomacy of the time. When the two armies were in the vicinity of a ford near the modern

Carrick-on-Shannon, De Burgo proposed negotiations; but Hugh contrived to get the earl's brother, William Oge, into his hands before the parley commenced, and then treated him as a prisoner, and slew some of the English. The earl flew into a rage, and an obstinate battle ensued. Turlough O'Brien, who was coming to the aid of the Connacians, was met before he could form a junction with them, and slain in single combat by De Burgo; but Hugh's people avenged his death by a fearful onslaught, in which great numbers of the English were slain, and immense spoils taken from them. William Oge, the earl's brother, was put to death after the battle, which was, on the whole, a disastrous one to the English.\* Walter Burke died the following year in the castle of Galway, and Hugh O'Connor survived him three years.

New Ross," published in Crofton Croker's "Popular Songs of Ireland," from Harleian MSS., 913, in the British Museum, with a translation by the gifted Mrs. Maclean (L. E. L.), and introductory observations by Sir Frederick Madden and Mr. Croker himself. The ballad describes how the burgesses of New Ross resolved, in the year 1265, to fortify their town with a wall and foss, to protect it against the hostile inroads of the contending barons; how a widow, named Rose, first suggested the plan, and offered large contributions to carry it out; how the burgesses subscribed liberally for the purpose, and, finding that the work proceeded too slowly, labored at it with their own hands; the different professions and guilds working in companies with banners flying and music playing; and how the ladies worked on Sundays, carrying stones while the men reposed. New Ross, which was called by the Irish, Ros-mic-Triuín, appears to have been at that time a considerable town.

\* The following account of this transaction is given in Connel Mageoghegan's translation of the Annals of Clonmacnoise:—After relating how the earl of Ulster (Walter Burke), with the lord deputy, and all the English forces of Ireland, marched against O'Connor, and describing the position of the armies near Ath-Cora-Connell, a ford on the Shannon, near Carrick-on-Shannon

(the name being now obsolete), the annalist proceeds:—"The Englishmen advised the Earle to make peace with Hugh O'Connor, and to yeald his brother, William Oge mac William More mac William the Conqueror, in hostage to O'Connor, dureing the time he shou'd remain in the Earles's house concluding the said peace, which was accordingly condescended and done. As soone as William came to O'Connor's house he was taken, and also John Dolphin and his son were killed. When tyding came to the ears of the Earle how his brother was thus taken, he took his journey to Athenkip (the name, now obsolete, of a ford on the Shannon, near Carrick-on-Shannon), where O'Connor beheaved himself as a fierce and froward lyon about his prey, without sleeping or taking any rest; and the next day, soon in the morning, gott upp and betook him to his arms: the Englishmen, the same morning, came to the same foorde, called Athenkip, where they were overtaken by Terlogh O'Bryen. The Earle returned upon him and killed the said Terlogh, without the help of any other in that pressence. The Connoughtmen pursued the Englishmen, and made their hindermost part runn and break upon their outguard and foremost in such manner and foul discomfiture, that in that instant nine of their chiefest men were killed upon the bogge about Richard



This long reign was at length brought to a close by the death of Henry III., in 1272. During its troubled course, the feuds of the native Irish among themselves had done more to establish the English power in this country than all that could be effected merely by English arms. Above all, the insane and deadly contention of the O'Conors was most fatal to Ireland. Connaught was for the first time overrun by the new settlers; the first submission was obtained from the princes of Tyrone; and in the south the Geraldines had begun to assume the title—as yet an unsubstantial one—of lords of Desmond. Henry changed his viceroys frequently,

but with little advantage to his Irish colony. With some difficulty he established a free commerce between the colony and England; but his efforts to introduce the English laws into Ireland were sternly resisted by his own refractory barons. In 1254 he made a grant of Ireland to his son Edward, with the express condition, that it was not to be separated from the crown of England; and, lest the grant might lead to any such result, he took care to assert his own paramount authority by superseding some of the acts done by his son in virtue of his title of lord of Ireland. It is generally understood that prince Edward visited Ireland in 1255.\*

ne Koylle (Richard of the Wood) and John Butler, who were killed over and above the said knights. It is unknown how many were slain in that conflict, save only that a hundred horses with their saddles and furniture, and a hundred shirts of mail were left. After these things were thus done, O'Connor killed William Oge, the Earle's brother, that was given him before in hostage, because the Earle killed Terlogh O'Bryen."—See *Four Masters*, vol. iii., pp. 408, &c., note.

\* A great many religious houses were founded in Ireland during the reign of Henry III. Among them were, a priory of canons regular at Tuam, by the De Burgos, about 1220; one at Mullingar, in 1227, by Ralph le Petit, bishop of Meath; one at Aughrim, in the county of Galway, by Theobald Butler; also the priories of Ballybeg, in Cork; Athassal and Nenagh, in Tipperary; Enniscorthy, St. Wolstan's, Carrick-on-Suir, and St. John's, in the city of Kilkenny; the Cistercian Abbey of Tracton, in Cork, by Maurice MacCarthy, in 1224; the Dominican convent of Drogheda, by Luke Netterville, archbishop of Armagh, in 1224; the Black Abbey (Dominican) in Kilkenny, by Wm. Marshall, jun., in 1225; the Dominican convent of St. Saviour, Waterford, by the citizens, in 1226; the Dominican convent of St. Mary, in Cork, by Philip Barry, in 1229; the convents of the same order in Mullingar (A. D. 1237), by the family of Nugent; Athenry (1241), by Meyler de Birningham; Cashel (1243), by MacKally, archbishop of

Cashel; Tralee (1243), by lord John FitzThomas; Coleraine (1244), by the MacEvelins; Sligo (1252), by Maurice FitzGerald; St. Mary, Roscommon (1253), by Felim O'Connor; Athy (1257), by the families of Boigeles and Hogans; St. Mary, Trim (1263), by Geoffrey de Geneville; Arklow (1264), by Theobald FitzWalter; Rosbercan, in Kilkenny (1268); Youghal (1268), by the baron of Offaly and Lorrain, in Tipperary (1269), by Walter Burke, earl of Ulster; the Franciscan convents of Youghal (1231), by Maurice FitzGerald; Carrickfergus (1232), by Hugh de Lacy; Kilkenny (1234), by Richard Marshall; St. Francis, in Dublin (1236); Multifarnham, in West Meath (1236), by William Delamer; Cork (1240), by Philip Prendergast; Drogheda (1240), by the Plunkets; Waterford (1240), by Sir Hugh Purcel; Ennis (1240), by Donough Carbreach O'Brien; Athlone (1241), by Cathal O'Connor; Wexford, about the middle of the thirteenth century; Limerick, by Walter de Burgh; Cashel, by William Hackett; Dundalk, by De Verdon; Ardfert (1253), by Thomas, lord of Kerry; Kildare (1260), by De Vesey; Clane (1260), by Gerald FitzMaurice; Armagh (1263), by Scanlan, archbishop of Armagh; Clonmel (1269), by Otho de Granison; Nenagh, by the Butlers; Wicklow, by the O'Byrnes and O'Tooles, and Trim, by the family of Plunket. The Augustinian convent of the Holy Trinity, in Crow-street, Dublin, was founded by the Talbot family in 1259, and that of Tipperary, also in the course of this reign.



## CHAPTER XXIII.

## REIGN OF EDWARD I.

**State of Ireland on the Accession of Edward I.**—Feuds of the Barons.—Exploits of Hugh O'Connor.—Fearful Confusion in Connaught.—Incursion from Scotland, and Retaliation.—Irish Victory of Glendelory.—Horrible Treachery of Thomas De Clare in Thomond.—Contentions of the Clann Murtough in Connaught.—English Policy in the Irish Feuds.—Petition for English Laws.—Characteristic Incidents.—Victories of Carbry O'Melaghlin over the English.—Feuds of the De Burghs and Geraldines.—The Red Earl.—His great Power.—English Laws for Ireland.—Death of O'Melaghlin.—Disputes of De Vescy and FitzGerald of Offaly.—Singular Pleadings before the King.—A Truce between the Geraldines and De Burghs.—The Kilkenny Parliament of 1295.—Continued Tumults in Connaught.—Expeditions against Scotland.—Calvagh O'Connor.—Horrible Massacre of Irish Chieftains at an English Dinner-table.—More Murders.—Rising of the O'Kellys.—Foundation of Religious Houses.

*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—Popes: Gregory X. died 1276; Innocent V. and Adrian V. the same year; John XXI., 1277; Nicholas III., 1281; Martin IV., 1285; Honorius IV., 1287; Nicholas IV., 1292; Celestine V., 1294; Boniface VIII., 1303; and Benedict XI., 1304.—King of France, Philip IV.; Emperor of Germany, Rodolph of Hapsburg (first of the Austrian Family), died 1291.—Kings of Scotland, John Baliol and Robert Bruce.—Llewellyn Killed, and Wales subjected to the Power of England, 1282.—St. Thomas Aquinas and St. Bonaventure died, 1274.—Albertus Magnus died, 1282.—Roger Bacon died, 1284.—Uninterrupted Series of Parliaments Commenced in England, 1293.—William Wallace, the Scottish hero, executed, 1304.

(A. D. 1272 TO A. D. 1307.)

**EDWARD I.**, surnamed Longshanks, was proclaimed king on the death of his father, Henry III., in 1272, while on a crusade in the Holy Land, and until his return to England, in July, 1274, the government was administered by lords justices. The new king's absence gave free scope to strife in Ireland; but in general the movements in this country depended but little on the course of events in England. Just a century had elapsed from the coming of the Anglo-Normans into Ireland, and their power was scarcely acknowledged beyond the limits which it had reached in the days of Strongbow. The resistance to it was, on the contrary, becoming more formidable; and the English suffered numerous defeats on a small scale, which showed how easily a combined action of the Irish might have overthrown their settlement, had these seriously contemplated any thing more than the temporary liberation of their respective territories from the foreign yoke, or the gratification of enmity by some local act of spoliation. The domestic feuds of the Irish were as rife as ever, but the English barons were equally prone to strife; and the op



pression and rapacity of the latter did more than the turbulence of the former, to produce the miserable disorders by which the whole country was laid waste. No attempt was made to reconcile the native race to the new order of things, or to consolidate the two races into one nation. To supplant or exterminate the old Celtic population had all along been the policy of the invaders; and, to effect this object, means more diabolical than human were resorted to: feuds were fomented; under the pretence of crushing rebellion, incessant hostilities were kept up; and by every kind of provocation and injustice, national rancor was perpetrated. Three or four times the English monarch urged the expediency of extending the laws and constitution of England to the Irish; but this attempt was always sternly resisted by the Anglo-Irish oligarchy who ruled the country. The barons found their account in their own lawless and inhuman system of war and rapine.

Hugh O'Connor was at this time the most formidable champion of the Irish cause, and in 1272 he renewed hostilities by demolishing the English castle of Roscommon. He then crossed the Shannon into Meath, where he carried desolation as far as Granard, and on his return burned Athlone, and broke down its bridge. Two years after, this prince, who was son of Felim, son of Cathal Crovderg, died, and another Hugh O'Connor, grandson of Hugh, the brother of Felim, was elected king. His reign was short, for in three months he was

slain by a kinsman in the Dominican church of Roscommon, and another Hugh, son of Cathal Dall, or the blind son of Hugh, son of Cathal Crovderg was chosen his successor. A fortnight after, this prince was slain by Tomaltagh Mageraghty and O'Beirne; and Teige, son of Turlough, son of Hugh, son of Cathal Crovderg, was elected king. Such was the state of anarchy in which the royal succession was at that time involved in Connaught; and it became still more complicated in 1276, when Hugh Muineagh, or the Munster man, an illegitimate and posthumous son of Felim, son of Cathal Crovderg, arrived from Munster, and, by the aid of O'Donnell, assumed the government of Connaught. In the midst of incessant contentions he retained his power until 1280, when he was slain by another branch of the O'Connor family.

Sir James Audley, the lord justice, was, according to Irish accounts, slain by the Connacians, in 1272, although the English say he was killed by a fall from his horse in Thomond. The same year his successor, Maurice FitzMaurice FitzGerald, was betrayed by his followers, and seized in Offaly by the Irish, in whose hands he remained for some time. Lord Walter Geneville, recently returned from the Holy Land, succeeded to the office, and during his administration there was an incursion of the "Scots and Redshanks" from the highlands of Scotland; Richard de Burgo, with Sir Eustace le Poer, retaliating with an Anglo-Irish army, when he



carried fire and sword into the Scottish islands and highlands, and smoked out or suffocated those who had sought refuge in rocks and caverns.

A. D. 1275.—Our annals mention a victory gained this year over the English in Ulidia, “when 200 horses and 200 heads were counted (on the field), besides all who fell of their plebeians;” but this is believed to be identical with a slaughter of the English at Glandelory, now Glanmalure, in Wicklow, which is recorded by Anglo-Irish chroniclers about this time. The same year the Kinel-Connell and the Kinel-Owen wasted each other’s territories by mutual depredations.

A. D. 1277.—One of the blackest episodes of even that dark age of Irish history was enacted about this time in Thomond. Thomas, son of Gilbert de Clare,\* and son-in-law of Maurice Fitz Maurice FitzGerald, obtained from Edward I. a grant of Thomond, or of some considerable portion of it; the deed by which it was secured, by a former English king, to its rightful owners the O’Briens being wholly overlooked on the occasion. De Clare had little chance of asserting his unjust claim against the heroic princes of the Dalgais in the open field, and he had recourse to the favorite English policy of that time. He entered into an intimate alliance with

Brian Roe O’Brien against Turlough, son of Teige Caoluisge O’Brien, another competitor for the crown of Thomond; and the latter having been defeated in battle, he turned suddenly to the side of Turlough, and getting Brian Roe treacherously into his hands, put him to death in a most inhuman manner, causing him, it is said, to be dragged between horses until he died. This atrocity, it is added, was perpetrated at the instance of De Clare’s wife and father-in-law.† He then dispossessed the old inhabitants of that part of Thomond east of the Fergus called Tradry, giving the land to his own followers, and erected the strong castles of Bunratty and Clare. His power was, however, short-lived. The sons of Brian Roe gained a victory over him the following year at Quinn, where several of his people were burned to death in an old Irish church, which was set on fire over their heads. At another time De Clare and FitzGerald were so hard pressed in a pass of Slieve Bloom, as to be compelled to surrender at discretion, after being obliged to subsist some days on horse-flesh. The captives were subsequently liberated on undertaking to make satisfaction for O’Brien’s death and to surrender the castle of Roscommon. The unprincipled earl next (1281) set up Donough, son of the

\* Gilbert de Clare, earl of Gloucester, was one of the lords justices to whom the government of England was intrusted, on the accession of Edward I., then absent on the Crusades.

† The Irish annalists say that De Clare bound himself to Brian Roe O’Brien, by ties of gossipred and vows

of friendship, ratified by the ceremony of mingling their blood together in a vessel. In the remonstrance sent by the Irish chieftains to pope John XXII., this murder was referred to as a striking instance of English treachery



murdered Brian Roe, against Turlough; but two years after his *protégé* was slain by Turlough, who continued in possession in Thomond until his death in 1306.\* De Clare himself was slain by the O'Briens in 1286.

A. D. 1280.—We are again recalled to the dissensions in Connaught, where Hugh Muineach, son of Felim, was slain in the wood of Dangan, by the sept of Murtough Muineach O'Connor, one of whom, Cathal, son of Conor Roe, son of Murtough Muineach,† was inaugurated king. This sept, henceforth called in the annals the Clann Murtough or Muircheartaigh, was excessively contentious, and kept the province in turmoil for many years after.‡

About this time a petition was presented to the English king, from what he calls “the community of Ireland”—most probably from the native Irish dwelling in the vicinity of the English settlements—praying that the privileges of England might be extended to them. Edward, who wished to see that object effected, issued a writ to the lord justice, Ufford, directing him to summon the lords spiritual and temporal of the “Land of Ireland”—as the English territory in this country was then called—to deliberate on the prayer of the peti-

tion. He insultingly describes the Irish or Brehon laws as “hateful to God, and repugnant to all justice;” and, informing the lord justice that the petitioners had offered 8,000 marks for the concession which they demanded, urges him to obtain the best terms he can from them; stipulating in particular that they should hold a certain number of soldiers in readiness to attend him in his wars. The writ does not appear to have been attended to, and no further step seems to have been taken in the matter. The Irish continued to feel the English law only as an instrument of oppression, and were excluded wholly from its privileges—a mode of treatment, as it has been justly remarked, wholly different from that adopted by the Romans in their conquered provinces.

Among the detached occurrences which indicate the character of the times, we find that in 1281 a bloody battle was fought between the Barretts and the Cusacks, at Moyne, near the old church of Kilroe, in the barony of Tirawly in Mayo. William Barrett and Adam Fleming were slain, and O'Boyd and O'Dowda, two Irish chieftains, who helped Adam Cusack to gain the victory, are described as having “excelled all the rest that day in deeds

\* These transactions are related in full in the *Annals of Innisfallen* from the work called *Caithreim Thoirdhealbhaigh*, or the Wars of Turlough O'Brien.

† Murtough Muineach (Muircheartaigh Muimhneach) was son of Turlough More O'Connor, and brother of Roderic.

‡ *Apropos* of the feuds which existed this year in Connaught, between the O'Conors and MacDermots, an incident is related by Hanmer and Ware, highly char-

acteristic of the spirit of English rule in those days. Edward summoned the lord justice, Ufford, to account for his permitting such “shameful enormities,” and the latter pleaded, through Fulburn, bishop of Waterford, whom he had deputed in his stead, “that in policie, he thought it expedient to winke at one knave cutting off another, and that would save the king's coffers and purchase peace to the land; whereat the king smiled and bid him return to Ireland!”



of prowess;" yet the very next year O'Dowda was killed by Adam Cusack. This year is also remarkable for a battle fought at Desertcreaght, in Tyrone, between the Kinel-Connell and the Kinel-Owen, in which the former were defeated, and their chieftain, Donnell Oge O'Donnell, slain; Hugh, his son, being afterwards inaugurated in his stead. The English of Ulster took part with the men of Tyrone. Murrough MacMurrough, whom the annalists style "king of Leinster," and his brother Art, were taken by the English, and put to death at Arklow in 1282; Hugh Boy O'Neill, lord of Kinel-Owen, was slain by Brian MacMahon and the men of Oriel, in 1283; Art O'Melaghlin, the native prince of Meath, who had demolished twenty-seven castles in his wars, died penitently that year; and in the same year a great part of Dublin, and the tower and other parts of Christ Church were burned, the citizens showing their piety by restoring the sacred edifice before they set about rebuilding their own houses after the fire.

A. D. 1285.—Theobald Butler, with some Irish auxiliaries, invaded Delvin MacCoghlan, and was defeated at Lumcloon by Carbry O'Melaghlin; Sir William de la Rochelle and other English knights being among the slain. Butler died soon after at Beerehaven. A large army was then mustered by lord Geoffry Geneville, Theobald Verdon, and others, and they marched into

Offaly, where the Irish had just seized the castle of Ley. The people of Offaly solicited the aid of Carbry O'Melaghlin, and he, with his gallant followers, responded to their call. The Irish army poured down impetuously upon the English, who were overthrown with great slaughter, and according to the English accounts, "Theobald de Verdon lost both his men and horses;" Gerald FitzMaurice also falling into the hands of the Irish the day after the battle, owing it is said, to the treachery of his followers.\* The Anglo-Irish accounts also mention another defeat of the English about the same year, but they add that these losses were followed by some compensating successes the next year.

A. D. 1286.—The country had been for a long period convulsed by the feuds of the two great Anglo-Norman families, the Geraldines and De Burgos; but the death of Maurice FitzMaurice FitzGerald and of his son-in-law, lord Thomas de Clare, which took place this year, turned the scale decidedly in favor of the De Burgos. Richard de Burgo, earl of Ulster, commonly known as the red earl, whose power was so generally recognized, that even in official documents his name took precedence of that of the lord deputy himself, now led his armies through the country almost without meeting any resistance.† In Connaught he plundered several churches and monasteries, and compelled the

\* This incident, it will be observed, is mentioned almost in the same terms as a similar one in 1272.

† The red earl, who fills so prominent a place in our history at this early period, was son of Walter de Burgo



Connacians to accompany him to the north, where he took hostages from the Kinel-Connell and Kinel-Owen, deposing Donnell O'Neill, lord of the latter, and substituting Niall Culanagh O'Neill in his stead. He laid claim to the portion of Meath which Theobald de Verdon held in right of his mother, the daughter of Walter de Lacy, and besieged that nobleman (A. D. 1288) in the castle of Athlone, but with what result we are not informed. In Connaught Cathal O'Connor was deposed by his brother Manus, and the red earl marched against the latter, who had the Geraldines on his side, but the contest was not brought to the issue of a battle.

A. D. 1289.—Carbry O'Melaghlin, who is styled, in the Anglo-Irish chronicles, "king of the Irishry of Meath," gave great trouble to the English authorities at this period; and overrun as his territory was, by the foreign race, retained nevertheless a considerable amount of power. An army, composed of the English of Meath, under Richard Tuite, called the great baron, with Manus O'Connor, king of Connaught, as an auxiliary, marched this year against him, and was defeated in battle; Tuite, with several of his adherents, being slain. The following year, however,

O'Melaghlin—"the most noble-deeded youth in Ireland in his time"—was slain, by his gossip, David MacCoghlan, prince of Delvin; David himself dealing the first blow, which was followed up by wounds from seventeen other members of the MacCoghlan family. The lord of Delvin now in his turn became troublesome, and defeated William Burke, who had marched against him; but in 1292 he was taken prisoner by MacFeorais,\* or Bermingham, and put to death by order of the red earl.

A. D. 1290-1293.—Sir William de Vescy, a Yorkshire man, and a great favorite of king Edward, having been sent over as lord justice, a quarrel appears to have immediately sprung up between him and John FitzThomas FitzGerald, baron of Offaly. To such a height did their mutual animosity rise, that De Vescy charged the baron with being "a supporter of thieves, a bolsterer of the king's enemies, an upholder of traitors, a murderer of subjects, a firebrand of dissention, a rank thief, an arrant traitor," adding, "before I eat these words, I will make thee eat a piece of my blade." FitzThomas retorted in an equally courteous strain; and both parties having appeared before the king with their complaints, maintained their respective causes in the royal presence

first earl of Ulster of that family, son of Richard, who was called the great lord of Connaught, and was the son of William FitzAdelm de Burgo by Isabelle, natural daughter of Richard Cœur-de-lion, and widow of Llewellyn, prince of Wales. Walter had become earl of Ulster in right of his wife, Maud, daughter of the younger Hugh de Lacy. The red earl's grandson, Wil-

liam, who was murdered in 1333, was the third and last of the De Burgo earls of Ulster. The Burkes of Connaught descend from William, the younger brother of Walter, the first earl of Ulster.

\* This name, now pronounced Keorish, was the Irish surname assumed by the Berminghams, from Pierce, or Piarus, son of Meyler Bermingham, their ancestor.



with tirades worthy of Billingsgate; if we may credit the annalist Holinshed, who pretends to record the proceedings with accuracy. FitzThomas concluded his speech with a defiance, saying—"wherefore, to justify that I am a true subject, and that thou, Vescy, art an arch traitor to God and my king, I here, in the presence of his highness, and in the hearing of this honorable assembly, challenge the combat." The council shouted applause; the appeal to single combat was admitted; but when the day, named by the king, had arrived, it was found that De Vescy had fled to France. Edward then bestowed on the baron of Offaly the lordships of Kildare and Rathangan, which had been held by his antagonist, observing, that "although De Vescy had conveyed his person to France, he had left his lands behind him in Ireland."\*

A. D. 1294.—For some years Richard, the red earl, had been riding roughshod over the necks of the people, both within the English territory and outside. He created and deposed the princes of Ulster, plundered Connaught more than once, and was mixed up in various feuds through the country; but the great accession of power which the chief of the Geraldines had acquired, by his triumph over De Vescy, placed an old rival, once more, in a position to

cope with him. FitzThomas seized the earl and his brother, William de Burgo, in Meath, and confined them in the castle of Ley, an event which threw the whole country into commotion; and immediately after, along with MacFeorais, he made an inroad into Connaught, and devastated the country. The following year De Burgo was liberated by the king's order, or, as Grace says, by that of the king's parliament, at Kilkenny; the lord of Offaly, as the same annalist tells us, forfeiting his castles of Sligo and Kildare, and his possessions in Connaught, as a penalty for his aggression.

A. D. 1295.—Sir John Wogan was appointed lord justice, and having, by his wise and conciliatory policy, brought about a truce for two years between the Geraldines and De Burgos, he summoned a parliament which met this year at Kilkenny. The roll of this parliament contains only twenty-seven names, Richard, earl of Ulster, being first on the list; and among the acts passed was one revising king John's division of the country into counties; another provided for a more strict guarding of the marches or boundaries against the Irish; by a third a tax was levied on absentees, to support a military force to defend the colony; and a fourth enacted that private or separate

\* The above mentioned John FitzThomas FitzGerald, baron of Offaly, was the common ancestor of the two great branches of the Geraldines; one of his two sons, John, the eighth lord of Offaly, being created earl of Kildare, and the other, Maurice, earl of Desmond.—See Archdall's *Lodghe's Irish Peerage*, vol. i., 63; also

O'Daly's *Geraldines*, by the Rev. M. Meehan. The lands which were delivered to FitzThomas on this occasion appear to have been the principal subject of dispute between him and De Vescy, who claimed them in right of his wife, an heiress of the Marshal family.



truces should not be made with the Irish, or war waged by the barons, without the license of the lord justice, or the mandate of the king. Other laws restricted the number of retainers whom the barons should keep, and enacted other regulations.\*

All this time Connaught and Ulster continued to be desolated by fearful discord among the Irish themselves; but the narrative would be too monotonous were we to mention each melancholy feud as it is recorded in the faithful pages of our annalists. The whole country was laid waste; neither the property of church nor laymen was spared; and dearth and pestilence stalked through the land. The feuds of the De Burgos and the Geraldines were once more arranged, in 1298, and among the Anglo-Irish peace for a while prevailed.

A. D. 1303.—King Edward's expeditions against Scotland were attended by many of the native Irish, as well as by the principal barons of the Pale, with their troops. The earl of Ulster and John FitzThomas FitzGerald accompanied the lord justice Wogan on the expedition of 1296. It is said that king Edward's army, in 1299, was composed chiefly of Irish and Welsh. They all came in their best array, and were royally feasted at Roxburgh castle. The Irish also mustered very strong on

the expedition of 1303, when the subjugation of Scotland was temporarily effected. Before leaving Ireland on this occasion, the red earl created thirty-three knights in Dublin castle. On his departure for the Scottish wars, lord justice Wogan left as his deputy William de Ross, prior of Kilmainham; but the absence of so many of the leading men invariably gave occasion to insurrectionary movements; and Leland remarks that at this time "the utmost efforts of the chief governor and of the well-affected lords were scarcely sufficient to defend the province of Leinster."

A. D. 1305.—The warlike sept of O'Connor Faly, princes of Offaly, had for some time shown themselves to be among the most dangerous of the "Irish enemies," and the heroic, but hopeless struggle, which they continued to sustain for more than two hundred years after, in their ancestral woods and fastnesses, against the foreign enemy, had begun to occupy a prominent place in the records of the time. Maurice O'Connor Faly, and his brother Calvagh, were now the chiefs of the sept, and the latter in particular was called "the Great Rebel." At one time he defeated the English in a battle in which Meyler de Exeter and several others were slain; at another he took the castle of Kildare, and burned all the records and accounts

\* A statute framed in England, and entitled "an Ordinance for the state of Ireland," was sent over, in 1289, to be acted upon as law in this country; and shortly after (in 1293) it was enacted that the treas-

urer of Ireland should account annually to the exchequer of England—proceedings which show that on one side, at least, the opinion was then held that Ireland might be bound by laws made in England.



relating to the county. In order to get rid of so dangerous a foe, a deed of the blackest treachery was resorted to. The chiefs of Offaly were invited to dinner on Trinity Sunday this year, in the castle of Peter, or Pierce Bermingham, at Carrick-Carbury, in Kildare; the feast proceeded, but at its conclusion, as the guests were rising from the table, every man of them was basely murdered. In this way fell Maurice O'Connor, his brother Calvagh, and in all about thirty chiefs of his clan. Grace says the massacre was perpetrated by Jordan Cumin and his comrades at the court of Peter Bermingham. This Peter was ever after nicknamed the "treacherous baron." He was arraigned before king Edward; but no justice was ever obtained for this most nefarious and treacherous murder.\*

The Anglo-Irish chronicles record several other deeds of blood about the conclusion of this reign, such as the murder of Sir Gilbert Sutton, in the house of Hamon le Gras, or Grace, at Wexford; the murder of O'Brien, of Thomond; the slaying of Donnell, king of Desmond, by his son; the slaughter

of the O'Conors, of Offaly, by the O'Dempseys, near Geashill; the defeat of Pierce Bermingham in Meath, and the burning of the town of Ballymore by the Irish; the narrow escape of the English from defeat in a well-contested battle at Glenfell; and the execution of an English knight, Sir David Canton, or Condon, for the murder of an Irishman, named Murtough Balloch. The O'Kellys, of Hy-Many, rose and took vengeance on Edmund Butler, for the burning of their town of Ahascragh, in the east of the present county of Galway, the English being defeated on this occasion with considerable slaughter.

The coin struck in England in the seventh year of the reign of Edward I. was made current in Ireland; and in a few years after, the base money called crockards and pollards was condemned by proclamation.

The events in our church history during this reign are not very important.† The Four Masters and the Annals of Ulster mention the discovery of the relics of SS. Patrick, Bridget, and Columbkille, at Sabhall, or Saul, in

\* In the Harleian MS., which contains the contemporary Anglo-Irish song, on the walling of New Ross, already referred to, there is preserved an old ballad celebrating the praises of the above-named Pierce Bermingham, as a famous "hunter of the Irish;" he was killed in 1308, in battle with the Irish.

† Amongst the religious houses founded in Ireland, in the course of the first Edward's reign, were the Dominican convent of Kilmallock, founded by Gilbert, son of John FitzThomas, lord of Offaly, in 1291; that of Derry, by Donnell Oge O'Donnell, in 1274; and that of Rathbran, in Mayo, the same year, by Sir William de Burgo; the Franciscan convent of Clare-Galway, by John de Cogan, in 1290; that of Buttevant, the same year, by David Oge Barry; that of Galway by Sir

William de Burgo, in 1296; and those of Galbally, in Limerick, by the O'Briens; Killeigh, in the King's county, by the O'Conors Faly; and Ross, in Wexford, by Sir John Devereux; the Augustinian convents of the Red Abbey in Cork; Limerick (by the O'Briens) Drogheda; Clonmines, in Wexford (by the Kavanaghs); and Dungarvan, by FitzThomas, of Offaly; and finally the Carmelite convents of Dublin (Whitefriar-street), by Sir Richard Bagot; Ardee, by Ralph Peppard; Drogheda, by the inhabitants of the town; Galway, by the De Burgos; Rathmullin, in Donegal; Castle Lyons, in Cork, by the Barrys; Kildare, by De Vesey, in 1290; and Thurles, by the Butler family, about the close of the thirteenth century.



Down, by Nicholas MacMaelisa, archbishop of Armagh, in 1293; whence it is clear that our native annalists either had not heard of, or did not believe, the statement which has already been noticed on the authority of Cambrensis, of the discovery of these relics in the cathedral of Down, in the year 1185.

## CHAPTER XXIV.

### REIGN OF EDWARD II.

**Piers Gaveston in Ireland.**—Fresh Wars in Connaught—the Clann Murtough.—Civil Broils in Thomond.—Feud of De Clare and De Burgo.—Growth of National Feelings.—Invitation to King Robert Bruce.—Memorial of the Irish Princes to Pope John XXII.—The Pope's Letter to the English king.—The Scottish Expedition to Ireland.—Landing of Edward Bruce.—First Exploits of the Scottish Army.—Proceedings of Felim and Rory O'Connor.—Disastrous War in Connaught.—The Battle of Athenry.—Siege of Carrickfergus.—General Rising of the Irish.—Campaign of 1317.—Arrival of Robert Bruce.—Arrest of the Earl of Ulster.—Consternation in Dublin.—The Scots at Castleknock.—Their March to the South.—Their Retreat from Limerick.—Effects of the Famine.—Retreat of the Scots to Ulster.—Robert Bruce Returns to Scotland.—Liberation of the earl of Ulster.—Battle of Faughard, and Death of Edward Bruce.—National Prejudices.

*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—Pope John XXII.—Kings of France: Louis X., Philip V., and Charles IV.—King of Scotland, Robert Bruce.—Suppression of the Knights Templars, 1312.—William Tell flourished, and Switzerland became Independent, 1315.—Dante died, 1321.

(A. D. 1307 TO A. D. 1327.)

**I**NDIGNANT at the honors conferred by Edward II. on his favorite, Piers Gaveston, who was recalled from banishment by that weak-minded prince on his accession to the throne, the barons loudly expressed their anger and disgust; and parliament demanded, in a peremptory tone, the expulsion of the royal minion. Edward made a show of compliance, but it was soon discovered that the place he had selected for his favorite's exile was Ireland, where, in 1308, he invested him with the dignity of lord lieutenant, accompanying him on his journey as far as Bristol. Notwithstanding his vices, Gaveston possessed some of the qualities of a good soldier. In the lists he had shown himself a match for any knight in England, and in his Irish office he displayed no small amount of energy. He led an army against the O'Dempseys of Clanmalier, in Leinster, and killed their chief, Dermot, at Tullow. He next defeated



the O'Byrnes, of Wicklow, and opened a road between castle Kevin and Glendalough, in that territory. He also rebuilt some castles which the Irish had demolished; but his career in this country was brief. Twelve months after his arrival he was recalled to England by his royal master, and three years later was taken prisoner by the barons, at Scarborough castle, and with their sanction beheaded by the earl of Warwick.\*

A. D. 1309.—Connaught still continued to be torn by discord. Hugh, son of Owen, of the race of Cathal Crovderg, was slain this year by Hugh O'Connor, surnamed Breifneach, one of the restless and ambitious Clann Murtough, and a fresh war arose for the succession. MacWilliam, as the head of the Burkes of Connaught, espoused the cause of the Cathal Crovderg branch. A conference was held near Elphin between him and Rory, Hugh Breifneach's brother, who had assumed the title of king of Connaught; but, as often happened on these occasions, the conference was converted into a battle, and Rory being defeated, was driven beyond the Curliu

mountains. Next year Hugh Breifneach was treacherously killed by one Johnnock MacQuillan, who was on bonaght with him, and was hired by MacWilliam Burke to commit the murder; but MacQuillan himself was slain the following year at Ballintubber with the same axe which he had used in killing the Clann Murtough prince. Felim, son of Hugh, son of Owen O'Connor, of the race of Cathal Crovderg, was now, by the influence of his foster-father, Mulrony MacDermot, chief of Moylurg, inaugurated king of Connaught while still almost in his boyhood; and was, for several years, maintained in his authority by that clan.

Sir John Wogan being re-appointed lord justice for the third time, summoned a parliament, which met this year (1309) at Kilkenny. Some stringent laws were here made to repress robbery, particularly that committed by persons of noble birth, and their retainers; forestalling was prohibited; and it is supposed that the law by which Irish monks were excluded from religious houses within the English pale, was repealed on this occasion.†

\* Piers Gaveston, though of humble birth, was married to a niece of the king's, that is, to a sister of De Clare, earl of Gloucester. De Clare's second wife was a daughter of the earl of Ulster; and De Clare's daughter, by a former marriage, was married to the earl of Ulster's son. Notwithstanding these alliances, Gaveston was despised and hated by the haughty Anglo-Irish barons; and the earl of Ulster, in order to despise him, kept up a kind of royal state at Trim.—See *Grace's Annals*.

† *Grace's Annals*, p. 56, note *k*. The principle of excluding those of the hostile race, was acted upon in the religious establishments of both Irish and English; but in the former it evinced no little courage on the part of

the defenceless monks. "In the abbey of Mellifont," says Cox, quoting from a record in the Tower of London, "a regulation was made in 1322 that no person should be admitted into that house until he had made oath that he was not of English descent." Dr. Kelly (*Camb. Ever.*, ii., p. 543, note) says, "In 1250, Innocent IV. addressed a letter to the archbishop of Dublin and the bishop of Ossory, complaining that Irish bishops excluded all Anglo-Irish from canonries in their churches: he ordered them to rescind that rule one month after the receipt of his letter, on the Christian principle that the sanctuary of God should not be held by hereditary right. This principle, however, became



A scarcity prevailed the following year, when a crannoc, or bushel, of wheat sold for 20s., and the bakers were dragged on hurdles through the streets for using false weights.

A. D. 1311.—Civil broils raged in Thomond between the MacNamaras and O'Briens, the former being defeated; and subsequently the chieftain Donough O'Brien was treacherously slain by Murrough, son of Mahon O'Brien; but these feuds were thrown into the shade by those which prevailed in the same province between De Clare and William de Burgo, the latter and John FitzWalter Lacy being made prisoners at Bunratty by De Clare.\* The lord justice was defeated in attempting to put down a revolt of Sir Robert Verdon; and the O'Byrnes and O'Tooles of Wicklow menaced the walls of Dublin.

A. D. 1315.—We have arrived at an epoch in our history, memorable not only for the importance of its events, but for the dawn of an intelligible national feeling among the Irish princes, and for the first movement which merits

the name of a patriotic effort to shake off the English yoke. The Scots had just set a noble example by their successful struggle for national independence. By their glorious victory at Bannockburn, on June 25th, 1314, they had effectually rid their country of English bondage. A strong sympathy had been excited in the north of Ireland for their cause. In the early days of his struggle (1306), Robert Bruce, the now triumphant king of Scotland, had found shelter and succor in the island of Rathlin, on the Irish coast. Some of the Ulster chieftains subsequently joined in an expedition in his aid; but their attempt was abortive, for on landing in Scotland, they were encountered by the English army, and almost all cut to pieces. The summons of the English king, when mustering an army against Scotland, in this war, was not responded to by the native Irish; and when the Scots were triumphant, the Irish of the northern province lost no time in appealing to them, as a kindred people, to help them in ridding themselves of the same foreign thralldom, and proposed

the exception in Ireland, in all churches and religious houses under the English power, down to the Reformation; the contrary principle was enacted as the rule by the statute of Kilkenny (of A. D. 1367), which excluded all Irish from English churches and religious houses, unless they had been qualified by a royal letter of denizenship. The effect of this law was to exclude the Irish not only from almost all the houses founded by the Anglo-Irish, but from a very great number founded by themselves, which had fallen under the English power. A few years (1515) before Luther began to preach his opinions, Leo X. issued a bull confirming the exclusion of the native Irish, even though qualified by a royal letter, from St. Patrick's Cathedral, Dublin; and on the same principle, a few years before, Dean

Allen bequeathed charities to the poor, provided they were Anglo-Irish.

\* Connell Mageoghegan, who translated the *Annals of Clonmacnoise* in 1627, appends to the record of the last event mentioned above, the following note:—"This much I gather out of this historian, whom I take to be an authentic and worthy prelate of the church, that would tell nothing but truth, that there reigned more dissensions, strife, wars, and debates, between the English themselves in the beginning of the conquest of this kingdom, than between the Irishmen, as by perusing the wars between the Lacies of Meath, John Courcey, earle of Ulster, William Marshall, and the English of Meath and Munster, MacGerald, the Burkes, Butler and Cogan, may appear."



to Robert Bruce to make his brother, Edward, king of Ireland.

About this time Donnell O'Neill, king of Ulster, with other Irish princes of that province, acting in the name of the Irish in general, addressed a memorial, or remonstrance, to the sovereign pontiff, John XXII., setting forth the grievances which their country suffered under the English yoke.\* This interesting document glances at the early history of Ireland, to show the right of the Irish to national independence; it then refers to the false statements by which his Holiness's predecessor, Adrian IV., had been induced to transfer the sovereignty of their country to Henry II.; it points out how utterly unworthy that impious king was of the confidence which pope Adrian had reposed in him—how he had perverted the papal grant to his own unjust purposes; how he and his successors had violated the conditions under which his entrance into the kingdom of Ireland had been sanctioned; how the church of Ireland had been plundered by the English, the church lands confiscated, and the persons of the clergy as little respected as their property; how vices had been imported, and the Irish, instead of being reformed, deprived of their primitive candor and simplicity; how the protection of the English laws was denied to them, so that when an Englishman murdered an Irishman, as

frequently happened, his crime was not punishable before an English tribunal; and how the English clergy treated them with shameful injustice by refusing to Irish religious admission even into the monastic institutions which had been founded and endowed by their Irish ancestors. The memorial enumerates some of the atrocities of the English in Ireland, such as the treacherous massacre of the chiefs of Offaly at the dinner-table of Pierce Bermingham, and the murder of Brian Roe O'Brien by Thomas de Clare: and it proceeds:—"Let no person, then, wonder if we endeavor to preserve our lives and defend our liberties, as best we can, against those cruel tyrants, usurpers of our just properties, and murderers of our persons. So far from thinking it unlawful, we hold it to be a meritorious act; nor can we be accused of perjury or rebellion, since neither our fathers nor we did at any time bind ourselves, by any oath of allegiance, to their fathers or to them; wherefore, without the least remorse of conscience, while breath remains, we shall attack them in defence of our just rights, and never lay down our arms until we force them to desist." In conclusion, the Irish princes inform his Holiness, "that in order to attain their object the more speedily and surely, they had invited the gallant Edward Bruce, to whom, being descended from their most noble ancestors,

\* This memorial would appear to have been written during the period of Bruce's invasion, and after the pope had been induced by the English government to con-

demn the proceedings of the Scots. It makes no allusion to this condemnation, but adopts a dignified tone of justification.



they had transferred, as they justly might, their own right of royal dominion."\*

Moved by the representations contained in this memorial, pope John addressed, a few years later, a strong letter to Edward III., in which, referring to the bull granted by pope Adrian to Henry II., his Holiness says, that "to the object of that bull neither Henry nor his successors paid any regard, but that, passing the bounds that had been prescribed to them, they had heaped upon the Irish the most unheard of miseries and persecution, and had, during a long period, imposed on them a yoke of slavery which could not be borne." His Holiness earnestly urges the English king to adopt a different policy; to reform as speedily as possible, and in a suitable manner, the evils under which the Irish labored, and to remove their just causes of complaint, "lest it might be too late hereafter to apply a remedy, when the spirit of revolt has grown stronger."†

Robert Bruce received with avidity the invitation of the Irish, as it promised a favorable field for the military energy and ambition of his brother, Edward, who had already begun to demand a share in the sovereignty of Scotland. An expedition to Ireland was, therefore, prepared as soon as circumstances would permit, and on the 26th of May,

1315, Edward Bruce, who was styled earl of Carrick, arrived off the coast of Antrim with a fleet of 300 sail, from which an army of 6,000 men was disembarked at Larne—or as some say, at the mouth of the Glendun river, in the county of Antrim. He was accompanied by the earl of Moray, John Monteith, John Stewart, John Campbell, Thomas Randolph, son of the earl of Moray, Fergus of Ardossan, John de Bosco, &c. This event filled the country with excitement and consternation. The Irish flocked in great numbers to Bruce's standard, and the Anglo-Irish of Ulster were quickly defeated in several encounters. There is great confusion in the accounts given of the first exploits of Edward Bruce in Ireland apparently not arising from intentional misstatement, but from a transposition in the order of events by some of the old chroniclers. It would appear that Dundalk, Ardee, and some other places in Oriel were taken and destroyed in rapid succession by the invaders, and that the church of the Carmelite friary of Ardee was burned, with a number of the Anglo-Irish who had sought refuge in it. The red earl raised a powerful army, chiefly in Connaught, and marched against Bruce; and on meeting the lord justice, Sir Edmund Butler, with a Leinster army, also proceeding against the Scots, he told him rather haughtily

\* The original Latin of this memorial is preserved by Fordun.

Translations of the memorial will be found in *Plowden's Historical Review*, *Charles O'Connor's Suppressed Me-*

*moirs*, *Taafe's History*, and the *Abbé Mageoghegan*, p. 323. Duffy's Edition.

† See this letter of pope John's in *O'Sullivan's Hist Cath. Hib.*, p. 70, Dublin, 1850.



that he would take the work upon himself, which, as earl of Ulster, he conceived it to be his duty to do, and would deliver Edward Bruce, dead or alive, into the hands of the justiciary. The two Anglo-Irish armies, nevertheless, formed a junction somewhere near Dundalk. Previous to this, as it would appear from some accounts, Bruce was induced by O'Neill to march northward, and to cross the Bann at Coleraine, breaking down the bridge after him; but this move, whether made at this time or subsequently, was found to have been a wrong one, and the Scottish army was afterwards ferried across the river at a more southerly point, by one Thomas of Down, who employed four small vessels for the purpose. According to an Irish authority,\* the earl of Ulster's army marched on one side of the Bann, and the Scottish army on the other, so that the archers on both sides could exchange shots; and soon after the Scots had been ferried over the river, as just mentioned, the English army, weakened by the defection of Felim, the king of Connaught, who had hitherto acted as an auxiliary to the red earl, was routed near Connor, and William de Burgo, the earl's brother, with several of the English knights, taken prisoners. This battle, according to Grace, was fought on the 10th of September, and Dundalk had been captured on SS. Peter and Paul's day, the 29th

of June. After the battle of Connor, the red earl fled to Connaught, where he remained for that year without a vestige of an army; and a portion of the defeated English made their way to Carrickfergus, where some of them entered the castle, and bravely defended it against the Scots. Edward Bruce, who had already caused himself to be proclaimed king of Ireland, left some men to carry on the siege of Carrickfergus, and marched with the main body of his small army towards the south.†

A. D. 1316.—We are now compelled to follow our annalists into Connaught, where events most disastrous to the Irish cause were taking place. Felim O'Connor having, as we have seen, accompanied the red earl of Ulster, had entered into correspondence with Edward Bruce, and consented to hold from him his kingdom of Connaught; but in the meantime, Rory, son of Cathal Roe O'Connor, head of the Clann Murtough, had taken up arms and kindled the flames of war throughout Connaught. He destroyed some English castles in Roscommon, and sent off emissaries to Bruce, who had already come to an understanding with Felim, and who now authorized Rory to carry on war against the English, but not to meddle with Felim's lands. Rory little heeded this injunction; and Felim found a sufficient excuse to return home

\* Annals of Clonmacnoise.

† See the accounts of these transactions from Mageoghegan's translation of the Annals of Clonmacnoise, in

*Four Masters*, vol. iii., pp. 504, &c., note; also *Grace's Annals*, pp. 63, &c.



to defend his territory against the depredations of the Clann Murtough chief. A series of sanguinary conflicts took place between them. Several chiefs fell on both sides; and great cattle spoils were lost and won. Even Felim's foster-father, Mulrony MacDermot, turned for a while to Rory's side, ashamed at seeing himself one of a crowd of crest-fallen chieftains at the house of the red earl, who had just returned from his defeat at Connor. The result was still doubtful, when Felim, early in the present year (1316), mustered a numerous army, composed partly of Englishmen under Bermingham, and penetrated, in pursuit of Rory, through the bogs in the north-east of the present county of Galway, by the causeway then called Togher-mona-Connee. Rory, who had been watching his movements from the summit of a hill, here gave him battle, but was slain, and his army routed with terrible slaughter.

Felim having thus disposed of his rival, lost no time in fulfilling his engagement to Bruce and turned his arms against the English. He burned the town of Ballyhan, in the east of Mayo, and slew De Exeter and De Cogan. Co-operating with the chiefs of all the

west of Ireland, including the O'Briens of Thomond, he mustered a numerous army, with which he marched to Athenry, where a large and well-armed Anglo-Irish force under William de Burgo and Richard Bermingham, lord of the town, was entrenched. A fierce and desperate battle ensued. The coats of mail and the skill of the crossbow-men gave the English a great superiority; but the Irish, whose best soldiers were the Galloglasses,\* fought with unflinching bravery, and by their own accounts lost that day 11,000 men, among whom was their gallant and youthful king, Felim, then only in his twenty-third year. Cox says that 8,000 of the Irish were slain. Some of the ancient families of Connaught were almost exterminated, so great was the slaughter of the native Irish gentry and it was said that no man of the O'Conors was left in all Connaught capable of bearing arms except Felim's brother. This battle was fought on St. Laurence's day, the 10th of August, and was the most sanguinary that had taken place since the Anglo-Norman invasion. In it the chivalry of Connaught was crushed, and irretrievable injury inflicted on the Irish cause.†

The Scots seem to have wasted the

\* The Galloglasses (Gall-òglach), who were the heavy-armed foot soldiers of the Irish, wore an iron head piece and a coat of defence stuck with iron nails, and the weapons they carried were a long sword and a broad keen-edged axe. The Kerns, or Keherns, were the light-armed infantry, who fought with darts or javelins, and also carried swords and knives.—*Harris' Ware*, vol. ii. p. 161. Dr. O'Connor, in his suppressed work,

*Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Charles O'Connor of Belanagaer*, observes that the English were, at the battle of Athenry, well armed and drawn up in regular systematic array, and that the Irish fought without armor.

† A story is told of a young man of the Anglo-Irish of Athenry, named Hussey, who is called by Grace a butcher, going out after the battle to search for the body of



remainder of the year 1315 in a fruitless siege of Carrickfergus castle; but on receiving a reinforcement of 500 men, on St. Nicholas' day (December 6th), Bruce set out on his march to the south. His route was apparently by the north of Meath, through Nobber and Kells to Finnagh in West Meath, thence to Granard in Longford, and Lough Seudy, where he spent Christmas. Thence he passed through West Meath and part of the King's county into Kildare, to Rathangan, Castledermot, Athy, Rheban, and Arscoll, where he was opposed by Edmond Butler, the justiciary, whom he defeated. He then returned towards Ulster, burning in his way the castle of Ley, and passing through Geashill and Fowre to Kells, his army spreading desolation along its route.\* At the last-named town, Sir Roger Mortimer met him with an army of 15,000 men, which was put shamefully to flight; the defeat being attributed by the English to the defection of some of their men, especially the De Lacys. Mortimer fled to Dublin, and others made their escape to Trim; and in the mean time, the Irish everywhere rose in arms. In the heart of the English territory the O'Tooles and O'Byrnes burnt Arklow, Newcastle, and Bray; and the O'Mores rose in Leix, where, however, they were soon after defeated

with great slaughter by Edmond Butler. The Anglo-Irish barons were at length thoroughly aroused to the danger of their position, and gathering round Lord John Hotham, who was deputed specially to them on the occasion by the king of England, they agreed to forego their private quarrels and to act together for the defence of the realm. Famine had at this time begun to ravage the country, and the Scots felt it severely. Edward Bruce retired into Ulster, where he exercised all the authority of a king, holding parliaments, deciding causes, and levying supplies, without any attempt on the part of the English to disturb him.

As summer advanced, Edward Bruce made his appearance once more before Carrickfergus, where Thomas Mandeville had succeeded in throwing in reinforcements, and the garrison had been thus enabled constantly to annoy the Scots in the neighborhood. The siege was prolonged until September, when king Robert Bruce, finding that his brother was not making the progress which he had expected in Ireland, came over himself; and the operations of the besiegers being conducted with fresh energy, the garrison at length surrendered on honorable terms, having been, in the course of the siege, so hard pressed by hunger, that they ate hides and fed

O'Kelly, the chief of Hy-Many, and of his meeting that chieftain still alive, and killing him under very improbable circumstances. It is added that he brought O'Kelly's head to Bermingham, who knighted Hussey on the spot, and that the latter subsequently obtained the lands

of Galtrim, of which his family became barons. Richard Bermingham was created baron of Athenry for his services that day, and the walls of the town were rebuilt out of part of the spoils of the Irish.

\* Grace's Annals, p. 67, note u.



on the bodies of eight Scots whom they had made prisoners. The remainder of

316 was consumed in desultory efforts, in which the English gained some advantages against the Irish in the centre and the west, and in one instance against the Scots, of whom John Logan and Hugh Bisset slew 300 in Ulster, on the 1st of November.

A. D. 1317.—All parties prepared to put forth their utmost strength at the commencement of the year. The Scottish army in Ireland at this time was computed at 20,000 men, besides an irregular force of Irish; and with this army king Robert Bruce and his brother crossed the Boyne, at Slane, after Shrovetide. They marched to Castleknock, near Dublin, on the 24th of February, and took Hugh Tyrrel, the lord of that fortress, prisoner, making the castle their own quarters. All was consternation in Dublin. The Anglo-Irish distrusted each other. About two months before this, the De Lacys, having been charged with treasonably aiding the Scots, called for an investigation, in which they were acquitted, and they then gave the most solemn pledges of their fidelity; yet now they were actually under Bruce's standard. Richard, earl of Ulster, who was far advanced in years, and had lost all his former energy, was also suspected by

the English. His daughter, Elizabeth—or, as some say, his sister—was married to Robert Bruce in 1302, and this connection naturally gave ground for suspicion against him. When the Scots were approaching Dublin, the earl, who was living retired in St. Mary's Abbey, was suddenly arrested by the mayor, Robert de Nottingham, and confined in Dublin castle; seven of his servants being killed in the fray at his arrest, and the abbey pillaged by the soldiery and partly burned down. The citizens, led on by the mayor, acted with a frantic spirit, which may be called intrepidity or desperation. To prepare for the expected siege, they burned the suburbs, and among the rest Thomas-street, with the priory of St. John the Baptist, which stood there; and the populace plundered the monastery of St. Mary, and St. Patrick's church, which were outside the city. They went so far as to demolish the church of St. Saviour, on the north side of the river, and to use the materials in constructing an outer wall close by the river side, along the present line of Merchant's-quay and the Wood-quay, which were then in the suburbs.\*

Robert Bruce, learning that Dublin was strongly fortified, and judging of the determination of the citizens from the flames of the burning suburbs,

\* Before this time, the town-walls were carried by St. Owen's, or Audoen's, church, along the brow of the high ground, some 400 feet from the river. The mayor and citizens were afterwards compelled to restore the church of St. Saviour; but they received aid from public sources to repair the losses by the burning of the sub-

urbs, and were forgiven half their fee-farm rent. They were also pardoned for the depredations which they committed in so urgent a necessity. It has been said that the existence of the English government in Ireland depended upon the fate of Dublin on this occasion.



which he witnessed from a distance, thought it better not to risk the delay of a siege, to carry on which effectually, a considerable army, and shipping to cut off supplies by water, would have been required. He therefore marched towards the Salmon Leap, on the Liffey, a locality which had been famous in the Danish wars, and having encamped there four days, he led his forces to Naas, and in succession to Tristle Dermot (castle Dermot), Gowran, and Callan, reaching the last-named place about the 12th of March. He burnt the towns and plundered the churches along the line of march, and the English chroniclers say that even the tombs were opened by the Scots, in search of treasure. An Ulster army of 2,000 men offered their services to the English authorities; but when the king's banner was given to them, they did more harm, says Grace, than all the Scots together, burning and destroying wherever they came. Bruce proceeded as far as Limerick without meeting any opposition; but learning that active preparations were making in his rear—Murtough O'Brien, say the Annals of Innisfallen, having joined the English\*—he retreated by night from castle Connell, and on Palm Sunday (March 27th) was at Kells, in Ossory. Thence he marched to Cashel and Nenagh, laying waste, with fire and sword, the English settle-

ments as he passed. All this time his army was sorely pressed by famine; and to this cause, and his efforts to procure food, may be attributed some of his marches, which it would be otherwise hard to account for.† On the 30th of March (Holy Thursday), a well-equipped Anglo-Irish army, mustering 30,000 men, marched against Bruce. Thomas FitzGerald, earl of Kildare, Richard de Clare, Arnold Power (Le Poer), baron of Donnoil (Dunhill, in Waterford), Maurice Rochfort, Thomas FitzMaurice, and the Cantetons, took the field with their numerous followers on the occasion: yet this powerful force hung round the camp of the half-starved and diminished Scottish army without daring to attack them, such was the dread with which Bruce's name inspired them. Sir Roger Mortimer returned from England, as justiciary, and a council was held at Kilkenny, to deliberate on their position, but no determination was arrived at. Messengers were despatched to explain to the king the desperate state of affairs in Ireland; and in the mean time, the English having moved towards Naas, Bruce marched to Kildare, and from thence, in the month after Easter, to a wood four miles from Trim, where he halted for seven days to refresh his men, exhausted by hunger and fatigue. On the 1st of May the Scots retired to Ulster; and Robert

\* Donough O'Brien, chief of Thomond, who died in 1317, was on the side of Bruce.

† To this period may be referred an incident related in illustration of the humanity of Robert Bruce. It is said that "while retreating, in circumstances of great

difficulty, he halted the army on hearing the cries of a poor lavandiere, who had been seized with labor, commanding a tent to be pitched for her, and taking measures for her to pursue her journey when she was able to travel.—Tytler, *Hist. of Scotland*, vol. ii.



Bruce, who saw that nature itself was against him, and that the Irish were not organized to give the support which he expected, returned to Scotland with earl Moray, leaving behind his brother Edward, who was resolved to maintain his position as king of Ireland.

Famine and pestilence at this time devastated both England and Ireland. Many of the rich were reduced to penury, and great numbers of persons perished of hunger. Mothers, it was said, were known to devour their own children. People stole the children of others to eat them. Prisoners in jails killed and ate new comers sent in among them; and dead bodies were taken from the grave to be used for food.\*

An order was received from the king of England for the liberation of the earl of Ulster, but several months elapsed and the question had to be debated in a parliament held at Kilmainham, before the order was complied with, the earl giving pledges that he would not revenge himself on the citizens of Dublin. The retirement of the Scots to Ulster, and Robert Bruce's return to Scotland, having relieved the English from their chief source of alarm, the justiciary directed his efforts against the Irish

septs, who had risen in arms in different parts of the country, and against whom he was, in general, successful. The O'Farrells, O'Tooles, O'Byrnes, and the Irish of Hy-Kinsellagh were subdued for the time; and in the course of this year some sanguinary battles were fought in Connaught between the rival parties of the O'Conor family. The De Lacys were summoned to appear before the lord justice: and on their refusal, lord Hugh de Custes, or Crofts, was sent to them, but they put the envoy to death. Mortimer then plundered their lands, and they fled, some to Connaught, and others to Bruce, in Ulster. One of them, John de Lacy, who had fallen into the hands of the justiciary, was sentenced to be pressed to death. Two cardinals arrived from Rome in England to bring about a peace between the Scots and English, but their efforts were ineffectual.

A. D. 1318.—Roger Mortimer again returned to England, leaving his debts unpaid, and Alexander Bicknor, archbishop of Dublin, was appointed justiciary in his stead. A good harvest relieved the country from famine, and the hostile armies were once more able to take the field. Edward Bruce had

\* "The pestilential period of the fourteenth century," says Dr. Wilde, "was, both in duration and intensity, the most remarkably calamitous in these annals. It dates from 1315, and lasted almost without interruption for 85 years. It commenced with the foreign invasion of the Scots, under Edward Bruce, at a time when the country was laboring under the double scourge of famine and partial civil war, and its effects were to increase the one and to render the other general. Epizootics succeeded, followed by small-pox; then

dearth again, with unusual severity of the seasons, and intense frosts, accompanied by the first appearance of influenza, and an outbreak of the Barking Mania. Subsequently appeared the Black Death, the King's Game, and the Third Pestilence, portions of the five general and fatal epidemics which commenced in the reign of Edward III., and the Fourth and Fifth Pestilences in the beginning of the reign of Richard II."—*Census of Ireland for 1851. Table of deaths.* See also Butler's note to *Grace's Annals*. An. 1317.



at this time, according to some accounts, an effective force of three thousand men. Scottish historians say he had only two thousand besides an irregular force of Irish; and those who make his army considerably more numerous, include, no doubt, his Irish auxiliaries. He marched southwards as far as Dundalk, and encamped at the hill of Faughard, within two miles of that town. Under his banner were Philip lord Mowbray, Walter lord de Soulis, Alan lord Stewart, the three De Lacys, &c. The English army which marched from Dublin to encounter this force was commanded by lord John Bermingham. Its numbers are variously stated, but they were probably much larger than that of Bruce's effective men. The memorable battle which ensued, and which resulted in the death of the gallant Bruce and the overthrow of his army, was fought at Faughard, on the 14th of October. John Maupas, an Anglo-Irish knight, convinced that the fate of the day depended on the life of Bruce, rushed into the thick of the enemy, and, engaging with Edward Bruce, slew him; his own body, covered with wounds, being afterwards found lying on that of the Scottish chief.\* This feat deter-

mined the victory at the very outset, and Bermingham, causing the body of Bruce to be cut in pieces, sent the head, or, as some say, carried it himself, to Edward II., and other portions to be exhibited in different parts of the country. How unlike the chivalrous courtesy exhibited by king Robert Bruce to his conquered enemies at Bannockburn! Scottish historians say the body of Gib Harper was mistaken for that of Edward Bruce, and that the remains of the latter are interred in Faughard churchyard, where the peasantry point out his grave; but the other story is more probable; and Bermingham, as a reward for Bruce's head, obtained the earldom of Louth and the manor of Ardee. From the terms in which the death of Bruce is recorded by the Irish annalists, it is evident that their sympathies were not with him. They erroneously attribute to the Scottish invasion the famine and its consequences, although these calamities were at the time universal; and the old Scottish chroniclers throw, on their part, so much blame on the Irish as to show that national prejudices and selfish views existed on both sides.†

Bruce's invasion failed in its object,

\* The circumstance is differently related by Lodge, who says, "Sir John Bermingham, encamping about half a mile from the enemy, Roger de Maupas, a burgess of Dundalk, disguised himself in a fool's dress, and in that character entering their camp, killed Bruce by striking out his brains with a plummet of lead; he was instantly cut to pieces and his body found stretched over that of Bruce, but for this service his heir was rewarded with 40 marks a year."—*Archdall's Lodge*, vol. iii., p. 33.

† The Four Masters record the death of Bruce in the following terms:—"Edward Bruce, the destroyer of the

people of Ireland in general, both English and Irish, was slain by the English through dint of battle and bravery, at Dundalk, where also MacRory, lord of the Inse-Gall (Hebrides), MacDonnell, lord of Argyle, and many others of the chiefs of Scotland were slain; and no achievement had been performed in Ireland for a long time before from which greater benefit had accrued to the country than from this; for during the three years and a-half that this Edward spent in it, a universal famine prevailed to such a degree that men were wont to devour one another."



and the gleam of hope which had shone forth for a while rendered the darkness that followed more disheartening; but the Irish were far from being subdued. They seemed, on the contrary, to have acquired a confidence in their own strength which they had not before. Feuds prevailed among conflicting sections of the English, as well as of the Irish. The former suffered some serious defeats in Breffny, Ely O'Carroll, Offaly, and Thomond. In Connaught, after many vicissitudes and great waste of human life, Turlough O'Connor, of the race of Cathal Crovderg, succeeded, in 1324, in establishing his right as king. Richard de Burgo, the famous red earl, died in 1326. In England, the wretched Edward II., after a long war with his rebellious barons—who in the end were

leagued with his profligate queen and her paramour, Roger Mortimer—was finally most cruelly murdered, in 1327.

It was a period when men's minds were unsettled, and their manners demoralized; and for the first time heresy appears to have made some inroads in Ireland. One Adam Duff, a Leinster man, was, in 1327, convicted of professing certain blasphemous and anti-christian doctrines, and being handed over to the civil tribunal, was sentenced to be burned on Hogges'-green, now College-green, in Dublin. About the same time, some persons taught heretical opinions in the diocese of Ossory, where they gained over the seneschal of Kilkenny, and other official persons; but their doctrines did not spread among the people, and soon disappeared.\*

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\* Great commotion was excited among the Anglo-Irish in 1325, by the prosecution of a respectable woman, named Alice Kyteler, for witchcraft, in Kilkenny. She had married four husbands, and the last of these, with some of her children by former husbands, were her chief accusers. She had accumulated enormous wealth, all of which was conferred on her favorite son, Robert Outlawe; and by the aid of powerful friends, among whom were some of the civil authorities, she managed to escape to England. One of her accomplices, named Petronilla, of Meath, who confessed her participation in several acts of foul and impious superstition, was, in compliance with the ideas of the age, burnt as a sorceress. See *Grace's Annals*; also a *Contemporary Narrative*, edited for the Camden Society, by Thomas Wright, 1843.

A university was founded in Dublin, in 1320, by archbishop Bicknor, by the authority of a bull of pope Clement V., dated 1310; but the circumstances of the times and the want of funds prevented its success. Some vestiges of it still remained at the beginning of the sixteenth century; and the university which Eliza-

beth subsequently founded, and which was so amply endowed with the confiscated church lands, has been regarded by some people as a revival of that institution. The number of religious foundations diminishes rapidly as we advance. Among those traced to the reign of Edward II., are the Franciscan convents of Castle Lyons, in Cork, founded by John de Barry, in 1307; and of Bantry, founded by O'Sullivan, in 1320; the Augustinian convent of Adare, in Limerick, founded by John, earl of Kildare, 1315; that of Tullow, in Carlow, by Simon Lombard and Hugh Tallon, in 1312; and the Carmelite convent of Athboy, in Meath, by William de Londres, in 1317. The famous John Duns Scotus, a native of Down, in Ulster, died at Cologne in the year 1308, in the thirty-fourth year of his age. He was a Franciscan friar of extraordinary learning, and from the acuteness of his mind, was called in the schools the "Subtle Doctor." John Clyn, the author of a chronicle of great value in Irish history, also flourished about this time. He, too, was a Franciscan friar, and was the first guardian of the convent of Carrick-on-Suir, founded in 1336.



## CHAPTER XXV.

## REIGN OF EDWARD III.

**Position of the different Races.**—Great Feuds of the Anglo-Irish.—Murder of Bermingham, Earl of Louth.—Creation of the Earls of Ormond and Desmond.—Counties Palatine.—Rigor of Sir Anthony Lucy.—Murder of the Earl of Ulster.—The Burkes of Connaught abandon the English Language and Customs.—Sacrilegious Outrages.—Traces of Piety.—Wars in Connaught.—Crime and Punishment of Turlough O'Connor.—Proceedings in the Pale.—English by Birth and by Descent.—Ordinances against the Anglo-Irish Aristocracy.—Resistance of the latter.—Sir Ralph Ufford's Harshness and Death.—Change of Policy and its results.—The Black Death.—Administration of the Duke of Clarence.—His Animosity against the Irish.—The Statute of Kilkenny.—Effects of that Atrocious Law.—Exploits of Hugh O'Connor.—Crime Punished by the Irish Chieftains.—Victories of Niall O'Neill.—Difficulties of the Government of the Pale.—Manly Conduct of the Bishops.—General Character of this Reign.

*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—Popes: Benedict XII., Clement VI., Innocent VI., Urban VI., Gregory XI.—Kings of France: Philip VI. of Valois, John II., Charles the Wise.—Kings of Scotland: David II., Edward Baliol, Robert Stuart.—Gunpowder invented, 1330.—Statute of Præmunire, 1344.—Gold first coined in England, 1344.—Order of the Garter, 1349.—Wickliffe's tenets propagated, 1369.—Petrarch died, 1374.

(A. D. 1327 TO A. D. 1377.)

THE decay of the English power in Ireland, the narrowing of the English Pale, and the fusion of the older English settlers, or as they had begun to be called, the "degenerate English," with the native population, are marked characteristics of the period of our history which we have now reached. The authority of the crown had been declining throughout the two preceding reigns; during Bruce's invasion it was shaken to its foundation; but the alienation of the Anglo-Irish, arising from the impolitic distinction made by government between the English by birth and the English by de-

scend; the identification, in some instances, of the latter with the native Irish, and the recovery of large portions of their original territories by several of the Irish chieftains, are all distinguishing features of the era which commences with the reign of Edward III. The great Anglo-Irish families had become septs. They confederated with the Irish against their own countrymen, or the contrary, almost indifferently; but whether the administration of affairs was intrusted to them, or to the English by birth, it was invariably employed for purposes of personal aggrandizement or revenge; and the native



population were still only recognized by the government as the "Irish enemy,"—a legitimate prey for all plunderers.

A. D. 1328.—A violent feud broke out at the commencement of this reign between Maurice FitzThomas, afterwards earl of Desmond, assisted by the Butlers, and Berminghams, and lord Arnold Poer, who was aided by the great family of the De Burgos. Poer called FitzGerald a "rhymer," and thus the quarrel arose; the former was forced to fly to England; his lands, and those of his adherents, were laid waste, and torrents of blood flowed on both sides. Government became alarmed at the rebellious spirit manifested on the occasion, and issued orders for the defence of the principal towns; but the confederates allayed this disquiet by protesting that they only required vengeance on their enemies; and having submitted and sued for pardon, a council was held at Kilkenny by the justiciary, Roger Outlawe, prior of Kilmainham, to consider the case. The following year (1329) the justiciary effected a reconciliation between the parties, and although it was the season of Lent, the event was celebrated by grand banquets in Dublin, the Geraldines giving their feast in the church of St. Patrick.

A. D. 1329.—Another sanguinary fray among the Anglo-Irish took place this year; Bermingham, earl of Louth, with several of his relatives and followers, to the number in all of one hundred and sixty, or, as others say, two hundred

Englishmen, being slaughtered by their own countrymen, the Gernons, Savages and others, at Balebragan, now Bragganstown, in the county of Louth.\* About the same time Munster witnessed another scene of mutual carnage among the Anglo-Irish; the Barrys, Roches, and others slaying Lord Philip Bodnet, Hugh Condon, and about one hundred and forty of their followers. Meanwhile several Irish septs were up in arms. Lord Thomas Butler was, in 1328, defeated with considerable loss by Mageoghegan in West Meath; and the young earl of Ulster, with his Irish auxiliaries, sustained a great defeat the same year from Brian Bane O'Brien in Thomond. Donnell MacMurrough, of the ancient royal stock of Leinster, led an army close to Dublin, but he was defeated and made prisoner by Sir Henry Treherne. This officer spared the Irish chieftain's life for a sum of £200, and Adam Nangle, another Englishman, afterwards assisted him with a rope to escape over the walls of Dublin castle: but for this kindness Nangle lost his head.

James Butler, second earl of Carrick, was, in 1328, created earl of Ormond, and in 1330 Maurice FitzThomas FitzGerald was created earl of Desmond; Tipperary, in the former case, and Kerry in the latter, being erected into counties palatine. The lords palatine, of whom there were now eight or nine in Ireland,

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\* Among the victims in this massacre, were Carroll a famous harper, and, as Clyn adds, twenty other harpers, his pupils.



were endowed with a kind of royal power. They created barons and knights, erected courts for civil and criminal causes, appointed their own judges, sheriffs, and coroners, and, like so many petty kings, were able to exercise a most oppressive tyranny over the population of their respective territories.

A. D. 1330.—The new earl of Desmond at first rendered good service to the government by his successes against some of the Irish septs in Leinster; but the old feuds between him and the earl of Ulster were soon revived, and were carried to such lengths, at a time when they were in the field against the O'Briens, that the lord justice found it necessary to make both earls prisoners, and to commit them to the custody of the marshal of Limerick.

A. D. 1331.—Sir Anthony Lucy, a Northumbrian baron, famous for his sternness of character, was now sent over as justiciary, to curb the arrogance and violence of the great Anglo-Irish lords. He summoned a parliament in Dublin, and adjourned it to Kilkenny, owing to the non-attendance of the barons. Again his summons was disregarded; and, in order to make an example of the most powerful, he seized the earl of Desmond in Limerick, and carried him a prisoner to Dublin. Several other lords were arrested in a similar manner,

and among them Sir William Bermingham, who was confined with his son in the keep of Dublin castle, called from him the Bermingham tower, and was hanged in the course of the following year. This nobleman was popular on account of his bravery and gallant demeanor; and the feeling excited by the severity of his sentence was probably the cause of Lucy's recall, which followed soon after, when Sir John Darcy, a more moderate man, was appointed to succeed him.\*

A. D. 1333—A crime, which produced immense sensation among the Anglo-Irish, and led to some important results, was committed this year in the north. William, earl of Ulster, called the dun earl, grandson of the famous red earl, seized Walter, one of the leading members of the De Burgo family, and confined him in the stronghold called the Green castle, in Inishowen, where he was starved to death. Walter's sister, Gyle, was married to Sir Richard Mandeville, and at her instigation, it is believed, her brother's death was soon after avenged by the murder of the dun earl. This latter nobleman, who was then only in his twenty-first year, was proceeding on a Sunday morning towards Carrickfergus, in company with Robert FitzRichard Mandeville and others, who basely rose against him and killed him while he was ford

\* At this time the country was suffering severely from famine, and a shoal of large fish, of the whale species, which entered Dublin bay on the evening of the 27th of June, 1331, and of which two hundred were killed

by the lord justice and his servants, afforded the poor of the city a providential supply of food. The next year the dearth continued, and the people were attacked by an epidemic called the *Mansees*, supposed to have been influenza.



ing a stream, or, as Grace says, while he was repeating his morning prayers on his way to the church, Mandeville giving him the first wound. A feeling of violent indignation was aroused by this outrage, and the people of the neighborhood rose spontaneously and slew all whom they suspected of being abettors of the crime, to the number of over 300; so that when the justiciary arrived with an army to punish the murderers, he found that justice had already been vindicated in a fearful and summary manner.\* The earl's wife, Maud, on hearing of the murder, fled in terror to England, taking with her her only child, a daughter, named Elizabeth, then only one year old; and the Burkes of Connaught being the junior branch of the De Burgo family, and fearing that the earl's vast possessions would be transferred to other hands by the marriage of the heiress, immediately seized on his Connaught estates and declared themselves independent of English law, renouncing at the same time the English language and costume. Sir William, or Ulick,† the ancestor of the earls of Clanrickard, assumed the Irish title of MacWilliam Oughter, or the Upper, and Sir Edmond

Albanagh Burke, the progenitor of the Viscounts of Mayo, took that of MacWilliam Eighter, or the Lower MacWilliam.‡

A. D. 1334.—Of the crimes we read of in the history of that lawless period, none indicate more vividly the anarchy which prevailed than the sacrilegious outrages which are related of the Irish, as well as of their opponents. Incessant war had so degraded some that they rivalled the ferocity of wild beasts; and, in many instances, the natural gentleness, generosity, and piety of the Irish character seem to have been wholly laid aside. Thus, our annals relate how a great army of the English and Irish of Connaught having marched this year against the MacNamaras of Thomond, a party of them set fire to a church, in which were two priests and 180 other persons, and did not suffer one to escape from the conflagration. It is not said whether the party who committed this barbarity belonged to the English or the Irish portion of the army; but a similar outrage, three years before, is attributed by the Anglo-Irish chroniclers to an Irish sept in Leinster, who, they say, burned the church of Freynstown, now Friends-

\* For many years after it was usual in public pardons to make a formal exception of all who might have been implicated in the murder of the earl of Ulster.

† The name *Ulick*, or *Uliog*, is a contraction of *William-Oge*, that is, William Junior, or young William. It would appear to have been long peculiar to the Burkes of Connaught.

‡ In 1352, the heiress Elizabeth, then twenty years of age, was married to Lionel, duke of Clarence, third

son of king Edward III., and that prince was created, in her right, earl of Ulster and lord of Connaught, titles which thus became attached to the royal family of England; but he was unable to recover the possessions which the MacWilliams had usurped in Connaught, and the government not being strong enough to assert the authority of the English law on the occasion, the territories of the Burkes in that province were allowed to descend according to the Irish custom.



town, in Wicklow, with a congregation of eighty persons and their priest, who was clothed in his vestments, and carried the Sacred Host in his hands. The unhappy people in the church asked no mercy for themselves, but only that the priest might be allowed to depart; yet the infuriated assailants drove him back from the door with their javelins, and he was consumed with his flock in the burning pile. This appalling atrocity drew down an interdict from the Pope on its perpetrators; and an army of them was soon after cut to pieces or driven into the Slaney by the citizens of Wexford. Supposing, however, these statements not to have been the fabrications of enemies, of which we cannot be quite sure, we have, nevertheless, ample evidence that religion was not, even in those evil days, extinct among the bulk of the population. Thus, we read that the veteran warrior Mulrony MacDermot, lord of Moylurg, took the habit of a monk in the abbey of Boyle, in 1331; and that in 1333, Hugh O'Donnell, son of the famous Donnell Oge, and lord of Tirconnell, died in the habit of a Franciscan monk in Inis Saimer, in the river Erne. Most of the Irish chieftains who were not killed in battle, are described as dying "after the victory of penance;" and numerous pilgrimages, in which the clergy and people were united, were made to avert calamities which they apprehended.

A. D. 1338.—Edmond Burke, surnamed "na-Feisoge," or "the bearded," a younger son of the red earl, was this

year drowned by his kinsman, Edmond Burke, surnamed MacWilliam Eighter, who fastened a stone to his neck, and immersed him in Lough Mask; and a war followed, in which the partisans of MacWilliam Eighter and the English of Connaught in general, suffered enormous losses; Turlough O'Connor succeeding, after a sanguinary struggle, in driving Edmond Burke altogether out of the province. The English were, on this occasion, expelled from the territories of Leyney and Corran in Sligo, and the hereditary Irish chieftains resumed their own lands there and in other parts of Connaught. As for Edmond Burke, he collected a fleet of ships or boats, with which he remained for some time among the islands on the coast of Mayo, but from these Turlough drove him the following year, and obliged him to withdraw to Ulster.

A. D. 1339.—Turlough O'Connor, thus far crowned with success, brought ruin upon himself by his domestic misdeeds. Despising the laws of the Church and of society, he put away his wife Dervall, daughter of Hugh O'Donnell, the lord of Tirconnell, and married the daughter of Turlough O'Brien, the widow of Edmond Burke who had been drowned in Lough Mask. This act alienated from him the Connaught chieftains, and after an interval of three years spent in constant warfare, he was, in 1342, deposed by the Sil-Murray and other septs, and Hugh, the son of Hugh Briefneach O'Connor, one of the Clann Murtough, chosen king in his stead.



Notwithstanding this election, however, it is stated that when the unhappy Turlough was killed with an arrow in 1345, his son, Hugh, was inaugurated king of Connaught after him.

Reverting to the affairs of the Pale, we find that Desmond, who had been released from prison on bail in 1333, after eighteen months' captivity, repaired to Scotland with some troops, in obedience to a summons from the king, and was probably present at the decisive battle gained by Edward over the Scots at Hallidon Hill; the famous expedition of Edward III. into Scotland on this occasion, having been cloaked up to the last moment by a pretence that the preparations he was making were for a visit to Ireland. Subsequently, the earl of Desmond was actively engaged against the Irish in Kerry, as the earl of Kildare was against the O'Dempseys and other septs, in Leinster. Twelve hundred of the men of Kerry were slain in one battle, in 1339, and Maurice FitzNicholas, lord of Kerry, who had been fighting in their ranks, was taken and confined in prison, where he died.\*

A. D. 1341.—Plans which Edward had long since formed for breaking down the ascendancy of the great Anglo-Irish lords were now matured, and he sent over Sir John Morris, as lord deputy, to carry them into execu-

tion. His first sweeping measure was the resumption of all the lands, liberties, seigniories, and jurisdictions which either he or his father had granted in Ireland. Another ordinance recalled any remission which had been made by himself or his predecessors, of debts due to the crown, and decreed that all such debts should be levied without delay. Other rigorous and arbitrary measures were also adopted, but that which indicated most clearly the design of the king was an ordinance declaring that, whereas it had appeared to him and his council that they would be better and more usefully served in Ireland by Englishmen, whose revenues were derived from England, than by Irish or English who possessed estates only in Ireland, or were married there, his justiciary should, after diligent inquiries, remove all such officers as were married or held estates in Ireland, and replace them by fit Englishmen having no personal interest whatever in Ireland.†

A. D. 1342.—This declaration of the royal views and intentions aroused the indignation of the proud Anglo-Irish nobles, who had been allowed to become much too powerful before this attempt was made to humble them. It was the first public avowal of a jealous distinction between the English by birth and the English by descent, and was subsequently condemned as a fatal mistake. To allay the excite-

\* This English knight had, many years before, rushed into the assize court at Tralee, and killed Dermot, heir of the MacCarthy More, while sitting with the judge on the bench; yet the law suffered this crime to go unexpiated.

† Close Roll, 15 Edward III. Prynn's Collections Cox, vol. I, p. 118.



ment which was produced by it, the lord deputy summoned a parliament to meet in Dublin, in October; but the earl of Desmond and many other lords peremptorily refused to attend, and held a general assembly, or convention, of their own, at Kilkenny, in November, where they adopted a long and spirited remonstrance to the king, setting forth the rights which they had inherited from their ancestors, their claims to the favor and protection of the king, and the injustice and unreasonableness of the ordinances now issued against them. They complained bitterly of the neglect, peculation, fraud, and mismanagement of the English officials sent over to this country; enumerated a long catalogue of charges, attributing, among other things, to the maladministration of those Englishmen, the unguarded state of the country, the loss of one-third part of the territories which, they said, had been conquered by the king's progenitors, and were now retaken by his Irish enemies, and the abandonment to the Irish of the strong castles of Roscommon, Randown, Athlone, and Bunratty; and, in conclusion, they prayed that they might not be deprived of their free holdings without being called in judgment, pursuant to the provision of Magna Charta. The king's answer to the remonstrants was favorable on most points; in particular, he

confirmed the grants of his predecessors, and in the case of lands granted by himself, he restored those which had been resumed, on security being given that they should be surrendered if found to have been granted without cause. He was just then entering upon a war with France, and this circumstance suggested the propriety of a more conciliatory policy towards the Anglo-Irish barons.

A. D. 1344.—Sir Ralph Ufford, who had married the widow of the murdered earl of Ulster, was now appointed to the office of lord justice, and exercised his authority with a harshness and rigor that drew upon him general odium. His first efforts were directed against the power of Desmond. That haughty earl refused to attend a parliament, called by Ufford, in Dublin, and attempted to assemble one of his own at Callan, but the new deputy soon showed that this game could not be played with him. He proceeded to Munster with an armed force, seized the earl's lands, and farmed them at rents to be paid to the king. He next got possession, by stratagem, of the strongholds of Castle-island and Iniskitty, in Kerry, and hanged Sir Eustace Poer, Sir William Grant, and Sir John Cottrel, who held command in them, charging them with the illegal exaction of coyn and livery.\* The bail which

\* "Coyn and livery," was an exaction of money, food, and entertainment for the soldiers, and of forage for their horses. A tax of a similar kind, under the name of *bonaght*, existed among the Irish, but it was regulated

by fixed rules, and was part of the ordinary tribute paid to the chief. Among the Anglo-Irish it became a source of the most grievous oppression, without any just measure, or any compensating consideration; and as it



had been given for the earl, when he was liberated in 1333, was declared to be forfeited, and thus eighteen knights lost their estates.\* Ufford contrived, and again by the employment of stratagem, to get the earl of Kildare into his custody; but the war which he thus waged so successfully against the proud and powerful aristocracy was cut short by his own death, in the month of April, 1346. Some of his harshness was attributed to the persuasion of his wife; and it is said, that this lady, who was received like an empress on her arrival, was obliged to retire clandestinely, amidst the execrations of the people and the clamor of creditors, carrying with her the body of her husband, in a leaden coffin, to England.

The policy of the king towards the Anglo-Irish was now modified; the severity of Ufford was condemned; the earl of Desmond was suffered to repair to England to plead his cause before the king, and was allowed 20s. *per diem* for his expenses while detained there; the estreated recognizances were restored; the Anglo-Irish nobles were invited to aid the king in his expedition against France, and the earl of Kildare earned the honor of knighthood from Edward by his gallant conduct at the siege of Calais in 1347. Thus, after a few years the struggle between the

crown and the great lords of the Pale ceased for a time, all the lands and jurisdictions of which the latter had been for a while deprived being restored. Desmond rose to such favor with the king that, in 1355, he was entrusted with the office of lord justice for life; but he died five months after this honor had been conferred upon him, and his body was removed from Dublin castle to Tralee, where it was interred in the church of the Dominican friars. Thus ended the career of Maurice FitzThomas FitzGerald, the first earl of Desmond.

About this time Brien MacMahon gained an important victory over the English in Oriel, more than 300 of them having been slain, according to their own historians. In Leinster the colonists were not allowed much rest by the O'Tooles and O'Byrnes, on one side, or by the septs of Leix and Offaly on the other. Lysaght O'More, chief of Leix, took and burned in one night ten English castles, destroyed Dunamace, and expelled nearly all the English from his ancestral territory. The MacMurrough was also in the field with a large following, as were also O'Melaghlin and the Irish of Meath. These latter were defeated by the lord justice, in 1349, with the slaughter of several of their chiefs. Need we wonder at finding that about this time a royal commission was issued

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pressed heavily upon the English as well as Irish population, it became necessary to prohibit it by stringent laws. The earl of Desmond referred to above is said to have been the first who introduced this exaction in its Anglo-Irish form. See Harris's Ware, vol. i., chap. xii.

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\* According to some accounts, the earl surrendered himself to Ufford, and the recognizances estreated as mentioned above were those entered into for his liberation on this occasion.



to inquire why the king derived no revenues from his Irish dominions.

A. D. 1348.—This year is memorable for the outbreak of the terrible pestilence called the Black Death. That age was, indeed, one of fearful visitations. Our annals record about that period several years of famine from ungenial seasons. In 1341, an epidemic, called the barking disease, prevailed, when persons of both sexes and all ages went about the country barking like dogs. But the most awful of all these visitations was the Black Death.\* For some years, during which the pestilence continued, our annals record few events save the deaths of remarkable persons who fell victims to it. Then followed, in 1361, another visitation called the "King's Game" or second pestilence, the exact nature of which is not known,

although it was possibly only a return of the Black Death; and in 1370 appeared the third great plague, which lasted for a period of three or four years, and produced a fearful mortality. There can be little doubt that this series of calamities paralyzed the country, and left its marks upon the history of the times.†

A. D. 1361.—Lionel, third son of Edward III., and earl of Ulster by right of his wife, Elizabeth, daughter of the murdered earl, was now appointed to the government of Ireland, with extraordinary authority, as lord lieutenant. He landed in Dublin on the 15th of September, 1360, with an army of 1,500 men, and evinced from the first bitter animosity towards the Irish, reviving more over the distinction between the English by birth and by descent. A royal man-

\* Friar Clyn, who was an eye-witness of its ravages, and is believed to have fallen a victim to it himself the following year, describes the Black Death in his annals under the year 1348, in the following expressive terms:—"It first," he says, "broke out near Dublin, at Howth and Dalkey; it almost destroyed and laid waste the cities of Dublin and Drogheda, insomuch that in Dublin alone, from the beginning of August to Christmas, 14,000 souls perished . . . . The pestilence deprived of human inhabitants villages and cities, castles and towns, so that there was scarcely found a man to dwell therein; the pestilence was so contagious, that whosoever touched the sick or the dead was immediately affected and died, and the penitent and the confessor were carried together to the grave." And after describing the terror it produced and the symptoms of the disease, which show it to have been the real eastern plague, he adds:—"That year was beyond measure wonderful, unusual, and in many things prodigious, yet was sufficiently abundant and fruitful, however sickly and deadly. That pestilence was rife in Kilkenny in Lent. Scarcely one ever died alone in a house; commonly husband, wife, children, and servants, went the one way—the way of death." See the authorities on this subject collected by Dr.

Wilde, in his important report on the Table of Deaths; Census of 1851. This plague, which originated in the east, ravaged the whole of Europe. Dr. Hecker says it must have swept away at least twenty-five millions of the human race. Stow, in his Chronicles, says, that in Ireland it destroyed a great number of English people that dwelt there; but such that were Irish born, that dwelt in the hill country, it scarcely touched. This, observes Dr. Wilde, was here called "the first great pestilence," being the first of the five remarkable plagues of the fourteenth century, three of which occurred in the reign of Edward III.

† During this dreary period the following entry occurs in the Annals of Clonmacnoise, under the year 1351, "William MacDonough Moyneach O'Kelly (chief of Hy-Many) invited all the Irish poets, brehons, bards, harpers, gamesters, or common kearroghs, jesters, and others of their kind in Ireland, to his house upon a Christmas this year, where every one of them was well used during Christmas holidays, and gave contentment to each other at the time of their departure, so as every one of them was well pleased, and extolled William for his bounty."



date had been issued a short time before, ordering that no "mere Irishman" should be appointed mayor, bailiff, or other officer of any town within the English dominion; or be received through any motives of consanguinity, affinity, or other causes, into holy orders, or be advanced to any ecclesiastical benefice or promotion.\* But the principle of interdiction was carried much further by duke Lionel. In a war which he had to carry on against the O'Byrnes, just after his arrival, he issued a proclamation "forbidding any of Irish birth to come near his army;" thus excluding from his ranks all the old colonists, to their infinite disgust. After this gross insult a hundred of his best soldiers appear to have been slain at night in some unaccountable manner, whereupon, he abandoned the distinction of English by birth and English by descent, and summoned all the king's subjects to his standard.† Subsequently he endeavored to establish discipline in the army; expended £500 in walling the town of Carlow, whither he removed the exchequer, and ingratiated himself by other acts with the colonists, who granted him two years' revenue of all their lands towards the prosecution of the war against the Irish.

A. D. 1367.—Having returned to England in 1364, Lionel was created duke of Clarence, and twice in the three following years he was again entrusted

with the office of lord lieutenant. In the year 1367, during the last period of his administration, was held the memorable parliament at Kilkenny, in which was passed the execrable act known as the "Statute of Kilkenny." It is said that Lionel's chief object in his late visits to Ireland was to regain the possessions usurped by the Burkes of Connaught, and that his failure to attain that end was the real cause of the bitterness of the act in question. The following are the principal provisions of this statute:—That intermarriage with the natives, or any connections with them in the shape of fostering, or gossiping, should be dealt with and punished as high treason; that any man of English race assuming an Irish name, or using the Irish language, apparel or customs, should forfeit all his lands and tenements; that to adopt the Brehon law, or submit to it, was treason; that without the permission of the government the English should not make war or peace with the Irish; that the English should not permit the Irish to pasture cattle on their lands, nor admit them to any ecclesiastical benefices or to religious houses; nor entertain their minstrels, rhymers, or news-tellers. There were also enactments against the oppressive tax of coyn and livery, against the abuse of royal franchises and liberties, and upon some other matters; but the principal and manifest object of this most tyrannical and insult-

\* Rymer, t. vi., 32C

† Grace's Annals.



ing statute was to keep the English and Irish forever separate, and to wage a perpetual war against those of the English race, who, holding lands and residing among the Irish, were necessitated, more or less, to adopt the Irish customs and laws.\* It was impossible to enforce such a law, and practically it became a dead letter; but the distrust and national enmity which it created were kept alive, and in the reign of Henry VII. (A. D. 1494) it was to a great extent revived and confirmed. As to duke Lionel, he left Ireland in 1367, and died next year in Italy, where he had just taken as his second wife the daughter of the duke of Milan.

While the Anglo-Irish were struggling with enemies in the very bosom of their colony, and praying by a petition to the king for relief from the payment of scutage upon the lands of which the Irish had deprived them in their daily encroachments upon the bounds of the Pale,\* we see the native chieftains acting in their respective territor-

\* "The result," says the late eminent antiquary and historian, Mr. Hardiman, describing the effect of this statute, "was such as might be expected. English power and influence continued to decrease, insomuch that at the close of the succeeding century they were nearly annihilated in Ireland. At the beginning, the native Irish, apprehending that the real object of a law enacted and proclaimed with so much pomp and appearance of authority was to root them altogether out of the land, naturally combined together for safety, and some of the more powerful chieftains resolved upon immediate hostilities. O'Connor of Connaught and O'Brien of Thomond for the moment laid aside their private feuds, and united against the common foe. The earl of Desmond, lord justice, marched against them with a considerable army, but was defeated and slain (captured) in a sanguinary engagement, fought A. D. 1369, in the

ies without any reference whatever to English authority, and without appearing to recognize its presence in the country. Hugh O'Connor, king of Connaught, and Cathal O'Connor (Sligo), led an army into Meath, in 1362, and laid waste the English lands, burning no less than fifteen churches which had been used by their enemies for garrisons; but Cathal died of the plague the same year. In 1365, Brian MacMahon, lord of Oriel, induced Sorly MacDonnell, a prince of the Hebrides, to put away his wife, the daughter of O'Reilly, and to marry Brian's own daughter. Soon after he added another crime to this, by drowning his son-in-law, whom he had invited to drink wine in his house. The O'Neills, O'Donnells, and other Ulster chieftains confederated to punish the offending chief; MacMahon was driven from Oriel, and having returned, was again attacked, and ultimately slain by a gallows of his own followers when marching with them against the Eng-

county of Limerick. O'Farrel, the chieftain of Annaly committed great slaughter in Meath. The O'Mores, Cavanaghs, O'Byrnes, and O'Tooles, pressed upon Leinster, and the O'Neills raised the red arm in the north. The English of the Pale were seized with consternation and dismay, and terror and confusion reigned in their councils, while the natives continued to gain ground upon them in every direction. At this crisis an opportunity offered, such as had never before occurred, of terminating the dominion of the English in Ireland; but if the natives had ever conceived such a project, they were never sufficiently united to achieve it. The opportunity passed away, and the disunion of the Irish saved the colony."—*Statute of Kilkenny*, published by the Irish Archaeological Society, with introduction and notes by the late James Hardiman, Esq., M.R.I.A. Dublin, 1843. Close Roll, 46 Ed. III. Pyrrane, 302.



lish. His fate and that of Turlough O'Connor, already related, show that the Irish chieftains, even in that age of anarchy, and among men of their own order, would not suffer glaring crimes to go unpunished.

Garrett, earl of Desmond, at the head of an Anglo-Irish army suffered a great overthrow from Brian O'Brien, chief of Thomond, in 1369. Garrett himself was made prisoner; his army was slaughtered, and Limerick was burned by the men of Thomond. Niall O'Neill defeated the English, in 1374, and again gained an important victory over them the following year in Down, slaying several of their knights; but the native septs of Leinster were not so successful at this time in the harassing war which they had to sustain against the forces of the English government. Melaghlin O'Farrell was slain in 1374. Donough Kavanagh MacMurrough, king of the Irish of Leinster, was cut off by stratagem in 1375. The MacTiernans were defeated the same year, and Hugh O'Toole, lord of Imaile, was killed in 1376. There was the usual amount of discord among the Irish themselves; but the broils among the English at the same time, and especially the sanguinary feuds which raged between the different sections of the Burkes in Connaught, show that the curse of dissension was not confined to the native race.

So difficult and odious had the task of governing Ireland become, that we find Sir Richard Pembridge, the warden

of the cinque ports, positively refusing the office of lord justice, which he was ordered to undertake, in 1369; and his refusal was not adjudged an offence, on the ground that the law required no man, not condemned for a crime, to go into exile, which a residence in Ireland, even in so honorable a position, was admitted to be. When Sir William de Windsor was then appointed to the office, he undertook to carry on the government for £11,213 6s. 8d. per annum, but Sir John Davies assures us that the whole revenue of Ireland at that time did not amount to £10,000 annually in the best years. Previously the salary of the lord justice used to be £500 a year, out of which sum he should support a certain number of armed men. The subsidies which Edward III. was obliged to levy in Ireland, not only for the wars in this country, but for those in France and Scotland, were intolerably oppressive, and were exacted from ecclesiastical as well as lay property. Ralph Kelly, archbishop of Cashel, opposed the collection of one of these imposts, as far as it affected the church lands in his province, and, accompanied by the suffragan bishops of Limerick, Emly, and Lismore, dressed in their pontifical robes, appeared in the streets of Clonmel, and solemnly excommunicated the king's commissioner of revenue, and all persons concerned in advising, contributing to, or levying the tax. When cited to answer for this conduct, the prelates pleaded the Magna Charta, which de-



creed the exemption of church property; and although the cause was given against them, no judgment appears to have been executed in the case. On the whole, it may be said of the reign of Edward III., that however brilliant it was in English history, it was most disastrous to the English interests in this country; and as far as Irish interests were concerned, Mr. Moore has well observed, that, during it, were laid "the foundations of that monstrous system of misgovernment in Ireland to which no parallel exists in the history of the whole civilized world; its dark and towering iniquity having projected its shadow so far forward as even to the times immediately bordering upon our own."\*

## CHAPTER XXVI.

### REIGN OF RICHARD II.

**Law against Absentees.**—**Events in Ireland at the Opening of the Reign.**—Partition of Connaught between O'Connor Don and O'Connor Roe.—The Earl of Oxford made Duke of Ireland—His Fate.—Battles between the English and Irish.—Richard II. visits Ireland with a Powerful Army.—Submission of Irish Princes—Hard Conditions.—Henry Castide's Account of the Irish.—Knighting of Four Irish Kings.—Departure of Richard II. and Rising of the Irish.—Second Visit of King Richard—His Attack on Art MacMurrough's Stronghold.—Disasters of the English Army.—MacMurrough's Heroism.—Meeting of Art MacMurrough and the Earl of Gloucester.—Richard Arrives in Dublin.—Bad News from England.—The King's Departure from Ireland—His unhappy Fate.—Death of Niall More O'Neill, and Succession of Niall Oge.—Pilgrimages to Rome.—Events Illustrating the Social State of Ireland.

**Contemporary Sovereigns.**—Popes: Urban VI., Boniface IX.—King of France, Charles VI.—King of Scotland, Robert III.—Emperor of the Turks, Bajazet I.

(A. D. 1377 TO A. D. 1399.)

**R**ICHARD II., only surviving child of Edward the Black Prince, succeeded his grandfather, Edward III., as king of England, when only in his eleventh year, and the government of the state was carried on by the young king's uncles. One of the first measures of his reign relating to Ireland was a stringent law against absenteeism, obliging all persons who possessed lands, rents, or other income in Ireland, to reside there, or to send proper persons

\* Hist. of Ireland, vol. iii., p. 118.—A curious entry on the Exchequer Issue Roll for the year 1376 refers to the close of this reign, and has often been quoted as singularly expressive; it is to the effect that Richard

Dere and William Stapolyn came over to England to inform the king how very badly Ireland was governed; and that the king ordered them to be paid ten pounds for their trouble.



to defend their possessions, or else to pay a tax to the amount of two-thirds of their Irish revenues; those who attended the English universities, or were absent by special license, being excepted.

A. D. 1380.—Edmond, grandson of Roger Mortimer, earl of March, came to Ireland with extraordinary powers as lord lieutenant. Having married Philippa, the daughter of Lionel, duke of Clarence, and of Elizabeth, daughter of the dun earl, he became in her right earl of Ulster; and several of the native Irish princes paid court to him on his arrival; among others, Niall O'Neill, O'Hanlon, O'Farrell, O'Reilly, O'Molloy, Mageoghegan, and the Sinnagh or Fox. One of the Irish nobles who thus visited the earl was Art Magennis, lord of Iveagh, in Ulster, who, for some charge trumped up against him, while thus within the grasp of his enemies, was seized and cast into prison. This act destroyed the confidence not only of the Irish, but, as we are told, of many of the English, who consequently kept aloof from the deputy. Mortimer invaded Ulster shortly after, destroying much property, lay and ecclesiastical, and the following year he died in Cork.\*

A. D. 1383.—Roger Mortimer, the youthful son of the late earl, was nomi-

nated in his father's place, his uncle Sir Thomas Mortimer, chief justice of the common pleas in England, administering affairs for him as deputy. In so absurd a way was the office of lord justice of Ireland disposed of at that time, that a grant of it was next made for ten years to Philip de Courtney, a cousin of the king's, who abused his power by such gross speculation and injustice, that the council of regency had him taken into custody and punished for his crimes. An army was this year led by Niall O'Neill against the English of Antrim; and the following year that prince took and burned Carrickfergus, and, as the annals say, "gained great power over the English."

At this period the country was desolated by plague as well as by war, the fourth great pestilence of the fourteenth century having broken out in 1382; and the ravages of the disease may be traced for some years in the numerous obituaries which our annalists record.†

A. D. 1384.—A fresh source of disorder now arose in Connaught. Rory, son of Turlough O'Connor, and last king of that province, died, after a stormy reign of over sixteen years, and two rival chieftains were set up in his place. One of these, Turlough Oge, a nephew of the late chief, was inaugurated king

\* In 1380, before the arrival of Edmond Mortimer, a number of French and Spanish galleys retired from the English fleet into the harbor of Kinsale, where they were attacked by the inhabitants, English and Irish, 400 of their men being killed, and their principal officers captured. Holinshed gives this statement on the

authority of Thomas Walsingham, but it is not alluded to in the Irish or Anglo-Irish chronicles.

† This pestilence Dr. Wilde suspects to have been a visitation of typhus fever.—See *Report on Table of Deaths*.



by O'Kelly of Hy-Many, Clanrickard, and some of the O'Conors; and Turrough Roe, son of Hugh, son of Felim O'Connor, the other competitor, was, about the same time, installed by MacDermot, of Moylurg, the Clann Murtough, and all the chiefs of the Sil-Murray. The former was the ancestor of the sept of O'Connor Don (the brown), and the latter of that of O'Connor Roe (the red); and between these two branches of the O'Connor family and their respective adherents implacable hostility prevailed for many years after. The territory of Connaught was divided between them, by which partition the ancient power of that province was crushed for ever, while the country was laid waste by feuds, which seldom allowed any interval of repose.

A. D. 1385.—In a moment of puerile caprice, Richard, who had been heaping honors upon Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, bestowed Ireland upon that young favorite. He created him marquis of Dublin and duke of Ireland, transferring to him for life the sovereignty of that kingdom, such as he possessed it himself; and the parliament, which confirmed this grant, also voted a sum of money for the favorite's intended expedition to Ireland. Having accompanied De Vere as far as Wales, the youthful monarch changed his mind, and sending Sir John Stanley to Ireland as his deputy, he kept his favorite near himself. Like that of all royal minions, the fate of the young duke of Ireland was unfortunate. The

irritated nobles took up arms; the duke of Gloucester, one of the king's uncles, joined them, and De Vere, defeated in battle, was driven into exile, and died in Belgium, in 1396.

A. D. 1392.—Our annals mention a victory gained by O'Connor, of Offaly, in 1385, over the English, at the tochar, or pass, near the hill of Croghan, in the King's county; and the Anglo-Irish chronicles record a battle, in which 600 of the Irish were slain, in the county of Kilkenny, in the year 1392. In this latter year Niall O'Neill led an army to Dundalk, where he defeated the English; he himself, although far advanced in years, killing Seffin White in single combat. This year died O'Neill's eldest son, Henry, who was distinguished for his justice and munificence, but was surnamed, by antiphrasis, Avrey (Aimhreidh) or the Contentious. Henry's sons were warlike, and their names long occupy a conspicuous place in the annals of the northern province.

A. D. 1394.—Richard having suddenly formed a project of visiting Ireland in person, countermanded the preparations which the duke of Gloucester was making by his orders to come to this country. Ireland had become a perpetual drain on the royal exchequer. Notwithstanding the absentee laws, a great number of the Anglo-Irish proprietors resided in England, and the power and daring of the neighboring Irish septs were daily increasing. The king was resolved to take into his own hands the subjugation of the country; but this



was not the sole motive for his expedition. He had just suffered a mortifying repulse in Germany where he hoped to be elected emperor, and had also lost his queen; and he sought by excitement and change of scene to heal his wounded feelings. Richard landed at Waterford, on the 2d of October, with an army of 4,000 men-at-arms and 30,000 archers, which had been conveyed in a fleet of 200 ships. This was the largest force ever landed on the coast of Ireland; and the Irish, after retiring for awhile to their fastnesses, prudently judged that resistance to such an army was worse than useless, whereupon their chiefs came in considerable numbers to yield him homage. Beyond this show of submission, however, and a parade of his power which gratified his vanity, Richard, with his splendid and costly armament, effected nothing. No measure of justice or conciliation was thought of; nothing was done to gain the confidence and esteem of the Irish, the laws of England were not extended to them, in fact every law was framed against them; and there was no idea of treating them as subjects of the crown, on equal terms with the English, or of securing to them the possession of such portions of their ancient patrimonies as had not yet been wrested from them.

O'Neill and other lords of Ulster met

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\* It must have been immediately before this that Art MacMurrough, according to the Irish annals, burned the town of New Ross (Ros-mic-Triuin) in Wexford, carried off a large quantity of valuable property, and slew a great number of the English. It was with

the king at Drogheda, and there did homage in the usual form. Mowbray, earl of Nottingham and lord marshal of England, was commissioned to receive the fealty and homage of the Irish of Leinster; and on an open plain at Baligorey, near Carlow, he held an interview with the famous Art MacMurrough, heir of the ancient Leinster kings, who was at this time the most dreaded enemy of the English, and was accompanied at this meeting by several of the southern chiefs.\* The terms exacted from these chieftains were that they should not only continue loyal subjects, but engage, for themselves and their swordsmen, that on a certain fixed day they would surrender to the king of England all their lands and possessions in Leinster, taking with them only their moveable goods, and that they would serve him in his wars against any other of his countrymen. In return for their hereditary rights and territories they were to receive pensions during their lives, and the inheritance of such lands as they could seize from the "rebels" in other parts of the realm, and for the fulfilment of these hard terms they were severally bound by indentures and in heavy penalties. No less than seventy-five chieftains from different parts of Ireland appear to have proffered their homage to

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difficulty this chief was persuaded to offer his submission, and when the English had him in their hands there was some attempt made to detain him, O'Byrne, O'More, and O'Nolan being finally kept as hostages for him.



Richard or his commissioner on this occasion; and it is curious that the king in a letter, written at the time, to his council in England, after classifying the population of the English Pale under the three heads of "wild Irish, or enemies," "Irish rebels," and "English subjects," admits that the "rebels" had been made such by wrongs and English misrule, and that if not wisely treated they might enter the ranks of the "enemies," whence he thought it right to grant them a general pardon, and to take them under his special protection.\* The council thought the king's treatment of the Irish too lenient, and suggested that he should exact large fines and ransoms for the pardons which he granted; but his experience taught him otherwise.

When Sir John Froissart, the French chronicler, was, in 1395, at the court of Richard II. in England, he met there an English gentleman, named Henry Castide, or Castile, who told him that he had lived for many years in Ireland; that he had been captured by the Irish in a skirmish, but had been well treated by the Irish gentleman who took him prisoner, and who afterwards gave him his daughter in marriage; that he had thus acquired a knowledge of the Irish language, and was, on that account, employed by king Richard to instruct four Irish kings, on whom he desired to confer the honor of knighthood, in

such things as might be necessary for the ceremony. A courtier like Froissart was not apt to favor a people such as the Irish were then represented to be, nor was his informant prejudiced in their favor; but the details transmitted to us through such hands are extremely curious. "To tell you the truth," said Castide, "Ireland is one of the worst countries to make war in or to conquer, for there are such impenetrable and extensive forests, lakes, and bogs, there is no knowing how to pass them. It is so thinly inhabited that whenever the Irish please they desert the towns and take refuge in these forests, and live in huts made of boughs, like wild beasts; and whenever they perceive any parties advancing with hostile disposition, and about to enter their country, they fly to such narrow passes it is impossible to follow them . . . . And no man-at-arms, be he ever so well mounted, can overtake them, so light are they of foot. Sometimes they leap from the ground behind a horseman, and embrace the rider (for they are very strong in their arms) so tightly that he can no way get rid of them."

Sir Henry then proceeds to relate, among other things, how "four of the most potent kings of Ireland had submitted to the king of England, but more through love and good humor than by battle or force;"† how they were placed for about a month under his

\* *Proceedings of the Privy Council*, edited by Sir Harris Nicholas.

† The names of the Irish kings are strangely meta-

morphosed in the orthography of Froissart, but they appear to have been O'Neill, O'Connor, O'Brien, and Mao Murrrough.—Chron., book v., c. 64. Johns' Translation.



'care and governance at Dublin, to teach them the usages of England; how they refused to sit to dinner unless their minstrels and attendants were allowed seats with them at the same table, according to the custom of their own country; how they at first objected to receive knighthood, observing that they had been created knights already when they were only seven years of age, such being the custom of their country, especially with the sons of kings; how they ultimately acceded to the wishes of king Richard in every thing and were knighted by him in the cathedral of Dublin, on the feast of Our Lady, in March; and dined that day, in robes of state, at the table of king Richard, "where they were much stared at by the lords and those present, not, indeed, without reason, for they were strange figures, and differently countenanced to the English and other nations." So the courtly Sir John reports the words of Master Castide, and he adds that the success of Richard II. in Ireland on this occasion was partly owing to the veneration in which the natives held the cross of St. Edward, which the king emblazoned on all his banners, instead of his own leopards and *fleurs de lis*.

A. D. 1395.—After nine months passed in Ireland, chiefly in those displays of pomp and pastimes which he so much loved, Richard was recalled to England by affairs of state early in the summer of this year, and left young Roger Mortimer, who had been declared heir-pre-

sumptive to the crown, as his viceroy in Ireland. Scarcely, however, had the king departed, when several of the Irish chiefs cast off the allegiance to which they had submitted for the moment. It would appear that even before he left the English suffered partial defeats in Offaly and Ely O'Carroll. We are told, on English authority, that Sir Thomas Burke and Walter Bermingham slew 600 of the Irish this year, and that the O'Byrnes of Wicklow were defeated by the viceroy and the earl of Ormond. But, on the other hand, MacCarthy gained a victory over the English in Munster; O'Toole slaughtered them fearfully in a battle in 1396, six score heads of the foreign foe being counted before the chief after the conflict; the earl of Kildare was taken prisoner by Calvagh O'Connor of Offaly, in 1398; and the same year the O'Byrnes and O'Tooles avenged many of their former losses by a victory at Kenlis in Ossory, in which young Mortimer was slain and a great number of the English cut to pieces.

A. D. 1399.—King Richard, who had of late incurred great popular odium in England by his exactions and oppression, undertook the mad project of another expedition to Ireland; and set out at a moment when his government was surrounded by perils at home, leaving his uncle, the Duke of York, regent in his absence. He once more landed at Waterford with another magnificent army, which, like the former one, was transported in a fleet



of 200 ships; and it is curious that on this occasion we are again indebted to a French chronicler for an account of the royal transactions in Ireland. A French gentleman named Creton, who was induced to accompany a friend on Richard's second expedition, has left us, in a metrical account of the last days of that unfortunate monarch's reign, some highly interesting details of what he witnessed in this country.\*

After six days' delay in Waterford the king marched to Kilkenny, where he remained fourteen days waiting for the arrival of the duke of Albemarle, who still disappointed him; but, in the mean time, Janico d'Artois, a foreign officer of great tact and bravery, and who performed many important services for the English, defeated the Irish at Kells, in Ossory. On the eve of St. John the Baptist, Richard departed from the city of St. Canice, victualling his army as best he could, and marched against MacMurrough, the indomitable king of Leinster. The main object of the expedition was, indeed, to conquer, if possible, this celebrated chieftain, the most heroic of the Irish princes of his time, who, in a territory surrounded by the settlements of his English foes, and spite of all the lords justices sent against him with armies of mail-clad warriors and archers, and all the chivalry of the earls of the Pale, was able

to hold his position as an independent king, to keep the Anglo-Irish government in perpetual terror, and to afford a rallying point to his oppressed countrymen, and an example of patriotic heroism to the native chieftains of all Ireland.† MacMurrough's stronghold was in a wood, "guarded by 3,000 stout men, such, as it seemed to me," says the narrator, "were very little astonished at the sight of the English." The king marshalled his army in battle array before the wood, the standard being, this time, not St. Edward's gold cross on a red field and four white doves, but his own three leopards; and the Irish not choosing to leave their defences and meet him in the plain, he ordered the villages in the wood to be set on fire, and compelled 2,500 of the peasantry to cut a passage for his army through the wood. Meanwhile he amused himself with one of his favorite pageants, going through the ceremony of knighting his cousin, the duke of Lancaster's son, "a fair and puny youth," who was afterwards king Henry V. of England, together with eight or ten other knights. While marching through the passage opened for them his army was constantly assailed both in the van and rear by MacMurrough's soldiers, who attacked them with loud shouts, casting their javelins with such might "as no haber-

\* See the *Histoire du Roy d'Angleterre, Richard*; translated by the Rev. J. Webb, in the twentieth vol. of the *Archæologia*: London, 1824. The portion of it relating to Ireland was translated long before by Sir George Carew, and published in Harris's *Hibernica*.

† See, for an interesting account of this Irish hero and his exploits, Mr. T. Darcy M'Ge's "*Life and Conquests of Art MacMurrough*," in *Duffy's Library of Ireland*.



geon or coat of mail was of sufficient proof to resist their force ;” and who were “so nimble and swift of foot that like unto stags they ran over mountains and valleys.” MacMurrough’s uncle and some others came forward in an abject manner to make their submission to Richard, who thereupon sent a message to the king of Leinster himself inviting him to follow his uncle’s example, and promising not only to pardon him but “to bestow upon him castles, towns, and ample territories.” The answer of the heroic Art was that “for all the gold in the world he would not submit himself, but would continue to war, and endamage the king in all that he could.” This defiant message was delivered at a time when king Richard’s army was in the utmost straits for want of food. The surrounding country had been ravaged over and over, and no provisions were to be found. Several men had perished of famine, and even the horses were without fodder. “A biscuit in one day between five men was thought good allowance, and some in five days together had not a bit of bread!” At length three ships arrived with provisions from Dublin, the army being encamped somewhere near the coast in Wexford ; but the starving soldiers plunged into the sea and rifled the vessels without waiting for a regular distribution of food, so that much of it was destroyed and many lives in the confusion ; and the men indulged to intoxication in the wine which they found in the ships.

Covered with humiliation, king Richard decamped, and marched towards Dublin, the Irish hovering on his rear and skirmishing with the same provoking effect as hitherto ; but soon after his departure MacMurrough sent after him to make overtures of peace and to propose a conference. This filled the English camp with delight, and Richard gladly commissioned the earl of Gloucester, who commanded in the rear, to meet MacMurrough. For this purpose the earl took with him a guard of 200 lances and 1,000 good archers ; and among the gentlemen who accompanied him to see the Irish king was our French friend who relates the circumstance :—“From a mountain, between two woods, not far from the sea, we saw MacMurrough descending, accompanied by multitudes of the Irish, and mounted upon a horse, without a saddle, which cost him, it was reported, 400 cows. His horse was fair, and in his descent from the hill to us, ran as swiftly as any stag, hare, or the swiftest beast I have ever seen. In his right hand he bore a long spear, which, when near the spot where he was to meet the earl, he cast from him with much dexterity. The crowd that followed him then remained behind, while he advanced to meet the earl near a small brook. He was tall of stature, well composed, strong, and active ; his countenance fierce and cruel.” The parley was a protracted one, but led to no reconciliation. Such terms as the earl was empowered to offer were



haughtily spurned by MacMurrough, who declared that he would not submit to them while he had life. Richard, on hearing the result, "flew into a violent rage, and swore by St. Edward he would not depart out of Ireland until he had MacMurrough in his hands, living or dead."

Dublin was at that time so prosperous that the arrival of the English king, with an army of 30,000 hungry men, produced no change in the price of provisions. The duke of Albemarle next arrived with his reinforcements, and Richard, forming his army into three divisions, resolved to renew the war against MacMurrough, and at the same time offered a reward of 100 marks to any one who would deliver that chieftain to him dead or alive. His own fate, however, was nearer at hand than that of Art MacMurrough. After an ominous interruption of news from England for six weeks, owing to stormy weather, disastrous accounts reached him from that country. His cousin, the son of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, was up in rebellion, and had been joined by the barons and a large portion of the population. All his Irish schemes were in a moment crushed. The duke of Albemarle, in whom he trusted, put him on a wrong course. His departure from Ireland was delayed until his Welsh friends were scattered, and he

only arrived in England to become a prisoner. Ultimately he was murdered in Pontefract castle; and thus to this second ill-omened expedition of king Richard to Ireland may be traced the fate of that unfortunate monarch, and the origin of the war between the houses of York and Lancaster, which so long continued to deluge England with blood.

Niall More O'Neill died at an advanced age, in 1397, and was succeeded by his son, Niall Oge, who chastised the O'Donnells for some of their late aggressions, and made war upon the English so effectually, in 1399, as to plunder or expel nearly all of them whom he found in Ulster. Garrett, fourth earl of Desmond, who died in 1398, and was called the poet, is described as excelling "all the English and many of the Irish in the knowledge of the Irish language."\* He was a great patron of learned men, who, even in that age of anarchy, found many friends among the Irish chieftains. Thus Niall O'Neill, whose death we have just mentioned, built a house for the ollavs and poets on the site of the famous palace of Emania, near Armagh. We begin at this time to meet frequent mention of pilgrimages to Rome. In 1396, Thadeus O'Carroll, lord of Ely, repaired, says an Irish chronicler, to the threshold of the apostles on a religious

\* Two plaintive quatrains in Norman French, written by this earl while a prisoner, are printed in Croker's popular songs of Ireland, p. 287. Earl Garrett is the theme of many legends still preserved in the south of

Ireland; according to one of which, his spirit appears once in seven years on Lough Gur, in the county of Limerick, where he had a castle. See *Four Masters*, vol. v., p. 761, note.



pilgrimage; and, on his return through England, he presented himself, with three other Irish gentlemen, O'Brien, Gerald, and Thomas Calvagh MacMurrough, of the royal race of Leinster, to king Richard, who received them in the most courteous manner, and took them with him on a visit to the king of France.

## CHAPTER XXVII.

### REIGNS OF HENRY IV. AND HENRY V.

**State of the English Pale.**—The Duke of Lancaster in Ireland.—Defeats of the English.—Retaliation.—Lancaster again Lord Lieutenant.—His Stipulations.—Affairs of Tyrone.—Privateering.—Complaints from the Pale.—Accession of Henry V.—Sir John Stanley's government.—Rhyming to death.—Exploits of Lord Furnival.—Reaction of the Irish.—Death of Art MacMurrough Kavanagh.—Death of Murrough O'Connor, of Offaly.—Defeat of the O'Mores.—Petition against the Irish.—Persecution of an Irish Archbishop.—Complaint of the Anglo-Irish Commons.—State of Religion and Learning.

*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—Popes: Innocent VII., Gregory XII., Alexander V., John XXIII., Martin V.—King of France, Charles VI.—King of Scotland, Robert III.—Revolt of Owen Glendower in Wales, 1401.—Death of Tamarlane, the Tartar Conqueror, 1405.—Cannon first used in England, 1405.—Battle of Azincourt, 1415.—Paper first made of linen rags, 1417.

(A. D. 1399 TO A. D. 1422.)

WE have already remarked that the reigns of the English kings form no epochs in Irish history. In England the struggles between the crown and the parliament, the consequent growth of popular liberty, the alternate wars and alliances with other countries, and events of like importance, sufficiently distinguish one reign from another. In Ireland the scene varied but little. It was one of continuous strife and warfare; the only redeeming feature being the indomitable heroism with which the native Irish not only maintained their ground against their powerful and rapacious enemies, but gradually regained territories that had been wrested from their ancestors, and even succeeded, as was now the case, in levying tribute within the English Pale.\*

A. D. 1402.—Thomas, the young duke

\* To that territory within which the English retreated and fortified themselves when a reaction began to set in after their first success in Ireland, we have all along

applied the name of *Pale*, although that term did not really come into use until about the beginning of the 16th century. In earlier times this territory was called



of Lancaster, second son of Henry IV., was sent over as lord lieutenant, though not yet of age, and landed at Bullock, near Dalkey. Soon after his arrival, John Drake, then mayor of Dublin, marched against the O'Byrnes of Wicklow, whom he routed at Bray, slaying 500; and as a recognition of this and other similar services, the privilege of having the sword borne before the mayor was granted to the city of Dublin. John Dowdal, sheriff of Louth, was publicly murdered in Dublin, by Sir Bartholomew Vernon and three other English gentlemen, for which and other crimes they were outlawed and their estates forfeited; but soon after they received the king's pardon and had their lands restored. The duke of Lancaster remained two years, and left as deputy Sir Stephen Scroop, who soon after resigned the office to the earl of Ormond, but on the death of the latter in 1405, the earl of Kildare was elected,

and he was followed in quick succession by Scroop, and the new earl of Ormond as deputies to the duke.

Gillapattrick O'More, lord of Leix, defeated the English in battle at Athdub, in 1404, killing great numbers, and taking a large amount of spoils. The following year Art MacMurrough renewed hostilities by plundering Wexford, Carlow, and Castledermot; and in 1406 the English of Meath were defeated by Murrough O'Connor, lord of Offaly, and his son Calvagh. Three hundred of the English were killed on this occasion.

A. D. 1407.—This year the English avenged some of their recent losses. The lord deputy Scroop, with the earls of Desmond and Ormond, and the prior of Kilmainham, led an army against MacMurrough, who made so gallant a stand that victory for some time seemed to be on his side, although it ultimately declared for the English. The latter

the English Land. It is generally called *Ffine-Ghall* in the Irish annals (see *Four Masters*, v. 1633, note l,) where the term *Galls* comes to be applied to the descendants of the early adventurers, and that of *Saxons* to Englishmen newly arrived. The formation of the Pale is generally considered to date from the reign of Edward I. About the period of which we are now treating, it began to be limited to the four counties of Louth, Meath, Kildare, and Dublin, which formed its utmost extent in the reign of Henry VIII. Beyond this the authority of the king of England was a nullity. The border lands were called the *Marches*. Campion describes the Pale as the place "whereout they (the English) durst not peepe." The Wicklow septs of O'Toole and O'Byrne frequently scoured the country as far as Clondalkin, Saggard, and other places in the immediate vicinity of Dublin. An authority of the reign of Henry VIII. complains that even the four counties of Dublin, Kildare, Meath, and Uriel, or Louth, were not "free from Irish invasions, and were so weakened, withal, and corrupted, that

scant four persons in any parish wore English habits; and coine and liverie were as current as in the Irish counties."—The same authority (a Report on the condition of Ireland in 1515, preserved in the English State Paper Office, and printed in the first volume of the "State Papers" relating to Ireland) states that but half of each of the four counties just mentioned was subject to the king's laws, and that "all the comyn People of the said Halff Countyes that obeyeth the Kinges Laws, for the more part ben of Iryshe Byrthe, of Iryshe Habyte, and of Iryshe Language;" and in enumerating the English territories which paid tribute, or "Black Rent," to the "wylde Irish," it is stated that the county of Uriel (Louth) paid yearly to the "great Oneyll" £40; the county of Meath, to O'Connor of Offaly, £300; the county of Kildare, to the same O'Connor, £20; the King's Exchequer to MacMurrough, 80 marks; besides the tributes paid by English settlements outside the Pale to their respective Irish chieftains. Such was the state of things more than 300 years after the so-called conquest



then made a rapid march to Callan, in the county of Kilkenny, where they came by surprise upon Teige O'Carroll, lord of Ely, and his adherents, and slew 800 of them in the panic which ensued.\*

Teige O'Carroll, who was killed in the fray, was a generous patron of learning; and it will be remembered that a few years before this time, when returning from a pilgrimage to Rome, he was honorably received at the court of Richard II., in Westminster. A parliament was held this year at Dublin in which the statute of Kilkenny was confirmed, but the insolence which prompted this proceeding was soon after humbled.

A. D. 1408.—The duke of Lancaster again assumed the reins of government in person; but stipulated that he should be allowed to transport into Ireland, at the king's expense, one or two families from every parish in England, that the demesnes of the crown should be resumed, and the laws against absenteeism enforced. Soon after his arrival he seized the earl of Kildare in an arbitrary manner, and demanded 300 marks

for his ransom. Meanwhile MacMurrough, who had again taken the field, was victorious in battle, and O'Connor Faly carried off enormous spoils from the English in the lands bordering on his own territory. The royal duke finally left Ireland in 1409, after appointing Thomas Butler, prior of Kilmainham, as his deputy. The latter held a parliament in Dublin the following year, when the law against coyn and livery was further confirmed; he also made an incursion into O'Byrne's country, with a force of 1,500 kernes or light-armed infantry, but without success.†

A. D. 1412.—Tyrone was for many years, about this period, a scene of contention between different sections of the O'Neill family, and the neighboring chieftains were generally involved in the strife. When Niall Oge O'Neill died, in 1402, his son Owen was unable to enforce his right of succession, and Donnell, of the Henry O'Neill branch, was recognized as chieftain. In 1410 Donnell was made prisoner by Brian MacMahon of Oriel, who delivered him up to his enemy, Owen O'Neill, and

\* Both English and Irish accounts agree as to the number of slain, but the former add "that the sun stood still that day for a space, until the Englishmen had ridden six miles!" a prodigy on which the Irish annals are silent.

About this time the first notice of *usquebagh*, or whiskey, occurs in the Irish annals, which mention that Richard MacRannal, chief of Muintir-Eolais in Leitrim, died from drinking some at Christmas, in the year 1405. Connell Mageoghegan (*Ann. of Clon.*) playing upon the name, says "mine author sayeth that it was not *aqua vitæ* to him, but *aqua mortis*." Fynes Morryson, a writer of the reign of Queen Elizabeth,

lauds the *usquebagh* or *aqua vitæ* of Ireland, as better than that of England.—*History of Ireland*, vol. ii., p. 366.

† An Act passed in the parliament held in the year 1411, affords a striking example of the malevolence with which the legislature of the Pale was animated towards the Irish. It was enacted that none of the "Irish enemy" should be allowed to depart from the realm, without special leave under the great seal of Ireland and that any one who seized the person or goods of a native thus attempting to depart should be rewarded with one-half of the aforesaid goods, the remainder to be forfeited to the State.



through the agency of the latter he was transferred to the English, who already had in their hands Hugh, another of the Henry O'Neill faction. Hugh made his escape from Dublin in 1412, after ten years' imprisonment, and contrived to take with him several other captives; among others, his kinsman Donnell. This escape created great alarm in the Pale, and threw Ulster once more into confusion. Seven years later Donnell O'Neill was expelled by Owen and the other northern chiefs; and the following year we find the earl of Ormond, then justiciary, acting with an English army against the Ultonians on his behalf. Donnell and his Anglo-Irish auxiliaries were, however, unsuccessful, and the former was then obliged to fly for shelter to the O'Conors of Sligo.

A piratical warfare was carried on at this period between the Scots and the English merchants of Dublin and Drogheda. The latter were obliged to arm in their own defence, as government was unable to protect them, and they fitted out privateers and plundered the Scottish and the Welsh coasts indiscriminately. MacMurrough gained a victory over the English of Wexford in 1413, and the O'Byrnes another over those of Dublin the same year. A little before this, the sheriff of Meath was taken prisoner by O'Connor Faly, and a large ransom exacted for him. In fact, the state of the English Pale was at this time such that it was necessary to re-

move the prohibition of trading with the Irish of the Marches. Permission was granted to take Irish tenants on the border lands, and licenses were given to place English children with Irish nurses, and even to intermarry with the Irish. The English of Meath were obliged to purchase peace from the Irish by annual tributes or black rent. The English of Louth complained that the king's commissioners had billeted or assessed Eochy MacMahon and other "Irish enemies" upon them, and that these men were prying into all the woods and strong places about the country. A petition was presented by the commons to the king, complaining that even the king's ministers frequently committed open acts of spoliation on the English subjects.\* In a word, the speaker of the English House of Commons, Sir John Tibetot, broadly asserted "that the greater part of the lordship of Ireland (that is, the English territory there) had been conquered by the natives."†

A. D. 1413.—Henry V. succeeded to the crown of England on the death of his father this year; but although he made his first essay in arms in Ireland, having been knighted when a boy by Richard II., in a camp in Wexford, he does not appear to have ever taken much interest in Irish affairs. The English overthrew the Irish in a battle at Kilkea in Kildare; but in the following year they were defeated in Meath by

\* *Proceedings, &c., of the Privy Council*, edited by Sir H. Nicholas, vol. ii.

† Rot. Parl. 573.



Murrough O'Connor, lord of Offaly, when the baron of Skreen and many of the English gentry were killed, and the sum of 1,400 marks exacted as a ransom for the son of the baron of Slane, who was made prisoner. Sir John Stanley, who was now sent over as lord deputy, rendered himself odious by his cruelties and exactions; and the Irish annals say that he was "rhymed to death" by the poet Niall O'Higgin of Usnagh, whom he plundered in a foray, and who then lampooned him so severely that he only survived five weeks!\* He is accused of having enriched himself by extortion and oppression, and of having incurred enormous debts, which his executors refused to liquidate; and it was said that he "gave neither money nor protection to clergy, laity, or men of science, but subjected them to cold, hardship, and famine."

A. D. 1415.—Sir John Talbot of Hallamshire, who was called lord Furnival, in right of his wife, and was subsequently rewarded for his services with the title of earl of Shrewsbury, was sent

to Ireland as lord justice at the close of 1414, and entered on the duties of his office with determined energy. Setting out on a martial circuit of the borders of the Pale, he first invaded the territory of Leix, took two of O'More's castles, and laid waste the whole of his lands in so merciless a way, that that chief was obliged to sue for peace, and to deliver up his son as a hostage. The hardest of his terms was, that O'More should fight under the English standard against his brother chieftains, as he was compelled to do immediately after against MacMahon of Oriel, who was likewise subdued and compelled to yield to similar terms; so that it was said lord Furnival "obliged one Irish enemy to serve upon the other." These successes, achieved in the space of a few months, gained for him the approbation of the inhabitants of the Pale; but as it was necessary to revive the exaction of coyn and livery to support the soldiery, the advantages were more than counterbalanced by the losses.†

A. D. 1416.—No sooner had this

\* This was the second "poetic miracle" performed by this Niall O'Higgin by means of his satire and imprecations, the former being "the discomfiture of the Clann Conway the night they plundered Niall at Claddann." In the case mentioned above, one of the Anglo-Irish, Henry Dalton, took up the bard's cause, and plundered "James Tuite and the king's people," giving the O'Higgins out of the prey a cow for every one that had been taken from them, and then escorting them to Connaught.

† The oppressive nature of coyn and livery is thus explained in the preamble to the statute (not printed) of 10 Hen. VII., c. 4:—"That of long there hath been used and exacted by the lords and gentlemen of this land, many and divers damnable customs and usages, which being called coyn and livery and pay—that is, horse

meat and man's meat for the finding of their horsemen and footmen, and over that, 4d. or 6d. daily to every of them, to be had and paid of the poor earth-tillers and tenants, without any thing doing or paying therefor. Besides, many murders, robberies, rapes, and other manifold oppressions by the said horsemen and footmen daily and nightly committed and done, which have been the principal causes of the desolation and destruction of the said land, so as the most part of the English freeholders and tenants be departed out of the land."—*Grace's Annals*, p. 147, note; *Davis' Discovery*, pp. 143, 144; also, Printed Statutes, 10 Hen. VII., cc. xviii. and xix. The exactions of the Irish chiefs were remodelled after the English invasion, and soon became totally different from those set down in the Book of Rights.—See *O'Donovan's Introduction to the Book of Rights*, p. xviii.



formidable deputy departed to attend his royal master in France, where he became the most distinguished of the English commanders, than the Irish again rose and made ample reprisals. O'Connor Faly took large spoils from the Pale's men; and the invincible king of Leinster overran the English settlements in Wexford, killing or taking prisoners in one day 340 men. The next day the English sued for peace and delivered hostages to him. This was the last exploit of Art MacMurrough Kavanagh. That Irish prince, the most illustrious of the ancient royal line to which he belonged, died in 1417. Our native annals say "he nobly defended his own province against the invaders from his sixteenth to his sixtieth year." He was distinguished for his hospitality and his patronage of learning, as well as for his chivalry, and was a munificent benefactor of churches and religious houses. He is supposed to have been poisoned along with his chief brehon, O'Doran, by a drink administered to him by a woman at New Ross the week after Christmas, and was succeeded by his son Donough, who was worthy of his father's military fame. Two years after this, Donough was made prisoner by Richard Talbot, then lord deputy, and sent to London, where he was confined in the Tower.

A. D. 1421.—Murrough O'Connor, lord of Offaly, whom we have seen so often victorious over the English, died this

year, having assumed the habit of a grey friar a month before his death in the monastery of Killeigh, near Geashill. The same year the earl of Ormond, then lord deputy, defeated O'More in "the red bog of Athy," the historian, Campion, relating on this occasion the prodigy which Ware refers to a former one, namely, that the sun stood still to accommodate the victorious English! Thus war was carried on with inveterate animosity on both sides; but unfortunately it was not confined to the hostile races of Celt and Saxon, for during the whole of this time our annals teem with accounts of internecine quarrels among the Irish chiefs themselves in almost every part of the country.\*

A petition was presented to parliament in 1417, praying that as Ireland was divided into two nations, the English subjects and the Irish enemies, no Irishman should be presented to any office or benefice in the church; and that no bishop, who was of the Irish nation, should, under pain of forfeiting his temporalities, collate any Irish cleric to a benefice; moreover, that he should not be allowed to bring any Irish servant with him when he came to attend parliament or council. The prayer of this atrocious petition was granted; and soon after we find an attempt made to carry out the principle in a prosecution against Richard O'Hedian, archbishop of Cashel, who was distinguished for his zeal and bounty in promoting religion

\* A small body of Irish troops, under the command of Thomas Butler, prior of Kilmainham, attended king

Henry V. in one of his French wars, and gained great éclat by their wild impetuosity and heroism in battle.



and fostering its establishments, but who was now impeached for showing favor to Irishmen; for giving no benefice to English ecclesiastics; for advising other bishops to follow his example, and for some other trumpery charges; but the matter does not appear to have been followed up. It is plain, that the only real cause of accusation against this prelate was the display of some kindness and generosity towards his persecuted countrymen.

About the close of this reign, the Irish commons presented a petition to the king, complaining of several monstrous grievances and abuses on the part of his officers in Ireland. Among them were the cruelty, oppression, and extortion practised by several of the lord deputies, some of whom, like Sir John Stanley, and lord Furnival, incurred enormous debts which they left unpaid. They complained also of the hostility shown to the Anglo-Irish in England, however loyal they might be as subjects, hostility which was carried so far as to exclude Irish law students from the Inns of Court in London, and to cause a variety of obstructions and annoyances to Irish students attending the English schools, although the statutes concerning absentees contained an express exception in favor of studious persons. Thus were even those of English descent made to feel daily more and

more painfully the alien and unkind sentiments with which every thing pertaining to Ireland was regarded in England.

Many entries meet us in our searches through the Irish annals, which show that even in the dreary period that we have been just exploring, men were not always occupied with war and rapine. The magnificent Franciscan monastery of Quin, in Clare, was founded by Sheeda Cam MacNamara in 1402; and in 1420, James, earl of Desmond, erected the abbey of the same order at Eas Gephtine or Askeaton, where the noble ruins, washed by the tide of the Deel, still remind us of days when religion exulted in its pomp as well as in its fervor. Several of the Irish chiefs gave edifying evidence of repentance in their deaths; and some of them assumed the religious habit, as Turlough, son of Niall Garv O'Donnell, lord of Tirconnell, who died in the monastery of Assaroe in 1422, causing his son, another Niall Garv, to be inaugurated in the chieftainship. Gilla-na-neev O'Heerin, the author of a valuable Irish topographical poem, often quoted by our antiquaries, died in 1420, and the obituaries of some other persons, distinguished for historical knowledge, are mentioned under that and the following year, as David O'Duigennan, Farrell O'Daly, ollav of Corcomroe, and Gillareagh O'Clery of Tirconnell.



## CHAPTER XXVIII.

## REIGNS OF HENRY VI., EDWARD IV., EDWARD V., AND RICHARD III.

State of Ireland on the Accession of Henry VI.—Liberation of Donough MacMurrough.—Incursions of Owen O'Neill.—His Inauguration.—Famine.—The "Summer of slight acquaintance."—Distressing State of Discord.—Domestic War in England at this Period.—Dissensions in the Pale.—Complaints against the Earl of Ormond.—Proceedings of Lord Furnival.—Pestilence.—Devotedness of the Clergy.—The Duke of York in Ireland.—His Popularity.—Confesses his Inability to Subdue the Irish.—His Subsequent Fortunes and Death in England.—Irish Pilgrimages to Rome and St. James of Compostella.—Munificence of Margaret of Offaly.—Her Banquets to the Learned.—The Butlers and Geraldines take opposite sides in the English Wars.—Popular Government of the Earl of Desmond.—He is unjustly Executed.—Wretched Condition of the English Pale.—Fatal Feuds and Indifference of the Irish, and Contemporary Disorders in England.—Atrocious Laws against the Irish.

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*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—Popes: Eugenius IV., Calixtus III., Pius II., Paul III., Sixtus IV., Innocent VIII.—Kings of France: Charles VII., Louis XI., Charles VIII.—Kings of Scotland: the First, Second, and Third James.

Joan of Arc Burned by the English as a Sorceress, 1434.—Constantinople taken by the Turks, 1453.—Printing Invented by Gутtenberg, 1440, and introduced into England by Caxton, 1471.—St. Thomas á Kempis died, 1471.

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(A. D. 1422 TO A. D. 1485.)

HENRY VI. was proclaimed king of England while yet an infant, not quite nine months old; and those who governed during his minority found the English colony in Ireland in a very precarious state at the time they entered on their duties. In 1423, Donnell O'Neill, chief of Tyrone; his old competitor for the chieftaincy, Owen, son of Niall Oge O'Neill; Niall O'Donnell, chief of Tirconnell, and several other princes of Ulster, laid aside their feuds for the moment in order to make a combined inroad on the English of that province. They marched first to Dundalk, thence to the town of Louth, and subsequently into Meath, where Richard Talbot, archbishop of Dublin, who then filled the office of lord deputy, attempted to arrest their progress, but in vain, his army having been routed with considerable loss. Finally, peace was made with the Irish after they had obtained enormous spoils, and levied a tribute or black rent on the wealthy burgesses of Dundalk. The following year James, earl of Ormond, came to Ireland as lord lieutenant with an English army, and mustering a strong force he hastened to avenge the colonists on the northern chieftains. He ravaged the plains of Armagh and part of Monaghan. The



O'Neills of Clannaboy, O'Hanlon, and MacMahon were driven, either by necessity or private jealousy, to fight on the English side, and the men of Tyrone and Tirconnell retired to their own territories.

A. D. 1425.—Edward Mortimer, earl of March, having assumed the government of Ireland, landed here with a large army, according to the Irish annals, in September, 1424, but according to English authorities, in the preceding year. The year after his arrival he died of the plague at his residence in Trim; and Talbot, lord Furnival, who succeeded him in office, came suddenly on a number of Ulster chieftains, who were negotiating peace with earl Mortimer at the time of his unexpected death. These chiefs were carried prisoners to Dublin, and their seizure produced the utmost excitement in the north. Owen O'Neill was ransomed, but how the other prisoners eventually got off we are not told. The annals add that the Clann Neill then arranged their mutual differences, and recovered by their united force all the lands which they had lost in their contentions.

A. D. 1428.—Donough MacMurrough, son of the celebrated Art MacMurrough Kavanagh, was this year liberated from the Tower, after an imprisonment of nine years. The Irish annals say he was ransomed by his people, the Irish of Leinster. On his return to Ireland he resumed the honors of his hereditary chieftaincy, and with its honors its chivalrous resistance to the English; as we

find that in 1431 he made an incursion into the county of Dublin, and that in a battle fought on that occasion he was victorious in the early part of the day, although in the evening the English rallied, regained the captured spoils, and killed many of his men. One of the O'Briens and two sons of O'Conor Kerry were in MacMurrough's army at the battle, and the O'Toole fell into the hands of the English. MacMurrough took revenge the following year by another incursion, and a battle in which he routed the English and made several prisoners.

A. D. 1430.—Owen O'Neill led an army this year into Louth and devastated the English settlements there. He burned the castles which defended Dundalk, and made the inhabitants of that town pay tribute. He then marched into Annaly and West Meath, spreading desolation wherever he went; the English were obliged to purchase mercy at a dear rate, and several Irish chiefs, as O'Conor Faly, O'Molloy, O'Madden, Mageoghegan, and O'Melaghlin, acknowledged him as their lord paramount by the old form of accepting stipends from him. The history of the time is made up of such driftless hostilities, which served only the purposes of personal revenge or plunder, and left the fate of the country untouched. On the death of Donnell O'Neill, of the Henry Avry branch, who was killed by the O'Kanes, in 1432, Owen O'Neill was regularly inaugurated at Tullaghoge as chief of the Kinel-Owen. This year



Manus MacMahon committed frequent depredations on the English, and was in the habit of placing their heads on the stakes which enclosed his garden at Baile-na-Lurgan, where the town of Carrickmacross now stands.

In 1433 the O'Neills and O'Donnells waged a terrific war against each other; and to add to the misfortunes of the country, a famine prevailed; so that the season was afterwards known as "the summer of slight acquaintance," from the selfish distance and reserve which the dearth created among friends. In 1434 the chiefs of Tyrone and Tirconnell once more combined to invade the English districts and to enforce the tribute which they had imposed on Dundalk, but, on this occasion a rash movement on the part of some of the young O'Neills led to the loss of a battle and to the capture of Niall Garv O'Donnell, who was taken off to England and confined in the tower. In 1439 this heroic chieftain was removed to the Isle of Man to negotiate for his ransom, but he died there, and, to the exclusion of his sons, his brother Naghtan O'Donnell was installed chief of Tirconnell.

The feuds and alliances which alternated in such rapid succession among the Irish chieftains appear to us, at this distance, to have been in the utmost degree capricious and uncertain; but the most melancholy feature in the social picture was the unprincipled competition for the chieftaincy by which the ruling families in almost all the inde-

pendent territories were torn into factions. The old law of tanistry was perverted or trampled under foot by the ambitious. Brothers were arrayed against each other, and uncles and nephews were engaged in perpetual warfare. At the time we are treating of, Owen O'Neill, prince of Tyrone, had to defend himself against his kinsman Brian Oge O'Neill, and was ultimately banished by his own son Henry. A few years later (1452) Naghtan O'Donnell was murdered at night by the two sons of his brother Niall Garv, whom he had disinherited. In 1437 the indomitable O'Connor Faly had the mortification to see his brother Cahir leagued against him for a time with the English. Brian and Manus MacMahon contended for the chieftaincy of Oriel, and in the south, Tieve O'Brien, chief of Thomond was in 1438 deposed by his brother Mahon. In Connaught the insignificance to which the leading septs had been reduced by their family divisions has rendered it unnecessary for us for some time past to notice their still uninterrupted broils. That such a state of things should have prevailed in Ireland, where anarchy was rendered in a manner inevitable by the conflicts of the hostile races and the absence of a controlling power, is perhaps not to be wondered at. But at this period England herself presented in the struggle between the houses of York and Lancaster an example of the same kind of family warfare, on a gigantic scale, and at an enormous sacrifice of human life.



Nor was the English Pale at this time free from dissension. About the beginning of this reign a violent feud broke out between the earl of Ormond and the Talbots, and continued to disturb the country for many years. A parliament, held in Dublin, in 1441, acting under the influence of Richard Talbot, archbishop of Dublin, and brother of Lord Furnival, adopted certain statements or articles, the object of which was to prevent the re-appointment of the earl as lord-lieutenant. They prayed the king to appoint a "mighty lord of England" to the office, on the ground that the people would more readily favor and obey him than any man of Irish birth; as Englishmen "keep better justice, execute the laws, and favor more the common people than any Irishman ever did, or is ever likely to do." They urged that the earl of Ormond had lost all his castles, towns, and lordships in Ireland; that he was too old and feeble to take the field against the king's enemies, and made sundry other charges to show his unfitness for the office.\* These accusations did not appear to weigh with king Henry, for the earl, who was a staunch supporter of the house of Lan-

caster, was re-appointed lord-lieutenant the next year. Sir Giles Thorndon was, however, sent over to observe how things were going on, and he made a report, although only in general terms, on the factions which distracted the king's subjects in Ireland. Two years later (1444) he made a second report, in which the earl of Ormond was directly charged with misappropriating part of the public revenue, with compromising crown debts for his own benefit, and with sundry acts of corruption, peculation, &c. The earl was, upon this, arrested and confined in the tower on a charge of high treason, and Sir John Talbot, then earl of Shrewsbury, but better known to the reader as Lord Furnival, was made lord-lieutenant (1446), and soon after created earl of Waterford and baron of Dungarvan.†

A. D. 1446.—The earl of Shrewsbury succeeded in establishing peace on the borders of the Pale. This remarkable man always achieved some important exploits on his appointment to the government of Ireland. His fame was world-wide. The English boasted that he won for them the kingdom of France: and all the English power in

\* Proceedings of the Privy Council, vol. vi.

† In the letters conferring these honors the country from Youghal to Waterford is described as waste, and redounding more to the king's loss than to his profit; but the barony of Dungarvan was soon after restored to the earl of Desmond, from whom it had been taken on that occasion on some unexplained grounds. As an instance of the pretexts for which the petty wars of the period were sometimes carried on, we are told that the son of Bermingham, lord of Louth, was, in 1443, offended

at Trim by the son of Barnwell, treasurer of Meath who gave him a *caimin* or filip on the nose. Enraged at the insult, young Bermingham left the town privately and repaired to O'Connor Faly, who was only too happy to have one English party to aid him against another. A plundering foray ensued, and Bermingham obtained ample satisfaction, at the same time that Calvagh O'Connor secured his own dues from the English of Of faly. "Never was such abuse better revenged," say Dudley Firbis, "than the said *caimin*."



that country was unquestionably centered in him. Yet this great captain and extraordinary man was able to do no more on this occasion in Ireland, with the aid of an army which he had brought with him from England, than to compel O'Connor Faly, an Irish chieftain in the very heart of Leinster, to make peace with the English government, to pay for the ransom of his son, and to send some beeves for the use of the king's kitchen! A fact worth volumes in illustrating the precise extent of the English power in Ireland more than 270 years after the invasion by Henry II.\*

A. D. 1447.—Ireland was at this period seldom free from pestilence, but this year a destructive plague raged in the summer and autumn, and carried off, it was said, 700 priests who had fearlessly exposed themselves to its fury in the discharge of their sacred duties.† The plague was also rife the following year in Meath.

A. D. 1449.—The duke of York, who was nephew of the last earl of March, and inherited his right to the earldom of Ulster and other Irish titles, was appointed lord lieutenant for a period of ten years with extraordinary powers and privileges, and with a grant of money from England to carry on the

government, in addition to the crown revenues of Ireland.‡ The appointment of a prince of the royal blood to the government of Ireland was always sure to be popular; and in the case of the duke of York, the connection of his family with this country, and his own honest principles and amiable disposition, procured for him the sympathy and confidence of all parties in Ireland. Some of the native chiefs showed him the most marked respect, and gave him, say our annals, as many beeves for the use of his kitchen as he chose to demand.

A. D. 1450.—The son of the chief Mageoghegan was at this time committing great depredations on the English at Meath. He burnt Rathguair, or Rathmore, Killucan, and several other places in that territory, and at length the duke of York led an army against him, under the royal standard, to Mullingar, where Mageoghegan came at the head of a strong body of cavalry to oppose him. The duke chose not to risk a conflict, and agreed to terms of peace, forgiving Mageoghegan for all his aggressions. He then wrote to his brother, the earl of Salisbury, to state that unless he received an immediate supply of money from England, and was enabled to increase his army,

\* The Irish annals add that the earl of Shrewsbury took the lands of several Englishmen for the king's use, and that he made the Dalton prisoner, and turned him into Lough Duff.—*Dudley Ffirbis's Annals*, quoted in note to *Four Masters*, vol. iv., p. 951.

† In this year an absurd law was passed by a parliament held in Dublin, which enacted that any man who

did not shave his upper lip might be treated as an "Irish enemy," and this law remained unrepealed until the second year of Charles I.

‡ In 1442 the Irish parliament, representing to the king the miserable state of the country, alleged that the public revenues fell short of the necessary expenditure by £1,456.



he could not defend the land against the Irish, or keep it in subjection to the king; and that rather than Ireland should be lost through any fault or inability on his part, he would return to England and live on his own slender means.

The main object of the English government in sending the duke to Ireland, was to remove him to a distance from a scene where his presence was dangerous to the reigning house of Lancaster; but the adherents of his party did not forget him in what was intended to be his exile. In the insurrection of Jack Cade, who was an Irishman, one of the objects professed by the insurgents was to place Richard, duke of York, on the throne. The duke now (1451) thought it right to return to England and put himself at the head of his friends, having previously appointed as his deputy the earl of Ormond, who although of the Lancastrian party, was personally attached to him. It is not our business to follow him in his proceedings in England; but when his party was defeated and broken up for a time in 1459, he fled to Ireland with his two sons, and was received with enthusiasm in the Pale, resuming the functions of viceroy at the very time that an act of attainder was passed against him and his family by the English parliament. How he could remain at the head of the government of Ireland under such circumstances, is one of the anomalies of which our history affords so many instances. Subsequently, through the energy of the earl of Warwick, who visited Ireland

in the course of this war, the white rose of York was again in the ascendant. At the battle of Northampton, in 1460, king Henry was made prisoner, and a compromise was entered into which secured the succession, on the king's death, to the duke of York and his heirs; the duke, in the mean time, being appointed protector; but the queen contrived to rally her party once more, and in the battle of Wakefield, which was fought on the last day of the year 1460, York was killed, together with 3,000 of his followers, among whom were several Irish chiefs from Meath and Ulster.

The events recorded in the Irish annals during the years over which we have just glanced, are, in many cases, full of interest, and serve to throw light upon the state of society. Several pilgrimages to Rome are mentioned almost every year. In 1444 we are told, that the bishop of Elphin and many of the clergy of Connaught and of other parts of Ireland repaired to the eternal city, and that several of them died there. Pilgrimages to St. James of Compostella were also frequent among the Irish chieftains at that period, and even some of the Irish ladies accompanied their lords on that long journey. Calvagh O'Connor, the veteran chief of Offaly, went on the great Spanish pilgrimage in 1451, and in the same year is recorded the death of his wife, Margaret, daughter of O'Carroll, king of Ely, a woman in whose praises the Irish annalists are enthusiastic. Calvagh himself died in



1458, and was succeeded by his son, Con, who inherited his father's chivalry.\*

The Geraldines adhered to the house of York and the Butlers to that of Lancaster, "whereby," says Sir John Davies, "it came to pass that not only the principal gentlemen of both those surnames, but all their friends and dependants did pass into England, leaving their lands and possessions to be overrun by the Irish."† In this manner the Pale became more and more restricted, until half of Dublin, half of Meath, and a third part of Kildare were reckoned in the border territories, where the English law was not fully in force.

A. D. 1462.—On the accession of Edward IV., son of Richard, duke of York, to the throne, in 1461, the earl of Kildare was lord justice of Ireland. The king's brother, the duke of Clarence,

was then appointed lord lieutenant, and FitzEustace, afterwards lord Portlester, was sent over as his deputy. He found Ireland plunged in a war between the young earl of Ormond and the earl of Desmond. A pitched battle was fought between them at Baile-an-phoill, now Pilltown, in the county of Kilkenny, when the earl of Ormond's army was defeated with a loss of four or five hundred men. His kinsman, MacRichard Butler, was taken prisoner, and part of the ransom given for him was the copy of the Psalter of Cashel now preserved in the Bodleian library.‡ After the battle the Geraldines took Kilkenny and other towns of the Butlers' country, but the earl of Ormond shut himself up in a strong position, and soon after received some aid from England, under one of his brothers, who captured four

\* The literati of Ireland and Scotland were entertained by this Margaret at two memorable feasts. At the first, which was held at Killeigh, in the present King's county, 2,700 guests, all skilled in poetry, or music, or historic lore, were present. The nave of the great church of Da Sinchell (St. Seanchan) was converted, for the occasion, into a banquetting hall, where Margaret herself inaugurated the proceedings by placing two massive chalices of gold, as offerings, on the high altar, and committing two orphan children to the charge of nurses to be fostered at her expense. Robed in cloth of gold, this illustrious lady, who was as distinguished for her beauty as for her generosity, sat in queenly state in one of the galleries of the church, surrounded by the clergy, the brehons, and her private friends, shedding a lustre on the scene which was passing below; while her husband, who had often encountered England's greatest generals in battle, remained mounted on a charger outside the church to bid the guests welcome and see that order was preserved. The invitations were issued and the guests arranged according to a list prepared by O'Connor's chief brehon; and the second entertainment, which took place at Rathangan, was a supplemental one, to embrace such men of learning as had not been

brought together at the former feast. *Dudley Firbis's Annals*, quoted in note to *Four Masters*, vol. iv., p. 972. This queen of Offaly is also celebrated for constructing roads and bridges, building churches, and causing illuminated missals to be written. Her daughter, Finola, took the veil in the convent of Cill-Achaidh (Killeigh, in the King's county), in 1447, after having been the wife, first of O'Donnell, and then of Hugh Boy O'Neill. She was, say the annalists, "the most beautiful and stately, and the most renowned and illustrious woman of her time in all Ireland, her own mother only excepted."

† *Discovery*, &c., p. 65.

‡ The following memorandum, made in Irish by MacRichard himself, appears as fol. 115 of the above-mentioned interesting MS. "A blessing on the soul of the archbishop of Cashel, i. e. Richard O'Hedigan, for it was by him the owner of this book was educated, namely, Edmond, son of Richard, son of James, son of James (the first earl of Ormond). This is the Sunday before Christmas, and let all those who shall read this give a blessing on the souls of both." The archbishop here alluded to is the same mentioned, *ante*, p. 291. MacRichard Butler died in 1664.



ships belonging to the earl of Desmond, and thus the power and courage of the Butlers once more revived.

Thomas, who had succeeded as eighth earl of Desmond, on the death of his father, James,\* in 1462, and was appointed lord deputy the following year, was a great favorite of king Edward's. Several of the Irish chieftains, and such Anglo-Irish lords as the Burkes, who seldom had any intercourse with the English authorities, came to Dublin to meet him, and entered into friendly relations with him. In 1466 he commanded an army of the English of Meath and Leinster against Con O'Connor Faly; but his army was routed, and he himself, with several of his leading men, were taken prisoners. Among these were Christopher Plunket, William Oge Nugent, Barnwell, and the prior of the monastery of our Lady of Trim. Teige O'Connor, who was the earl's brother-in-law, conveyed the captives to Carberry castle, in Kildare, where they were subsequently rescued by the English of

Dublin. Plundering parties from Offaly were now in the habit of scouring the country as far as Tara to the north and Naas to the south; and the men of Breffny and Oriel devastated all Meath, without any attempt on the part of the English to oppose or pursue them. In the south, Teige O'Brien, lord of Thomond, crossed the Shannon and plundered the territory of Desmond. He made himself master of the county of Limerick, obtained a tribute of sixty marks from the citizens of Limerick for sparing their city, and compelled the Burkes of Clanwilliam† to acknowledge his authority.

A college, which was afterwards munificently endowed by his successors, was founded at Youghal, in 1464, by the earl of Desmond, who next set on foot a project for establishing an university at Drogheda. But, while thus intent on the social improvement of the country, and acquiring deserved popularity for himself, the career of this nobleman was cut short by a foul act of

\* This James, who increased enormously the wealth and power of his family, obtained the earldom by the expulsion of his nephew, Thomas, the sixth earl, who incurred the displeasure of his friends and retainers by a romantic marriage. It appears that earl Thomas, being benighted while hunting in the neighborhood of Abbeyfeale, obtained a lodging in the house of William MacCormic, the owner of that place and a member of the ancient family of MacCarthy. MacCormic had a daughter, Catherine, with whose beauty the young earl was so captivated that he married her in spite of the remonstrance of his friends; but this union was treated as derogatory to the honor of the Geraldines; he was abandoned even by his retainers, and having been thrice expelled by his uncle, he formally surrendered the earldom to him, in 1418, and retired to France, where he died at Rouen, in 1420. Such is the story

given by Lodge and traditionally preserved; but O'Daly (p. 36 of the Rev. Mr. Meehan's translation) assigns rebellion as the cause of earl Thomas's expulsion. James then procured the confirmation of the earldom to himself and his heirs by act of parliament. He purchased from Robert FitzGeoffry Cogan a grant of all his lands, comprising about half the kingdom of Cork, as that part of ancient Desmond was then called; and in 1444 he obtained a patent for the government or custody of the counties of Limerick, Waterford, Cork, and Kerry, with a license exempting him for life from attending parliament in person, and from entering walled towns.—*Four Masters; Cox; Archdall's Lodge, &c.*

† The baronies of Clanwilliam in the counties of Limerick and Tipperary are contiguous, and take their name from a branch of the Burke family.



legalized murder. It is stated that he incurred the enmity of the queen, Elizabeth Woodville, for having advised Edward IV. to divorce her, on account of the lowness of her birth, and that it was by secret instructions from her that he was put to death.\* The story is very probable; but it is at all events certain that in 1467 he was superseded in office by John Tiptoft, earl of Worcester, and that in the February of the following year he was seized and beheaded at Drogheda, on the flimsy charge of alliance, fostering, etc., with the Irish.† This monstrous crime, committed in the name of authority, astounded the country, and the earl's sons took up arms against the government. Tiptoft returned to England soon after, as if he had fulfilled a specific mission; and the earl of Kildare, who had been included with the earl of Desmond in the act of attainder, made his escape to England, and pleaded his cause before the king, who pardoned him, and appointed him lord deputy. Tiptoft soon after suffered by the same kind of death which he had inflicted on Desmond.

During the remainder of the reign of Edward IV. and those of his nominal successor, Edward V., and of the usurper, Richard III., our annals still abound in materials, although the numerous

events recorded in them at this time form no connecting links of importance in the chain of our history. The English power in the Pale was reduced to its lowest point of weakness. Sundry plans for defence were suggested in the wretched condition into which the colonists had fallen. A military society or confraternity, under the name of the Brothers of St. George, was got up but the whole of the standing army of the English in Ireland, even with their assistance, amounted only to about 200 men. At another time they were reduced to so low an ebb that a force of eighty archers on horseback and forty mounted spearsmen constituted the whole of their military establishment; and as it was doubtful whether the revenue of the Pale could furnish the sum of £600, necessary for the maintenance of this little band, it was provided that England should contribute the balance. Yet the native Irish never thought of using such an opportunity for a national purpose. They made several inroads on the English settlements, which were completely at their mercy; but the animosity with which the Irish septs fought against each other was fully equal to what they exhibited against the Clann Saxon, who were, in fact, treated as a portion of the original

\* See the Rev. C. P. Meehan's translation of O'Daly's *Geraldines*, in Duffy's *Library of Ireland*, where the story is circumstantially related, pp. 39, 40. Also Cox and Hollinshead. Mr. Moore, however, holds, "that by no other crimes than those of being too Irish and too popular did Desmond draw upon himself persecution." —*Hist. of Ireland*, vol. iii., p. 189.

† Ware and several others give Feb. 15th, 1467, as the date of the earl's execution; but it was only in October that year that Tiptoft came to Ireland. (See Harris's Table.) The Four Masters, and the Addenda to Grace's Annals, have the date 1478, being the natural year, the other the legal. The latter then began in March.



population of the country. The Irish had no leader, no rallying point, no national principle. They were still in a state of political chaos; but things were at this time not much better in England, where, two kings alternately exchanged places on the throne and in the dungeon, parliaments were making contradictory enactments with servile pliability, the heads of princes and nobles were daily falling under the executioner's axe, and where in the space of thirty years, in the family-quarrel of the houses of York and Lancaster, more than 100,000 Englishmen were slain.

By a law passed in the tenth year of Henry VI., it was made a felony for any subject of the king to sell merchandise in a fair or market among the "Irish enemies," in time either of peace or war; it was also enacted that any of the "Irish enemies," that is, Irish living beyond the bounds of the Pale, who, in time of peace or truce, came and conversed among the "English lieges" might be treated as the king's enemies. By a law of the fifth of Edward IV.

(A. D. 1465), any Irishman found without a "faithfull man of good name in his company, in English apparel," and whom an Englishman should choose to suspect of being a thief, or an "intended" thief, might be lawfully killed and his head cut off. And a parliament held in 1475 enacted a law by which any Englishman who suffered injury from a native Irishman belonging to an independent sept, might reprise himself on the whole sept or nation. These infamous laws were directed against the native Irish; but there were others of which the Anglo-Irish might bitterly complain. Thus, in 1438, a law was made in England obliging all persons born in Ireland to quit the former country within a certain time, except graduates of universities,\* &c.; while another statute was made in Ireland to prevent persons from emigrating into England. Thus did the legislature ingeniously labor to perpetuate hostility between the two races, while even the old English settlers were made to feel that they were under an alien sway.

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\* "From various licenses for absence, to avoid the penalties against absentees, granted to beneficed clergymen in the reigns of Richard II., and the subsequent kings, it appears that the English universities, and more particularly Oxford, were much resorted to by Irish scholars. (In 1375 two Franciscans of Ennis were sent by the chapter to study at Strasbourg.—Rot. Pat. 49, Ed. III. 273)." Grace's annals, p. 97, note. Some magnificent monasteries founded about this period by Irish princes, attest the wealth as well as the piety of the

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native population. Thus, the Franciscan monastery of Monhagan was founded by the MacMahons of Oriel, in 1462; that of Lis-laichtain, or Ballylongford, on the lower Shannon, by O'Connor, Kerry, in 1470; that of Donegal by Hugh Roe O'Donnell, in 1474; that of Meelick, by O'Madden, in 1479; that of Killcrea in East Muskerry, by Cormac MacCarthy, in 1495; and that of Creevelea in Leitrim, by Owen O'Rourke and his wife, in 1508.



## CHAPTER XXIX.

## REIGN OF HENRY VII.

Forbearance of Henry VII. towards the Yorkists in Ireland.—The Earl of Kildare continues Lord Deputy.—Arrival of Lambert Simnel.—His Cause Espoused by the Lords of the Pale.—Coronation of Simnel in Christ's Church.—His Expedition to England.—Defeat of Simnel's Army at Stoke.—Pardon of his Adherents.—Loyalty of Waterford.—First use of Fire-arms in Ireland.—Murder of the Earl of Desmond.—Arrival of Sir Richard Edgecomb.—Another Mock Prince.—Disgrace of the Earl of Kildare.—His Quarrel with Sir James Ormond.—Perkin Warbeck at Cork.—Sir Edward Poynings Arrives in Ireland as Governor.—The Parliament of Drogheda; Poynings' Act.—The Earl of Kildare Attainted and sent Prisoner to England.—His Vindication before Henry VII.—Returns as Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.—Further Adventures of Warbeck.—His last Visit to Ireland.—His Execution.—Transactions of the Native Princes during this period.—The battle of Knocktow.—Death of Hugh Roe O'Neill.

*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—Popes: Innocent VIII., Alexander VI., Pius III., Julius II.—Kings of France: Charles VIII., Louis XII.—Sovereigns of Spain: Ferdinand and Isabella.—Kings of Scotland: James III., James IV.—Discovery of America by Columbus, 1492

(A. D. 1485 to A. D. 1509.)

ON the accession of Henry VII., Gerald, earl of Kildare, was continued in the office of lord deputy, as his brother, Thomas FitzGerald, was in that of chancellor, and his father-in-law, Roland FitzEustace, baron of Portlester, in that of lord treasurer, although these noblemen, like the great majority of the population of the Pale, were avowed partisans of the House of York.\* Throughout his reign we find Henry pursuing this temporizing policy towards the enemies of his house in Ireland—a policy so different from that which he adopted in England, and

which his cold, calculating, and politic character forbids us to attribute to motives of a generous nature. The result proved that his usual sagacity failed him in this instance, as his Anglo-Irish subjects were not the less disaffected, and were the willing dupes of every plot contrived against him. At first he introduced none of the Lancastrian party into his Irish councils; but, in November, 1485, the head of this party in Ireland, Thomas Butler, seventh earl of Ormond, who had been attainted under Edward IV., was restored to his honors and lands, and subsequently

\* The king's uncle, the duke of Bedford, was appointed lord lieutenant of Ireland in the room of the

earl of Lincoln; but in such a case the lord deputy, who resided in the country, was the actual governor of Ireland.



rendered important services to Henry as a diplomatist and general.\*

A. D. 1486.—A contemporary Irish chronicler,† recording the accession of this first of the Tudors, says: "The son of a Welshman, by whom the battle (of Bosworth field) was fought, was made king; and there lived not of the royal blood at that time but one youth, who came the next year (1486) in exile to Ireland." So thought the native Irish writers, who were but imperfectly informed on the affairs of the Pale, and who believed the youth here referred to, namely, Lambert Simnel, the mock earl of Warwick, to have been a genuine prince. Young Simnel, the son of a tradesman at Oxford, arrived in Dublin this year, in charge of a priest, named Richard Symons, who acted as his tutor. He is described as a boy of prepossessing appearance and princely manners; and according to some accounts he was only eleven years of age, although the prince he was chosen to personate, and who was then a prisoner in the Tower, was in his fifteenth year.

Henry had before this some suspicion that the lord deputy was plotting against him; and early this year he in-

vited him to England on the pretence of consulting him on Irish affairs; but Kildare mistrusted the king's object, and as an apology for not complying with the royal summons, called a parliament and obtained from the chief lords letters which he transmitted to the king, importing that his presence was indispensable at that juncture in Ireland. The next moment we find the earl receiving young Simnel as a true prince, and embarking in his cause. His example was almost universally followed by the inhabitants of the Pale, who still cherished the memory of the popular favorite, Richard, duke of York. In vain did Henry exhibit the real earl of Warwick to the gaze of the citizens of London. These were convinced; but the Anglo-Irish were not yet undeceived, and insisted that the person whom Henry had put forward was the counterfeit, and theirs the genuine prince. Octavianus de Palatio,‡ archbishop of Armagh, saw through the Simnel imposture, and endeavored, but in vain, to expose it. The bishop of Clogher, the families of Butler and St. Laurence, and the citizens of Waterford, also remained faith-

\* Thomas Butler, the seventh earl, was the youngest brother of James, the fifth earl, who was a distinguished commander of the Lancastrians, and was beheaded by the Yorkists after the battle of Towton field, in 1461. The second brother, John, was sixth earl, and although true to the principles of his party, was in favor with the Yorkist king, Edward IV., who used to say that "he was the goodliest knight he ever beheld, and the finest gentleman in Christendom." He spoke all the languages of Europe; was sent as ambassador to several courts, and died unmarried, on a pilgrimage in the

Holy Land in 1478. The third, or youngest brother, Thomas, mentioned above, was ambassador to the courts of France and Burgundy, and died in 1515, the most wealthy subject of the crown of England. He left no sons, and his second daughter, Margaret, was the mother of Sir Thomas Boleyn, father of the famous Anne Boleyn.

† Cathal MacManus Maguire, canon of Armagh and dean of Clogher, the original compiler of the *Annals of Ulster*, who died in 1498.

‡ He is also called Octavianus Italicus, and was a native of Florence.



ful to the king. Margaret, duchess of Burgundy, sister of Edward IV., was supposed to be the chief contriver of the scheme; and lords Lovell and Lincoln, the latter a nephew of the late king, arrived from her court in Ireland, in 1487, with an army of 2,000 Germans, enlisted in Simnel's cause, under the command of a veteran soldier, named Martin Schwartz. Simnel was then solemnly crowned in Christ's Church on Whitsunday, with the title of Edward VI., in the presence of the lord deputy, the chancellor, the treasurer, the earl of Lincoln, lord Lovell, and many of the chief men of the kingdom, as well ecclesiastical as secular. The diadem used in the ceremony is said to have been taken from a statue of the Blessed Virgin, in the church of Sainte Marie del Dam;\* and the mock king was then carried in triumph from Christ's church to Dublin castle on the shoulders of a gigantic Anglo-Irishman, popularly called Great Darcy of Platten.

Simnel was next conveyed to England, where he landed on the coast of Lancashire with an army composed of some Anglo-Irish and of the Germans already mentioned. Here they were joined by Sir Thomas Broughton with a small force, but in their march through Yorkshire the aid which they expected

did not appear; and in a desperate battle at Stoke, in Nottinghamshire, they were utterly routed by the vanguard of king Henry's army. Simnel's army consisted of only 8,000 men, of whom 4,000 were slain, with all the leaders, including the earl of Lincoln, lords Thomas and Maurice FitzGerald, Sir Thomas Broughton, and Schwartz. Simnel himself and Richard Symons were made prisoners and dealt with rather mercifully; for while the latter was consigned to perpetual imprisonment, the youthful tool of the conspirators was only condemned to act as turnspit in the king's kitchen, and was subsequently promoted to the rank of falconer. The earl of Kildare and other Anglo-Irish lords involved in the mad scheme, but who did not accompany Simnel to England, sent messengers to crave the king's pardon, and Henry seems to have contented himself for that time by sending them a sharp reprimand. He was unwilling to dispense with the earl's services, or drive him into determined hostility, so he retained him in his office of lord deputy. To the citizens of Waterford Henry wrote commending their loyalty, and giving them leave to seize for the use of their city the ships and merchandise of the rebel citizens of Dublin;† and when the latter applied in abject terms for

\* For the identification of the name of this church, situated near Dame's-gate, see Gilbert's History of Dublin, vol. ii., pp. 1 and 256.

† It was on this occasion that the title of *Urbs intacta* was conferred by Henry on Waterford. A contemporary metrical version, or rather amplification of the letter

addressed by the mayor of Waterford, in the name of the citizens, in reply to the summons received from the earl of Kildare, to recognize the mock king, Simnel, is published from a MS. in the State-paper Office, in Croker's "Popular Songs of Ireland."



forgiveness, and endeavored to exculpate themselves by throwing the blame of their ridiculous revolt on the earl of Kildare, Henry does not appear to have noticed their communication.

The first mention of fire-arms in the Irish annals occurs in the year 1487, when one Brian O'Rourke was slain by Hugh O'Donnell, surnamed Gallda, or the Anglicized, "with a ball from a gun;" and the following year cannon make their appearance, the earl of Kildare having, in an incursion into Mageoghegan's territory, demolished the castle of Balrath (Bile-ratha), in the present barony of Moycashel, in West Meath, with ordnance. James, the ninth earl of Desmond, was murdered in his castle, at Rathkeale, in 1487, by his own attendants, at the instigation, as the Irish annals say, of his brother John, who, as well as the others implicated in the murder, was banished by his brother Maurice, who succeeded to the earldom. The new earl was nicknamed "baccagh," or the lame, but his martial career soon caused this epithet to be changed into that of "warlike," as he was engaged in constant wars with his Irish neighbors, although it was necessary to carry him to the battlefield in a litter.

A. D. 1488.—Sir Richard Edgecomb now came on a special commission from king Henry, to exact new oaths of allegiance from the lords and others, and to fix the conditions on which the king's pardon was to be granted to them. He was attended by a guard of 500 men,

conveyed in four ships, and landed at Kinsale on the 27th of June, where he received the homage of lords Barry and Courcey, and administered the oath of fidelity to the inhabitants. At Waterford, where he next arrived, Sir Richard was received with great honor by the citizens, who urgently entreated that if the earl of Kildare were again to be invested with authority, their city, to which for its loyalty he was always hostile, might be exempted from his jurisdiction, and from that "of all other Irish lords who should ever bear any rule in that land; and might hold immediately of the king, or of such English lords as shall fortune hereafter to have rule in Ireland." The commissioner next proceeded to Dublin, and took up his lodgings in the convent of the Friars Preachers. He was informed that the earl of Kildare was absent on a pilgrimage, and his first interview with that nobleman did not take place until seven days after, in St. Thomas's abbey, Thomas-court, when the commissioner read the king's letters to him and introduced the object of his mission. This parley did not end satisfactorily, and the earl retired to his house at Maynooth, where Sir Richard was subsequently induced to visit him, and was splendidly entertained. But the politeness and hospitality shown to him did not prevent the commissioner from remonstrating against the delays which took place, and the obstacles thrown in the way of an arrangement. He used strong and threatening words, but the



lords of the Pale, on their side, told him, at one of their interviews, that sooner than submit to the terms he proposed they would join the Irish. At length there was an amicable settlement. The earl did homage before the commissioner in the great chamber of St. Thomas's abbey. He was then absolved from the excommunication which he had incurred by his rebellion; and during the celebration of mass in a private chapel of the abbey, he took the oath of allegiance on the Most Holy Sacrament. The bishops and nobles who were implicated with him in the late revolt took the same oath. Sir Richard then suspended round the earl's neck a gold chain which the king had sent him; and all proceeded from the private chapel to the church of the abbey, where a *Te Deum* was chanted by the choir.\* With great difficulty the commissioner was subsequently induced to grant the royal pardon to Thomas Plunket, chief justice of the Common Pleas, who had been one of the most active of Simnel's partisans; but no solicitation could induce him to extend the amnesty to Keating, the refractory prior of the knights of St. John of Kilmainham, who had committed innumerable frauds and outrages, had expelled and imprisoned Marmaduke Lomley, the lawful prior, and continued to usurp that dignity, as well as the office of constable, or governor of Dublin castle.

The following year Kildare and several other Anglo-Irish lords waited on the king at Greenwich, in obedience to a royal summons; and at a banquet to which Henry invited them they were attended at table by their late idol, Lambert Simnel, who was taken for that occasion from his duties in the kitchen.

A. D. 1492.—After what had so recently passed, it is hard to imagine how sane men could have allowed themselves to be duped by another plot of a mock prince; yet the intriguing duchess of Burgundy tried the experiment once more, and with some success. On this occasion she selected a boy named Peter Osbeck, but commonly called Perkin Warbeck, a native of Tournay, in Flanders, and had him trained to represent Richard, duke of York, one of the two young princes, sons of Edward IV., who were murdered by Richard III. in the tower. He was sent into Portugal in 1490 to await a favorable opportunity for introduction to the public, and this occasion seemed to present itself in 1492. The king, urged by some suspicions which appear to have been groundless, had deprived Kildare of the office of deputy, and serious disturbances had followed in the Pale. Sir James Butler, or Ormond, as he is called in the annals, natural son of John, earl of Ormond, who died in Jerusalem on a pilgrimage in 1478, came to Ireland about this time, after a long absence, and by the aid of the O'Briens, the MacWilliams of Clanricard, and others, endeavored

\* See the *Diary of Sir Richard Edgecomb's Voyage into Ireland*, published in Harris's *Hibernica*. Sir Richard sailed from Dalkey on the 30th of July.



to get himself acknowledged head of the Butlers, while his uncle, Thomas, earl of Ormond, was on diplomatic service for the king in France. This illegal conduct did not prevent king Henry from appointing Sir James lord treasurer of Ireland, in the room of FitzEustace, while Walter Fitzsimons, archbishop of Dublin, was appointed lord deputy. The earl of Kildare did not submit peaceably to the indignity to which, through the medium of Sir James Ormond, he was subjected; and, in some tumults which ensued, he burned Sheep-street, now called Ship-street, which adjoined the castle of Dublin, but was then outside the city walls. He also withdrew his protection from the English of Meath, who had refused to take part in his quarrel, and the spoliation of their territory in every direction, by the Irish, was the consequence.

At this juncture, when England was besides involved in a war with France, young Warbeck made his appearance at Cork, where he arrived in a merchant vessel from Lisbon, and announced himself as Richard, duke of York. He was well received by the citizens, and John Water, or Walters, a respectable merchant who had been mayor of the city, warmly espoused his cause, which soon after excited great enthusiasm on an invitation being received by Warbeck from the king of France to visit his court. At the French court Warbeck was received with royal honors, but this demonstration was speedily followed by the result which it was intended to pro-

duce, namely, a peace with Henry; and the impostor retired to Flanders, where the duchess of Burgundy welcomed him as her nephew, and called him "the White Rose of England."

A. D. 1493.—Towards the close of this year Sir Robert Preston, first viscount Gormanstown, was made lord deputy in the absence of the archbishop of Dublin, who was sent for by the king to give him an account of the state of Ireland. Sir James Ormond also repaired to England, and the earl of Kildare, fearing the machinations of such enemies, hastened thither, but did not on that occasion succeed in vindicating himself from the charges made against him.

A. D. 1494.—Alarmed at the state of things in Ireland, Henry now sent over Sir Edward Poynings, a knight of the garter and privy councillor, to undertake the government. Sir Edward was accompanied by some eminent English lawyers to act as his council, and brought with him a force of 1,000 men. Determined in the first instance to extirpate the abettors of Warbeck, the leaders of whom it was understood had fled to Ulster, he marched with a large army to the north; the earl of Kildare, notwithstanding his equivocal position towards government, being invited to accompany him. Not long before this, in an irroad by Hugh Oge MacMahon and John O'Reilly, sixty English gentlemen had been killed and many taken prisoners; but on the deputy's approach the Irish chiefs retired to their fastnesses.



es, and finding no enemy to fight with he laid waste their lands. A report was then spread that the earl of Kildare was conspiring with O'Hanlon to cut off the English lord deputy, and news arrived that the earl's brother had risen in rebellion and captured the castle of Carlow. Under these circumstances Sir Edward made peace on any terms with O'Hanlon and Magennis, into whose territory he had entered, and returning to the south, recovered the possession of Carlow castle after a siege of ten days.

In the month of November this year was held at Drogheda the memorable parliament, at which the statute, called after the lord deputy, Poynings' law, was passed. By this parliament it was enacted that all the statutes lately made in England affecting the public weal should be good and effectual in Ireland; the odious statutes of Kilkenny were confirmed, with the exception of that which prohibited the use of the Irish language, which had at that time become the prevailing language even of the Pale; laws were framed for the defence of the marches; it was made a felony to permit "enemies or rebels" to pass through those border lands; the general use of bows and arrows was enjoined, and the war cries which some

of the great English families had adopted in imitation of the Irish were strictly forbidden.\* The old law, called the statute of Henry FitzEmpress (Henry II.), which enabled the council to elect a lord deputy on the office becoming suddenly vacant by death, was repealed, and it was enacted that the government should in such a case be entrusted to the lord treasurer, until a successor could be appointed by the king. But the particular statute known as Poynings' act was one which provided that henceforth no parliament should be held in Ireland until the chief governor and council had first certified to the king, under the great seal, "as well the causes and considerations, as the acts they designed to pass, and till the same should be approved by the king and council." This act virtually made the Irish parliament a nullity; and when, in after times, it came to affect, not merely the English Pale, for which it was originally framed, but the whole of Ireland when brought under English law, it was felt to be one of the most intolerable grievances under which this country suffered.

A. D. 1496.—Sir Edward Poynings' parliament passed an act of attainder against the earl of Kildare, his brother James, and other members of his family. The charges against the earl

\* See the Irish and Anglo-Irish War cries, explained in Harris's Ware, ii. 163; and O'Donovan's Irish Grammar, p. 327. They were chiefly composed of the exclamation of defiance, *abu!* or *abo!* and the name, or crest of the family, or place of residence, as *Lamhdearg-abu!* the O'Neill's war cry, from their crest of the Red-hand; *Lamh-laidir-abu!* that of the O'Briens,

MacCarthy's, and FitzMaurices, from the crest of the Right-arm (*Lamh-laidir*, the "strong hand"), issuing from a cloud; the war cry of the Geraldines of Kildare, *Cromadh-abu!* from Croom castle in Limerick, and that of the Desmond Geraldines, *Seanaid-abu!* from their strong castle of Shannid, in the same county, &c.



appear to have been grounded on mere suspicion, but he was sent to England, and detained there a prisoner; and his countess, it is said, was so deeply affected by the event that she died of grief. At length an opportunity was afforded him to plead his cause before the king, and the frankness and simplicity of his manner at once convinced that astute observer of character that he could not have been the political intriguer which his accusers pretended. One of the charges against him was, that he had sacrilegiously burned the church of Cashel; but to this the earl bluntly replied, that he never would have done so "had he not been told that the archbishop was in it." This novel defence amused the king; and by-and-by, when the counsel against Kildare wound up his charge by vehemently protesting that "not all Ireland could govern this man," Henry observed, "then he is the fittest man to govern all Ireland." Thus the earl triumphed; and the chieftain, O'Hanlon, having come forward to clear him upon oath of the charge of conspiring with him against the English lord deputy, Kildare was not only fully pardoned and restored to his honors and estates, but by letters patent was made lord lieutenant of Ireland, and returned home with greater powers

than he had ever before possessed; his eldest son, Gerald, being, however, retained as a hostage.

A. D. 1497.—To return to the impostor Warbeck, he was obliged in 1495 to leave Flanders on the conclusion of a treaty between that country and England. He then returned to his former friends in Cork, but not seeing an encouraging prospect there,\* he went to Scotland, where he was introduced at the court of James IV. on the recommendation of the duchess of Burgundy, with all the honors due to his assumed rank. He even obtained in marriage the hand of Catherine Gordon, a lady remarkable for her beauty, and related to the royal family, being the daughter of the earl of Huntley, and granddaughter of James I. Again, however, he was driven from his asylum, James and Henry having agreed to a treaty; but the Scottish king generously furnished him with a ship to take himself and his wife away, and also a small party of armed men; and once more the adventurer was landed at Cork. Here he found no further support, and availing himself of an invitation from Cornwall, he proceeded thither with his wife, four Waterford ships sailing in pursuit of the fugitives. Further than this it is unnecessary for us to trace the impostor's fortunes, except to state that he closed his

\* The accounts of these movements are obscure, but it would appear that Warbeck in 1495 visited Ireland with eleven ships supplied by the archduke; that by the aid of the earl of Desmond an undisciplined army was raised for him in Ireland; that he then laid siege to Waterford, and that the citizens, on the approach of

the lord deputy to their assistance, sallied forth and compelled Warbeck to raise the siege, three of his ships being captured by the townspeople, and he himself forced to return to Cork. "Former historians," says Mr. Wright, "have erroneously placed this siege under the year 1497." *Hist. of Ireland*, vol. i., p. 266.



career at Tyburn, in 1499, the infatuated John Water, mayor of Cork, sharing his fate on the scaffold.\*

We have pursued the course of events in the Pale without turning aside to those in which the native Irish were exclusively engaged. These latter carried on their mutual wars as usual without seeming to regard the English as a common enemy. A great war broke out in 1491 between Con O'Neill and Hugh Roe O'Donnell. In 1493 Tyrone was laid waste by a contest for the succession among the O'Neills themselves; and in a sanguinary battle at Glasdrummond Con O'Neill triumphed over his opponent, Donnell O'Neill. Hugh Roe O'Donnell then mustered a large army in Tirconnell and Connaught, marched into Tyrone, and after a furious battle with Henry Oge O'Neill, at Beanna Boirche, in the Mourne mountains, returned home victorious. In 1495, O'Donnell went on a visit to the king of Scotland, and was received with great honors. In the Scottish accounts he is called the Great O'Donnell;† but nothing certain is known of the object of his visit. On his return he defeated the O'Conors at Sligo, but raised the siege of that town on the approach of MacWilliam (Burke) of Clanricard. In 1497, provoked by the dissensions between his sons, Hugh

Roe resigned the lordship of Tirconnell, which was then assumed by his son Con; but his second son, Hugh Oge, would not consent to this arrangement, and got some of the Burkes to assist him with a fleet. Con was defeated in battle, but two days after he succeeded in capturing his brother Hugh, and sent him to be confined in the castle of Conmaicne Cuile, in Connaught. Con now invaded Moylurg, but was defeated with terrible slaughter by MacDermot, in the Pass of Ballaghboy, in the Curlieu mountains; the famous Cathach, which the O'Donnells always carried before them into battle, being among the spoils which he lost on that occasion.‡ Con's misfortunes did not terminate here. Henry Oge O'Neill judged the opportunity a favorable one to avenge the defeat he recently received from Hugh Roe, and led an army into Tirconnell. He first laid waste the land of Fanad, and in a battle which he then fought with Con O'Donnell, the latter turbulent and ambitious young chieftain was slain and his forces routed. Upon this Hugh Roe resumed the lordship; and Hugh Oge who was now liberated, having declined the chieftaincy which his father offered him, father and son appear to have ruled their principality with joint sway.

Ever since the pardon accorded to

\* It is worthy of remark that the Four Masters make no mention whatever of either Simnel or Warbeck, or of any proceedings relating to them.

† Tytler, Hist. Scot., vol. iv., c. 3.

‡ The *Cathach* (Preliator), the metallic reliquary or box, in which a portion of the Psalms of David, tran-

scribed by St. Columbkille, was preserved. It has recently been deposited by its owner, Sir Richard O'Donnell, in the museum of the Royal Irish Academy. The Cathach was recovered from the MacDermotts in 1499, by Hugh Roe O'Donnell, who entered Moylurg with an army for the purpose.



him in 1494, Garrett, earl of Kildare, was constantly engaged in war with some of the Irish septs; but on most of these occasions he acted rather as an Irish chieftain than as the deputy of the English king. His sister, Eleonora, was married to Con O'Neill, and this alliance involved him in the numerous feuds of which Tyrone was the theatre. At the instance of his nephew, Turlough O'Neill, and of Hugh Roe O'Donnell, an ally of Turlough's, he marched to the north in 1498, and took the castle of Dungannon by the aid of ordnance. The following year Hugh Roe came to the Pale to visit the earl, who gave him his son Henry in fosterage, notwithstanding the stringent laws against this kind of an alliance with the Irish. This year (1499) the earl marched into Connaught, but only to take part in the quarrels of some of the Irish chieftains, for the castles which he took from one rival chief he delivered to another, and MacWilliam Burke soon after restored them to their former possessors. In 1500 Hugh Roe O'Donnell and the lord justice marched in concert into Tyrone to co-operate against John Boy O'Neill, from whom they took the castle of Kinard, or Caledon, which was then delivered up to the earl's nephew, Turlough O'Neill.

A. D. 1504.—For some time an inveterate warfare had been carried on between MacWilliam (Burke) of Clanrickard, styled Ulick III., and Melaghlin O'Kelly, the Irish chief of Hy-Many. Burke was the aggressor, and the more

powerful. This year he captured and demolished O'Kelly's castles of Garbh-dhoire, now Garbally; Muine-anmhe adha, or Monivea, and Gallach, now called Castleblakeny, in the county of Galway; and the Irish chief, then on the brink of ruin, had recourse to the earl of Kildare for protection. The latter, more desirous of curbing the growing power of Clanrickard, with whom he had a personal feud, than of restoring peace in Connaught, mustered a powerful army, and crossed the Shannon. He was joined by Hugh Roe O'Donnell and his son, and the other chiefs of Kinel-Connell; by O'Conor Roe of Northern Connaught; MacDermot of Moylurg; the warlike chiefs Magennis, MacMahon, and O'Hanlon; O'Reilly; the bishop of Ardagh, who was then the chief of the O'Farrells of Annaly; O'Conor Faly; the O'Kellys; the lower MacWilliams, or Burkes of Mayo; and, in fact, by the forces of nearly all Leath-Chuinn, or the northern half of Ireland, with the exception of O'Neill. Besides these he was attended by viscount Gormanstown, the barons of Slane, Delvin, Howth, Kileen, Trimleston, and Dunsaney, and by John Blake, mayor of Dublin, at the head of an armed force. Clanrickard, on his side, also assembled a very numerous army, his allies being Teige O'Brien, lord of Thomond, the MacNamaras and other North Munster chiefs; Mac-I-Brien of Ara; O'Kennedy of Ormond; and O'Carroll of Ely. One of Clanrickard's chief strongholds at this time was the



castle of Claregalway, or Baile-an-chlair, and about two miles to the north-east of this place, on some elevated rocky land called Knoc-tuagh (Knocktow), or the Hill of Axes, his army was drawn up to await the enemy. The battle which ensued was one of the most sanguinary and decisive that had taken place in Ireland since the invasion; but there cannot be a greater perversion of the truth than to represent it, as English historians have done, as a battle between the English and Irish, or between the forces of the English government and the "Irish rebels." For some hours the issue seemed doubtful, but ultimately Clanrickard and his allies suffered a total overthrow. Their loss in the battle and flight, according to Ware, was 2,000 men; Cox makes it amount to 4,000; and that fabulous Anglo-Irish compilation, the Book of Howth, raises the loss to 9,000! The white book of the Exchequer asserted, according to Ware, as a kind of miracle, that not one Englishman was even hurt in the battle, a thing which is quite possible, as there were probably no Englishmen actually engaged on either side; but although nothing can be more silly than to boast of the victory as if won by Englishmen, it was in its results a most important

one for English interests, by establishing the power of the Pale, and inflicting a blow on the Irish chieftains from which they never recovered.\* The Book of Howth attributes an atrocious expression to viscount Gormanstown after the battle. "We have slaughtered our enemies," said he to the earl of Kildare, according to this veracious authority; "but to complete the good deed we must do the like with all the Irish of our own party." As a contrast to which insolence of success, Leland candidly observes, that "in the remains of the old Irish annalists we do not find any considerable rancor expressed against the English; but they even speak of the actions and fortunes of great English lords with affection and sympathy."† Kildare, with his usual impetuosity, wished to push on to Galway, eight miles distant, the evening of the battle, but the veteran O'Donnell recommended him to encamp that night on the field, until the troops, scattered in pursuit of the enemy, should be collected. The battle was fought on the 19th of August, 1504, and the next day Galway and Athenry surrendered to the earl without resistance. Kildare distributed thirty tuns of wine among his army, but whether he paid the merchants of

\* Sir John Davis admits that this battle arose out of a private quarrel of the earl of Kildare. Ware does not discredit the report that it owed its origin to "a private grudge between Kildare and Ulick;" Cox alludes to such an opinion in similar terms; and the Four Masters, who were not accessible to these writers, record the circumstances as we have related them, and in a way which leaves no doubt upon the matter. Dr. O'Donovan, who

had every existing record of this transaction before him, says the conflict at Knocktow was, in fact, a battle between Leath-Chuinn and Leath-Mhogha, the northern and southern halves of Ireland, like the battles of Moy Lena, Moy Mucruimhe, and Moy Alvy, where the southern were as usual defeated. The name of the place is at present written either Knocktow or Knockdoe.

† Hist. of Ireland, book iii., c 5.



Galway for it we are not told. He himself, as a reward for the victory, was made a knight of the garter. As to Ulick Burke, he escaped, but his two sons, and some say his two daughters also, were made prisoners.

The only event of interest recorded in the remainder of this reign is the death of Hugh Roe O'Donnell, which took place in 1505, in the 78th year of his age, and the 44th of his reign over Tirconnell. He was the son of the cele-

brated Niall Garv O'Donnell, and was one of a long line of heroes. "In his time," say the annalists, "there was no need of defence for the houses in Tirconnell, except to close the doors against the wind." He was succeeded by his son, Hugh Oge. During the reign of Henry VII. the country was frequently visited by pestilence, and the fearful visitation, called the sweating sickness, raged for several years.



## CHAPTER XXX.

## REIGN OF HENRY VIII.

**Accession of Henry VIII.**—Gerald, earl of Kildare, still Lord Deputy.—His last Transactions and Death.—Hugh O'Donnell visits Scotland and prevents an Invasion of Ireland.—Wars of the Kinel-Connell and Kinel-Owen.—Proceedings of the new Earl of Kildare.—The Earl of Surrey Lord Lieutenant.—His Opinion of Irish Warfare.—His Advice to the King about Ireland.—His Return.—The Earl of Ormond succeeds and is made Earl of Ossory.—Wars in Ulster.—Battle of Knockavoe.—Triumph of Kildare.—Vain attempts to reconcile O'Neill and O'Donnell.—Treasonable Correspondence of Desmond.—Kildare again in Difficulties.—Effect of his Irish Popularity.—Sir William Skeffington Lord Deputy.—Discord between him and Kildare.—New Irish Alliances of Kildare.—His Fall.—Reports of the Council to the King.—The Schism in England.—Rebellion of Silken Thomas.—Murder of Archbishop Allen.—Siege of Maynooth.—Surrender of Silken Thomas and Arrest of his Uncles.—Their Cruel Fate.—Lord Leonard Gray in Ireland.—Destruction of O'Brien's Bridge.—Interesting Events in Offaly.—Desolating War against the Irish.—Confederation of Irish Chiefs.—Fidelity of the Irish to their Faith.—Rescue of young Gerald FitzGerald.—Extension of the Geraldine League.—Desecration of Sacred Things.—Battle of Belahoe.—Submission of Southern Chiefs.—Escape of young Gerald to France.—Effects of the "Reformation" on Ireland.—Servility of Parliament.—Henry's Insidious Policy in Ireland.—George Brown, first Protestant Archbishop of Dublin.—His Character.—Failure of the New Creed in Ireland.—Terrible Spoliation of the Irish by the Lord Justice.—Submission of Irish Princes.—Their Acceptance of English Titles and Surrender of Irish ones.—Henry VIII. made King of Ireland.—Submission of Desmond.—First Native Irish Lords in Parliament.—Execution of Lord Leonard Gray.—O'Neill Surrenders his Territory and is made Earl of Tyrone.—Murrough O'Brien made Earl of Thomond.—Confiscation of Convent Lands.—Effect of the Policy of Concession and Corruption.

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*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—Popes: Julius II., Leo X., Adrian VI., Clement VII., Paul III.—Kings of France: Louis XII., Francis I.—Emperors of Germany: Maximilian I., Charles V.—Sovereigns of Scotland: James IV., James V., Queen Mary.—The "Reformation" preached in Germany, 1517.—Foundation of the Society of Jesus, 1584.—Opening of the Council of Trent, 1545.—Death of Luther, 1546.

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(A. D. 1509 TO A. D. 1547.)

NO change was made in the Irish government on the accession of Henry VIII. Gerald, the veteran earl of Kildare, was confirmed in his office as lord deputy, and still carried on his forays against various Irish septs. In 1510 he proceeded with a numerous army into south Munster against the MacCarthys, and was joined by James, son of the earl of Desmond. In Ealla, now Duhallow, he took the castle of Kanturk, and in Kerry the castle of Pailis, near Laune Bridge, and Castlemaine. Returning to the county of Limerick he was joined by Hugh, lord of Tirconnell, the son of his old ally, Hugh Roe O'Donnell, with a small, but efficient body of troops. He crossed



the Shannon and destroyed a wooden bridge which stood over that river at Porterusha, probably somewhere near Castleconnell, but here his progress was checked. Turlough O'Brien had collected a large army composed of the septs of North Munster and Clanrickard, and at this point approached so close that the men's voices could be heard from the opposite camps during the night; but the morning after this bold advance of O'Brien found Kildare preparing to retreat. The Leinster and Meath troops, with O'Donnell's small contingent, were placed in the rear, and James of Desmond, with the Munster forces, led the van.\* While retiring in this order he was attacked by O'Brien, who took large spoils and slew several of the English, among others Barnwell, of Crickstown, in Meath, and a baron Kent; but the earl succeeded, with the main body of his army, in reaching Limerick through Monabraher, on the north side of the Shannon, and soon after he left Munster.

A. D. 1512.—The earl once more crossed the Shannon into Connaught, and took the castle of Roscommon and that of Cavetown, in Moylurg. O'Donnell, who had spent the year 1511 on a pilgrimage to Rome, and was engaged since his return in making reprisals on O'Neill for depredations committed by the latter in Tirconnell during his absence, came to the Curliu mountains to

meet Kildare, and renewed the friendly relations which must have been disturbed by O'Donnell's hostilities in Ulster. Apparently as one of the consequences of this conference the earl soon after marched to the north, entered Clannaboy, and took the castle of Belfast, and other strongholds. In the course of the following year O'Donnell appears to have rendered an important service to the English interest. He visited Scotland on the invitation of James IV., who treated him with great honor, during three months which he stayed there, and as we are told that "he changed the king's resolution of coming to Ireland as he intended," we may conclude that James meditated an invasion, from which he was deterred by O'Donnell's advice, and by the recollection, probably, of the fate of Edward Bruce.

The earl of Kildare made his last campaign in Ely O'Carroll, where he laid siege to the castle of O'Banan's-leap; but failing to take this stronghold, he retired to Athy, where he died; his death, as some say, being caused by a wound which he had received long before in O'More's country. The Irish annalists style him the Great Earl, and describe him as "valorous, princely, and religious." He was interred in Christ Church, and his son, Garrett Oge, or Gerald the younger, was chosen by the privy council to succeed him as lord justice, and soon after was created lord deputy by letters patent. The new earl rivalled his father's zeal against the

\* Ware says that James of Desmond was with O'Brien on this occasion, but the context shows the Four Masters, whom we have followed, to be correct.



border Irish, and inaugurated his administration by defeating the O'Mores, and slaying in battle fourteen of the chief men of the O'Reillys, including the head of the sept.

A. D. 1514.—When Art, son of Con, who had succeeded Art, son of Hugh O'Neill, and Hugh O'Donnell, met this year at Ardsratha, or Ardstraw-bridge, in Tyrone, at the head of hostile armies, and separated in peace, the annalists attribute the fortunate issue to the interposition of heaven. Few, indeed, and brief were the intervals in the mutual warfare of the Kinel-Connell and the Kinel-Owen; but if we judge from the changes which had by this time taken place in their respective territorial boundaries, we may conclude that the former of these great septs were generally the aggressors. The chiefs of Tirconnell had succeeded in wresting very large territories from the O'Neills; and by the treaty made on this occasion the charters by which O'Donnell claimed sovereignty over Inishowen, Fermanagh, and other tracts of country formerly belonging to the Kinel-Owen, were confirmed. The place where the armies met was also considerably within the frontier of Tyrone. As to the peace, it was of short duration, for two years after we find the same parties again at war.\*

A. D. 1516.—A feud broke out be-

tween James son of Maurice, earl of Desmond, and his uncle, John. The former was supported by MacCarthy More (Cormac Ladhrach, or the "hasty"), Donnell MacCarthy of Carberry, and other chieftains of that sept, and also by the white knight, the knight of Glinn, the knight of Kerry, FitzMaurice, and O'Conor-Kerry; while John was aided by the Dalcassians, with whose chiefs he was allied by his marriage with More, daughter of Donough, son of Brian Duv O'Brien, lord of Carigogonnell and Pobblebrien. James laid siege to the castle of Lough Gur, but on the approach of John with the army of Thomond, reinforced by that of the Butlers, he retreated without fighting. This feud was followed by one between Pierse Butler, claiming to be earl of Ormond, and other members of his family.

In the mean time the young earl of Kildare succeeded in taking the castle of O'Banan's-leap, which his father had besieged in vain; and the following year (1517) he led an army to Tyrone at the instance of his kinsmen, the O'Neills, who were as usual in arms against other branches of their sept. Having retaken Dundrum castle, in Leale, from which the English had been expelled, and vanquished the Magenises, he proceeded to desolate Tyrone, and captured and burned the fort of Dun-

\* On this latter occasion O'Donnell also carried his arms into Connaught, and took the castle of Sligo by the aid of some cannon which had been sent to him by a French knight who made a pilgrimage to St. Patrick's

purgatory in Lough Derg, and had been hospitably entertained by the chief of Tirconnell. Several other castles in northern Connaught were surrendered to O'Donnell immediately after his capture of Sligo.



gannon. On the invitation of O'Melaghlin he led his army to Delvin, where Mulrony O'Carroll had committed great depredations, and had taken the castle of Ceann-Cora. But while he was thus occupied, enemies were busily engaged in undermining his position with the king; the prime movers of the mischief against him being his hereditary foes, the Butlers. At first he was able to vindicate himself without much difficulty. He repaired to England for that purpose in 1515, and was successful; but cardinal Wolsey, who had now risen to great power, was inspired with an implacable enmity towards him, and caused him to be again summoned to England, in 1519; the earl appointing his kinsman, Sir Thomas FitzGerald of Laccagh, as his deputy during his absence.

A. D. 1520.—Thomas Howard, earl of Surrey, a man equally eminent as a warrior and a statesman, was now sent as lord lieutenant to Ireland, where he landed with a force of 1,000 men and 100 of the king's guard. Kildare was still kept in England, where he remained in ignorance of the machinations going forward in Ireland to collect evidence against him. One of the principal charges was, that he had written to O'Carroll of Ely, advising him to keep peace with the Pale until an English deputy should be sent over, but "when

any English deputy shall come thither," he added, "then do your best to make war on the English." There was little doubt that the earl had written to this effect, O'Carroll's brothers having confessed that such a letter had been received, but the evidence was not conclusive; and Kildare, whose former wife had died, having married Elizabeth Gray, daughter of the marquis of Dorset, acquired influence at court, through the powerful English friends whom this alliance procured him, and escaped for the present. Though treated with honor, he was not, however, restored to favor, and spies were employed to collect evidence against him in Ireland at the very time that he formed one of king Henry's retinue in France, at the famous meeting of the "field of the cloth of gold."

A. D. 1521.—Whether Kildare urged the Irish chieftains to rebel, as he was accused of doing, or not,\* it was evident that a general and formidable rising was contemplated, although the energy and rapid movements of Surrey crushed the attempt. The viceroy first marched against O'More, demolished his castles, laid waste his country, burned the ripening crops, and finally compelled him to submit; but in this expedition he narrowly escaped falling into the hands of the Irish. O'Carroll also submitted, and Con O'Neill having threatened Meath with invasion, Surrey, by a timely march

\* O'Donnell waited on the earl of Surrey at this time in Dublin, and told him that he had been invited to take up arms against the English government by Con O'Neill who said he did so at the suggestion of the earl of Kildare; Surrey, who mentions the circum-

stance in a letter to the king (State Papers, p. 37), says:—"I fynde him (O'Donnell) a right wise man, and as well determynd to doo to your grace all things that may be to your contentacion and pleasure as I can wysh him to bee."



to the north, averted the blow. However, he soon became wearied with the Irish warfare. It seemed hopeless and interminable. He had a well appointed army furnished with artillery, but amidst bogs and forests, and against an enemy who, while they yielded in front, perpetually harassed him in the flank and rear, he could effect nothing. He assured the king, as the result of his experience in Ireland, that by conquest alone could that country be reduced to peace and order, while he admitted that

\* State Papers, xx.—The names and position of the principal independent Irish septs at this period, with many other particulars of interest on the condition of the country, are set forth in an official document of the year 1515, preserved in the English State Paper Office, and printed in the first volume of the State Papers relating to Ireland. In this document it is stated that the English rule only extended over one-half of the five counties of Uriel (Louth), Meath, Dublin, Kildare, and Wexford, and that even within those narrow limits, the great mass of the population consisted of native Irish; the English having deserted the country on account of the oppressive exactions to which they were exposed. The greater part of Ireland was still in the hands of the "Irish enemies," and was divided into more than sixty separate States or "regions," "some as big as a shire, some more, some less;" and these regions were ruled by as many "chief captains, whereof some called themselves kings, some king's peers in their language, some princes, some dukes, some archdukes, that live only by the sword, and obey no other temporal person but only him that is strong." These independent "captains" or heads of septs were as follows:—in ULSTER: O'Neill of Tyrone, O'Donnell of Tirconnell, O'Neill of Clannaboy, O'Cahan of Kenoght, in Derry, O'Dogherty of Inishowen, Maguire of Fermanagh, Magennis of Upper Iveagh, in Down, O'Hanlon of Armagh, and MacMahon of Irish Uriel (Monaghan). In LEINSTER:—MacMurrough of Hy-Drone, in Carlow, O'Murroughu (or Murphy) in Wexford, O'Byrne and O'Thole (O'Toole) in Wicklow, O'Nolan in Carlow, MacGillapatrik in Upper Ossory, O'More of Leix, O'Dempsey of Glenmalir, O'Conor of Offaly, and O'Doyne (or Dunn) of Oregan, in the Queen's County. In MUNSTER:—MacCarthy More of Kerry, Cormac MacTeige MacCarthy of Cork, O'Donoghue of Killarney, O'Sullivan of Beare, O'Conor of Kerry, MacCarthy Reagh of Carberry, in Cork, O'Driscoll of Corca-

there were serious obstacles in the way of such a conquest. It would require much time and money, and if an attempt were made to reduce the Irish by force, they would combine for defence; which union his knowledge of their warlike habits, and of the military resources of the country, made him apprehend as a formidable danger.\* His representations had, perhaps, some effect in bringing about the policy of conciliation which Henry subsequently carried to such an extent in his government of Ire-

Laighe, in Cork, two O'Mahonys of Carberry, in Cork, O'Brien of Thomond, O'Kennedy of Lower Ormond, O'Carroll of Ely, O'Meagher of Ikerin, in Tipperary, MacMahon of Corcavaskin in Clare, O'Conor of Corcomroe, in Clare, O'Loughlin of Burrin, in Clare, O'Grady of Bunratty, in Clare, Mac-I-Brien of Ara, in Tipperary, O'Mulrian (or Ryan) of Owney, O'Dwyer of Tipperary, and O'Brien of Coonagh, in Limerick. In CONNAUGHT:—O'Conor Roe and MacDermot in Roscommon, O'Kelly, O'Madden, and O'Flaherty in Galway, O'Farrell of Annaly (Longford), O'Reilly and O'Rourke of Breffny, O'Malley of Mayo, MacDonough of Tiragrill, O'Gara of Coolavin, O'Hara of Leney, O'Dowda of Tireragh, MacDonough of Corran, and MacManus O'Conor of Carbury, in Sligo. In MEATH:—O'Melaghlin, Mageoghegan, and O'Molloy.

The heads of the "Degenerate English," or "great captains of the English noble folks," that followed "the Irish rule," according to the same report, were, in MUNSTER: the earl of Desmond, the knight of Kerry, FitzMaurice, Sir Thomas of Desmond, Sir John of Desmond, and Sir Gerald of Desmond, the white knight, the knight of Glynn, and other Geraldines; lord Barry, lord Roche, lord Courcy, lord Cogan, lord Barrett, the Powers of Waterford, Sir William Burke in the county of Limerick, Sir Pierse Butler (claiming to be earl of Ormond), "and all the captains of the Butlers of the county of Kilkenny, and of the county of Fethard." In CONNAUGHT:—lord Burke of Mayo, lord Burke of Clanrickard, lord Bermingham of Athenry, the Stauntons of Clonmorris, in Mayo, the MacJordans, or descendants of Jordan D'Exeter in Mayo, MacCostello in Mayo, and the Barretts of Tirawley. In ULSTER. —the Savages of Lecale in Down, the FitzHowlins of Tuscarr, and the Bissetts of the Glinns of Antrim. In MEATH:—the Dillons, Daltons, Tyrrells, and Delamarea.



land, and employed so successfully for the corruption of the native chieftains. Surrey was empowered by the king to confer knighthood on such of the Irish chiefs as he deemed fit, and Henry sent a collar of gold to be presented, together with the honor of knighthood, to O'Neill. A reconciliation was effected by the deputy between James, who, in 1520, had succeeded his father, Maurice, as earl of Desmond, and the earl of Ormond; and a peace was also arranged by him between the former and the MacCarthys, who, aided by Thomas of Desmond, had in September, this year, overthrown the aforesaid earl James with great slaughter at Mournes-Abbey, in Muskerry, slaying 2,000 of his men, and taking several of his leaders prisoners. This defeat of Desmond afforded real satisfaction to Surrey, who, on proceeding to Munster, found the proud earl thoroughly humbled; and he informed Wolsey in a letter, written about this time, that the successful Irish chiefs Cormac Oge MacCarthy and MacCarthy Reagh were "two wise men," whom he found "more conformable to order than some Englishmen here."\* So much did the politic English viceroy

dread a good understanding of the Irish among themselves, that he preferred allowing O'Donnell to employ some Scottish auxiliaries rather than that there should be peace between him and O'Neill; for, as he wrote to the king, "it would be dangerous to have them both agreed and joined together," and "the longer they continue in war the better it should be for your grace's poor subjects here." In the summer of 1521 he was obliged to take the field against O'Connor of Offaly, whose castle of Monasteroris he captured; but while he was thus engaged O'Connor was plundering West Meath, and subsequently routed a portion of the earl's army. At length Surrey importuned the king on the ground of ill health to relieve him from his arduous and hopeless charge in Ireland, and being permitted to withdraw, he returned to England at the close of 1521, taking with him the troops which he had brought into Ireland; his intimate friend and adviser, Pierse Butler, being appointed lord deputy.†

A. D. 1522.—The Pale was at this time in a wretched state, and the Irish privy council applied to Wolsey, to have

\* State Papers, xiii.

† On the death of Thomas, the seventh earl of Ormond, without male issue, in 1515, his English estates, amounting to £30,000 a year, and his vast personal property in plate, jewels, and money, were bequeathed to his two daughters, of whom Margaret, the elder, was married to Sir James St. Leger, and Anne, the younger, to Sir William Boleyn or Bullen, by whom she had Sir Thomas, the father of Anne Boleyn. The earl's Irish inheritance was warmly disputed between his next male heirs, Sir Pierse Butler of Carrick—whose grandfather was cousin german to earl Thomas,—and Sir

James Ormond, the natural son of John, the sixth earl, who died in Palestine; but by the death of Sir James, who was killed by his opponent between Dromore and Kilkenny, Pierse was left in quiet possession of the title of earl of Ormond, which, however, he did not long enjoy, as he was induced to relinquish his claim in favor of Anna Boleyn's father; Pierse was then (1527) created earl of Ossory, but Sir Thomas Boleyn having died without an heir, the earldom of Ormond was restored to Butler, and the title of Ossory laid aside. See Abbe Mageoghegan Hist. of Ireland, pp. 381, 382 (Duffy's ed.) also Archdall's *Lodge*, vol. iv., pp. 16, 17.



six ships of war sent to cruise between Scotland and Ireland, to awe the northern Irish and prevent an invasion from the former country, as the Scots were at that time immigrating in large numbers into Ulster and acquiring territories there.

The dissensions between O'Neill and O'Donnell now broke out into a sanguinary war. MacWilliam of Clanrickard, with the English and Irish of Connaught, the O'Briens, O'Kennedys, and O'Carrolls, joined the standard of O'Neill, under which rallied, besides, the Magennises, the men of Oriel and Fermanagh, the O'Reillys, and other northern septs, together with a Scottish legion under Alexander MacDonnell of the Isles. Several of the English of Meath and Leinster were also induced by their attachment to the earl of Kildare, the kinsman of O'Neill, to take part with the latter. Under O'Donnell's banners were ranged the O'Boyles, O'Dohertys, MacSweeneys, O'Gallaghers, &c.; and what was wanted in point of numbers was made up by mutual fidelity and bravery in their small phalanx. O'Donnell marched to Port-nadtri-namhad, on the eastern side of the river Foyle, opposite Lifford, to await the enemy, that being the usual pass between Tyrone and Tirconnell; but O'Neill entered the latter territory by

another route, and laid waste the country as far as Ballyshannon. O'Donnell upon this sent his son Manus into Tyrone, while he himself followed O'Neill into Tirhugh, but O'Neill retired within his own territory and encamped at Cnoc-Buidhbh, or Knockavoe, near Strabane, where he was attacked at night by O'Donnell's army, which had approached so silently as to be able to enter the Tyrone camp pell-mell with the sentinels, and a total route of O'Neill's people followed, with a loss of 900 men. The annalists say this was one of the most bloody engagements that had ever been fought between the Kinel-Connell and the Kinel-Owen. O'Donnell then marched with extraordinary rapidity across the country to Sligo, to which town the Connaught allies of O'Neill were laying siege; but the news of his victory had just reached before him, and struck such terror into the western army that they sent in all haste to sue for peace, and at the same time fled so precipitately that their own messengers were not able to come up with them till they had re-crossed the Curlieu mountains, where they broke up, each party returning home. This last bloodless victory added greatly to the renown of O'Donnell, but his war with O'Neill continued <sup>two</sup>or years.\*

A. D. 1523.—The earl of Kildare, who

\* The earl of Ormond (the lord deputy), who was called by the Irish Red Pierse, was engaged at this time in war with septs bordering on his own territory, and a well-known anecdote is related of the ambassador whom MacGillpatrick sent to England to complain of his aggressions. Meeting king Henry at the chapel

door, says Leland, quoting the Lambeth MS., the Irish envoy addressed him in the following words: "Sta pedibus domine rex! Dominus meus Gillapatrius me misit ad te, et jussit dicere quod si non vis castigare Petrum Rufum, ipse faciet bellum contra te."



had returned from England at the close of the preceding year, obtained permission to lead an army against O'Connor Faly, Connell O'More, and other border chieftains. He was accompanied by Con O'Neill, who made peace between the parties; but Ware says the earl fell into an ambuscade on the occasion, and having lost several of his men, was glad to come to terms and retire.

A. D. 1524.—The old feuds between Kildare and Ormond broke out with fresh animosity, which was not a whit diminished by the circumstance that the latter magnate had recently married the earl of Kildare's sister. Ormond transmitted new complaints to England; one of them being that his friend, Robert Talbot of Belgard, had been treacherously slain by James FitzGerald, near Ballymore. Thereupon commissioners were sent over, but the inquiry which followed resulted in the vindication of Kildare, who was reinstated as lord deputy in the room of his enemy; and at his inauguration, his kinsman, Con O'Neill, carried the sword of state before him to St. Thomas's abbey, where he entertained the commissioners and others at a sumptuous banquet. After this he accompanied O'Neill on an expedition against O'Donnell, who had been committing fearful depredations in Tyrone; but he made peace between these chieftains without a battle. Two

years after (1526), O'Neill and O'Donnell were invited by the earl to attend a meeting of nobles in Dublin for the purpose, if possible, of arranging the old causes of contention between them. Hugh O'Donnell was represented in the conference by his son Manus; but all the arguments for peace were of no avail, and the northern chiefs returned home to muster fresh armies against each other.\*

James, earl of Desmond, was a man of lofty and ambitious views, and held a secret correspondence with Francis I. of France, as he did at a subsequent period with the emperor Charles V., for the purpose of bringing about an invasion of Ireland. His treasonable projects came to the ears of Wolsey and Henry. He was summoned to London and refused to obey. Orders were then sent to the earl of Kildare, as lord deputy, to arrest him, and the latter led an army into Munster for that purpose; but whether there was any collusion between the two illustrious Geraldines on the occasion, as alleged, or not, Kildare did not succeed in carrying out the royal mandate. These events, which took place in 1524, were the prelude to Kildare's ruin. In 1526 he was summoned to England to answer an impeachment charging him with (1) failing to apprehend the earl of Desmond; (2) forming alliances with several of the

\* We are told that Manus O'Donnell succeeded, in spite of O'Neill's opposition, in erecting a strong frontier castle at the pass already mentioned of Port-na-dtri-nambaid (the fort of the three enemies) on the east side

of the Foyle near Strabane; and in this castle, a few years later (1532), he wrote the Irish life of St. Columbkille, of which Colgan has published an abridged Latin translation.



king's Irish enemies; (3) causing certain loyal subjects to be hanged because they were dependents of the Butlers; and (4) confederating with O'Neill, O'Connor, and other Irish lords to invade the territories of the earl of Ormond. The enmity of Wolsey is said to have been at the bottom of these persecutions, but Kildare's good fortune had not yet finally deserted him, and after an imprisonment for some time in the Tower, he was liberated on the bail of the earl of Surrey, then duke of Norfolk, the marquis of Dorset, and other persons of distinction.

A. D. 1528.—Kildare had appointed his brother James FitzGerald, of Leixlip, vice-deputy on his departure for England, on this occasion; but this nobleman was soon replaced by Nugent, baron of Delvin, and while the latter was in office the chief of Offaly made a descent upon the Pale, and carried off a prey of cattle. The deputy was too weak to punish O'Connor for this aggression, except by withholding the annual tribute which the English settlers were accustomed to pay to him as to other border chieftains. O'Connor remonstrated, and a parley between him and the deputy was arranged to take place at Sir William Darcy's castle, near Ruthen; but the baron of Delvin was taken in an ambuscade while proceeding to the conference, and carried off by O'Connor as his prisoner. Threats and arguments to obtain his liberation were alike in vain, and the Pale was filled with alarm at the occurrence. The earl

of Ossory (as Pierse, earl of Ormond, was then styled) was appointed lord justice by the council, and with some difficulty obtained an interview with Delvin, O'Connor himself being present, and Irish the only language allowed to be used on the occasion; or, as some accounts have it, it was Pierse Butler's son, James, his father being absent in the South, who had the interview with the captive baron and O'Connor. Ossory and the privy council were obliged to sanction the payment of the tribute to O'Connor, but soon after an act of parliament was passed prohibiting altogether the payment of black rent to the Irish chiefs. An envoy was sent this year by the emperor Charles V. to the earl of Desmond to negotiate a plan for the invasion of Ireland, but the earl died the following year, and the project fell to the ground. The aspirations of the Irish chieftains for the liberation of their country from the English yoke, were, however, becoming more defined; and the chief of Offaly openly expressed his determination to make Ireland independent.

A. D. 1530.—All this time the earl of Kildare remained in England, yet the aggressions of O'Connor were laid to his charge. He was accused of fomenting a general rising of the Irish; and it is said that he sent his daughter, Alice, wife of the baron of Slane, who was then at Newington, to Ireland, to influence his brothers and the O'Neills, O'Conors, and others, to oppose the deputy. This lady's mission, it is added



was so successful, that the lands of the Butlers were unmercifully pillaged by the Geraldine party. Nevertheless the earl's vast influence and popularity saved him from destruction. He was not deprived of the title of lord deputy during his imprisonment, and was sent this year to Ireland, as coadjutor to Sir William Skeffington, who was appointed deputy to Henry Fitzroy, duke of Richmond and Somerset, the king's illegitimate son, on whom the dignity of lord lieutenant was conferred. The earl was received in Dublin with the warmest demonstrations of joy.

A. D. 1531.—Kildare continued for a while to co-operate with the English deputy. At the instance of O'Donnell and Niall Oge O'Neill, they invaded Tyrone, which they laid waste with fire and sword, and the whole population of Monaghan fled before them, leaving the country a desert. While the deputy with the Anglo-Irish advanced from one side, their Irish confederates approached from another; and they demolished the castle of Kinard, now Caledon, but at this point a strong muster of the men of Tyrone checked their further progress.

A. D. 1532.—While Kildare and Skeffington appeared thus to act in concert, a deadly enmity had grown up between them. They forwarded mutual complaints to England. The earl proceeded there to defend himself, and was again successful. Skeffington was superseded and Kildare appointed deputy. The earl unfortunately made an

imprudent use of his triumph by treating his enemies, and more especially Skeffington, with harshness and contempt. He deprived John Allen, archbishop of Dublin, of the chancellorship, and conferred it on George Cromer archbishop of Armagh, who was attached to his party. He entered into more intimate relations with the Irish; gave one of his daughters in marriage to O'Connor of Offaly, and another to Fergananim O'Carroll, tanist of Ossory; and, aided by these two Irish princes, he invaded the territories of the earl of Ossory, from which he carried off large spoils. At the siege of Birr castle, in one of these wars, the earl received a ball in the left side, which was extracted from the opposite side the following year, and he never fully recovered from the wound. About the same time Con O'Neill, at his persuasion, and assisted by John FitzGerald, the earl's brother, plundered the English villages of the county of Louth. It is probable that Kildare anticipated the fatal consequences of these violent proceedings, and meditated some desperate resistance, as he furnished his castles, especially those of Maynooth and Ley, with cannon, pikes, and ammunition, from the stores in Dublin castle, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the council.

A. D. 1534.—Under such circumstances we need not wonder that fresh accusations were sent forward against Kildare, and that he was once more summoned to the king's presence. John



Allen, who had come over as secretary to archbishop Allen, and was now secretary to the council (and who subsequently became master of the rolls, and for a short time also lord chancellor), was sent by the council to England, in the latter part of 1533, to report to the king on the state of his territories. He had also secret instructions to make certain charges against the earl of Kildare. The report of the council stated, that the English laws, manners, and language, were confined within the narrow compass of twenty miles, and that unless the laws were duly enforced, the "little place," as the Pale was termed, would be reduced to the same condition as the remainder of the kingdom. This state of things was attributed partly to the illegal exactions and oppressions by which the English tenantry had been driven from their settlements; to the tribute and black rent paid to the Irish chiefs; to the enormous jurisdictions granted to the lords of English race, and especially to the three earls of Desmond, Ossory, and Kildare; to the substitution by these lords of "a rabble of disaffected Irish," for the well-conditioned yeomanry, whom they had formerly under their roofs; in fine, to the alienation of crown lands, the frequent change of government, the neglect of the records of the exchequer, and other causes. At the same time a report was transmitted to Cromwell, who had succeeded Wolsey as chancellor of England, complaining that the O'Briens had been enabled by a bridge

lately built by them across the Shannon, to make such inroads that they had "in a manner subdued all the English thereto adjoining, and especially the country of Limerick;" and that one Edmond Oge O'Byrne had made a forcible entry by night into Dublin castle, and carried away from thence prisoners and plunder, to the great alarm of the citizens, who long after continued to keep nightly watch against a similar incursion. And in a third report, referring to the enormous power of the earls of Desmond, Kildare, and Ossory, the council stated that the earl of Desmond alone, and his kinsmen, possessed the counties of Kerry, Cork, Limerick and Waterford, from none of which did the king derive "a single groat of yearly profit or revenue," and that in any one of them the king's laws were not observed or executed. As to the earl of Ossory, the counties of Kilkenny and Tipperary were under his dominion, and their wretched population was harassed by coyn and livery. From these and other facts the report concluded, that although popular opinion attributed "to the wild Irish lords and captains the destruction of the land of Ireland (the Pale), it was not they only, but the treason, rebellion, extortion, and wilful war of the aforesaid earls and other English lords," that were answerable for so much ruin.\*

Every reader of history is aware of the events which had been occurring

\* State Papers, lxii., lxiv., lxix.



about this time in England, and for which, although they deeply affect Irish history also, we have not thought it necessary to interrupt the chain of our narrative. The tyrant who occupied the English throne had been disturbing Christendom by his efforts to break the marriage bonds in which he had lived for twenty years with his lawful queen, in order to take another wife, who soon after was to suffer on a scaffold, charged with infamous crimes, that she might make way for the next in succession of this monster's six wives. To overcome the obstacles to his passions he had flung off the authority of the Pope, assumed to himself a spiritual supremacy, and plunged England into a schism which flowed naturally into the wider gulf of heresy, in which the nation was soon merged. Wolsey, who was responsible for much of the evil at its commencement, had fallen from his high estate, and sunk into a miserable grave; the English church was already in ruins; parliament had been transformed into a mere instrument of the tyrant's will; religious persecution had commenced, and in a word, the country was committed to all the horrors, and all the crimes, which constitute the dismal epoch of the "reformation."

Such was the state of England when Kildare was summoned to answer the grave charges made against him. He seized various pretences for delay, and in November, 1533, sent his countess to England, hoping, through

the influence of her family, to avert the blow; but excuses were in vain; and, in obedience to fresh and peremptory orders, he set out himself in the following February, embarking at Drogheda, where he had summoned the council to meet him, and where, in their presence, he appointed his son, Thomas, not yet twenty-one years of age, to act as deputy in his absence. On the earl's arrival in London he was immediately arrested, by the king's order, and committed to the Tower.

The enemies of the Geraldines now resorted to most unprincipled means to bring about the destruction of that family. Reports and letters were circulated to the effect that the earl of Kildare was beheaded in the Tower, and that the same fate was intended for all his family in Ireland. To urge lord Thomas into some illegal act was the object in view, and this was easily accomplished, as the young lord was rash and impetuous in the extreme. Believing the false rumors, and acting on the indiscreet counsel of James Delahide and others, whom his father had commended to him as advisers, the hot-headed youth flew to arms. On the 11th of June, he proceeded through Dublin, at the head of a guard of 140 horsemen, to St. Mary's abbey, where he had appointed to meet the council; and there, surrounded by his armed followers, who entered the council chamber with him, he surrendered the sword and robes of state to Cromer, the chancellor, and renounced his alle



giance to the king. Archbishop Cromer implored him with tears to revoke his purpose, but entreaties were in vain. The young Geraldine rushed forth on his wild career, which speedily led to the destruction of himself and his family.

Copious details of the rebellion of this rash young lord, who from the rich trappings of his followers, was popularly styled "Silken Thomas," are given by Anglo-Irish historians, but they rest, for the most part, on no better authority than that of Stanihurst and the Book of Howth. It appears, however, that after despoiling the lands of several leading persons who were opposed to his enterprise, he laid siege to Dublin. The city was at that time weakened by pestilence, and the citizens having just suffered a serious loss in an attempt to intercept a party of the O'Tooles and O'Byrnes, who were carrying off spoils from Fingal to Wicklow, were not in a state to resist, so that after some negotiation they admitted his soldiers within the walls to besiege the castle, in which archbishop Allen, Patrick Finglass, chief baron of the exchequer, and other leading persons had taken refuge. The archbishop, feeling himself to be the most obnoxious to the Geraldines, endeavored to effect his escape to England, and for that purpose embarked at night in a

ship which lay in the river off Dame's gate; but whether by accident or design, the vessel was run ashore at Clontarf, and the archbishop sought refuge in the neighboring village of Artane. News of the circumstance was quickly conveyed to lord Thomas, who, with two of his uncles, John and Oliver, repaired to the spot at the dawn of day, and had the unhappy Allen taken from his bed, and dragged half naked as he was before them. Falling on his knees the prelate begged hard for his life; but finding his entreaties fruitless, he addressed his prayers to Heaven, and was then murdered in a brutal manner in the Geraldine's presence. It is said that lord Thomas merely directed his attendants in Irish to "take the clown away," and that they understood him to mean that they should kill the archbishop.\* This atrocity, which was committed on the 28th of July, cast a blight upon the insurrection, and drew down a sentence of excommunication, accompanied by fearful maledictions, upon all who had participated in the crime. The ecclesiastical sentence was transmitted to the Tower, that it might be seen by the unhappy earl of Kildare, whose heart was already rent with affliction by the news of his son's rash rebellion. He lingered until September, when he died, and was buried in the Tower chapel.

\* This prelate, who was an Englishman, was raised to the see of Dublin by Wolsey, whose chaplain he had been, and whom he had served as an agent in the suppression of forty English monasteries to found his colleges at Ipswich and Oxford, years before Henry VIII.

had taken up the work of spoliation. (Mageoghegan's Hist. of Ireland, p. 405, Duffy's edition). Allen was the author of the *Black Book* of Christ's church, and the *Repertorium Viride*, both well known to antiquaries (Ware's *Bishops and Annals*.)



Lord Thomas endeavored in vain to induce his cousin, James Butler, son of the earl of Ossory, to join him. He then invaded Butler's territory, whence he carried off some spoils; but he was losing ground in Dublin, where his men, who had been admitted within the walls, were cut off or captured by the citizens, and he himself repulsed in two or three assaults upon the city. A truce for six weeks was then agreed on; and Sir William Skeffington, who had been reappointed lord deputy when the news of the insurrection reached England, arrived on the coast, but in such infirm health that for several months he was unable to take the field. Lord Thomas burned Dunboyne, and threatened the destruction of Trim, and other towns. He sent Delahide and others to solicit aid from the emperor, Charles V., and despatched envoys to Rome; but his hopes from these quarters were not realized; and at home few of the native Irish, save O'Carroll, O'More, and O'Conor of Offaly ranged themselves under his banner. All the northern chieftains except O'Neill and Manus, son of the chief of Tirconnell, were on friendly terms with the government, and even the warlike septs of Wicklow took the royal side.

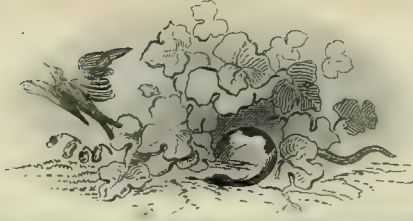
A. D. 1535.—The protracted inactivity of Skeffington emboldened the rebels; but about the middle of March the feeble deputy proceeded to lay siege to Maynooth castle, which, from the magnificence of its furniture, was deemed one of the richest houses under the crown

of England, and which was so strongly fortified that lord Thomas entrusted its defence to the garrison, while he himself endeavored to rally his friends in other parts of the country. Besides Maynooth, he had the strongholds of Rathangan, Carlow, Portlester, Athy, and Ley, and had removed to the last-mentioned castle the principal part of his ammunition, hoping to be able to hold out until succor arrived from Spain or Scotland. Stanihurst tells a story of the betrayal of Maynooth into the hands of Skeffington by its constable, Christopher Parese; but it appears from the deputy's despatches that the castle was taken by assault, the remnant of the garrison, when reduced from over a hundred to thirty-seven effective men, surrendering at discretion, and twenty-five of these being executed as traitors the following day before the castle.

Lord Thomas, who had collected a small army by the help of the chief of Offaly, was approaching to relieve Maynooth, when he received the news of its fall. His followers, struck with dismay, then deserted him, and with a company of only sixteen friends he took refuge in Thomond, whose chief was prepared long before to come to his aid, had he not been kept at home by the rebellion of his son, Donough O'Brien, who had been stirred up and assisted against him by the earl of Ossory. In the same way, the other adherents of the Geraldine had been paralyzed by domestic dissensions.

Skeffington being laid up by illness





FLIGHT OF GERALD FITZ GERALD.

FROM LOUGH SWILLY TO FRANCE.







at Maynooth, while the Pale was threatened with invasion by O'Brien, O'Connor Faly, and O'Kelly, Allen, master of the rolls, and chief justice Aylmer were despatched to England to represent the critical state of affairs, and lord Leonard Gray, son of the marquis of Dorset, was thereupon sent over to take the command of the army, as marshal of Ireland. He landed on the 28th of July, and adopting vigorous means to complete the suppression of the revolt, found the task an easy one. Lord Thomas lost his allies one by one. O'More abandoned him, and O'Connor was compelled to submit, and about the end of August he sought a parley, confessed his offence, casting the blame on his advisers, and praying that his life might be spared; he surrendered himself to lord Gray. The Irish annalists expressly state that he received a promise that his life would not be forfeited, and the State Papers furnish undeniable proof that such was the case. Lord Leonard himself conducted him to England, where he was seized on his way to Windsor, and committed to the Tower by order of the king, who was enraged that any terms should have been made with him.

About a year before this time a commission was sent to Ireland to prepare the way for the introduction there of Henry's spiritual supremacy. George Browne, an Augustinian friar of London, and the confidential agent of Cranmer, was one of its principal members, and was soon after made archbishop of Dublin, in succession to the ill-fated

John Allen. The commission was a total failure, but among its few fruits may be counted the accession to the English schism, of Peter, or Pierse Butler, earl of Ossory, and his son James, who was then created viscount Thurles. These noblemen were, in May, 1534, charged with the government of Kilkenny, Waterford, and Tipperary, and on receiving this appointment pledged themselves "to resist the usurpation of the bishop of Rome;" this being, as Cox observes, the first engagement of that kind to be met with in our history. The document signed by them on the occasion contains a falsehood as absurd as it is flagitious, attributing all the evils under which Ireland suffered to the manner in which the pope had exercised his authority in filling up the Irish benefices!

A. D. 1536.—Exasperated at the expense which the rebellion in Ireland had caused, Henry affected to regard its suppression as a conquest of the country, and proposed it as a question for discussion by his council whether he had not thereby acquired a right to seize on all the estates of that kingdom, both spiritual and temporal. He ordered lord Gray, who, on the death of Skeffington at the close of the preceding year, was appointed lord deputy, to arrest the five uncles of Silken Thomas: and as it was rumored in Ireland that an amnesty would be granted, three of the uncles, besides, having openly discountenanced the rebellion at the commencement, the five noblemen made



no great difficulty of surrendering themselves to the deputy. They were accordingly attainted by the Irish parliament and conveyed to London, where, with their ill-fated nephew, they were executed at Tyburn on the 3d of February, 1537.\*

This sweeping act of vengeance scattered and dismayed the Geraldine party; but there still remained two scions of the noble house of Kildare—namely, the sons of the late earl Gerald by his second wife, lady Elizabeth Gray. Of these, Edward, the younger, who was still an infant, was conveyed by some means to his mother in England, and the elder, Gerald, then about twelve or thirteen years old, found an asylum for a time in Thomond, whence he was conveyed to Kilbrittain, in Carbery, to his aunt, lady Eleanor, widow of MacCarthy Reagh. His subsequent fortunes we shall hereafter relate.

O'Brien's bridge, which opened a highway from Thomond into the English territories, was a constant source of alarm to the inhabitants of the latter, and its destruction was an object of so much importance to the government of the Pale as to enter into all their plans at this period. To demolish it, therefore, lord Gray led an army to the south in July this year, and several of the native septs of Leinster sent him their contingents. The earl of Ossory joined him in Kilkenny at the head of a con-

siderable force; and, as he approached the Shannon, Donough O'Brien, the same whom we have seen rising in rebellion against his father, the chief of Thomond, at the desire of the earl of Ossory, presented himself and offered to conduct the army to the bridge by a secret and undefended path. This traitor, who was married to the earl of Ossory's daughter, complained that he had not been sufficiently rewarded for his former services, and stipulated that for his new act of treachery he should be put in possession of Carrigogonnell castle, which, he said, the English had not held for two hundred years. Having arrived before the bridge, the deputy found it strongly built of stone, and defended at either end by a tower standing in the river. The nearer tower was taken by assault, the garrison escaping in the rear; and the bridge being then demolished, lord Gray proceeded to Limerick. He next took the castle of Carrigogonnell, which was bravely defended by some men of the earl of Desmond and O'Brien, and having put the garrison to the sword, delivered that famous stronghold to Donough. In his despatch announcing the destruction of O'Brien's bridge, the lord deputy complains bitterly of the insubordination of his English soldiers, who frequently mutinied in the field to obtain money or plunder. "I am in more dread of my life amongst them

\* From a letter written by the unhappy lord Thomas we learn that during his imprisonment he was not allowed the commonest necessities of life. He was left

during the winter "barefoot and barelegged, depending on the charity of his fellow-prisoners for a few tattered garments to defend him against the cold."



that be soldiers," he wrote, "than I am of them that be the king's Irish enemies."

A. D. 1537.—Cahir O'Connor Faly having given the Pale much trouble, as his sept had always done, it was proposed to create him baron of Offaly, and to allow him to hold his lands by English tenure, on the ground, say the council, that "Irishmen would so hate him afterwards that he would have but little comfort of them, and so must look to the king's subjects for protection against them." But this mean and insidious policy defeated itself; for scarcely had the proposed arrangement been effected, when Cahir's brother, Brian, whom the lord deputy boasted that he had reduced to the condition of a beggar expelled the *protégé* of the English and took possession of his territory. This drew from secretary Cromwell an order to the lord deputy to "hang the traitor" as an example to others, and "never to trust to a traitor after, but to use them without treating after their demerits." Nevertheless we find that in a parley, which was conducted with extraordinary precautions on both sides,

Brian soon after obtained favorable terms from the lord deputy, so that it was Cahir O'Connor's turn then to revolt, and again, after some fighting, to submit.

Instead of attempting to heal the disorders of the country on any principle of even-handed justice, it was now seriously proposed by the Irish government to exterminate the native population in all those districts bordering on the Pale, which, from the nature of the country, afforded the people means of self-defence; and this was to be effected by starvation. The corn was to be destroyed when ripe, the cattle killed or carried away, or, by an ingenious system of harassing, gradually wasted from the land.\*

Young Gerald, heir to the earldom of Kildare, still escaped the numerous attempts made to capture him, although no pains were spared for that purpose on the part of the government. Threats and bribes were held out to the Irish chieftains who were suspected of sheltering him; and in many instances their territories were laid waste by lord Leonard Gray. Manus O'Donnell, who,

\* The words in which this diabolical scheme was propounded to secretary Cromwell by his Irish agents deserve to be transcribed: "The very living of the Irishry," it is said, "doth clearly consist in two things; and take away the same from them and they are past for ever to recover, or yet to annoy any subject in Ireland. Take first from them their corn, and as much as cannot be husbanded and had into the hands of such as shall dwell and inhabit in their lands, to burn and destroy the same, so as the Irishry shall not live thereupon; and then to have their cattle and beasts which shall be most hardest to come by, and yet with guides and policy they be oft had and taken. And, by reason

that the several armies, as I devised in my other paper, should proceed at once, it is not possible for the said Irishry to put or flee their cattle from one country into another, but that one of the armies shall come thereby; and admitting the impossibility so that their cattle were saved, yet in the continuance of one year, the same cattle shall be dead, destroyed, stolen, strayed, or eaten, by reason of the continual removing of them, going from one wood to another, their lying out all the winter, their narrow pastures. . . . . And then they (the Irishry) shall be without corn, victuals, or cattle, and hereof shall ensue the putting in effect all these wars against them." S. P.



on the death of his father in 1537, had succeeded to the chieftaincy of Tirconnell,\* made proposals of marriage to the boy's aunt, the lady Eleanor MacCarthy, who consented the more willingly to secure the protection of so powerful a chief for her nephew; and she was able to pass in safety with her young charge from the south to the north of Ireland, so steadfast was the sympathy of the people for the house of Kildare. The northern chieftains confederated for the restoration of the young Geraldine to his paternal estates; and when the lord deputy sought to treat with them for his surrender, they refused to meet him. Another hostile inroad by lord Gray into Tyrone was the consequence. The castle of Dungannon was taken, and the surrounding country abandoned for six days to pillage and devastation. But as time progressed the aim of the confederates became more lofty and sacred; and they now aspired to nothing less than the liberation of their country from the English yoke; religion lending an additional and powerful impulse to their old cause of enmity against England.

Fortunately it is not our duty to

trace the history of the religious changes which at this time were taking place in the neighboring country. We are only concerned at present with the fact that these changes were wholly repugnant to the feelings of the Irish people, who remained firmly attached to their ancient faith and traditions. While England exhibited such pliancy and ingratitude, in turning against an indulgent mother, Ireland—cast by her position into the shade, calumniated, despised and abandoned for centuries to a hopeless struggle with a powerful and merciless foe—still, in the hour of trial, remained faithful. And when her fidelity was appreciated, and she began to be recognized as a champion of the Catholic faith, and words of encouragement reached her from that Rome against which the enemies of both would have inspired her with jealousy she responded with devotion and enthusiasm. Henceforth Ireland presents to us a spectacle, deplorable indeed when we consider her unexampled sufferings, but worthy the admiration of Christendom, when we contemplate her enduring and unsubdued heroism in the cause of religion.

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\* Hugh Duv O'Donnell, the veteran chief of Tirconnell (son of Hugh Roe, son of Niall Garv), died in the Franciscan monastery of Donegal, 1537. The Four Masters state that he was "a man who did not suffer the power of the English to come into his country, for he formed a league of peace and friendship with the king of England when he saw that the Irish would not yield superiority to any one among themselves, but that friends and blood-relations contended against each other." He was a successful warrior and a politic ruler; but suffered a good deal from dissensions in his own family.

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Two of his sons, Niall Garv and Owen, slew each other in a domestic feud, in 1524; and the enmity between his two remaining sons, Hugh Boy and Manus, was such that in 1531 he was obliged to call in the aid of Maguire to crush their strife. On that occasion, Manus, the younger brother, was compelled to fly and entered into an alliance with Con O'Niell, showing himself to be decidedly hostile to the English. The popularity of Manus, therefore, became very great, and on the death of his father he was unanimously chosen his successor.



Archbishop Browne found all his efforts to propagate the new doctrines fruitless even in the Pale. In a letter to Cromwell he complained bitterly that even the common people were more zealous in what he termed their blindness "than the saints and martyrs in truth in the beginning of the gospel; that the hostility against himself was such that his life was in danger; that he received the most strenuous opposition from Cromer, archbishop of Armagh. Primate Cromer was an Englishman, but from the first he protested against the impious attempt to enforce the king's supremacy in spirituals; he pronounced an anathema against those who would acknowledge it; convoked the suffragans and clergy of his province to address them on the subject; and sent two priests to Rome to represent the danger of the church, and to entreat the interposition of the sovereign pontiff. This conscientious and manly discharge of his duty was called treason, and he was cast into prison. Browne feared that the pope would order O'Neill to take up arms in the name of Catholicity; and knowing how easy it was to get any law the king might choose passed by parliament, in the servile and degraded state to which it was then reduced, he urged Cromwell to have one convened in Dublin without delay. This was accordingly done, and a parliament which met in Dublin on the 1st of May, 1536, followed with obsequious readiness in the footsteps of the English parliament—making laws

and annulling them, to suit the caprice of the tyrant. The marriage of the king with Catherine of Arragon was declared null and void, and the succession to the crown limited to his children by Anne Boleyn; but this act was scarcely passed when news arrived that the lady Anne was beheaded, and that Henry had married the lady Jane Seymour; so that it was necessary immediately to rescind the former act, and to pass another attainting Anne Boleyn and her alleged paramours!

There was, however, more difficulty in getting the Irish parliament to pass the acts relating to religion, chiefly owing to the strenuous opposition given to them by the proctors, of whom there were three from each diocese, who from time immemorial, had exercised the right of voting. These were not so timid or pliant as the men of property, who feared attainders and confiscations, and it was therefore resolved that they should be got rid of. By an act of despotic oppression the proctors were accordingly excluded from parliament, which then became a ready tool in the hands of the officials. Several prorogations took place before all this could be effected, and at length, in 1537, it was enacted that the king was the supreme head on earth of the church of Ireland; that no appeal lay to Rome in spiritual matters; and that first fruits were to be paid to the king, not only from all bishoprics and other secular offices in the church; but from all abbeys, priories, colleges and hospitals. The author-



ity of the Pope was solemnly renounced, and all who maintained it in Ireland were made liable to premunire. Officers of every kind and degree were required to take the oath of supremacy, and all who refused to take it were declared guilty of high treason. Several of the religious houses were suppressed, and their demesnes confiscated to the crown; and other laws similar to those already passed in England were enacted to gratify the resentment, avarice, or capricious passions of Henry.

A. D. 1538.—The Geraldine league at this time comprised O'Neill, O'Donnell, O'Brien, the earl of Desmond, O'Neill of Clannaboy, O'Rourke, MacDermot, and several minor chieftains; but there was no active co-operation among them, and their projects were never carried into actual effect. Lord Gray invaded Lecale this year, and took the strong castle of Dundrum from Magennis, destroying seven other castles in Ulster in the same expedition. He is accused of having burnt, on this occasion, the cathedral of Down, and demolished the monuments of SS. Patrick, Bridget and Columbkille which it contained; but it is certain, nevertheless, that he at no time ceased to profess the Catholic faith. On this very expedition he gave great offence to Browne's party by hearing several masses one day before the statue of the Blessed Virgin, at Trim; and his dislike of the Lutherans

was, we may be sure, the true cause of the enmity against him; although we are told he made enemies of the Butlers and their clique by his severe and overbearing disposition. Browne at this time gave full scope to his sectarian zeal, and caused several objects of Catholic veneration to be destroyed. The famous statue of the Blessed Virgin, just mentioned, which he insultingly called "the idol of Trim," was publicly burned; and the holy crucifix of the abbey of Ballybogan, with the crozier of St. Patrick, called the staff of Jesus, underwent the same fate.\*

A. D. 1539.—Early in May this year lord Gray led an expedition against Con O'Neill, and remained two days at Armagh burning and pillaging the surrounding country without resistance. The following August, O'Neill and O'Donnell combined to invade the English borders, and proceeded as far as Navan and Ardee. They were returning home, encumbered with enormous spoils, when they were overtaken by lord Gray, with a strong force, at Belahoe, on the borders of Farney in Oriel, and routed with great slaughter. The Irish lost 400 men, together with all the spoils. FitzSimon, mayor of Dublin, Courcy, mayor of Drogheda, Gerald Aylmer, chief justice of the king's bench, and Thomas Talbot, of Malahide, were dubbed knights for the important services they rendered in the encounter.

\* These venerable relics were of great antiquity; and several miracles are recorded in the Irish annals as having been performed through the means of the crucifix

and statue here referred to. See *Four Masters*, A. D. 1381, 1397, 1411, 1412, 1444, 1464, 1482.



The deputy next proceeded to Munster, in order to break up the league which existed between O'Brien and Desmond. Pierse Butler, to whom by this time had been restored his title of earl of Ormond, cordially co-operated with him for this object; and a violent feud which had long prevailed between Butler and Gray was now arranged. In his march through O'Carroll's country, and thence to Cork, the deputy received the submission of several chiefs of Irish and English descent; as O'Brien of Ara, O'Regan of Owney, O'Dwyer of Kilnamona, MacCarthy Reagh, the White Knight, lord Barry, Red Barry, &c. James FitzMaurice FitzGerald, a claimant to the earldom of Desmond, accompanied the deputy's army, and was put in possession of several castles in the county of Cork; but James FitzJohn, the actual earl, treated this proceeding with scorn, and approaching the deputy's camp when near the Blackwater, stood on the opposite bank of that river and announced his determination to adhere still to O'Brien; adding, that "all the Irishry of Ireland would do so;" at which words the lord deputy "was sore moved, and withdrew to Cork.\*

\* There is great confusion in the history of the earls of Desmond, owing to the frequent disturbance of the succession by usurpation. At the period referred to in the text, there were two claimants to the earldom; James, son of Maurice, son of Thomas, the twelfth earl; whose father (Maurice) died during the lifetime of the said earl Thomas, and who was himself absent in England, where he was page of honor to Henry VIII., when his grandfather died in 1534. His granduncle, John, (son of Thomas, the eighth earl, who was beheaded at Drogheda in 1467), usurped the earldom in his absence, but being advanced in age died in 1536 leaving five

A commission was appointed this year to carry into effect the act passed in the parliament of 1537 for the suppression of religious houses, and the formality of an official inquiry was adopted for the purpose, as in England; but this country was fortunate enough to escape the sanguinary persecution which was carried on, in the name of religion, at the other side of the channel during this reign. Dr. John Travers, who had written a book in defence of the papal supremacy, and who is said to have been implicated in the rebellion of Silken Thomas, was hanged this year at Tyburn; but it would not appear from the Anglo-Irish historians that any other Irish clergyman suffered death in the reign of Henry VIII.; although several, who were subsequently liberated by lord Gray, were arrested at the instigation of Archbishop Browne. The Four Masters, however, inform us, under the date of 1540, that the guardian and some of the friars of the Franciscan monastery of Monaghan were put to death, and that "the English, throughout every part of Ireland, where their power extended, were persecuting and banishing the (religious) orders."†

sons; of whom James, the second son, called James FitzJohn, continued the usurpation. James FitzMaurice was regarded by the English as the legitimate heir, and was also strenuously supported by his father-in-law, Cormac Oge MacCarthy; but he never recovered the possession of the ancestral estates, and was at length killed in 1540 by Maurice, son of his grand-uncle John, whereupon his opponent, James FitzJohn, was left in quiet occupation of title and estates.

† The number of monasteries and other religious houses destroyed during this reign in Ireland has never been ascertained; but it appears from various inquisi



A. D. 1540.—Early in the spring of this year lord Leonard Gray was recalled to England, and Sir William Brereton appointed, for the time, lord justice. Lord Gray was graciously received by the king; but his enemies, the earl of Ormond, John Allen (who, on the death of Barnwell, baron of Trimbleston, in 1538, had been made chancellor) and Sir William Brabazon, the vice-treasurer, followed him, and made such charges against him that he was committed to the Tower for high treason. Among other things alleged against him was his open partiality for the Geraldines; his suffering young Gerald of Kildare, his nephew, to escape from Ireland;\* his forbearance towards certain Irish chieftains, and the confidence which he reposed in them—which was such that he traversed the territory of Thomond, the preceding year, with no other escort than a single

tions that many, especially in places inaccessible to the English, were concealed for a long time after, and the friars continued to live in the neighborhood of several up to a recent period. Four Masters, vol. v., p. 1446, note *e*. “Some of the social advantages of the religious houses in Ireland are alluded to incidentally, in a letter of the lord deputy Gray and council, to Cromwell, March 21st, 1539, requesting that six houses should be exempted from the general suppression—St. Mary’s abbey and Christ church, Dublin; the Nunnery of Grace Dieu, Fingall, Co. Dublin; Connell abbey, Co. Kildare; and Kells and Jerpoint, Co. Kilkenny;—‘For in these houses commonly and other such like, in default of common inns which are not in this land, the king’s deputy, and all other his grace’s council and officers, and Irishmen coming to the deputy, have been commonly lodged at the cost of said houses.’ Also in them ‘yonge men and childer, both gentlemen childer and other, both of man kynd and woman kynd, be brought up in virtue, learning, and the English tongue:’ the ladies all in the nunnery of Grace Dieu; the young men in the other houses. St. Mary’s abbey was the

gallowglass of O’Briens. Ultimately his enemies prevailed, and he was executed as a traitor on Tower-hill, in June, 1541.

During the interval which elapsed before the appointment of a successor to lord Gray, the Pale was threatened on all sides by Irish foes. Incursions were made by O’Toole, MacMurrough, and O’Conor; an intimate correspondence was carried on between the principal Ulster chieftains and James V, of Scotland; and the eyes of the Irish were directed with hope towards the foes of England on the continent. It was reported that a general muster of the forces of O’Neill, O’Donnell, O’Brien, and other Irish lords, was about to take place at Foure, in West Meath; the inhabitants of the Pale were seized with alarm; and men of every class and station flew to arms. Bishops, temporal peers, priests, judges, lawyers, and men

hotel of all people of quality coming from England, and Christ church was at once the parliament house, the council house, and ‘the common resort in Term tyme for definitions of all matters by the judges.’ State Papers, Henry viii., vol. iii., part iii., p. 130. The abbot of St. Mary’s, petitioning some time after against the suppression, pleads, ‘verily we be but stewards and purveyors to other men’s uses for the king’s honour. keeping hospitality and many poor men, scholars, and orphans.’” *Camb. Ever.*, vol. ii., p. 545, note.

\* The friends of young Gerald deeming it unsafe for him to remain any longer in Ireland, he sailed in March, 1540, from Donegal, accompanied by his tutor, Leverous, afterwards bishop of Kildare, and a Father Walsh, and landed at St. Malo’s. After many intermediate journeyings he at length reached Rome in safety, and was affectionately received by his kinsman, cardinal Pole, who had him carefully educated. Subsequently he was taken to the court of Cosmo de Medici, grand duke of Tuscany, and in the reign of Edward VI. was restored to his estates. Finally he was re-established in all the honors of his family by queen Mary.



of every profession mingled in the armed throng and Brereton was soon at the head of a hastily collected force of ten thousand men, with which he marched to Foure, where he found no trace of the rumored Irish congress. In fact the Irish annalists make no allusion whatever to any such intended meeting, and the rumor was doubtless without foundation; but the lord justice and his militia were resolved that they should not be called out in vain. "We concluded to do some exploit," he writes; and he then proceeds to tell us how the army entered the neighboring territory of Offaly, and "encamping in sundry places, destroyed O'Connor's habitations, corn, and fortilices, so long as their victuals endured," that is, for a period of twenty days!

The long and harassing wars waged by the English government against the Irish, and the fatal dissensions of the latter among themselves, produced their inevitable results. The chiefs and great lords, both of English and Irish descent, were reduced to a state of deplorable misery and exhaustion. Every thing destructible had been wasted and burned until the country became a howling wilderness. It was high time, therefore, on the one side to think of submission, and prudent on the other to propose concession. Things had reached a turning point, and Henry was just then fortunate in selecting a governor for Ireland who knew how to take advantage of the favorable circumstances. This prudent statesman was Sir Anthony Sentleger,

who came over as deputy in August, 1540, a moment when the Irish chiefs manifested most peaceable dispositions. O'Donnell wrote to the king expressing his repentance in humble terms, and acknowledging the royal supremacy. A letter was also addressed by O'Neill to Henry, accompanied by gifts; it was written in Latin and bore the chieftain's mark, for few in those turbulent times had either leisure or taste to acquire the first rudiments of learning; but as it was couched in independent terms, and complained of the aggressions of English viceroys, Henry's reply to it was less condescending than that to O'Donnell's epistle.

MacMurrough submitted after his territory, which was then limited to Idrone in the west of Carlow, had been devastated for ten days by the earl of Ormond. He adopted the name of Kavenagh, and renounced the title of MacMurrough, which he engaged on the part of his sept that no one should henceforth assume. The submission of the O'Mores, O'Dempseys, and other Leinster septs followed. Henry directed that no favor should be shown to O'Connor of Offaly, who, if possible, should be expelled from his country; yet when that chief, seeing himself almost alone, proffered his submission, it was gladly received; and his adherents, O'Molloy, O'Melaghlin, and Megeoghegan, followed his example. Even Turlough O'Toole, the head of the warlike sept which still maintained its independence amidst the wildest glens and



mountain passes of Wicklow, now requested a parley with the lord deputy, and asked permission to visit the king, that he might petition him for certain lands to which he laid claim. Sentleger acceded to his request, and supplied him with £20 from his own purse for the expenses of his journey, together with a letter of introduction to the duke of Norfolk.\*

A. D. 1541.—The earl of Desmond at length consented to submit, but when proceeding to Cahir to meet the lord deputy for that purpose, the archbishop of Dublin, the master of the ordnance, and the deputy's brother, were given as hostages for his safety. The earl agreed to renounce his privilege of not attending parliament or entering walled towns. A difference between him and the earl of Ormond, who set up a claim to the earldom of Desmond in right of his wife, the only daughter and heir general of the eleventh earl, was arranged by an undertaking that an intermarriage should take place between the children of the two earls; and Sentleger and the

lord chancellor accompanied Desmond to his town of Kilmallock, where they were most hospitably entertained. Sentleger, in a letter to the king, describes Desmond as "undoubtedly a very wise and discreet gentleman."†

After Desmond's submission, a conference was held at Limerick with O'Brien, "the greatest Irishman of the west of this land;" but it led to no immediate result; the chief of Thomond saying that "although the captain of his nation he was still but one man," and should take time to consult his kinsmen and followers. The chieftain's excuse throws a curious light on the internal government of the independent Irish septs.

On the 12th of June, a parliament was held in Dublin, at which the novel sight was witnessed of Irish chieftains sitting, for the first time, with English lords. O'Brien appeared there by his procurators or attorneys; and Kavenagh, O'More, O'Reilly, MacWilliam, and others, took their seats in person, the speeches of the speaker and the lord

\* The Wicklow chieftain above referred to had, some time before, in a chivalrous spirit, lent his aid to the deputy when he saw that all the leading Irish chiefs were leagued against him; observing, "that as soon as the others made peace then would he alone make war with him!" This was really the spirit by which the Irish chieftains were most frequently actuated in their wars with the English government.

† No better illustration of the impoverished state to which the great lords and chieftains, as well of the English as of the native race, were at this time reduced, could be required than that afforded by Sentleger's letters to the king relative to their submission. The deputy tells us that Desmond, "the noblest man in all the realm," required to be provided by the king not only with robes to wear in parliament, but even with

apparel for his daily use, "whereof he had great lack." Sentleger himself had already given him a gown, jacket, doublet, hose, and other articles of dress, "for which he was thankful;" the earl accounting for his want of means to provide these necessaries, by the wasting wars in which he had been engaged. MacGillpatrick (who was soon after created baron of Upper Ossory, and changed his name into Fitzpatrick) and O'Reilly were in like manner provided with parliamentary robes at the king's expense; while O'Rourke petitioned for a suit of ordinary clothes, "as he was a man somewhat gross, and not trained to repair unto his majesty." The wealth of these chiefs did not consist of money, of which they had scarcely any, but in the number of men whose services they could command in their hostings, and whose support was levied on the country



chancellor being interpreted to them in Irish by the earl of Ormond. An act was unanimously passed by this parliament conferring on Henry VIII., and his successors, the title of king of Ireland, instead of that of lord of Ireland, which the English kings since the days of John had hitherto borne. This act, which seemed to give a better security of peace, was hailed with great rejoicings in Dublin; and on the following Sunday the lords and gentlemen of parliament went in procession to St. Patrick's cathedral, where solemn mass was sung by archbishop Browne, after which the law was proclaimed, and a *Te Deum* chaunted. A general pardon was issued, and, as Sentleger writes to Henry VIII., "there were made in the city great bonfires, wine was set in the streets, and there were great feastings in the houses."

A. D. 1542.—It was now about two years since Con O'Neill and Manus O'Donnell had written submissive letters to the king, yet, in the rage for court favor which prevailed in the interval, these two great northern chiefs still held aloof. At length O'Donnell, who had of late years exhibited a marked leaning towards the English, took the initiative, and O'Neill followed; but not until his territory had been

subjected to spoliation for twenty-two days by the deputy. The chief of Tyrone repaired to England, accompanied by O'Kervellan, bishop of Clogher, and was graciously received by the king at Greenwich. He renounced the title of prince and the name of O'Neill, and surrendered his territories into the king's hands, receiving them back under letters patent, together with the title of earl of Tyrone. He had asked the king to make him earl of Ulster, but Henry explained that this request was somewhat presumptuous, the earldom of Ulster being one of the greatest in Christendom, and being besides attached to the royal family. Mathew, or Ferdoragh, the natural son of Con O'Neill, was created baron of Dungannon; two of the Magennises were dubbed knights; and the bishop of Clogher was confirmed in his diocese by the king's patent. As to O'Donnell, he desired to be made earl either of Sligo or Tirconnell; the latter title was granted, but was not conferred until the year 1603.\*

Murrough O'Brien, who succeeded his brother Conor as chief of North Munster in 1539, was created earl of Thomond, with the title of baron of Inchiquin for his heirs male; while his nephew, Donough, whose friendship to

\* As a contrast to the other chieftains in point of dress, Sentleger, describing that worn by O'Donnell, says it consisted of a coat of crimson velvet, with twenty or thirty pairs of golden aiglets; over that a great double cloak of crimson satin, bordered with black velvet; and in his bonnet a feather, set full of aiglets of gold; so 'hat he was more richly dressed than any other Irish-

man; but to him also a suit of parliamentary robes was given. We should perhaps understand the deficiency of those chieftains in apparel as confined to the matter of English fashions; for the profusion of materials used in the native Irish costumes of the period was such, that a law was made in this reign to restrain it within more reasonable bounds.



the English and treason to his own nation have been already noticed, was rewarded with the title of baron of Ibrickan, and the reversion of the earldom of Thomond on his uncle's death. Finally, De Burgo, or MacWilliam, who, from the number of persons whom he decapitated in his wars, is usually known as Ulick-na-gceann, or "of the heads," was created earl of Clanrickard, and baron of Dunkellin. The ceremony of conferring these titles took place with great pomp at Greenwich, on the 1st of July, 1543; and to each of the newly-created lords the king granted a house and small piece of land near Dublin, for the accommodation of their retinues when they came to attend parliament or council.

A. D. 1543.—However mortifying the fact, it must, nevertheless, be remembered that the acceptance of these royal favors was generally, if not invariably, accompanied by an admission of the royal supremacy—a circumstance that adds to the humiliating nature of these submissions. Some of the Irish lords—as Murrough O'Brien—showed themselves even zealous in the cause of the English schism, and hankered for a share in the sacrilegious spoils of the convent lands; but as yet it was only schism (and not heresy) which was introduced into Ireland, and even that was

confined to the few who accepted office or honors from Henry, or who hoped to share in the plunder of the confiscated church lands,\* while it obtained no footing whatever among the humble classes.

In 1544 an Irish corps of 1,000 men proceeded, under two nephews of the earl of Ormond, to join the English army in France, where they soon were distinguished by their valor and the rapidity of their movements at the siege of Bologne; and the following year the services of an Irish contingent were required in Scotland. In 1546 the earl of Ormond and seventeen of his friends were poisoned at a banquet in Ely house, London, whither he had gone to settle a quarrel with lord deputy Sentleger.† This earl (James, son of Pierse Roe) had been a great enemy to the Catholic cause in Ireland. Some young men of the Geraldine party took up arms this year in Kildare, but their insurrection was easily put down by Sentleger; and only resulted in the spoliation of a large tract of country. O'Connor and O'More were proclaimed traitors, and were the principal sufferers.

A new coin was struck at this time in Ireland, but of so base a description, that a law was made prohibiting its introduction into England, under severe penalties. "At this time," say the

\* Robert Cowley, master of the rolls, reported in 1540 that he could find no account whatever, in the king's exchequer, of the produce of the confiscated estates, either of the Geraldines or of the suppressed monasteries. There was no memorandum of the revenues or of the way in which they had been employed.

† The intriguing chancellor, Allen, was at the bottom of the strife between Ormond and Sentleger, and was, on this occasion, committed a prisoner to the fleet.



Four Masters, "the power of the English was great and immense in Ireland, so that the bondage in which the people of Leath Mogha (the southern half) were, had scarcely been ever equalled before that time."

## CHAPTER XXXI.

### REIGN OF EDWARD VI. AND MARY.

**Accession of Edward VI.**—Somerset's government.—War of Extermination in Leix and Offaly.—Fate of O'More and O'Conor.—Rising of O'Carroll.—Successes of the lord deputy Bellingham.—The adventurers Bryan and Fay.—Rebellion of Calvagh O'Donnell against his father.—Power of the Northern Chiefs curtailed.—Instance of Bellingham's firmness.—Intrigues and changes in the Irish government.—Exploits of the Scots in Ulster.—War between Ferdoragh and Shane O'Neill.—French emissaries in Ulster.—Failure of the efforts to establish the new religion in Ireland.—Zeal and firmness of Archbishop Dowdall.—Conference at St. Mary's Abbey.—Plunder of Clonmacnoise.—Accession of Queen Mary.—Her efforts to restore religion.—Her difficulties in England.—Injustice to her character.—The work of restoration easy in Ireland.—Her kind disposition to Ireland frustrated.—Affecting incident.—Strife in Thomond.—Continued War with the Scots in Ulster.—Shane O'Neill defeated by Calvagh O'Donnell.

*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—Popes: Paul III., Julius III., Marcellus V., Paul IV.—Emperor of Germany, Charles V.—King of France, Henry II.—King of Spain, Philip II.—Queen of Scotland, Mary.—Death of St. Francis Xavier, 1552—Death of St. Ignatius of Loyola, 1556.

(A. D. 1547 TO A. D. 1558.)

**EDWARD VI.**, the son of Henry VIII. and of his third wife, Jane Seymour, was proclaimed king, on his father's death, while yet only nine years of age. His maternal uncle, Edward Seymour, earl of Hertford, and afterwards duke of Somerset, usurped the sole guardianship of the young king, and the government of the kingdom, with the title of lord protector; setting aside the council of regency appointed by the late king's will. Somerset was a zealous partisan of the new creed, and, aided by Cranmer, caused it to be established as the religion of the state. In Ireland Sentleger continued to hold office as lord deputy; James, earl of Desmond, was appointed lord treasurer; and, owing to the increased disturbances in Leinster, Sir Edward Bellingham was sent over in the course of the year (1547) as captain general, with a reinforcement of 600 horse and 400 foot, to aid the deputy. Before his arrival Sentleger had gained a battle at the Three Castles, near Blessington, over the O'Byrnes, taking two of the Fitzgeralds, who had joined the Wicklow



insurgents, prisoners. These were executed in Dublin, and the Four Masters, who call them "plunderers and rebels," tell us that Brian, son of Turlough O'Toole, was on the lord deputy's side.

A. D. 1548.—The territories of Leix and Offaly had been by this time utterly wasted by inroads from the Pale; and the unhappy chieftains, Gillpatrick O'More and Brian O'Connor, having been brought so low that none of the Irish dared to give them food or shelter, had surrendered themselves to Francis Bryan, an Englishman, who just then began to occupy a prominent place in this country. This happened in 1547, and in 1548 the two chiefs were taken to England by Sentleger, who was recalled. Their lives were spared, a pension of £100 each being allowed for their maintenance; but they were detained as prisoners, and their patrimonies given to Bryan and others, who set about expelling the old inhabitants, and disposing of the lands as their own. O'More died in his Saxon exile before the end of the year.

Sir Edward Bellingham, the successor to Sentleger, was a man of energy and decision, and gained sundry successes over the Irish.\* A number of

the men of Offaly were sent to England under the command of a son of their old chieftain, to join an army preparing against Scotland; but the chief object aimed at was their expatriation. Cahir Roe O'Connor, one of the same warlike sept, was brought to Dublin and executed; and some troubles created in Kildare by the sons of viscount Balinglass were speedily crushed by the vigorous arm of the new deputy. O'Carroll of Ely had risen, and burned the town of Nenagh and the English monastery of Abingdon, in Limerick, threatening to expel all the English from his territory; but at a council held the following year in Limerick, he made favorable terms with the deputy for himself and his confederates, MacMurrough, O'Kelly, O'Melaghlin, and others, and a formidable movement was thus tranquillized. An English adventurer named Edmund Fay was invited into Delvin by O'Melaghlin to aid him in a quarrel with MacCoghlan; but the annalists tell us that O'Melaghlin had got "a rod to strike himself;" for Fay took possession of the territory on his own account, and was supported in his usurpation by Francis Bryan.†

A. D. 1549.—Tirconnell had been for some time disturbed by the unnatural

\* An incident is related which sufficiently illustrates the energetic character of Bellingham. At the close of 1549 the earl of Desmond refused to attend a council to which he was summoned in Dublin, on the plea that he was celebrating Christmas. The lord deputy upon receiving this answer, set out with a small party of horse, and by forced marches reached the castle where the earl was enjoying himself; and entering without previous notice seized Desmond while sitting by the fire and

carried him to Dublin. Subsequently he obtained pardon for the earl.

† This Bryan had married the dowager countess of Ormond, and was made marshal of Ireland, and governor of Tipperary. On the 27th of December, 1549, he was chosen lord justice on an emergency, but died in the following February at Clonmel, where he had gone to repel an invasion of O'Carroll's. The name Fay, mentioned in the text, has sometimes been written



rebellion of Calvagh O'Donnell against his father, Manus. In 1548 a battle was fought between them at Strath-bo-Fiach, now Ballybofey on the river Finn, when Calvagh and his ally, O'Kane, were defeated; but the dissensions still continued. Some of the Ulster chieftains about this time appealed for the settlement of their disputes to the government of the Pale, and the latter took advantage of their position as arbitrators to strike a fatal blow at the power of the superior dynasts, by making the inferior chiefs independent of them. Magennis was freed from all subjection to O'Neill, and the power of O'Donnell was restricted by similar means.

A. D. 1550.—One government after another was sacrificed to political cabals in Dublin. Bellingham was recalled in December, 1549; and Bryan, who was appointed to succeed him, having died at Clonmel in less than two months after, Sentleger returned to Ireland as viceroy for the fourth time. Archbishop Browne, however, hated this statesman, and made charges against him amounting to treason, so that he was once more recalled, and Sir James Crofts appointed in his stead. John Allen, who for many years had been mixed up in every political intrigue, and had been deprived

of the chancellorship at the close of Henry's reign, and restored to it in 1548, was now once more removed from his post, and Thomas Cusack, master of the rolls, substituted.

A. D. 1551.—Lord deputy Crofts led an army into Ulster against the island Scots, whose increasing power in Ireland had long been a source of anxiety to the English government, and who were now leagued with some of the northern Irish. He sent four ships to Rathlin, where the young MacDonnells of the Hebrides had a much larger force than he anticipated, and only one man of his four crews is said to have escaped. A second hosting of the English to the north this year was also unsuccessful, the deputy having been defeated in battle with the loss of 200 men.

Con O'Neill, surnamed Bacagh, or "the lame," having grown old and infirm, regretted his unjust partiality to his illegitimate son, Ferdoragh, or Mathew, for whom he had procured from the late king the title of baron of Dungannon and the entail of the earldom of Tyrone; and wished to make his eldest legitimate son, John, or Shane, as he is familiarly called in history, heir to all his honors.\* Ferdoragh took the alarm, and made such charges against

Fahy, by mistake (see Coxe's *Hib. Angl.*); but Dr. O'Donovan remarks that the O'Fahys are Irish, and were seated in the county of Galway, while the Fays are Anglo-Normans and were seated in West Meath.—*Four Masters*, vol. v., p. 1506, note (t).

\* Mathew, as he is called by English writers, although he is almost invariably styled Ferdoragh by the Irish, was the son of Alison, the wife of a blacksmith of Dundalk, named O'Kelly; and although affiliated to the

chief of Tyrone by Irish law, and adopted by him, John and the other members of Con's family insisted that the affiliation was deceptive and unjust, and that Ferdoragh was really the blacksmith's son, which, in fact, he was considered to be until he was fifteen years old, when his reputed father, O'Kelly, died. It has been said, but we are not aware whether there be any old authority for the statement, that Alison's only claim on the first baron of Dungannon was that of fosterage.



his father that the old man was seized and imprisoned by the lord deputy, and Shane, who on coming to man's estate displayed a warlike and indomitable spirit worthy of his illustrious race, flew to arms, and plunged Ulster once more in war.

At this time the king of France looked to Ireland as a point through which England could easily be wounded; and shortly before this had sent two envoys to make overtures to the northern chieftains. They landed first at Green castle, on Lough Foyle, and were subsequently detained for some time by stress of weather at the castle called Culmore Fort, which was in charge of O'Doherty. Here they received a visit from Robert Waucop, archbishop of Armagh,\* and they next proceeded to Donegal. The Irish chiefs agreed on this occasion to place their country under the protection of France; but the peace which ensued between that country and England rendered these negotiations abortive.

A. D. 1552.—The deputy proceeded with an army to Tyrone to aid Ferdoragh against Shane, who on his side

was assisted by the island Scots, and the country was ravaged between them. While endeavoring to form a junction with the English, Ferdoragh's army was routed in a night attack by Shane, and the deputy having retired for that occasion without gaining any advantage, returned again to Antrim in autumn, when he only succeeded in destroying the standing corn.

All the efforts made during this reign to establish the new religion in Ireland were unsuccessful. It was adopted by some officials and by a few of the English within the Pale; but while the government, which changed with the whim of the day, was Protestant, the people adhered immovably to the faith of their forefathers. Even the ruling powers had not yet been able to make a well-defined distinction between Protestant and Catholic; for we find that when Arthur Magennis was nominated bishop of Dromore by the pope in 1550, his appointment was confirmed by king Edward, while George Dowdall, who was advanced to the see of Armagh by Henry VIII., at the request of Sir Anthony Sentleger, was a zealous defender of the doctrines and rights of

\* This remarkable man, who is also called Venantius, was a Scot. He was blind from his youth, but became one of the most learned men of his age, and was doctor of the university of Paris. When George Dowdall succeeded Cromer as archbishop of Armagh, pursuant to letters patent of Henry VIII., in 1543, England being then in a state of schism, pope Paul III. nominated Waucop to that dignity; but it soon became obvious that Dowdall was a staunch Catholic, and Waucop, who retired to the continent, does not appear to have interfered in any way with his duties as a prelate. The So-

ciety of Jesus was first introduced into Ireland by Waucop in 1541, with the sanction of Paul III.; the first member of the society who came to Ireland being F. John Codur, who was followed by FF. Salmeron, Brouet, and Zapata. Dr. Waucop assisted at the council of Trent from the first session, in 1545, to the eleventh, in 1547. He was sent as legate *à latere* to Germany and died in the Jesuits' Convent in Paris, in 1551. See Harris's *Ware's Bishops*, p. 93; and *O'Sullivan's Hist Cath.*, p. 89 (Dublin, 1850).



the Catholic church.\* The new liturgy was publicly read in Christ's church in 1551; and the same year, at the solicitation of lord deputy Crofts, archbishop Dowdall consented to hold a conference with the Protestant authorities at St. Mary's abbey, when Staples, bishop of Meath, acted as the Protestant champion. The discussion, as might be expected, led to no modification of views on either side; but Browne was so enraged at the opposition given by the archbishop of Armagh to the introduction of the new liturgy, that he obtained a royal charter transferring to himself the primacy of all Ireland; and Dowdall, feeling that his liberty and perhaps his life were insecure, fled to the continent, one Hugh Goodacre, a Protestant, being intruded in his stead. The Irish annalists tell us that the venerable churches of Clonmacnoise were plundered in 1552 by the English garrison of Athlone, and that "there was not left a bell small or large, an image, an altar, a book, a gem, or even glass in the window, which was not carried off;" and they add, "lamentable was this deed, the plundering of the city of Kieran!"

A. D. 1553.—Such was the state of things on the accession of Mary, whose short reign was a continued effort to restore what had been unsettled in the religious and moral state of England during the two preceding reigns. The

new creed had made considerable way among both clergy and laity in that country, many of the former having committed themselves irretrievably by entering into the married state. A vast number of Lutherans had arrived from the continent, and were zealous in the propagation of their doctrines; and those into whose hands the confiscated church property had come, resisted any change which might oblige them to disgorge the sacrilegious spoils. In a state of society so disorganized, and with precedents of government such as then existed, it is not marvellous that Mary's ministers should have resorted to severity. The Anabaptists were burned during her brother's reign, and even the lord protector Somerset, and the husband of the queen dowager, both of them the king's uncles, were brought to the block. We shudder now-a-days at such barbarities; but it is only miserable prejudice which would affix to Mary a stigma that belongs with infinitely more justice to her sister Elizabeth, or to the infamous monster her father.

In Ireland, where the "Reformation" had in truth gained no ground among the people, the restoration of the old order of things was effected without difficulty, and was hailed with popular joy. Here, as in England, those of the laity who had obtained possession of church property, were, by the sanction

\* See note on preceding page. At this period we begin to hear of "titular bishops," that name being applied to the Catholic prelates, who were appointed by the

pope to sees in which married men or professors of the Lutheran creed were placed by the secular authority. The latter enjoyed the revenues and emoluments.



of the pope, left in the enjoyment of it; and the Irish parliament, following that of England, expressed their repentance for the schism of which they had been guilty. Archbishop Dowdall being recalled and restored to the primacy, held a provincial Synod at Drogheda, and was placed at the head of a commission to deprive married bishops and priests; but the only prelates whom it was necessary to remove, were Browne of Dublin, Staples of Meath, Lancaster of Kildare, and Travers of Leighlin. Goodacre had died a few months after his intrusion into the see of Armagh; Bale of Ossory—a fiery bigot and a coarse, unscrupulous writer—had fled, of his own accord, beyond the seas, on Mary's accession; and Casey of Limerick, another of Edward's bishops, had also made a voluntary exit. All of these, except Casey, were Englishmen, and all except Staples were professing Protestants at the time of their consecration.\* It is well known that there was no persecution on account of religion in Ireland during the reign of Mary, and that some Protestant families came to

this country from England about that time in order to follow their religious persuasion undisturbed.†

Mary was inclined to deal mercifully with the Irish, but her ministers and her Irish council would not depart from the traditional principles upon which this country had been governed, and which recognized neither mercy nor justice in their relations with the native population. Hence the same cruel wars were waged against the latter in her reign as previously; and the work of extermination having made sufficient progress in Leix and Offaly during the reign of Edward, it remained for Mary's deputy to form into counties these ancient territories which had already been annexed to the Pale. This was the only new shire land marked out since the reign of John. Leix was designated the Queen's county, and its old fort of Campa became the modern Maryborough, while Offaly was transformed into the King's county, and its fortress of Daingean into Philipstown, in compliment to the queen and her husband, Philip of Spain.‡

\* Besides the prelates mentioned above, a few others had given evidence of their servility by the recognition of Henry VIII.'s schismatical claim. These were Hugh O'Kervallan, bishop of Clogher, who accompanied O'Neill to England in 1542; Mathew Saunders, bishop of Leighlin; Florence Gerawan or Kirwan, bishop of Clonmacnoise; Eugene Magennis, bishop of Down and Connor; and Rowland Burke, bishop of Clonfert. (*Liber Mun. Pub. Hib.*, v. ii., p. 17, &c.) The two last-mentioned, together with Staples of Meath (for it is unnecessary to include Browne), were the only members of the episcopal body in Ireland, as it stood at the beginning of the reign of Edward VI., who could be induced to abandon the Catholic faith even in those

days of deplorable degeneracy. (Vide the Rev. M. G. Brennan's *Eccl. Hist. of Ireland*, vol. ii., pp. 92, 102.)

† The Protestants who came to Ireland on this occasion were John Harvey, Abel Ellis, John Edmonds, and Henry Haugh, with their families. They were from Cheshire, and were accompanied by a Welsh Protestant clergyman named Thomas Jones, whom the earl of Sussex subsequently took into his household. See *Ware's Annals*, An. 1554. These men were the founders of respectable mercantile families in Dublin.

‡ In addition to the territory of Leix, the present Queen's county comprises a portion of ancient Ossory, constituting the barony of Upper Ossory, besides the baronies of Portnahinch and Tinnahinch which were



Mary's kindness, as contrasted with the harshness of her Irish government, was illustrated by an affecting incident in the first year of her reign. Margaret, the daughter of O'Connor Faly, inspired with hope on hearing that a queen occupied the throne, hastened to England, where her father was a prisoner, and at Mary's feet begged his liberation. Her prayer was granted, and she returned with her father to Ireland; but the lords justices, presuming to manage Irish affairs in their own way, seized the chieftain and cast him once more into prison.\* This year also (1553) Garret, or Gerald, and his brother Edward, the sons of the earl of Kildare, returned to Ireland after their long exile, and were restored to all the honors and possessions of their family. There were great rejoicings, say the annalists, "because it was thought that not one of the descendants of the earls of Kildare or of the O'Conors Faly would ever return to Ireland."

Murrough O'Brien died in 1551, and his nephew, Donough, the son of Murrough's elder brother, Conor, and the rightful heir in the eyes of the English law, assumed the title of earl of Tho-

mond. He surrendered his patent, which was only for his own life, and obtained a new one from Edward VI., securing to his heirs male the title of earl, and all the lands and honors belonging to his uncle. His brothers, Donnell and Turlough, objected to this mode of fixing the inheritance, which was at direct variance with their own law of tanistry; and on Donough's death, in 1553, Donnell claimed the right of succession to the chieftaincy, and dispossessed Donough's son, Conor. This created violent strife; Donnell, despising the foreign title of earl, assumed that of the O'Brien, amid the acclamations of the people, and Conor depended on the English arms to support his claim. He was besieged by Donnell in 1554, in the castle of Doonmulvihil, and was only saved by the timely arrival of the earl of Ormond. Ultimately, Donnell was banished by the earl of Sussex, lord lieutenant, in 1558, and Conor was left in possession of the earldom.

Sentleger, who was appointed lord deputy for the fifth time in 1553, was again recalled, through the intrigues of the extreme anti-Irish party, in 1555.

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part of Offaly, and belonged to O'Dunne and O'Dempsey. Offaly, before the English invasion, comprised the territories which constitute the baronies of East and West Offaly in Kildare; those of upper and lower Philipstown, Geashill, Warrenstown, and Coolestown in the King's county; and those already mentioned in the Queen's county. It is not therefore correct to say, as is usually done, that Leix and Offaly were respectively transformed into the Queen's and King's counties. See notes to O'Donovan's *Four Masters*, vol. iii., pp. 44, 105, &c. The same year (1556) in which Leix and Offaly

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were converted into shires, the pope sanctioned the assumption by Mary of the title of queen of Ireland, having previously disapproved of it when only authorized by the Act 33d Henry VIII., passed (A. D. 1541), after the commencement of the schism. The massacre of Mullaghmast, erroneously connected by some modern writers with the annexation of Leix and Offaly, did not occur until the 19th year of queen Elizabeth, and will be mentioned in its proper place.

\* Compare *Four Masters*, A. D. 1553, and the *Abba Mageoghagan*, p. 443 (Duffy's edition.)



His popularity with the Irish was the only ground of hostility against him; and he was succeeded by Thomas Radcliffe, viscount FitzWilliam and afterwards earl of Sussex, who led an army into Ulster against the Scots, then very powerful in the districts of the Route and Clannaboy. He was aided by Con O'Neill, but returned after a campaign of three months without bringing the war to a conclusion. Con O'Neill was again unfortunate in an expedition against the same dangerous intruders in Clannaboy, and was defeated by them, with the loss of 300 men.\* In 1555 Calvagh O'Donnell employed some Scottish auxiliaries against his father, Manus, whom he made prisoner and detained in captivity until his death. In 1557 the Scots penetrated to Armagh, which was plundered twice in one month by the earl of Sussex. The same year Shane O'Neill, observing the weak condition to which Calvagh's rebellion had reduced Tirconnell, thought the opportunity a favorable one to recover the power of which his ancestors had been deprived by the O'Donnells. He accordingly mustered a numerous army, and pitched his camp at Carrigliath, between the rivers Finn and Mourne, where he was joined by Hugh, the brother of Calvagh O'Donnell, and several of the men of Tirconnell who were disaffected towards their

chief for his rebellion. Calvagh in this emergency consulted his father, and by his advice resolved to avoid a pitched battle, and to have recourse to strata gem. He caused his cattle to be driven to a distance, and when O'Neill entered his territory, and marched as far as the place now called Balleeghan, near Raphoe, he sent two spies into the Kinel-Owen camp, while he himself hovered not far off with his small force. The spies mixed with O'Neill's soldiers, received rations, which they carried back as evidence of their success, and undertook to guide O'Donnell's army that night to O'Neill's tent, which is described as being distinguished by a great watchfire, a huge torch burning outside, sixty grim gallowglasses on one side of the entrance, with sharp, keen axes, ready for action, and as many stern and terrific Scots on the other, with their broadswords in hand. Overweening confidence had rendered O'Neill careless. He boasted that no one should be king in Ulster but himself, and despised the power of his crafty foe; but O'Donnell penetrated under cover of the darkness into the heart of O'Neill's camp, and proceeded to slaughter the men of Tyrone without resistance, so that the whole were routed or cut to pieces, while Shane himself escaping through the back of his tent, fled unattended except by two

\* A large body of these Scottish adventurers penetrated into Connaught in 1558, and were hired by the northern MacWilliam, who was called Richard-of-the-iron. But the earl of Clanrickard, Richard, son of

Ulick-na-gceann (the first earl), son of Richard, son of Ulick of Knackdoe, hearing of the arrival of this foreign host, marched against them and cut them to pieces on the banks of the Moy



of Hugh O'Donnell's men, and by swimming across three rivers made his way to his own territory covered with confusion. The following year he procured the murder of Ferdoragh, baron of Dungannon, and his father Con dying in captivity in Dublin, he assumed the chieftaincy without opposition.

Meantime the war of extermination was carried on against the remnant of the old race in the territories which we may still call Leix and Offaly. The heart sickens at the narrative of merci-

less aggression on the one side, and of indomitable resistance on the other. The O'Conors, O'Mores, O'Molloys, O'Carrolls, and the rest of them, were unrelentingly hunted down, and the whole country was made a scene of desolation from the Shannon to the Wicklow mountains. But dark as this period is, we have arrived at one infinitely more gloomy in our history—the sanguinary reign of Elizabeth, which commenced on the day of Mary's death, November 17th, 1558.



## CHAPTER XXXII.

## REIGN OF ELIZABETH.

Religious pliancy of Statesmen and fidelity of the people.—Shane O'Neill.—Acts of the Parliament of 1559 — Laws against the Catholic religion.—Miserable condition of the Irish Church.—Discord in Thomond — Machinations of Government against Shane O'Neill.—Capture of Calvagh O'Donnell by the latter.—War with Shane.—Defeat of the English.—Plan to assassinate the Tyrone Chief.—Submission of Shane, and his visit to the Court of Elizabeth.—His return, further misunderstanding, and renewed peace with the Government.—O'Neill defeats the Scots of Clannaboy.—Feud between the Earls of Ormond and Desmond.—The latter wounded and captured at Affane.—The Earl of Sussex succeeded by Sir Henry Sidney.—Renewed war in Ulster.—O'Neill invades the English Pale.—Defeated at Derry.—Burning of Derry and withdrawal of the English garrison.—Death of Calvagh O'Donnell.—O'Neill defeated by Calvagh's successor, Hugh.—His disastrous flight, Appeal to the Scots, and Murder.—His character.—Visitation of Munster and Connaught, by Sidney.—Sidney's description of the State of the country.—His character of the great Nobles.—Base policy of the Government confessed by him.—His energy and severity.—Arrest of Desmond.—Commencement of serious troubles in the South.—Position of the Catholics.—Sir James FitzMaurice.—Parliament of 1569.—Fraudulent elections.—Attainder of O'Neill.—Claims of Sir Peter Carew.—Rebellion of Sir Edmund Butler.—Sidney's military Expedition to Munster.—Sir John Perrott Lord President of Munster, and Sir Edward Fitton President of Connaught.—Renewed war in the South.—Rebellion of the Earl of Thomond.—Rebellion of the sons of the Earl of Clanrickard.—Battle of Shrule.—The Castle of Aughnacore taken.—Siege and Capture of Castlemaine.—Submission of Sir James FitzMaurice.—Attempted English settlements in Ulster.—Horrible Massacre of the Irish in Clannaboy.—Failure and Death of the Earl of Essex.—Sir Henry Sidney makes another visitation of the South and West.—Sir William Drury President of Munster, and Sir Nicholas Malby in Connaught.—Illegal Tax, Difficulties in the Pale.—Career and Death of Rory Oge O'More.—The Massacre of Mullaghmast.

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*Contemporary Sovereigns and Events.*—Popes: Paul IV., Pius IV., Pius V., Gregory XIII.—Kings of France: Francis II., Charles IX., Henry III.—King of Spain, Philip II.—King of Portugal, Sebastian.—Sovereigns of Scotland: Mary, James VI.—Battle of Lepanto, 1571.—Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day, 1572.

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(A. D. 1558 TO A. D. 1578.)

**P**LIANCY of conscience characterized in a remarkable degree the statesmen of the age of which it is now our duty to treat. There appears to have been no fixed principles of religion or politics among them, and the men who undertook to restore the ancient religion to its original state under the Catholic queen Mary, were found as ready and suitable instruments for its destruction at the beck of her Protestant sister and successor, Elizabeth. Thus, Thomas Radcliffe, earl of Sussex, who had been lord lieutenant of Ireland under the former sovereign, continued in office under the latter, reversing,



under the altered rule, his own previous acts; and Sir Henry Sidney, the treasurer, who acted as deputy in the absence of Sussex, before the close of Mary's reign, was also appointed to the same charge, although to perform contrary duties, when Sussex went to England after Elizabeth ascended the throne. But if those who lived within the sphere of court influence exhibited this lubricity in their religious principles, it was not so with the general population of Ireland, who viewed such fickleness with horror, and who were roused to a sense of their own danger by the measures taken, on the accession of the new queen, to subvert their religion and to enforce the new creed and form of worship. Thus was a fresh element of strife introduced into this unhappy country. The native population had hitherto seen in their English rulers the plunderers of their ancestral lands and the exterminators of their race; but to this character was now super-added that of the revilers and persecutors of their religion; while in regarding the English government in this latter point of view, a vast majority of the people of English descent in Ireland were now identified in sentiment with the native Irish. On the other hand, the fidelity of the Irish to the religion of their fathers became branded with the stigma of rebellion; their memories were blackened and their actions distorted by their successful enemies, and calumny was unsparingly added to spoliation and persecution.

Of this ungenerous conduct we have a marked instance in the case of Shane O'Neill, the prince of Tyrone, whose character has been depicted in revolting colors by English historians. They describe him as a barbarian and as one addicted to every vice; but if he had faults some of which we do not excuse, we know at least that he was chivalrous, confiding, and generous; that with the exhausted resources of his small territory he was able to keep the power of England at bay; that he defeated her experienced generals in the field, and foiled her statesmen in negotiation; and that he combined with no ordinary qualities of mind an undaunted bravery, and an ardent love of his country. We have already seen how he assumed the chieftaincy on the death of his father, who closed his life in captivity, and how he thus set aside the claims of the sons of his elder but illegitimate brother, Mathew, or Ferdoragh, the late baron of Dungannon, who was slain at his instigation; and this course being in open defiance of English authority, which had always made common cause with Mathew, Sir Henry Sidney, as lord deputy in the absence of Sussex, now led an army to Dundalk, and summoned Shane to account for his proceedings. The haughty chief of Tyrone replied to the summons by inviting the deputy to come to his court, and stand as sponsor to his child. Whatever motive may have actuated Sidney he accepted the invitation, and was so influenced by the



arguments urged by O'Neill in support of his rights, and by his protestations of loyalty, that he withdrew his army, and promised to lay the matter before the queen. Thus for the moment were friendly relations established between the Ulster chieftain and the Pale; but the government of the latter soon found sources of uneasiness in other quarters. Rumors of invasion from France and Spain became current; the earls of Kildare and Desmond held conferences of a suspicious nature, and disaffection was more general and apparent as the principles of Elizabeth's government became intelligible to the country.

A. D. 1560.—A parliament composed of seventy-six members was summoned to meet in Dublin on the 12th of January this year.\* It comprised the representatives of ten counties,† the remainder being "citizens and burgesses," says Leland, "of these towns in which the royal authority was predominant; and with such a parliament," as the same Protestant historian admits, "it is little wonder that, in despite of clamor and opposition, in a session of a few weeks, the whole ecclesiastical system of queen Mary was entirely reversed."‡ The proceedings are involved in mystery, and the principal measures are believed to have been carried by

means fraudulent and clandestine; but at all events it was enacted that the queen was the head of the church of Ireland, the reformed worship was re-established as under Edward VI., and the book of common prayer, with further alterations, re-introduced. Every person was bound to attend the new service under pain of ecclesiastical censures and of a fine of twelve pence for each offence; the first fruits and twentieths of the church revenue were restored to the crown; and the right of collating to all vacant sees by royal letters patent was established instead of the form of a writ of *congé d'elire*, the prelates being ordered to consecrate the person thus appointed within the space of twenty days under the penalty of premunire. The laws made in Mary's reign restoring the civil establishment of the Catholic religion were repealed; all officers and ministers, ecclesiastical or lay, were bound to take the oath of supremacy under pain of forfeiture and total incapacity; and any one who maintained the spiritual supremacy of the pope was to forfeit for the first offence all his estates real and personal, or be imprisoned for one year if not worth £20; for the second offence to be liable to premunire; and for the third to be guilty of high treason.§

\* As the legal year, at this time, commenced in March, the months of January and February of the natural year belonged to the common or preceding legal year; hence this parliament of 2d Elizabeth, which was held in January, 1560, is often called the parliament of 1559.

† The counties to which the writs were issued were Dublin, Meath, West Meath, Louth, Kildare, Catherlough, Kilkenny, Waterford, Tipperary and Wexford.

‡ Leland, *Hist. of Ireland*, vol. ii., p. 224.

§ As the statute of supremacy, 28th Henry VIII., chap. 5 (A. D. 1536), was passed by the illegal and arbitrary exclusion of the proctors from parliament, and by the preliminary dragooning of the nation by lord Leonard Gray, who, as Sir John Davis says, "to prepare the minds of the people to obey this statute, began first with a martial course, and by making a victorious circu-"



These laws against the religion of the people had little effect beyond the bounds of the Pale, while even within its precincts they were generally met by passive resistance, and became in many instances a dead letter. When the Catholic clergy were obliged to flee from their churches, their places were in a majority of cases left unsupplied, or ignorant and worthless men, who abandoned their religion for temporal advantages, were substituted. Even those who enjoyed the rank of bishops under the Reformation, showed them-

round the kingdom, whereby the principal septs of the Irish were all terrified and most of them broken;" (Hist. Rel.); so is there sufficient reason to believe that the statute of uniformity of the 2d of Elizabeth was obtained forcibly or surreptitiously from the parliament of 1560. "In the very beginning of that parliament," says Ware, "most of the nobility and gentry were so divided in opinion about ecclesiastical government that the earl of Sussex dissolved them, and went over to England to consult her majesty on the affairs of this kingdom." From this and subsequent proceedings of the viceroy, it may be inferred that the act was not carried in a regular manner. It is even said that the earl of Sussex, to calm the protests which were made in parliament when it was found that the law had been passed by a few members assembled privately, pledged himself solemnly that it would not generally be enforced during the reign of Elizabeth. (See *Cambrensis Ever.*, also *Analecta Sacra*, p. 431.) Dr. Curry (*Civil Wars*, book ii. chap. iii.) has collected some curious facts in illustration of this point; but it is not true that the statute of uniformity was kept in abeyance until the beginning of the reign of James I., although not generally enforced until that time. On the 23d May, 1561, commissioners were appointed to enforce the 2d Eliz. against Catholics in West Meath; in December, 1562, a commission with similar jurisdiction was appointed for Armagh and Meath; and in 1564, commissioners were appointed for the whole kingdom, to inquire into all offences or misdemeanors contrary to the statutes of 2d Elizabeth, and concerning all heretical opinions, &c., against said statutes.

Other commissions were appointed in subsequent years, but the proceedings of none of these appear to be now ascertainable.

selves in many instances so notoriously devoid of honesty, by making away with the temporalities of their sees, that it was soon necessary to enact a law breaking the fraudulent leases which they had made, and prohibiting for the future such alienations.\* The sacred edifices fell into ruins, and the people were obliged to worship God in secret and retired places; so that in half-a-dozen years from Elizabeth's accession, her deputy, Sir Henry Sidney, was able to describe the miserable condition of the Irish church, as "spoiled, as well

\* See Harris's *Ware's Irish Bishops*, from which it would appear that the new Protestant bishops of Elizabeth's time very generally plundered the sees into which they were introduced by bartering away the revenues "through fear of another change." See more particularly the articles on Miler Magrath, archbishop of Cashel; Alexander Craik, bishop of Kildare; bishop Lyon, of Ross; bishop Field, of Leighlin; bishop Deveaux, of Ferns, &c. Some of these men "by most scandalous wastes and alienations," reduced their sees to such a state that their successors were scarcely left means to subsist, and a union of sees became necessary. The conduct of some of the first of these "reformed" bishops appears to have been in other respects also any thing but exemplary. Thus William Knight, the coadjutor of Miler Magrath in Cashel, having excited "the scorn and derision of the people" by his public drunkenness, was obliged to fly to England (Ware, p. 484). Marmaduke Middleton, of Waterford, translated to St. David's, was degraded for the forgery of a will (Peter Heylin's *Examen Hist.*). Richard Dixon, of Cloyne and Ross, was deprived "propter adulterium manifestum et confessum" (official paper quoted in *Gilbert's Hist. of Dub.*, vol. i., p. 114), &c. As to archbishop Browne, Henry VIII. charged him with "lightness in behavior," and said that "all virtue and honesty were almost vanished from him" (*State P.*, clxxiv.); while Bale in his own gross manner accused him of "drunkenness and gluttony," calling him an "epicurious archbishop," a "brockish swine," a "dissembling proselite," and a "pernicious papist" (*The Vocacyon of Johan Bayle*, reprinted in the *Harleian Miscellany*, vol. vi.). And Dowling, in one pithy sentence, describes Travers, Edward VI.'s bishop of Leighlin, as "cruel, covetous, vexing his clergy" (*An. Hib.*, p. 38, ed. of 1849).



by the ruin of the temples as the dissipation and embezzlement of the patrimony, and most of all for want of sufficient ministers;" adding, that "so deformed and overthrown a church there is not, I am sure, in any region where Christ is professed!"\*

Meanwhile, the Irish were, as usual, a prey to discord among themselves. In Thomond, great confusion prevailed, owing to the efforts of Teige and Donough, sons of Murrough O'Brien, to wrest the chieftaincy from Conor O'Brien, earl of Thomond. Garrett, who had succeeded his father, James, as earl of Desmond, sided with the former, while Conor called in the aid of his friend, the earl of Clanrickard. The three earls, with their respective armies, met at Pally-Ally, a few miles north of Ennis, and after an obstinate fight the combined forces of Conor O'Brien and the Burkes were defeated. The proceeding of the earl of Desmond on this occasion was regarded by the English government as an act of rebellion. As to Thomond, it continued to be for some years disturbed by the rival factions. Among the claimants to the chieftaincy, under the law of tanistry, were Donnell and Teige, uncles of

Conor; but in 1560 a partial settlement of these disputes was effected by a grant of the district of Corcomroe with certain church lands, to Sir Donnell, who, some years after, served the queen efficiently as sheriff of Thomond.

The English government evinced its distrust of Shane O'Neill by a course of action well calculated to excite that chieftain's hostility. Efforts were made to alienate the neighboring chiefs from him, and for that purpose honors were conferred on some, and promises held out to others. O'Reilly was created earl of Brenny, or Breffny, and baron of Cavan; and a messenger was sent by a circuitous route to Calvagh O'Donnell, bearing letters from the queen, offering to create him earl of Tirconnell, together with letters from the earl of Sussex to O'Donnell's wife—a Scottish lady, who is generally called the countess of Argyle—informing her that the queen was about to send her some costly presents. O'Neill who well understood this indirect mode of showing enmity against himself, soon made the recipients of English favors rue the friendship which was only intended to wean them from the interests of their country. He invaded the territory of

\* Sir Henry Sidney's Despatches. In a letter to the queen, that deputy draws a melancholy picture of the ruinous state of the church: In Meath, which he refers to as "the best peopled diocese and the best governed country" of Ireland, he states that out of 224 parish churches 105 had fallen wholly into decay, without roofs, doors or windows, the very walls in many places being down; while the revenues were confiscated to the crown. Fifty-two others had incumbents, and as many more were private property. By a curious inconsisten-

cy, at the commencement of Elizabeth's reign, those ministers who had no knowledge of the English language were allowed to read the Liturgy in Latin; and Peter Lombard, the Catholic archbishop of Armagh, tells us, that in the five years of Elizabeth's reign many of the Irish, from ignorance, attended the new service, taking with them their rosaries and crucifixes, but that as soon as they became fully aware of the religious changes that had taken place, they shunned the churches with horror. (*Commentaries*, p. 282.)



the new earl of Brenny, and after laying it waste, compelled O'Reilly to become his vassal. Against O'Donnell his enmity was not of recent date, and he seized an opportunity which now presented itself of gratifying all his vengeance. He learned that the principal part of O'Donnell's army was absent on a hostile excursion to Lough Veagh, in Donegal, while Calvagh himself was almost unattended at the monastery of Killodonnell, near the upper part of Lough Swilly; and making a sudden descent, he carried off Calvagh and his wife prisoners. The former he incarcerated in one of his strongholds, and the latter, whose subsequent shameless conduct has made some suspect that it was she who betrayed her husband into O'Neill's hands, he made his mistress.\* He now declared himself chief of all Ulster.

O'Neill, in fine, no longer disguised his hatred of England, but openly declared his determination to contend against English power, not only in his own province of Ulster, but in Leinster and Munster. He led an army into Bregia, plundered the territory of the Pale, and only returned to the north at the approach of winter, when he had destroyed the corn, and left no food in

the country to support his army. Elizabeth had caused an assembly of the Irish clergy to be held this year for the purpose of enforcing the Protestant worship throughout the kingdom, and had given a foretaste of the persecution which might be expected by casting William Walsh, then bishop of Meath, into prison, for his opposition to the newly-imported liturgy. These proceedings filled the country with disaffection, which was stimulated by hopes of aid from foreign princes—a course for which Elizabeth's government afforded the amplest justification by the aid which it lent to the rebellious subjects of other countries. Shane O'Neill asked the king of France to send him five or six thousand men, and with such assistance at that moment he would have had little difficulty in liberating his country from the English yoke.

A. D. 1561.—It is said that Elizabeth had, at this time, designed to try the effect of a conciliatory policy with O'Neill, and that Sussex, when returning from England, in June this year, had received instructions to that effect; but, be that as it may, the contrary course was pursued. The lord lieutenant had brought reinforcements from England, and, with as powerful an army

\* The circumstance mentioned above leaves a blemish on the character of Shane O'Neill which even the manners of the age and the life of violence which he was fated to pass cannot palliate. The woman who thus became his mistress was the step-mother of his wife, the latter being the daughter of Calvagh O'Donnell, by a former wife. The Four Masters, who record the seizure of Calvagh under the year 1559, state, under the date of 1561, that "Mary, the daughter of Calvagh and wife of

O'Neill, died of horror, loathing, grief, and deep anguish, in consequence of the severity of the imprisonment inflicted on her father by O'Neill in her presence." About the latter year, O'Neill, in his letters to queen Elizabeth, frequently expressed a wish that "some English gentleman of noble blood," might be given to him as wife, the lady whose hand he desired thus to obtain being the sister of his most inveterate foe, the earl of Sussex.



as he could collect, including the forces of the earl of Ormond, he marched to Armagh, where he threw up entrenchments round the cathedral with the view of establishing a strong garrison there. He sent a large body of troops into Tyrone, and these were returning laden with spoils when O'Neill set upon them, defeated them with slaughter, and retook the booty. This defeat produced intense alarm in the Pale, and created no slight uneasiness even in England, while it proportionately increased the confidence of the Irish. Sussex had recourse to negotiations, but O'Neill declared that he would listen to no terms until the English troops were withdrawn from Armagh. Fresh reinforcements were poured in from England, and the earls of Desmond, Ormond, Kildare, Thomond, and Clanrickard, are said to have all assembled in the lord lieutenant's camp, in obedience to his call. With a large and well-equipped army Sussex now advanced into Tyrone as far as Lough Foyle, and devastated the country; but O'Neill, adopting the tactics which had always frustrated the English when their greatest efforts were made in the way of preparation, withdrew beyond their reach to his forests

and mountains. To rid himself of a brave enemy, whom he was thus unable to subdue, the viceroy now had recourse to the darkest treachery. He hired an assassin to murder Shane O'Neill, and this with the cognizance and sanction of queen Elizabeth; but, as the atrocious project did not succeed, we should probably be left in ignorance of the fact that it was ever contemplated, were it not for the evidence preserved in the State Paper Office. The name of the intended murderer was Nele Gray; but he either lacked courage or the obstacles in his way were too great, and the deed was not perpetrated.\*

What the lord lieutenant did not succeed in effecting with his army was brought about through the mediation of the earl of Kildare, whose family connection with O'Neill gave him considerable influence with that chief. The persuasions of Kildare were backed by a pressing letter of invitation from Elizabeth to Shane to repair to her court; and that redoubtable chieftain was induced to make his submission and sign articles of peace. Calvagh O'Donnell had, a short time before this, been ransomed from captivity by the Kinel-Connell, and Sussex having now march

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\* The letter of Sussex to the queen, in which this atrocious plot is fully developed, concludes thus:—"In fine I brake with him to kill Shane, and bound myself by my oath to see him have a hundred marks of land, to him and his heirs, for reward. He seemed desirous to serve your highness, and to have the land, but fearful to do it, doubting his own escape after. I told him the ways he might do it, and how to escape after with safety, which he offered and promised to do;" and from the next sentence it may be inferred either that the

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assassin would forfeit his own life if he failed to perform his task, or that other assassins could be found for the purpose, as the lord lieutenant adds:—"I assure your highness he may do it without danger, if he will, and if he will not do what he may in your service, there will be done to him what others may." Throughout the letter as Mr. Moore observes, there is not a single hint of doubt or scruple as to the moral justifiableness of the transaction—such was "the frightful familiarity with deeds of blood which then prevailed in the highest stations."



ed through Tirconnell to restore him to his principal castles and strongholds, brought the Ulster campaign to a satisfactory conclusion. O'Neill, on his part, repaired to Dublin, and desired to proceed to England, but Sussex threw various obstacles in the way; one cause of delay relating to the loan of a sum of three thousand pounds for the expenses of the journey. Sussex also wrote to Cecil, suggesting that the queen should give O'Neill a cool reception, or "show strangeness" to him; but in this the enmity of the lord lieutenant was not gratified, for Elizabeth received Shane very graciously, and in return he made strong protestations of friendship and loyalty to her. The decision on his claims was at first deferred by the queen, until Hugh, the young baron of Dungannon, should arrive and plead

his own cause; but an unfounded report having reached that Hugh was killed in a feud, Elizabeth no longer hesitated to grant Shane a full pardon and to recognize his right of succession to the chieftaincy.\*

A. D. 1562.—Well pleased with his visit, O'Neill returned to Dublin, where he arrived on the 26th of May, having obtained a further loan of £300 from the queen for his journey home; but learning that Turlough Luineach O'Neill was setting himself up as chieftain, he caused proclamation to be made in the streets of the recognition of his title by Elizabeth, and hastened to the north, where he was received in triumph by the men of Tyrone.

A. D. 1564.—Ulster continued, nevertheless, in an unsettled state; the neighboring chieftains complained or

\* The Four Masters say that O'Neill went to England about All-Hallowtide, in 1561, and that he returned to Ireland in May, in following year; but Ware, Cox, and others, who have followed them, speak obscurely of two journeys of Shane O'Neill to England, one in 1561, and the other in 1563. Camden refers to that chieftain's visit under the date of 1562, at the beginning of which year O'Neill certainly was in London. The articles by which O'Neill bound himself to serve the queen are dated at Benburb, 18th November, 1563, as appears from the Patent Roll of that date; and they cite the articles indented between the queen and him, and dated at Windsor, 15th January, 1563. By these articles, in consideration of his becoming a faithful subject, he was constituted "captain or governor" of Tyrone "in the same manner as other captains (chiefs) of the said nation, called O'Neles, had rightfully executed that office in the time of King Henry 8.;" and, moreover, he was "to enjoy and have the name and title of O'Nele, with the like authority, &c., as any other of his ancestors, with the service and homage of all the lords and captains called Urراughts, and other nobles of the said nation of O'Nele," upon condition "that he and his said nobles should truly and faithfully, from time to

time, serve her majesty, and where necessary wage war against all her enemies, in such manner as the lord lieutenant for the time being should direct." The name or title of O'Neill was to be contingent on the decision of parliament, which should inquire concerning the letters patent granted by Henry VIII. to his father, and if these were to be adjudged void, or revoked, "then he should forbear to use the title of O'Nele, and should be created and named earl of Tirone," and "all his followers, called Urراughts, who belonged to him or his predecessors, should be assigned to him by authority of said parliament, &c." Camden describes the rude pomp with which Shane O'Neill appeared in London, escorted by a body-guard of gallowglasses, with bare heads, long and dishevelled hair, crocus dyed shirts, wide sleeves, short jackets, shaggy cloaks, and broad battle-axes and he tells us that they were objects of great wonder to the English (*Annales*, p. 69, ed. 1639); while we learn from Campion (page 189, ed. 1809) that the hauteur of the Irish prince excited the merriment of the affected gallants of Elizabeth's court, who styled him "O'Neale the great, cousin to S. Patricke, friend to the Queene of England, enemy to all the world besides!"



aggressions on the part of Shane, and the English government pursued its insidious policy of division by setting up the former against him. Maguire of Fermanagh rendered himself particularly obnoxious to the chief of Tyrone, by his alliance with O'Donnell, and his subservience to the English, and O'Neill accordingly laid waste his territory by repeated incursions.\* Manus O'Donnell died in 1563, and Calvagh repaired to Dublin to complain to the lord lieutenant against O'Neill. The government charged O'Neill with bad faith, but the latter flung back the imputation, and with good reason, for the English do not appear to have kept any of their promises to him. He refused to meet the viceroy at Dundalk, and was in fact once more at war with England; but after some fruitless attempts at mediation by the earls of Kildare and Ormond, Sir Thomas Cusack succeeded in restoring peace, and articles were signed by Shane, at his house at Benburb, in November, 1563.† For some time Shane O'Neill governed Tyrone with such order, that if a robbery was committed within his territory, he either caused the property to be restored, or reimbursed the loser out of his own treasury. He made war upon the Scots who had settled in Clannaboy, and defeated them

in a succession of attacks, slaying 700 of them in the last battle at Glenflesk, in 1566, and taking among other prisoners their leader, James MacDonnell, who died of his wounds, and his brother Sorley Boy. This victory, while it increased his power, only excited still more the jealousy and suspicions of the government, to whom Shane refused to surrender the charge of his prisoners; and, as the sequel will show, it proved ere long fatal to himself.

The importance of the events in the north has for some time withdrawn our attention from the feuds which prevailed in other parts of the country, and which for the most part were but of local interest. Such were the dissensions of which Thomond had been so long the theatre, and the partial settlement of which, by the grant of Corcomroe to Donnell O'Brien, in 1564, we have already mentioned; but a violent feud, which broke out between the earls of Ormond and Desmond, caused more anxiety to government. The former of these noblemen had embraced the new creed, and following the traditions of his family, was a faithful supporter of English interests;‡ while the Geraldine chief was firm in his attachment to Catholicity, and was stigmatized with the name of rebel. In 1562 both earls

\* Some of Maguire's letters to the earl of Sussex are printed in the collection of State Papers. In one of these he requests the lord lieutenant to write to him in English, and not in Latin, as the latter language was well known, and but few of the Irish had any knowledge of the former, in which, therefore, the secrets of their correspondence could be best preserved.

† An outline of these articles has been given in a note on the preceding page.

‡ Queen Elizabeth, who was related to the Butlers by her mother, used to boast of the loyalty of the house of Ormond.



appeared at court in obedience to a summons from the queen; and while Ormond was sent back to take part in the proceedings against O'Neill, Desmond was pardoned on certain conditions, the principal of which was that he should abolish coyn and livery, and abrogate all Irish laws\* and customs within his territory. The old strife, however, soon broke out more fiercely than ever. In the beginning of 1565 the earl of Desmond proceeded with a small force to levy coyn and livery, and some other tax which he claimed from his kinsman Sir Maurice FitzGerald of Decies, a nobleman who was also related to the Butlers. Sir Maurice applied to these latter for aid, and the earl of Ormond came with an army twice as numerous as that which Desmond had brought. A battle was fought at Affane, a little to the south of Cappoquin, in Waterford, when the earl of Desmond was wounded and made prisoner.\*

A. D. 1566.—About the close of 1564 the earl of Sussex obtained his final recall from Ireland, where his unconciliating temper, and personal animosities had rendered the duties of government exceedingly irksome; and Sir Henry Sidney arrived in Dublin in January, this year, with ample powers as the queen's representative. The new lord deputy was received with extravagant demonstrations of joy by the population of the Pale; and by the introduction of

a new set of people into office he prepared for a more vigorous administration of affairs. On his arrival he found Shane O'Neill again in open hostility to England, and he at once collected a powerful army to take the field against him. He stirred up the minor chieftains of Ulster to resist O'Neill's claims of suzerainty, and we are told that the arrogance and violence of Shane rendered this task an easy one. Commissioners were, however, sent to O'Neill himself, to try what might still be effected by negotiation, but he treated their overtures with scorn, and said that as Ulster had belonged to his ancestors, so it now belonged to him, and having won it by the sword, by the sword he was resolved to keep it. He boasted that "he could bring into the field 1,000 horse and 4,000 foot, and that he was able to burn and spoil to Dublin gates, and come away unfought." If he had been as prudent as he was valiant, this defiance might have been of more avail. He led an army to the vicinity of Dundalk about the end of July, and Sidney marched with a large force to meet him; but with the exception of some skirmishing, no collision took place between them, and the deputy returned to Dublin. O'Neill now invaded the English Pale, and wasted the country, but he was successfully resisted by the garrison which had been left by Sidney in Dundalk, and received

\* It was on this occasion that Desmond, while being carried from the field, and tauntingly asked by his enemies, "Where now was the proud earl of Desmond?"

haughtily replied, "Where he ought to be, upon the necks of the Butlers!" The earl appears to have been soon after liberated.



a still more serious repulse from an English garrison, placed, at the solicitation of Calvagh O'Donnell, in Derry, under a brave and experienced officer, Colonel Randolph, who is said to have been the only person killed on the English side in O'Neill's attack.\* Sidney, at the head of a powerful army, marched through Tyrone and Tirconnell, and thence through Connaught to the Pale, but did not succeed in bringing O'Neill to an engagement.

A. D. 1567.—Hugh O'Donnell succeeded to the chieftaincy of Tirconnell on the sudden death of his brother Calvagh, and proved to be a more dangerous and energetic foe to Shane O'Neill than any of the others whom the policy of the deputy had raised up against him among the Ulster chiefs; although in his brother's life-time he had been Shane's friend, and was in that chief's camp when he invaded Tirconnell in 1557. After the old Irish fashion Hugh inaugurated his rule by a "chieftain's first hosting" into Shane's territory, and this was followed by another in the following year (1567), which so exasperated the chief of Tyrone that he collected a numerous army, and invaded Tirconnell, crossing the estuary of the river Swilly, at low water, a short distance below Letterkenny, and attacking the small

forces of Hugh, who was encamped at Ardnagarry, on the north side of the river. The position of Hugh was for a moment desperate, but skilful generalship and impetuosity made up for the smallness of his numbers, and the total rout of O'Neill's army was the result. During the battle the returning tide had covered the sands which a little before had afforded so ready a passage, and a great number of O'Neill's panic-stricken men plunging into the waves were drowned, their loss by flood and by the sword being variously stated at 1,300 or 3,000 men. O'Neill himself fled alone along the banks of the river, westward, to a ford near Scarriffhollis, about two miles higher up than Letterkenny, where he crossed under the guidance of a party of the O'Gallaghers, subjects of O'Donnell, to whom he was probably unknown, and thence he found his way back, quite crest-fallen, to Tyrone. The annalists say, "his reason and senses became deranged after this defeat." He hesitated a moment whether he should offer his submission to the lord deputy, or apply for aid to the Scots, but by the advice of his secretary he adopted the latter alternative. An army of the Clann Donnell had just arrived from the Hebrides, under some of the very leaders whom Shane had

\* Shortly after the defeat of Shane O'Neill before Derry, that town was destroyed by fire, and the cathedral, which had been converted by the English into an arsenal, fell a prey to the flames. The powder magazine was blown up, the provisions destroyed, the sick soldiers killed in the hospital, and the English garrison compelled to abandon the place. The cause of this fire, which occurred in April, 1566, could not be explained;

and the Irish attributed it to the desecration of St. Columbkille's sacred precincts by a heretical garrison; as they also did the death of Calvagh O'Donnell, who had brought the English there, and who fell dead from his horse, in the midst of his cavalry, on the 26th of October that year.—See O'Sullivan's *Hist. Cath.*, p. 96, Dublin, 1850.



defeated not quite two years before at Glenflesk, and who thirsted for revenge. They gladly accepted his invitation, and he proceeded to meet them at Cushendun (Bun-abhan-Duine), in Antrim, sending his prisoner, Sorley Boy MacDonnell, before him, the better to propitiate them should any of their old enmity remain. The Scots invited O'Neill to their camp, which he entered unsuspectingly, accompanied only by his mistress, the wife (now widow) of Calvagh O'Donnell, his secretary, and fifty horsemen. A banquet was prepared, but in the midst of the carousal a brawl was purposely got up, and several Scots rushing simultaneously upon O'Neill, despatched him with innumerable wounds, his followers being subsequently cut to pieces. His body, wrapt in the yellow shirt of a kerne,

was cast into an open pit, whence it was soon after taken by Captain Pierse, an Englishman, who is suspected of having suggested the murder, or of being in some way concerned in the deed; and the head having been cut off was taken to the lord deputy, who caused it to be placed on a spike on the highest tower of Dublin castle, and rewarded Pierse with a thousand marks, the sum offered by proclamation for the head of the northern chieftain. Such was the tragic and unworthy end of Shane O'Neill, whom English arms had not been able to subdue, but who fell a victim to his own rashness, to the treachery of pretended friends, and the unprincipled policy of the English government.\*

About the end of January, 1567, Sir Henry Sidney set out on a visitation of Munster and Connaught, and the account

\* The character of Shane O'Neill has been blackened by English historians, but to accounts from sources so hostile little credit is due. Camden describes him as "homicidiis et adulteriis contaminatissimus, helluo maximus, ebrietate adeo insigni, ut ad corpus, vino et aquâ vitæ immodicè haustâ inflammatum, refrigerandum, sepius mento tenus terrâ conderetur." (*Annales*, &c., p. 130.) Hooker speaks of his cellar at Dundrum, in which he is said to have kept a stock of 200 tuns of wine. He possessed singular strength of character. Sir Henry Sidney, in one of his letters, says he "is the only strong man in Ireland." Campion, who was his contemporary, and who writes as his enemy, still gives him credit for great charity. "Sitting at meate, before he put one morsell into his mouth, he used to slice a porcion above the dayly almes, and send it namely to some begger at his gate, saying, it was meete to serve Christ first." (Campion, *Hist. of Ireland*, p. 189, ed. 1809.) But one of the most remarkable circumstances connected with this extraordinary man was the strong and favorable impression which he had made on the mind of queen Elizabeth; a feeling which, says Moore, 'was shown by her retaining towards him the same friendly bearing through all the strife, confusion, and—what, in her eyes, was even still worse—lavish expendi-

ture, of which he continued for several years to be the unceasing cause." She frequently discountenanced the hostile movements against him, and so well was her leniency towards him understood that, in 1566, Sir William FitzWilliam complained in a letter to Cecil that "the council are not permitted to write the truth of O'Neill's evil doings." He was popular even in the Pale, for his generous and high spirit commanded the respect both of friends and foes. By the Irish he was usually styled *Shane-an-diomaïs*, i. e. "John of the ambition or pride;" and he is also called *Dongaileach*, or the Donnellian, as he was fostered by an O'Donnell. (Four Masters, vol. v., p. 1569, note.) Ware says, on the authority of official papers, that the wars of Shane O'Neill cost Elizabeth the sum of £147,407 "over and above the cesses laid on the country;" and that "3,500 of her majesty's soldiers were slain by him and his party, besides what they slew of the Scots and Irish." (*Annals*, A. D. 1568.) The interval between his defeat by Hugh O'Donnell and his murder by the Scots was from the 8th of May to the middle of June. The circumstances of his death are minutely related by Campion (pp. 189-192); and, also, with some slight discrepancy by Camden (*ubi supra*).



transmitted by him to Elizabeth of the state of these two provinces affords a frightful picture of the effects of misrule. The country was everywhere reduced to utter ruin. Thus, describing Munster, he writes:—"Like as I never was in a more pleasant country in all my life, so never saw I a more waste and desolate land. . . . . Such horrible and lamentable spectacles are there to behold as the burning of villages, the ruin of churches, the wasting of such as have been good towns and castles; yea, the view of the bones and skulls of the dead subjects who, partly by murder, partly by famine, have died in the fields, as in troth hardly any christian with dry eyes could behold." Even in the territory subject to the earl of Ormond he witnessed a 'want of justice, judgement, and stoutness to execute.' Tipperary and Limerick were in a horrible state of desolation. The earl of Desmond was "a man both devoid of judgment to govern and will to be ruled." MacCarthy More, who two years before had surrendered his territories to the queen, receiving them back by letters patent, with the titles of earl of Clancare\* and baron of Valentia, was "willing enough to be ruled, but wanted force and credit to rule." The earl of Thomond "had neither wit of himself to govern, nor grace or capacity to learn of others;" and the lord deputy confessed that he would most willingly have committed

the said earl to prison if he could find any person in whom he could confide to put in his place. The earl of Clanrickard was well-intentioned, and otherwise met the deputy's approbation, but "he was so overruled by a putative wife as oft times when he best intendeth she forceth him to do the worst;" and his sons were so turbulent that they kept the whole country in disorder. He found Galway like a frontier town in an enemy's country, the inhabitants obliged to keep watch and ward to protect themselves against their dangerous neighbors; and Athenry was reduced so low that there were then in it but four respectable house-holders, who presented the deputy with the rusty keys of their town—"a pitiful and lamentable present"—requesting him to keep the keys, "inasmuch as they were so impoverished by the extortion of the lords about them as they were no longer able to keep that town."

Such was the state in which Sir Henry Sidney found the country—a state which might be traced to what he designates the "cowardly policy" that would rule the nation by sowing divisions among the people, or, as he himself expresses it, "by keeping them in continual dissension, for fear lest through their quiet might follow I wot not what." And he adds:—"so far hath that policy, or rather lack of policy, in keeping dissension among them, pre-

\* This title has been variously written Clancare, Glencar (by Cox), and Clancarrha; the last form nearly expresses the sound of the Irish name, Clancarthig or

Clancarthy, and was probably the correct Anglo-Irish orthography.



vailed, as now, albeit all that are alive would become honest and live in quiet, yet are there not left alive, in these two provinces, the twentieth person necessary to inhabit the same!"

Sidney encountered the difficulties of his position with energy which was unrestrained by either prudence or humanity, and which alarmed even Elizabeth, who would have preferred dealing with them in an indirect manner. He sternly reproved the nobles for the mismanagement of their respective districts; but against Desmond he was particularly severe. The great power of that nobleman, and his high position in the esteem of the Catholics, rendered him a special object of the deputy's hostility. He was accordingly summoned to attend the latter in his visitation of Munster, and after being unknowingly guarded for some days, was at length publicly seized in Kilmallock, and carried about as a prisoner by Sidney during the remainder of his progress. The sons of the earl of Clanrickard were also taken up in Connaught, and the lord deputy returned to Dublin with his captives on the 16th of April, having caused unnumbered offenders to be executed in the course of his visitation.\* The queen was uneasy at the tumults which these strong

measures produced, especially in Munster, and Sidney having sought permission to explain his conduct in person, proceeded to England for that purpose, in October, taking with him the earl of Desmond and his brother, John, who was sent for and then arrested; and being also accompanied by Hugh O'Neill, baron of Dungannon, the O'Connor Sligo, and other Irish chieftains; Dr. Robert Weston, lord chancellor, and Sir William FitzWilliam, treasurer, being left in charge of the government as lords justices.

A. D. 1568.—Scarcely was Ulster temporarily pacified by the death of Shane O'Neill when the southern province became the scene of troubles of a most formidable character. During the imprisonment of Gerald, earl of Desmond, and his brother, Sir John, the leadership of the Geraldines was assumed, at the desire, it is said, of the captives, by their cousin, Sir James FitzGerald—son of Maurice of Desmond, brother of the late earl, James. Sir James FitzMaurice, as he is usually called, was warlike and enterprising. He resisted successfully the pretensions to the earldom put forward by Thomas Rua, an elder, but illegitimate brother of earl Gerald's, although this claimant was supported by the But-

\* In one of his despatches, Sidney thus alludes to the countless executions which graced his progress on this occasion. "I write not," he says, "the names of each particular varlet that hath died since I arrived, as well by the ordinary course of the law, and the martial law, as flat fighting with them, when they would take food without the good will of the giver, for I think it no stuff worthy the loading of my letters with; but I do

assure you the number of them is great and some of the best, and the rest tremble; for most part they fight for their dinner, and many of them lose their heads before they be served with supper. Down they go in every corner, and down they shall go, God willing!" (Sidney's Despatches, preserved in the British Museum, MSS. Cot. Titus B. x.)



lers, and by FitzMaurice of Kerry, and others.\* In the course of this quarrel, Sir James besieged FitzMaurice of Kerry in his castle of Lixnaw, but was defeated and compelled to raise the siege.

About the same time the newly-created earl of Clancare threw off the English yoke and asserted his hereditary rights to South Munster; while in the absence of the earl of Ormond in England, his brother, Sir Edmond Butler, involved himself in dissensions with the Geraldines. The attachment to their ancient faith evinced by the Irish had long since attracted the attention of the Catholic potentates of Europe, and promises of aid were held out to them both by France and Spain. The sovereign pontiff, on his side, felt it his duty to encourage and sustain, by every means in his power, those Catholics who were engaged in a life-and-death struggle for their religion against the innovators; so that to him also we find the Irish applying, not only for spiritual succour, but for men, arms, and money, during the wars of Elizabeth. The position of the Irish Catholics had become intolerable. If the yoke of the stranger

had been hitherto hard enough to bear, it was infinitely more so now, when the oppressor added to his ancient, unrelenting, national animosity, the fierce spirit of religious persecution which the Reformation had everywhere enkindled in its partisans.† The people saw their churches desolate—their monasteries confiscated—their priests proscribed—and their religion trampled under foot. They were swayed to and fro by unsteady leaders—they were disorganized by their ancient strife—but now they rallied to more sacred watchwords, and while they fought with the chivalry of crusaders, they died with the heroism of martyrs. Such was the general character of the struggle which had now commenced in the southern province, and which was sustained for many years, and spread more or less throughout all Ireland.

A. D. 1569.—In September, 1568, Sir Henry Sidney returned to Ireland as lord deputy, and landed at Carrickfergus, where he received the submission of Turlough Luineach O'Neill, who, on the death of Shane, had been elected to the chieftaincy.‡ The deputy came pre-

\* Thomas Rua, or the red, was the son of the late earl, James, by his first wife, Johanna, daughter of Maurice Roche, viscount Fermoy; but as his mother's marriage was pronounced invalid, on the ground of consanguinity, Thomas was reckoned illegitimate. On failing in his attempt to gain the earldom he lived quietly in his castle of Conoha, County of Cork, where he died, January 18th, 1595. (Lodge.) His son became famous as the so-called "Sugan earl," and will be mentioned in our pages hereafter.

† We are unwilling to infringe in the slightest degree on the field of polemics, but the student of history cannot but observe in passing how men with whom private

judgment in matters of faith was a fundamental principle, would monopolize that privilege for themselves, and, with such arguments as the sword and the halter, compel other men to surrender their private judgment to them. Yet such was the case in every country where the professors of the reformed creed gained the ascendancy, and where the rest of the population wished to persevere in the faith of their fathers—but nowhere was this spirit of persecution productive of more melancholy results than in Ireland.

‡ Sir Turlough, who assumed the title of the O'Neill after the death of Shane an Diomais, was the son of Niall Culanagh, who was the son of Art Oge, a younger



pared with fresh instructions to carry out the policy of his royal mistress, and summoned a parliament to meet in Dublin on the 17th of January, 1569. The history of this body is memorable for the unscrupulous and unconstitutional means resorted to in order to secure its subserviency to the crown. Members were returned for towns not incorporated; mayors and sheriffs in some cases returned themselves; and several Englishmen were elected as burgesses for towns which they had never seen. These monstrous irregularities gave rise to violent opposition. The judges were consulted, and declared that those who were returned for non-corporate towns, and those who had returned themselves, were disqualified from sitting as members, but the elections of the non-resident Englishmen were held to be valid; and this decision still left the court party in a majority. By these Stanihurst, recorder of Dublin, was chosen speaker, and Sir Christopher Barnwell led the opposition. The first proceedings were stormy in the extreme, and the popular excitement out of doors was so great that Hooker, an Englishman, who was returned for the dilapi-

dated borough of Athenry, and who has left us a chronicle of the period, had to be protected by a guard in going to his residence.\* In this parliament, in which the majority was a mere English faction, an act was passed attainting the late Shane O'Neill, suppressing the name of O'Neill, and entitling the queen and her heirs to the territory of Tyrone and other parts of Ulster. Laws were also enacted imposing a duty on wine; giving the lord deputy the nomination to church dignities in Munster and Connaught for ten years; and for erecting in the various dioceses charter schools, of which the teachers were to be English, and, of course, Protestants. A law was also passed abolishing captaincies or chieftaincies of septs, unless when allowed by special patent.†

A little before this, Sir Peter Carew, a Devonshire knight, came to Ireland and set up a claim of hereditary right to vast territories in the south of this country. He revived, in fact, a claim which had been investigated and rejected in the reign of Edward III., but produced as fresh evidence a forged roll, which he alleged had been discovered; and the corrupt administration of

brother of Con Bacagh O'Neill, the first earl of Tyrone. He was called Lynoch (Luineach) from having been fostered by O'Luinigh of Tyrone. He was the most powerful member of the O'Neill sept after the death of John, and was therefore elected to succeed him, although John had left sons. He had proved himself on sundry occasions a friend of the English, during John's wars; but this assumption of the title of O'Neill was deemed an act of rebellion, and hence the necessity of his submission to the deputy.

\* Leland (vol. ii., p. 241) describes the proceedings of this packed parliament.

† It was in the act of attainder against O'Neill, passed in this parliament, that queen Elizabeth's ministers affected to trace her title to the realm of Ireland to an origin anterior to that of the Milesian race of kings; setting forth a ludicrous tale of a king Gurmondus, "son to the noble king Belan of Great Britain, who was lord of Bayon in Spain, as many of his successors were to the time of Henry II., who possessed the island afore the coming of Irishmen into the said land!" (See Plowden's *Hist. Rev., Append.* No. vii. *Irish Statutes*, 11th Eliz., sess. 3, cap. 1. O'Connell's *Mem. of Ireland*, p. 110.)



the day admitted the title and ordered him to be put in possession; rather, as it would appear, to frighten the MacCarthys, FitzGeralds, Kavanaghs, and others, to whose lands he laid claim, than with any other view.\* Some of these lands belonged to Sir Edmond Butler, a man of a restless spirit, and perpetually involved in strife, and who now joined the southern insurgents, more from private pique than for public motives, if we may judge from his subsequent conduct. Sir Peter Carew was ordered to take the field against him, and is said to have slain in one encounter 400 of the Irish, with no other loss on his side than one man wounded; a statement from which, if true, it would follow that the affair was not a battle, but the massacre of an unarmed multitude. Sir Edmond then induced his younger brothers, Pierce and Edward, to enter with him into an alliance with Sir James FitzMaurice; and the confederates despatched the archbishop of Cashel, the bishop of Emly, and Sir James Sussex FitzGerald, youngest brother of the earl of Desmond, as emissaries to the pope, imploring assistance. They laid siege to Kilkenny, which was successfully defended by Carew. They then proceeded to overrun the country in various directions. The Butlers sacked the town of Ennis-

corthy, and marched into Ossory and the Queen's county, where they are accused of committing every kind of outrage. Ultimately they returned to the south and rejoined the forces of FitzMaurice and the earl of Clancare, when the confederates sent messengers to Turlough Luineach, inviting him to join their standard, and to secure the assistance of some Scottish auxiliaries.

At this juncture Sidney set out on a military expedition into Munster, and the earl of Ormond was sent over by the queen to bring his refractory brothers to order. This he easily effected; inducing them to accompany him to Limerick and there submit to the lord deputy, who consented to their pardon, although Sir Edmond was detained for some time in prison to await the queen's pleasure, as he persisted in making personal charges against Sidney himself. The ranks of the insurgents being thus broken up, James FitzMaurice retired with a few followers to the mountains, and Sidney, having taken those castles which still held out, proceeded through Thomond to Connaught, and thence to Dublin; having on this occasion put into effective operation the new form of local government, by presidents and councils, which he himself had devised for the two provinces of Connaught and Munster. Sir Edward

\* Sir Peter Carew claimed the barony of Idrone in Carlow, and one-half of the "kingdom of Cork," or South Munster, in right of Robert FitzStephen, one of the first adventurers; but as the said FitzStephen was a bastard, and left no children, it was decided by the

inquisition of the 5th Edward III. that the claim of the Carews to be his heirs could not be true. See *Four Masters*, vol. v., pp. 1737, 1838, note, for some curious particulars on this subject.



Fitton, a man well qualified to crush the people by his excessive rigor and overbearing insolence, was appointed first president of Connaught; and Sir John Perrot, who was said to be a natural son of Henry VIII., and was also distinguished for his extreme sternness and terrible activity, was placed early in the following year in the government of Munster.\* In the north Turlough Luineach evinced an intention of joining the Southern insurgents, but an injury which he received from the accidental explosion of a gun obliged him to remain inactive, and on his recovery he found himself deserted by many of his adherents, and deemed it prudent to submit and sue for pardon.

A. D. 1570.—Sir James FitzMaurice renewed the war early this year. On the second of March he attacked Kilmalluck, in which an English garrison had been placed, and scaling the walls obtained possession of the town, which was then plundered and committed to the flames, so that nothing was left of it but the blackened walls. In Connaught, to which Thomond had recently been added as a county,† the rigor of Sir Edward Fitton had goaded the people into resistance; even the old and hitherto faithful friend of the Eng-

lish, Conor O'Brien, earl of Thomond, being obliged to resist the president's authority. Fitton appointed a court to meet this year in the abbey of Ennis, but the earl refused to attend, and the president was obliged to fly, committing himself to the safe keeping of Teige O'Brien, sheriff of Thomond, who conducted him to Galway. The earl of Ormond was, upon this, sent into Thomond to vindicate the authority of government, and the refractory Conor O'Brien surrendered to him all his castles except that of Ibrickan; but subsequently he regretted his too easy submission, and preferring any sacrifice rather than placing himself at the mercy of the president, he fled to Kerry, and thence to France, where Norris, the English ambassador, negotiated his pardon with Elizabeth, enabling him to return to Ireland, where he afterwards remained a faithful subject.

In the summer of this year a sanguinary and memorable battle was fought at Shrule, a village on the borders of Mayo and Galway, between the northern MacWilliams (Burkes) on the one side, and the earl of Clanrickard and Sir Edward Fitton on the other. MacWilliam had collected a large army by the aid of his allies in lower Connaught,

\* Sir Warham St. Leger was appointed president of Munster in 1567, but the system of provincial presidents does not appear to have been fully carried out until two years later, as stated above.

† A few years before this Connaught had been divided by the earl of Sussex into six counties, viz.:—Clare, Galway, Mayo, Sligo, Roscommon, and Leltrim. The territory comprised in the present county of Clare formed a part of Connaught in the time of queen Maeve, that is,

about the Christian era, and so continued until it was conquered by Lugaidh Menn, fourth in descent from Cormac Cas, son of Oiliol Ollum, king of Munster, when it became Thomond or North Munster. It was restored for a short time to Connaught in the division of shire land under queen Elizabeth, but was again added to Munster. See note in *Battle of Magh Lena*, p. 157. By Sussex, also, the ancient territory of Anally was formed into the county of Longford.



and of the O'Flaherties; and the lord president's infantry were routed with great slaughter, although his cavalry remained firm, and inflicted such damage on the Irish, in their turn, that both parties were able to claim the victory. In the south the earl of Ormond pursued his way from Thomond through Hy-Connell Gavra, in Limerick, into Kerry, as far as Dunlo castle, which he demolished, without meeting an enemy throughout his march; and among the Irish chieftains who made their submission about the same time, were Brian Kavanagh, of Ballyanne, in Wexford, MacVaddock, MacEdmond Duff, and MacDavid More, heads of other branches of the MacMurroughs, in the same county; besides O'Farrell Bane, and O'Farrell Boy, of Longford.\*

A. D. 1571.—Sir John Perrot entered this year on his first campaign against the insurgents of Munster, with extraordinary vigor and activity. He was on the alert night and day. Boasting that he would “hunt the fox out of his hole,” he scoured the woods in the wild and picturesque gien of Aherlow, where Sir James FitzMaurice had sheltered himself with a few followers, but notwithstanding all this energy the Geraldine chief remained unsubdued.

A. D. 1572.—Neither did the “strong measures” of Sir Edward Fitton produce the expected result. His ferocity and insolence fired, instead of subduing the

spirit of Connaught. He called a court in Galway, to be held in March this year, and to serve for his whole jurisdiction, from Sligo to Limerick. The sons of the earl of Clanrickard, on arriving in the town, heard rumors of some sinister design on the part of the president, and took to flight; whereupon Fitton arrested the earl, their father, and carried him to Dublin, where he committed him to the charge of the lord deputy, returning himself to Athlone. Other popular chiefs of Connaught were also seized by him, and left in durance in Galway; and then, collecting a sufficient force, he marched through Galway to the castle of Aughnacore, on the shore of Lough Corrib, and after a siege, in which a great portion of the castle was destroyed, took it from the sons of Donnell O'Flaherty, and gave it up to Murrough O'Flaherty, surnamed Na-d-tuadh, or of the battle-axes, who had been taken into favor by the government, and acknowledged as chieftain of all Iar-Connaught. The earl's sons were again in arms; multitudes of the disaffected rallied to their standard, and among the rest Fitz-Maurice of Desmond; they destroyed nearly all the castles of Clanrickard to render them untenable by English garrisons; they crossed the Shannon into West Meath, burned part of Athlone, demolished the walls and stone houses of Athenry, passed twice into Iar-Connaught in defiance of the garrison of Galway and of the forces of Murrough O'Flaherty, and have overrun

\* See the indentures of their submission published, for the first time, by Dr. O'Donovan, *Four Masters*, vol. v., pp. 1648, &c.



a great part of the west of Ireland, when Sir William FitzWilliam, now lord deputy, thought it prudent to try conciliation, and liberating the earl of Clanrickard, sent him down to pacify his sons. This course had the desired effect, and the Connaught insurgents having dispersed to their homes, Sir James FitzMaurice, who had been waiting for an expected reinforcement of Scots, set out for Kerry, where he arrived after encountering innumerable perils, only in time to find that Castlemaine, the last of his strongholds, after a long and brave resistance, had been compelled, through famine, to capitulate to the lord president. In his present hopeless state, FitzMaurice with his party of Scots, repaired to the wilds of Aherlow, where, about the end of October, he was surprised and attacked at night by a garrison which Perrot had placed in Kilmallock, now partly rebuilt. Thirty of the Scots were slain, and the spirit of FitzMaurice was completely crushed by the blow; yet he remained in the woods until the following February, when he sent FitzGerald, seneschal of Imokilly, and Owen MacRichard Burke, with his own son, as a hostage, to proffer his submission to the lord president, then stopping with lord Roche, at Castletown Roche, in Cork.

A. D. 1573.—Humbled as he was, the Geraldine was still an object of fear, and the offer of his submission was received with welcome. The ruined church of Kilmallock, which had been

the scene of his principal aggression, was appropriately selected for the ceremony of reconciliation; and there, on his knees, and, according to the account preserved in the state-paper office, in most abject terms, he confessed his guilt, and craved the pardon of the lord president, who held his naked sword all the while with the point towards the fallen chieftain's breast. The latter kissed the weapon, and falling on his face exclaimed: "And now this earth of Kilmallock, which town I have most traitorously sacked and burnt, I kiss, and on the same lie prostrate, overfraught with sorrow upon this present view of my most mischievous part?" On this termination of the insurrection, the earl of Desmond and his brother, John, who had been detained captives in England for six years, were set free. The earl was even graciously treated by the queen; and his manners as a gentleman distinguished him at her court. A ship was furnished to convey the brothers to Ireland; but for some reason, suggested by the tortuous policy of Elizabeth, the earl was again put under arrest on his arrival in Dublin, John being permitted to return to Munster. In Connaught Sir Edward Fitton was removed from office, owing to the remonstrances of the earl of Clanrickard against his overbearing harshness.

That the project of planting Ulster from England, though not fully carried out until the next reign, was present to the mind of Elizabeth even in the war of Shane O'Neil, is evident from the



hints thrown out by her to the effect that the insurrection was all the better for the loyalists, as it would leave plenty of lands for them. In 1570 the district of Ards, in Down, was granted by her to her secretary, Sir Thomas Smith, and was described in the preamble to the grant as belonging to "divers parts and parcels of her highness's earldom of Ulster, that lay waste, or else were inhabited with a wicked, barbarous, and uncivil people; some Scottish, and some wild Irish, and such as lately had been rebellious to her." Smith sent over his natural son with a colony to this district, but the young man was soon after killed in a fray by the O'Neills of Clannaboy, the native owners of the soil, and the new settlement lingered feebly for some years. The Scots who had settled in Clannaboy under their chief, Sorley Boy MacDonnell, were for a while countenanced by the English government as useful allies in removing or crushing the native inhabitants, who in order to be "humanized," were to be first despoiled of their ancestral lands: but that territory was now thrown open to a more favored class of adventurers. Walter Devereux, earl of Essex, received a grant of a moiety of the seigniories of Clannaboy, Farney, &c., provided he could expel the "rebels" who dwelt there, any rights on the part of the native septs being wholly overlooked. An army of 1,200 men was to be placed at the earl's disposal, one-half to be provided and maintained at the queen's expense and the other at

that of the earl; every horseman who volunteered in the expedition for two years was to receive 400 acres of land at two pence per acre, and every footman 200 acres at a like rate; and the earl was to be commander-in-chief, or earl-marshal of Ireland for seven years. Several English gentlemen of distinction, among others lords Dacres and Rich, Sir Henry Knollys, and the three sons of Lord Norris, joined the adventurers; and Essex mortgaged his estates to the queen to raise funds for the enterprise. But it was, nevertheless, well known that the project was devised and promoted by his enemy, the earl of Leicester, in order to remove him from the court. Sir William FitzWilliam, the lord deputy, complained of the excessive power about to be conferred on Essex as incompatible with his own authority, and it was accordingly arranged that the earl should receive his commission from the deputy, to make it appear that he acted under him. Essex at length arrived, in the summer of 1573, and notified, by proclamation, that he came to take possession of the forfeited lands of Clannaboy, the Glyns, the Route, &c., but, that he merely intended to expel the Scots, and not to act with hostility to the Irish. Soon, however, the nature of the expedition became known to these latter; and the native-race of Clannaboy, under their chief, Brian, son of Felim Baccagh O'Neill, and supported by Hugh O'Neill of Dungannon, and by Turlough Luineach himself, rose in arms. Several



conflicts ensued, and Essex soon found himself in a very embarrassing position. Many of his men were not fit for the hard service on which they had entered, and some of his leaders deserted and returned to England. He invited the aid of Con, son of Calvagh O'Donnell, but when that chief had joined, he seized him on some frivolous pretence and sent him a prisoner to Dublin, at the same time taking possession of O'Donnell's castle of Lifford.

A.D. 1574.—Camden tells us that Essex defeated Brian O'Neill in battle, and slew two hundred of his men; but the Irish chroniclers give a very different account of this transaction. They say that, peace having been agreed upon between Brian and the earl, a feast was prepared by the former, to which Essex and the chiefs of his people were invited, but that after three days and nights spent in social conviviality, "as they were agreeably drinking and making merry, Brian, his brother, and his wife, were seized upon by the earl, and all his people put to the sword, men, women, youths, and maidens, in Brian's own presence;" and

that "Brian was afterwards sent to Dublin, together with his wife and brother, where they were cut in quarters." \* This horrible act of perfidy filled the Irish, as the annalists add, with hatred and disgust for their foes, and the whole boasted scheme of colonization soon after fell to the ground. Essex went to England in 1575, to induce the queen to lend additional support, but she disliked the project and refused. He then returned to Ireland, abandoned his settlement, and repaired to Dublin, where he died on the 22d of September, 1576, the general opinion being that his death was caused by poison, administered at the desire of the earl of Leicester, who soon after divorced his own wife and married the widow of Essex.†

A.D. 1575.—Sir Henry Sidney once more resumed the reins of government. He landed at Skerries on the 12th of September this year, and having been sworn in at Drogheda, as the plague at that time raged in Dublin,‡ he marched with six hundred horse and foot against Sorley Boy and the Scots who were just

\* We can have no hesitation as to the authority on which we should rely relative to this nefarious transaction. Camden, who (*Annales ad an.* 1574) omits all allusion to treachery in the affair, frequently suffers himself to display his prejudice against the Irish; whereas the Four Masters, who give the other version, are remarkable, as even Leland confesses, for their freedom from all virulence against the English or their government. "Sometimes, on the contrary," continues that very anti-Irish historian, "they expressly condemn their countrymen for their rebellion against their prince." (*Lel. Hist. of Ireland*, B. iv., c. 2, note.)

† Camden informs us that the poisoner of Essex had been pointed out to him in public; but Hooker in his

chronicle, asserts that that nobleman died not of poison, but of an attack of dysentery, to which he was subject. Essex complained bitterly, in his letters to Sir Henry Sidney, of the queen's bad faith with him in the affair of the projected plantation of Clannaboy, and protested against the injustice which had been inflicted, through him, on such loyal lords of Ulster as O'Donnell, MacMahon, and others, "whom he had, on the pledged word of the queen, undone with fair promises."

‡ Dublin, and many parts of the Pale, were devastated by plague in the summer and autumn of 1575. The Four Masters say:—"Intense heat and extreme drought in the summer of this year; there was no rain for one hour by night or day from Bealtaine (1st of May) to



then besieging Carrickfergus; and having compelled them to submit, he received about the same time the submission of Turlough Luineach and other Ulster chieftains. Con O'Donnell, and Con, son of Niall Oge O'Neill, had, a little before, made their escape from Dublin, and the lord-deputy sent a pardon to the former, showing his disapproval of the unjust treatment he had received from Essex. He then set out on a progress through Leinster and Munster. At Dungarvan the earl of Desmond, who had made his escape in 1573 from his detention in Dublin, came in and offered the deputy his services. At Cork Sir Henry held a session, at which several persons were tried, and twenty-three offenders executed. Here he passed the Christmas, which was celebrated with unwonted gaiety and magnificence, several of the leading men, both of English and Irish descent, having come accompanied by their wives to attend the deputy's court. In Limerick he also held sessions, but as his stay there was brief he appointed commissioners to carry on the proceedings after his departure. He next proceeded to Galway, where the sons of the earl of Clanrickard came into church during divine service, and on their knees supplicated pardon; and finally he arrived in Dublin on the 13th of April. At this time Sir James Fitz-

Maurice resided with his family at St. Malo's in France, which he visited after passing through Spain, and Munster seemed for a moment to enjoy profound tranquillity.

A.D. 1576.—Sir Henry Sidney had taken with him to Dublin, as captives, the sons of the earl of Clanrickard, and some of the O'Brien's, but having administered to them a severe reproof and exacted a promise that they would not return to their respective countries, he now set them free and commenced another progress to the south. He had not, however, proceeded far when he learned that the reckless De Burgos had recrossed the Shannon, cast off their English costume, and once more raised the standard of revolt. The deputy upon this hastened back to Dublin, collected the available troops, and marched with great celerity into Connaught, where he took possession of the towns and castles of Clanrickard in the queen's name, and seizing the earl himself, whom he suspected of conniving at his son's rebellion, sent him to be imprisoned in Dublin castle. Confounded by the rapid movements of the deputy, the earl's sons fled to the woods and mountains, and Sidney was able to resume his intended progress to Munster, although by a different route from that he had originally laid down. He proceeded from Galway, through Clare,

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**Lammas** (1st of August). A loathsome disease and a dreadful malady rose from this heat, namely, the plague. This malady raged virulently among the English and Irish in Dublin, in Naas of Leinster, Ardee, Mullingar,

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and Athboy. Between these places many a castle was left without a guard, many a flock without a shepherd, and many a noble corpse without burial, in consequence of this distemper."



to Limerick, where he installed Sir William Drury in the office of Lord-President of Munster, formerly held by Sir John Perrot, and shortly after Sir Nicholas Malby was placed with similar authority over Connaught; but the inhuman ferocity of Fitton had rendered the name of president so odious in this latter province, that Sidney thought it prudent to invest Malby with the title of "Colonel of Connaught."

The earl of Desmond was soon brought into collision with the new president of Munster. He protested against the holding of courts, by the latter, within his palatinate of Kerry; but finding that Drury disregarded his privilege, and was about proceeding to Tralee to hold a session there, he made a virtue of necessity, and offered the hospitality of his castle to the stern representative of power. The invitation was accepted, but on approaching the chief town of Kerry, the president, who, as usual in these judicial visitations, was attended by an armed retinue of some six or seven score men, perceived that seven or eight hundred armed men were assembled, as he thought, in a hostile attitude. His apprehensions may have been well founded, or his bravery only Quixotic; but he drew up his party in battle array, marched resolutely forward, and the real or supposed enemy fled to the woods. The countess of Desmond came out of town in a state of distraction, and on her knees assured the doughty president that her lord had no hostile

intention, but that, the lord-president's visit being just then expected, these men had assembled for a general hunting. Drury appeared to accept the explanation, and went on to hold his sessions, while the earl forwarded to the government, in Dublin, an indignant complaint against the president's offensive proceedings. Shortly after this, Sir William Drury seized the earl's brother John, in Cork, on suspicion of some treasonable practices, and sent him under an escort to Dublin.

In the mean time Sir Henry Sidney, having learned that a large body of Scots were about to join the still unsubdued sons of the earl of Clanrickard, marched into Connaught, where Mac-William Iochter, who had deserted the cause of the young De Burgos, came to his standard; and the Scots being discouraged by the prospect of affairs, on their arrival in the west, abandoned their friends without fighting, and returned to Ulster. Thus deserted, the earl's sons continued to hide themselves in the wildest recesses of the woods and hills, and Sidney, having left some troops to hunt them down, returned to Dublin.

A. D. 1577.—Difficulties of another kind now disturbed the Pale, owing to the arbitrary exercise of power by the lord-deputy, who, by the sole authority of the privy council, and without the intervention of parliament, converted the occasional subsidy, which was granted in emergencies for the support of the government and army, into a regular



tax, abolished local and personal privileges of exemption, and decreed that the assessment should be levied on all subjects of the crown. This proceeding received the warmest approval of the queen, who had always most reluctantly granted the supplies necessary for the Irish establishment; but it aroused a general and violent feeling of discontent throughout the Pale. The most loyal joined in remonstrances against an exercise of despotic power so odious and oppressive. The people pleaded constitutional rights, but the only reply to this was the queen's prerogative. The collection of the cess was resisted, and agents were sent in the name of the lords, and other leading inhabitants of the Pale, to represent the grievances to the queen and the English privy council. Their remonstrance was anticipated by letters from the lord deputy, and after a partial hearing of their complaint by the queen, in person, the agents were committed to the tower for contumacy, and Sidney was reprimanded, by letter, for not having immediately punished those who presumed to question the prerogative of the crown. This stretch of despotism augmented the popular indignation; and Elizabeth and her ministers, alarmed at the clamor which was raised, and sensible of the danger of alienating the few in Ireland who were friendly to the government, thought it better to accommodate matters. A composition for seven years' purveyance, payable by instalments, was agreed to by the agents and others

who were imprisoned, were liberated, and the question was set at rest.

The wars of so many generations had not been able to exterminate the ancient race of Leix and Offally, where some sturdy representatives of the O'Mores, O'Conors and others, had grown up since the thinning of their septa in the late reigns. These shared in the general disaffection, and were roused into action by the wild heroism of the famous outlaw chieftain, Rory Oge O'More, who at this time, kept the borders of the Pale in perpetual alarm by the daring of his exploits. With a few followers he was generally a match for the small garrisons by whom the border-towns were guarded. This year he surprised Naas, the night after the annual festival, or "patron" day, of the town, when the inhabitants were buried in sleep after their festivities, and had forgotten to set the usual watch on the town-walls. His men carried lighted brands on poles, and with these set the low thatched houses on fire, so that the town was in a few minutes one sheet of flames, and the terrified inhabitants, roused from their slumbers, were unable to make any resistance. The Anglo-Irish chroniclers, who make Rory the hero of the wildest adventures, tell us that he sat for some time at the market-cross to enjoy the spectacle, and then departed in triumph without taking any life. Thus was Rory Oge for some time the terror of the Pale, making nightly attacks on the towns and villages, and having himself numerous



hair-breadth escapes from the attempts to kill or capture him. Many persons in Kilkenny and other towns were suspected of being friendly to him, and of furnishing him with information which enabled him to escape the snares laid against him. On one occasion he got two English officers, Captains Harrington and Cosby, into his power, and took them to his retreat in a wood near Carlow, where, through the treachery of a servant, he was soon after surprised at night by Robert Hartpool, the constable of Carlow, and had a narrow escape, having had to cut his way through the ranks of the soldiers who surrounded the cabin where he slept. His two English prisoners were rescued on this occasion, and his wife and sixteen or seventeen of his men slain; and the following year he was cut off by MacGilla Patrick, baron of Upper Ossory, who watched his movements with a strong detachment of the queen's troops and a party of Irish kernes. O'More came out of a wood to parley with MacGilla Patrick's kerne, when one of the latter ran him through with his sword. Thus, on the 30th of June, 1578, was the Pale relieved from its deadliest source of fear, and the Irish deprived of a brave soldier, who with a

better organized system of opposition might have proved a very dangerous foe to Elizabeth's government.\*

This year, the nineteenth of queen Elizabeth, is marked by a frightful transaction, the recital of which has often in late times made men shudder, while its gloomy interest has been enhanced by the mystery in which it has been shrouded. It would appear that the heads of the Irish families of Leix and Offaly were invited in the queen's name, and under her protection, to attend a meeting or conference in the great rath on the hill of Mullamast (Mullach-Maistean), in the county of Kildare, and that about four hundred of them obeyed the summons. The Irish annalists assert that they were people who had remained on friendly terms with the English, and that they had been "summoned to show themselves with the greatest numbers they could bring with them." Some of them may have been implicated in the revolt of Rory Oge, who was then verging towards his fall; but no special provocation is alleged against them, and, at all events, they came to the meeting under the guarantee of the royal protection. No sooner, however, had they assembled in the great rath than they were

\* Dowling, according to whom O'More was slain in 1577, asserts that the chief maintained his independence during eighteen years, in the course of which time he burnt Naas, Athy, Carlow, Leighlin bridge, Rathcool, and other places; but the injury he inflicted on some of these towns must have been very slight. The Four Masters, who record his death (as does also Ware), in 1578 describe him as "the head of the plunderers and

insurgents of the men of Ireland in his time." The baron of Ossory was offered one thousand marks which had been promised as a reward for the head of O'More; but he only accepted one hundred pounds, which he divided among his men. Owen, or Owny, the son of Rory Oge, was also a valiant captain, and became celebrated as a soldier in the subsequent wars against Elizabeth.



encompassed by a treble line of the queen's garrison soldiers, and all of them, to a man, most inhumanly butchered in cold blood—and this atrocious act was committed with the cognizance and approval of the queen's deputy in Ireland, Sir Henry Sidney!\* In this horrible massacre, coming so soon after the murder of O'Neill of Clannaboy and his family, and the slaughter of his followers, by the earl of Essex, and followed

\* According to a traditional account of the massacre of Mullamast, given on the authority of "an old gentleman named Cullen, of the county of Kildare, who was living in 1705, and had frequently discoursed with one Dwyer and one Dowling actually living at Mullamast when this horrid murder was committed," as published by Dr. O'Donovan (*Four Masters*, vol. v., pp. 1695, 1696) from a MS. in the handwriting of the late Laurence Byrne, of Fallybeg, in the Queen's county, it appears that the victims belonged to the seven septs of Leix, namely, the O'Mores, O'Kelly's, O'Lalors, Devoys, Macaboys, O'Dorans, and O'Dowlings, with some of the family of Keating; and that the persons concerned in the commission of the murder were the Deavils, Grahams, Cosbys, Pigotts, Bowens, Hartpoles, Hovendons, Dempseys, and Fitzgeralds—the five last-named families being at that time Catholics. Tradition attaches the most blame in the matter to the O'Dempseys, because they were not only Catholics but Irish; and "the inhabitants of the district," says Dr. O'Donovan, "now believe that a curse has followed this great Irish family ever since." It is probable that Cosby was the officer in command of the military party called in to execute the massacre; the chief command of all the kerne in the queen's pay having been committed by lord-deputy Sussex to Francis Cosby; one Edmond O'Dempsey being a captain of kerne under him (Patent Roll, 5th & 6th Philip and Mary). Captain Thomas Lee, an officer of government, who, in 1594, addressed a memorial to Elizabeth entitled "a brief declaration of the government of Ireland" (preserved in Trinity College, Dublin, and printed in the *Desiderata Curiosa Hibernica*, vol. ii., p. 91, and in the appendix to Dr. Curry's *Civil Wars in Ireland*), mentions in that tract, among other acts of oppression, cruelty, rapine, and injustice, the massacre of Mullamast, in the following words:—"They have drawn unto them by protection three or four hundred of these country people, under color to do your majesty service, and brought them to a place of meeting, where your garrison sol-

by other like acts of inhumanity and perfidy on the part of the government, in the south, and in the merciless rigor with which the laws were enforced against the Irish, we obtain a frightful idea of the principles then acted upon in the government of this country.

The affair of Mullamast and the prosecution of some citizens of Kilkenny, who were suspected of holding commu-

diers were appointed to be, who have there most dishonorably put them all to the sword; and this hath been by the consent and practise of the lord deputy for the time being." Thady Dowling, the contemporary Protestant chancellor of Leighlin, thus records the massacre:—"1577.—Morris MacLasy MacConyll (O'More), lord of Merggi, as he asserted, and successor of the baron of Omergi, with 40 (query? a mistake for 400) of his followers, after his confederation with Rory O'More, and after a certain promise of protection, was slain at Mullaghmastyn, in the county of Kildare, the place appointed for it by Master Cosby and Robert Hartpole, having been summoned there treacherously, under pretence of performing service;" and at the end of this entry, which is in Latin, some zealous Protestant has interpolated the following words in English:—"Harpoll excused it that Moris had geven villanous wordes to the breach of his protection," which might mean that, in order to commence the slaughter, a pretended riot was raised, on the occasion of some hasty words extracted from O'More. O'Sullivan (*Hist. Cath.*, p. 99, ed. 1850) says that 180 men of the family of O'More were slain in the massacre. According to some traditions only one O'More escaped from the slaughter; but according to the MS. of Lawrence Byrne, above referred to, the popular tradition was that the lives of several others were preserved through the means of one Harry Lalor, who "remarking that none of those returned who had entered the fort before him, desired his companions to make off as fast as they could in case they did not see him come back. Said Lalor, as he was entering the fort, saw the carcasses of his slaughtered companions; then drew his sword and fought his way back to those that survived, along with whom he made his escape to Dysart, without seeing the Barrow." Mullamast (Mullach-Mainstean) is a large but not lofty hill, situated about five miles from the town of Athy, in the county of Kildare, and in our times has been rendered further remarkable as the scene of one of Mr. O'Connell's most celebrated repeal meetings in 1843.



nication with Rory Oge O'More, are the last incidents in the government of Sir Henry Sidney. That statesman had been four times appointed lord justice of Ireland, and three times lord deputy; and it is remarkable that notwithstanding his excessive rigor, he is mentioned

in the Irish annals in terms which imply respect. In compliance with his repeated and earnest applications for permission to retire, he surrendered the sword of state to Sir William Drury, the lord president of Munster, on the 26th of May, 1578.

## CHAPTER XXXIII.

### REIGN OF ELIZABETH—CONTINUATION

**Plans of James FitzMaurice on the Continent.**—Projected Italian expedition to Ireland.—Its singular fate.—FitzMaurice lands with some Spaniards at Smerwick.—Conduct of the earl of Desmond.—Savage treatment of a bishop and priest.—The insurgents scattered.—Murder of Davells and Carter.—Tragical death of James FitzMaurice.—Proceedings of Drury and Malby.—Catholics in the royal ranks.—Defeat of the royal army by John of Desmond at Gort-na-Tiobrad.—Death of Sir William Drury.—Important battle at Monasteranena.—Defeat of the Geraldines.—Desmond treated as a rebel.—Hostilities against him.—Sir Nicholas Malby at Askeaton.—Desmond at length driven into rebellion.—He plunders and burns Youghal.—The country devastated by Ormond.—Humanity of a friar.—James of Desmond captured and executed.—Campaign of Pelham and Ormond in Desmond's country.—Capture of Carrigafoyle castle.—Other castles surrendered to the lord justice.—Narrow escape of the earl of Desmond.—Insurrection in Wicklow.—Arrival of Lord Gray.—His disaster in Glenmalur.—Landing of a large Spanish armament at Smerwick harbor.—Lord Gray besieges the foreigners.—Horrible and treacherous slaughter in the Fort Del Ore.—Savage barbarity of Lord Gray and his captains.—Butchery of women and children near Kildimo.—Rumored plot in Dublin.—Arrest of the earl of Kildare and others.—Premature executions.—Forays of the earl of Desmond.—Melancholy end of John of Desmond.—The FitzMaurices of Kelly in rebellion.—Battle of Gort-na Pisi.—The Glen of Aherlow.—Desperate state of Desmond.—His murder.—His character.—Mild policy of Perrott.—The Parliament of 1585.—Composition in Connaught.—Plantation of Munster.—Brutal severity of Sir Richard Bingham in Connaught.

(A. D. 1579 TO A. D. 1587.)

**JAMES FITZMAURICE**, the most earnest and consistent of the Irish patriots of his time, was not inactive during the long sojourn he had been making on the Continent. While staying with his family at St. Malo's, his movements were closely watched by

the spies of Sir Philip Sidney.\* At that moment, however, the relations between England and France were unfavorable to his purpose, and when he applied to Henry III. for help for the Irish Catholics, he was merely told by that monarch that he would use his

\* Sidney at this time calls Sir James FitzMaurice, "a papist in extremity (*i. e.*, an extreme Catholic),

well esteemed, and of good credit among the people." —*S. P.*



interference with Elizabeth to procure pardon for him. Reconciliation with the queen of England was the last thing that FitzMaurice desired; so he next repaired to Philip II. of Spain, who, being also then at peace with Elizabeth, appears to have done no more than refer him to Pope Gregory XIII. Leaving his two sons in Spain, Sir James proceeded to Rome, where he was most favorably received by the pontiff, and where his solicitations were warmly seconded by Cornelius O'Mulrian, O.S.F., bishop of Killaloe, Dr. Allen, called by some an Irish Jesuit, and Dr. Saunders, an eminent English ecclesiastic. The pope granted a bull encouraging the Irish to fight for the recovery of their liberty and the defence of their religion; and an expedition was fitted out at the cost of the holy father, to be maintained subsequently by Philip II.; and, at the earnest wish of FitzMaurice, it was intrusted to an English adventurer named Stukely,\* as admiral, while Hercules Pisano, an experienced soldier,

had the military command. Stukely sailed with his squadron from Civita Vecchia, and touched at Lisbon at the very moment when Sebastian, the chivalrous and romantic king of Portugal, was setting out on his expedition to Morocco, and was easily persuaded to join in that wild project, on receiving a promise from the king that after returning from Africa he would either go himself to Ireland, or give him a larger force for the purpose. Stukely forgot his engagement to the pope and to the Irish, and sailed to Morocco, where he with the greater number of his luckless men were slain in the famous battle of Alcaçar, in which Sebastian and two Moorish kings also fell.

James FitzMaurice, instead of accompanying Stukely, travelled through France to Spain, and embarked for Ireland with about fourscore Spaniards on board three small vessels. He was accompanied by Dr. Saunders, in the capacity of legate, the bishop of Killaloe, and Dr. Allen, and was at this

\* Thomas Stukely, to whose charge this ill-fated expedition was intrusted, was a native of Devonshire, and was distinguished for his reckless and enterprising disposition. Some assert that he was a natural son of Henry VIII., and he claimed descent maternally from Dermott MacMurrough. In 1563 he projected a company to prosecute discoveries in Terra Florida, and obtained the queen's approbation; but the scheme was not carried out for want of funds. In Ireland he ingratiated himself with Sir Henry Sidney, and in 1567 was employed to negotiate, on the part of the government, with Shane O'Neill, but Elizabeth expressed her disapproval of the choice made of him on that occasion. Soon after he became disgusted with government, because, it is said, he was refused the office of steward of Wexford. He then expressed his sympathy for the disaffected Irish, and went to the Continent to propose plans to the

pope and the king of Spain for the invasion of Ireland. It is impossible to say whether his conduct ultimately was the result of his wild love of adventure, or of perfidy to the Irish cause which he had espoused. The expedition placed under his care is generally stated to have consisted of 800 men. Muratori says 600. O'Daly exaggerates the number when he says the pope gave 2,000 soldiers. (*Geraldines*, p. 75, Duffy's ed.) O'Sullivan (*Hist. Cath.*, p. 113) says there were about 1,000 soldiers, and that a number of these consisted of bands of highwaymen, who had been pardoned on condition of their joining the Irish expedition. O'Daly adds that the pope doubted Stukely's fidelity, but yielded to the solicitation of FitzMaurice, and invested Stukely with the title of lord of Idrone; English writers mention other titles conferred on him also by his holiness.



time wholly ignorant of the fate of Stukely's expedition. His little squadron made the harbor of Dingle on the 17th of July, 1579, and so frequent was the intercourse between that locality and Spain, that some of the Spanish mariners were recognized by persons from the town, who came alongside but were not permitted to board the ships. The vessels were then brought round to Smerwick harbor, another small haven in the extremity of the peninsula in which Dingle is situated, and here FitzMaurice and his handful of Spaniards disembarked next day, and took possession of the almost insulated rock of Oilen-an-oir, usually called Fort-del-ore, which juts into the bay. A rude kind of fort, belonging to one Peter Rice, of Dingle, already existed on this small peninsula, and FitzMaurice caused it to be strengthened by a trench and curtain-wall across the neck of land by which the rock is joined to the mainland.\*

The news of these armaments, grossly exaggerated by rumor, created extraordinary excitement throughout Munster, where the embers of civil war were yet

smouldering; but the old curse of division and misunderstanding still overhung the country. The earl of Desmond, to whom the people looked as a leader, was utterly unfit for that position. His heart was undoubtedly with the popular cause, but he was weak-minded and vacillating, and mistrusted those with whom it would have been his duty to act. He disliked James FitzMaurice, whose active and inspiring spirit was so wholly opposed to his. It is said that he also feared his ambition; for the line of succession had often before been rudely changed in the earldom of Desmond. His apprehension, not for his life but for his family, where possessions as vast as his were at stake, was also an excusable cause for his long hesitation before he involved himself in rebellion. In a word, he was either induced by personal considerations to discountenance the foreign invasion and the proceedings of his cousin, Sir James FitzMaurice, or at least he made a show of acting in that sense, and vainly endeavored to convince the government officials of his loyalty, while they, by

\* Dingle, or Dingle-I-Couch, near the extremity of the peninsula of Corkaguiney, in the west of Kerry, was once a town of great importance, and from an early period carried on an extensive commerce with Spain. Its name Daingean-ui-Chuis, signifies the fortress of O'Cuis, the ancient proprietor of the place before the English invasion, not of O'Hussey, as Dr. Smith (*Hist. of Kerry*) and others have asserted. (*See Four Masters*, vol. v., p. 1714, z.) As to the Dano-Irish name of Smerwick, which Camden supposed to be a corruption of St. Marywick, a local antiquary suggests that it may mean the "spreading harbor," from the Irish *smearam*, to spread. (*Kerry Magazine*). Its name was originally Ardnacaunt or Ardcanney Bay, "from a certayn devout man's name,

called Cauntus," says an old writer. (*Journal of Pelham's Expedition to Dingle in 1580, kept by Nicholas White, Master of the Rolls, and forwarded to Lord Burghley*).

The Spanish name Fort-del-ore is synonymous with the Irish Dun-an-oir, the "fort of the gold," and was given to the rock in question from the circumstance that one of the ships of the celebrated navigator, Frobisher, laden with gold ore from the newly discovered land which he called Meta Incognita, the present Greenland, had been wrecked there about a year before the landing of FitzMaurice and his Spaniards, when the ore was stowed away in Peter Rice's aforesaid stronghold by the directions of the earl of Desmond.



their insulting taunts and doubts, seemed determined to drive him into open revolt. Shortly before the arrival of FitzMaurice three persons in disguise landed at Dingle from a Spanish ship. They were seized by government spies, and carried first before the earl of Desmond, who afterwards took credit to himself with the State for transmitting them to the authorities in Limerick. It turned out that one of them was Dr. Patrick O'Haly, bishop of Mayo, and another Father Cornelius O'Rourke, the name of the third not being mentioned; and on Sir William Drury's arrival at Kilmallock that year, he caused both the bishop and the priest to be subjected to frightful torture in order to extract some confession from them. Ultimately they were hanged as traitors from a tree, and their bodies remained suspended for fourteen days, to be used as targets by the soldiery.\* At the same time that these ecclesiastics were handed over by the earl as an evidence of his loyalty, as we are led by himself to understand, he mustered an army to resist the invasion. The earl of Clancare also held aloof, and the people were deterred either by the control or example of their great lords from joining the standard of FitzMaurice. It is true that John and James of Desmond, the earl's brothers, hastened to meet their Spanish allies, and that some two hundred of the O'Flaherties of West

Connaught came by sea to rally under the Catholic standard;† but the Spaniards were justly disheartened at the prospect before them. They were led to expect a general rising of the people, and there was no such thing. They were told that the earl of Desmond would be their leader, and they saw him arrayed against them: while on the other hand it must be observed that their appearance, numerically so contemptible, only committed the Irish Catholics, without being capable of inspiring them with confidence.

On the 26th of July, eight days from their landing, the Spaniards saw their transports captured by Captain Courtenay, who had come from Kinsale with a small ship of war and a pinnace; and the O'Flaherties having made their escape with their own galleys, the strangers were left without means of retreat, and to avoid being starved on the rock of Oilean-an-oir they marched into the interior under the three Geraldines. The earl of Desmond, in his defence of himself, asserts that he pursued them to Kilmore, or the Great Wood, in the north of the county of Cork, bordering on Limerick, and that he pressed them so hard that on the 17th of August they were obliged to separate into small parties; John retiring to the fastness of Lynamore; James, his other brother, to that of Glenflesk; while FitzMaurice accompanied by a dozen horsemen and

\* Wadding; Arthur á Monasterio; and Bruodin, *Paslo Mart.*, p. 437.

† Stated by Desmond in his defence of himself preserved in the State Paper Office.



a few kernes, proceeded towards Tipperary, on the pretence of making a pilgrimage to the relic of the Holy Cross, but in reality to try to rally the disaffected in Connaught and the north.\*

A few incidents connected with this wretched attempt remain to be related. On the news of FitzMaurice's arrival the lord justice, Sir William Drury, who was in Cork, accompanied by Sir Nicholas Malby, dispatched, in all haste, Henry Davells, constable of Dungarvan, and Arthur Carter, provost-marshal of Munster, to summon Desmond and his brothers to attack the fort at Smerwick. These men were extremely officious, blustered a good deal with the earl about his duty, and after reconnoitering the fort, were returning to the deputy to accuse Desmond of disloyalty, when the earl's brother, John, followed them to Tralee, and slew both of them at night in a little inn where they had put up, near the castle.† This murder was aggravated by the fact that John and Davells were intimate friends, and by the English it is said that John did the act in order to show FitzMaurice and the Spaniards that he irretrievably committed himself to their cause. A great deal of indignation has been vented

about this crime, but we have a right to measure it by the standard of that day, and should bear in mind the example set by the State itself in the commission of many fearful atrocities. The rath of Mullamast was still reeking with the blood of its victims; and as the reader proceeds he will find how little reason there is to select this action of the insurgent leader for special obloquy.‡

To return to James FitzMaurice, he continued his way through Hy-Connell-Gavra (Conello) and Clanwilliam, in the county of Limerick, and in the latter of these districts seized some horses from the plough to replace the jaded steeds of his party. This depredation was committed on the lands of William Burke of Castle-Connell, whose sons, Theobald and Ulick, obtained the aid of Mac-I-Brien-Ara, and pursued the fugitives, with whom they came up at a place a few miles east of Limerick.§ FitzMaurice remonstrated with his assailants, who were his own kinsmen, but was fired at and mortally wounded. He then rushed into the thick of the fight; with one blow cleft the head of Theobald Burke, and with another inflicted a mortal wound on his brother,

\* Before this separation some misunderstanding is said to have taken place between John of Desmond and FitzMaurice, owing to the latter refusing to punish one of his men for a gross act of violence which he committed—so little of cohesion was there among the leaders.

† So says Hooker; but most writers state that Davells was slain in the castle of Tralee.

‡ "Desmond," says O'Daly, "only slew an avowed enemy, who not only sought to crush the cause of lib-

erty, but did signal injury to John himself in the house of Lord Muskerry." (*Geraldines*, p. 78.) Smith, in his *History of Kerry*, p. 163, says "the pretence was Sir Henry Danvers holding session of gaol delivery in Desmond's palatinate." The name is called Daversius by O'Sullivan, and Danversius by O'Daly; but the correct form is Davells.

§ "Ad Vadum semitæ," or Beal-atha-an-Bhorin, says O'Sullivan. The place is believed to be the present Barrington's bridge, six miles east from Limerick.



so that his enemies, though more numerous, were more speedily put to flight. James expired in a few hours, and his head was cut off by his cousin, Maurice FitzJohn, as some say, at his own request, that his remains might not be recognized by the English; but not long after his body, buried at the foot of a tree, was discovered by a hunter, taken to Kilmallock, and there suspended from a gallows.\*

The death of FitzMaurice was a fatal blow to the cause of the insurgents, and a source of great joy to government. Sir William Drury came with Malby, about the beginning of September, to Kilmallock, where the earl of Desmond met him and endeavored to exculpate himself from any implication in the proceedings of his brothers. He was, nevertheless, kept under arrest for three days; but, on undertaking to send his only son, James, then a child, as a hostage, he was liberated. He also received a promise that his lands and tenants should be respected; but this engagement was violated as soon as made, for some of his lands were immediately after plundered by Drury's soldiers; and at the same time all his men deserted to his brother, John, who, on the death of FitzMaurice, succeeded to the command of the insurgents, and collected a respectable force, into which the Spanish officers introduced a regular

military discipline. Drury summoned all the nobility of Munster, on their allegiance, to rally under the royal standard, and thus gathered a considerable army, composed to a great extent of Irish and Catholics, who, partly through fear and partly through the indecision or jealousy of their lords, found themselves thus serving against the very cause to which all their national and religious sentiments would have naturally attracted them. This army the lord justice sent in large divisions to search the wood of Kilmore and the surrounding country for John of Desmond. One of the parties, numbering several hundred men, fell in with the Irish army, under John and James of Desmond, at a place called Gort-na-Tiobrad—in English, Springfield—in the south of the county of Limerick, and in a desperate encounter was cut to pieces; captains Herbert and Price, the officers in command, and a captain Eustace, being among the slain. This success cheered the spirits of the Irish; and immediately after Sir William Drury, while encamped at Anthony (Beal-atha-na-Deise), a ford about four miles east of Kilmallock, sickened from incessant fatigue, and intrusting the command of the army to Sir Nicholas Malby, got himself carried by easy stages to Waterford, where he died on the 30th of September.

\* This conflict took place on the 18th of August. It is said that Dr. Allen was present and administered the last rites of religion to FitzMaurice. Ware says that Sir William Burke, father of Theobald and Ulick, was

created baron of Castleconnell, and was awarded an annual pension of 100 marks; and Camden tells us that he died of joy at the royal favors showered on him in reward for the loyalty of his family.



A reinforcement of 600 troops had just then reached Waterford from Devonshire; a fleet had arrived on the coast under the command of Sir John Perrott, the former president of Munster; and on the news of Drury's death being received in Dublin, Sir William Pelham, who had recently come to Ireland, was chosen lord justice by the council. Sir Nicholas Malby was not idle in the south. Having left a garrison of 300 foot and 50 horse at Kilmallock, he marched with the bulk of his army to Limerick, and then returning towards the south, on learning the position of Sir John of Desmond, he encountered that chief on the plain near the magnificent ancient abbey of Monasteranena,\* about two miles from Croom and nine south by west from Limerick. It is said that John hesitated to give battle, but yielded to the opinion of Dr. Allen, and that he then left the disposition of the army to the foreign officers, who had disciplined the irregular masses of Irish so well as to excite the surprise of the English. For a long time victory seemed to be with the Geraldines. Malby's lines were twice broken, and compelled to retreat in order to reform; but ultimately the Irish were routed with the loss of Thomas FitzGerald, son of the earl's uncle, John Oge, and of many of the warlike Clann-Sheehy, and other followers of the Geraldines, to the number in all of 260 men killed.†

\* Locally it is called Manister, the ancient addition to the name being almost quite disused.

This battle was fought about the beginning of October. The earl of Desmond and FitzMaurice, lord of Lixnaw, watched its progress from the top of Tory Hill, little more than a mile distant, and late in the evening sent to congratulate Malby on his victory. At least, so the English chroniclers tell us, adding that the message was treated with the contempt which it deserved; and as soon as his army was ready to march, the implacable English commander proceeded to lay waste Desmond's territory in the neighborhood. He burned the abbey of Askeaton, wasted Rathkeale and the surrounding district, and despoiled Adare in the same manner. He was then joined by the Lord-justice Pelham, and by the earls of Ormond and Kildare; and the earl of Desmond having, after such provocation and with such good reason to fear personal restraint or violence, refused to come to their camp, they resolved to place garrisons in several of his castles. On the 30th October, the earl of Ormond was sent to summon Desmond to give up the papal nuncio, Dr. Saunders, and to surrender his castles of Carrigafoyle and Askeaton to the lord justice. The reply of Desmond consisted of fresh representations of his own wrongs; and on the 2d of November Pelham issued a proclamation declaring him a traitor unless he came in and submitted within twenty days; and, without waiting for any of that interval to elapse, marched

† O'Sullivan Beare and O'Daly represent this battle as gained by John of Desmond, but the Four Masters



the very next day with a hostile army into the earl's palatinate of Kerry; constituted his hereditary foe the earl of Ormond, governor of Munster, and returned to Limerick on his way to Dublin.\*

Thus was the vacillating Desmond at length determined as to the course he should pursue. He took the field with his brothers, invaded the territories of the Roches and Barrys in Cork,† and siezed the town of Youghal, which he plundered and committed to the flames, so that not a single habitable house was left in it. This occurred at Christmas; and at the same time the earl of Ormond was invading Desmond's territory of Hy Connello, where he advanced as far as Newcastle, burning

the towns and villages, slaughtering the inhabitants, and reducing the country to a desert. Ormond next marched to Cork, and then returned towards Cashel, treating every district through which he passed, if occupied by Irish or Catholics, in the same inhuman manner, "burning every house and every stack of corn." He discovered the mayor of Youghal, who was accused of having betrayed his trust to the earl of Desmond, and taking him to the ruined town, he caused him to be hanged at the door of his own house. No human being was found in that unhappy town except a poor friar, who had conveyed the body of Henry Davells from Tralee to Waterford to procure for it decent interment.

agree with Camden, who is followed by Ware and the other English historians, in giving the victory to Malby.

The English say that Dr. Allen was among the slain, but none of the Irish authorities mention this fact. O'Sullivan tells us that Ulick and John Burke, sons of the earl of Clanrickard, and Peter and John Lacy, were among the Irish auxiliaries of Malby at Monaster. O'Daly also mentions the Burkes, but the Four Masters do not, although they tell us, under the date of 1580, that "the sons of the earl were both at peace with the English."

\* In a letter, dated from his castle of Askeaton, October 10th, 1579, in which he attempts to vindicate himself with the government, the earl of Desmond thus describes the outrageous proceedings of Malby against him: "The 4th of this present month, Sir Nicholas Malbie being in campe at the abbeye Nenaghe (Monaster), sent certeyn of his menne to enter into Rathmore, a manor of myne, and there murdered the keepers, spoiled the towne and castel, and tooke awaie from thence certayn of my evidences and other writings. On the 6th of the same, he not only spoyled Rath-Keally (Rathkeale), a town of myne, but also tyrannously burned both houses and corne. Upon the 7th of the same month, the said Sir Nicholas encamped within the abbey of Asketyn, and there most maliciously defaced the ould monuments of my ancestors, fired both the abbie, the

whole towne, and the corne thereabouts, and ceased not to shoote at my menne within Asketyn castel." By such acts as these the officials sought to urge the unfortunate earl into an open participation in the rebellion, that there might be no obstacle to his attainder and the confiscation of his vast estates. Foreseeing that such a result would be inevitable, Desmond executed a deed of feoffment before this time, conveying his lands to trustees for his heirs; but this deed was unavailable, as it was pronounced to have been executed seven weeks after his treasonable combination, the said combination dating from the 18th of July, 1578, when the earl signed a document along with his brothers, the lord of Lixnaw, and many other leading men of Munster, pledging themselves to resist the violence of the lord deputy. Indeed, this latter document is rather an advice to the earl not to yield to the unreasonable requirements of the lord deputy, and a pledge on the part of the subscribers to "aid, help, and assist, the said Erle to mayntain and defend this their advice against the said lord deputy, or any other that shall covet the said Erle's inheritance;" and there seemed to be no reason why his own name should be affixed to it except that he might be committed to the consequences. Lords Gormans town and Delvin refused to countersign Pelham's proclamation declaring Desmond a traitor.

† Hy Macaille, or Imokilly, and Hy Liathain, in which latter Castle Lyons is situated.



A. D. 1580.--In the mean time John of Desmond had been able to harass the English garrisons of several small towns; and the Irish annalists, describing the desolation produced by so much mutual destruction, say that "the country was left one levelled plain, without corn or edifices." James, Desmond's youngest brother, made an incursion about the beginning of the year into the lands of Sir Cormac *mac Feige mac Carthy* of Muskerry, the sheriff of Cork,\* and, while carrying off a prey of cattle, was pursued and captured by MacCormac's brother, Donnell, who took him to Cork, where he was hanged and quartered by Sir Warham St. Leger, marshal of Munster, and captain, afterwards the famous Sir Walter, Raleigh, who had recently entered the queen's service in Ireland. His head was spiked over one of the city gates; and about the same time another James FitzGerald, son of the earl's uncle, John Oge, was slain by Brian Duv O'Brien, lord of Pobble Brien and Carrigogunnell.

Sir William Pelham and the earl of Ormond set out early this year on a fresh campaign in Desmond's country; the former marching first to Limerick in the beginning of February, and the latter to Cork, and both subsequently forming a junction at the foot of Slieve Mis, near Tralee. They spared neither age nor sex in their march, and, owing to the state of desolation to which the

country had been reduced, suffered not a little inconvenience themselves from want of provisions. They then marched northward, to destroy the castles still garrisoned by Desmond's men, and first laid siege to the strong castle of Carriagafoyle (*Carrig-au-phuill*), situated on an island in the Shannon, on the coast of Kerry. The Four Masters say that Pelham landed some heavy ordnance from Sir William Winter's fleet, which arrived on the Irish coast about this time, and battered down a portion of the castle, crushing some of the warders beneath the ruins; but other annalists make no mention of cannon landed from the ships. The castle was bravely defended by fifty Irishmen and nineteen Spaniards, under the command of Count Julio, an Italian officer, who, when summoned to surrender, said he held his trust in the name of the king of Spain. A large breach having been made the castle was taken by storm; fifty of the garrison were put to the sword, and six hanged in the camp; and Julio being kept for two or three days was then hanged. The remainder of the number had been already slain. The fate of Carriagafoyle filled the other garrisons with consternation. The warders of Ballinloughane (*Baile-ui-Gheileachain*) destroyed their castle before deserting it, and those of Askeaton attempted to do the same by a train of gunpowder, when abandoning that castle at night, but did not succeed in

\* This Sir Cormac Macarthy was so distinguished for his loyalty, that Sir Henry Sidney pronounced him to

be "the rarest man that ever was born of the Irish-  
rie."



injuring the principal parts of the edifice, which was taken possession of next morning by the lord justice. This was the last castle held for the earl of Desmond. Pelham proceeded to Limerick, where he remained forty days, and again returned to Askeaton, making another long stay there, during which "he never ceased by day or night from persecuting and extirpating the Geraldines." He put to death, among others, an aged gentleman named Wall, of Dunmoylan, who was blind from his birth, and Supple, of Kilmacow, who was over a hundred years old; and on the 12th of June he and Ormond set out with his whole army to explore the dreaded strongholds of Kerry, and to take precautions against another expected landing of the Spaniards at Dingle. Ormond's route was through Cork to Kerry, while Pelham marched through the mountain district of Sleive-louer, and by Castleisland to Castlemaine (Castle-Magne), near which he found Ormond encamped. While traversing Slieve-louer, he seized a prey of 1,500 cows belonging to the earl of Desmond, who had a narrow escape of falling, together with his countess and Dr. Saunders, into the hands of the lord-deputy, having passed that way only about an hour before. Some of the vestments and sacred vessels be-

longing to the legate were taken by the soldiers; but excepting the fresh spoliation to which it gave occasion, this exploration would not appear to have led to any important result.\*

At this time the O'Byrnes and James Eustace, Viscount Baltinglass, were in arms in Wicklow, but, like the insurgents of the south, they were isolated. Sir William Pelham was recalled, and succeeded by Arthur, Lord Gray, of Wilton, who arrived at Howth on the 12th of August, and was so eager to enter upon the duties of his office, that he did not wait for the return of his predecessor to Dublin, in order to be installed in the usual way, but hastily set out with an army against the Wicklow insurgents, who were encamped in the strong passes of Glenmalure and Slieve-eroe. Those who had some experience in Irish warfare cautioned the new lord deputy against the rashness of his proceeding; but with the self-confidence so usual with his countrymen on coming to Ireland, he haughtily rejected their advice, and, on the 25th of August, entered the famous defile of Glenmalure. The deputy himself, with the earl of Kildare, James Wingfield, and George (afterwards Sir George) Carew, occupied an eminence at the entrance to the valley with their reserve, while the remainder of the army advanced into the

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\* The earl of Desmond was now reduced so low, that about this time his countess sought the lord justice, and on her knees implored mercy for her husband; but her prayers would not be listened to; and we are told that the unhappy earl proposed to surrender himself to admiral Winter, on the sole condition of being carried as

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a prisoner to England, but that this desperate expedient was also unsuccessful. The admiral appears to have been a merciful man, and Hooker grumbles that he had given protection to some Irish who had presented themselves to him—a savage sentiment which the historian Leland properly rebukes.



defile. A deep and mysterious silence prevailed as they made their way over the boggy ground which separated the woods covering the lofty hills on either side; but they had scarcely penetrated half a mile, when a smart fire was opened on them from the underwood. They were immediately thrown into disorder, and the Irish, rushing from their cover, soon completed with spear and sword, what had been so well begun with their fire-arms; so that few of those who had advanced into the fatal valley lived to return to the lord deputy, who, covered with confusion, and vowing vengeance against the Irish race, made a hasty retreat to Dublin, where he received the sword of state from Pelham on the 7th of September.\*

The long expected aid from the Continent was at this moment approaching the Irish coast, and Sir William Winter having returned to England from his cruise, no impediment was offered to

the descent, which accordingly took place on the beach of Smerwick harbor, where about 700 Spaniards and Italians landed, early this month, from four Spanish vessels, of which the largest was of 400 tons burden, the others being small craft of 60 and 80 tons. The expedition was under the command of Sebastian de San Josef, a Spaniard, the other principal officers being Hercules Pisano, and the duke of Biscay; and in the contemporary documents it is called the pope's army.† A supply of arms for 5,000 men was brought, together with a large sum of money and a promise of future succor, and Fort del Ore was once more occupied and its works repaired and strengthened‡ The Four Masters say the name of the invaders "was greater than their importance, for their fame was at first so great, that, had they come to Limerick, Galway, or Cork, these great towns would have been left wide open to them."

\* Among those slain on this occasion in Glenmalure, were Colonel John Moor, Francis Cosby, commander of the kerne of Leix, another experienced officer named Audley, and Sir Peter Carew, elder brother of the Geo. Carew mentioned above, and both the sons of Sir Peter, who claimed the inheritance of Idrone and of the so-called kingdom of Cork. Hooker describes the famous valley of Glenmalure as "lying in the middle of the wood, of great length, between two hills, and no other way is there to pass through. Under foot it is boggy and soft, and full of great stones and slippery rocks, very hard and evil to pass through; the sides are full of great and mighty trees upon the sides of the hills, and full of brushments and underwoods." Among the Irish who flocked to the standard of viscount Baltinglass in this rising, the Four Masters enumerate "the Kavanaghs, Kinsellaghs, Byrnes, Toolles, Gaval-Rannell (the branch of the O'Byrnes who possessed the district in Wicklow called Ranelagh), and the surviving parts of the inhabitants of Offaly and Leix."

† The bull of Gregory XIII., sent with this expedition, was dated from St. Peter's, May 13th, 1580, and was the second issued by that pontiff in favor of the persecuted Irish Catholics. His Holiness mentions with regret the death of James FitzMaurice, and refers to John of Desmond as his successor in the leadership; and in case of John's demise, appoints his youngest brother, James, general-in-chief; but no mention of the earl of Desmond is made in the document. (See the bull in O'Sullivan's *Hist. Cath.*, and a translation in Meehan's *Geraldines*).

‡ It is strange how the fatal rock of Dun-an-Oir should have been selected by the Spaniards in both expeditions. It could scarcely have afforded standing room for those who came on the second occasion, its diameter not being more than two chains. (*Four Masters*, vol. v., p. 1739, n.) It rises about fifty feet from the sea, with perpendicular sides, but it was commanded by a neighboring hill, and was pronounced by English officers quite untenable. O'Sullivan, who gives a very con-



The earl of Desmond hastened to meet his foreign auxiliaries, but his brother John was then with Viscount Baltinglass in Leinster, although the English chroniclers represent him as having joined the Spaniards.\* The earl led his allies upon some excursions into the neighborhood, in one of which they exchanged a few shots with the army of Ormond, who had come, with all the troops he could collect, to reconnoitre the invaders. Desmond appears to have then left them to go and raise the country; and Ormond, finding that he could do nothing until he received assistance, marched to Rathkeale to await the lord deputy. Thus was the time wasted till the close of October.

Burning to retrieve his disgrace at Glenmalure, Lord Gray made all the haste he could to collect his forces and march to the south. On the 31st of October he encamped about eight or ten miles from the fort at Smerwick harbor, accompanied by the earl of Ormond, Captains Zouch, Raleigh, Denny, Macworth, and other experienced officers; Vice-admiral Sir Richard Bingham had reached Dingle before him; and on the 5th of November Admiral

Winter arrived with his fleet from Kinsale. Heavy guns were landed from the ships to attack the fort; on the evening of the 7th the trenches were opened, and the works were carried on so actively that on the third day the besiegers had advanced within a hundred and twenty paces of the curtain. The accounts of the sequel are contradictory in some of the particulars. Sir Richard Bingham, in his report of the transaction, says the garrison demanded a parley on the evening of the third day, and were then prepared to surrender at discretion, but that it being night they were allowed until next morning, the besiegers in the mean time continuing their trenches to within sixty paces of the fort. On the morning of the 10th, officers were sent into the fort to take an inventory of the ammunition and provision for the queen's use, and the foreign commander and his captains were ordered to come forth and deliver up their ensigns. According to Bingham's account, Captain Denny's company then entered the fort on one side, and some sailors on another—Hooker says it was Captains Raleigh and Macworth who commanded the bands of executioners—and they

fused account of these proceedings, confounds the expeditions of 1579, and 1580.

\* The Four Masters give an interesting account, at this date, of the adventures of John of Desmond, from his setting out in July, from the woods of Aharlagh (Aherlow) until he reached Eustace in Wicklow; how he took numerous spoils; how he was joined by "the sons of MacGilla-Patrick, the son of O'Carrol, and a great number of evil-doers and plunderers;" and how he lived on Slieve Bloom in a manner "worthy of a true plunderer," "for he slept but upon couches of stone

or earth, he drank but of the pure cold streams, and that, from the palms of his hands or from his shoes; and his only cooking utensils were the long twigs of the forest for dressing the flesh-meats carried away from his enemies." He set out with Eustace and others to join the Spaniards about Michaelmas, but only arrived in Kerry to find that they had been all cut off by Lord Gray. It is possible that the passage of John and his confederates was intercepted by the earl of Ormond; and Leland (B. iv., c. 2.) makes his approach an excuse for the massacre of Fort del Ore.



fell to, slaughtering the unarmed foreigners in cold blood, "in which they never ceased while there lived one," the number thus inhumanly butchered being, as some judged, between 500 and 600." Sir Richard Bingham's object is to insinuate that the atrocious massacre was perpetrated without orders; but this shameless misrepresentation is contradicted, not only by the Irish accounts, but by the dispatch of Lord Gray himself, addressed to the queen, "from the camp before Smerwick, November 12th, 1580." Gray asserts that in the parley which took place, he told the Spanish commander that "no condition or composition were they to expect, other than they should simplie render me the forte, and yield themselves to my will for lyf or deth." He then proceeds:—"Morning came, I presented my forces in bataille before the forte. The coroneel, with ten or twelve of his chief gentlemen came trayling their ensignes rolled up, and presented them to me

with their lives and the forte. . . . I sent streighte certeyne gentlemen to see their weapons and armoires laid down, and to guard the munition and victual then left from spoyle; *then put I in certeyne bandes who streighte fell to execution. There were 600 slayn!*" This is the lord deputy's own account. There is no attempt made to excuse the horrible murder, or transfer it to other shoulders; but a most important circumstance is falsified in this official statement, for we are assured by all the Irish authorities that the lives and liberties of the foreign soldiers were guarantied by the deputy, nor is there any reason why they should have otherwise surrendered without striking a blow, while they had an abundant supply of ammunition and provisions. O'Sullivan tells us that "Gray's faith"—"Graia fides"—became proverbial through the Continent, where this inhuman massacre was reprobated as an outrage against humanity and the rights of nations.\*

\* The life of the Spanish commander was spared, but on his return home he was disgraced, and is universally charged with cowardice or treason in surrendering the fort. Muratori (*Annali*) says it was surrendered "shamefully." It was at all events capable of a better defence. Two days after the massacre, an Englishman, who had served Dr. Saunders, a Mr. Plunket, who had acted as interpreter, and an Irish priest taken in the fort, were executed. Bingham, in a letter to Walsingham, says, "their arms and legs were first broken, and they were then hanged on a gibbet on the walls of the fort." Gray, in the dispatch in which he coolly avows the commission of so atrocious a crime, dwells with great unction on the "divine confession of his faith" made by "good John Cheeke," who was wounded by a ball from the fort; "so wrought in him God's Spirit, plainlie declaring him a child of His elected;" and he assures her Majesty that in his own parley with the Spaniards he took care to call the Pope "a detestable shaveling, the

right Antichrist, and general ambitious tyrant over all right principalities"—thus showing by his words how much his mind must have been biased by sectarian animosity. It is generally admitted that the number slaughtered in cold blood was seven hundred, and that the execution of the butchery was intrusted to the afterwards famous (Sir) Walter Raleigh, who fleshed his maiden sword on the occasion. The Denny mentioned in the text was "Ned Denny," who was sent by Lord Gray as a bearer of dispatches to the queen. He afterwards married the "queen's own favorite maid of honor," and "obtained plentiful estate in Ireland." No attention whatever is due to the statement that the foreign officers, being unable to produce any written commission from the Pope or the king of Spain, were on that account not treated by Lord Gray according to the laws of nations. This excuse was subsequently put forward by the poet Spencer, who was Lord Gray's secretary, and who tells us that he himself was "not far



A. D. 1581.—The war in Munster had assumed a savage character, of which it is almost impossible to convey any adequate idea. The brutal barbarities of Lord Gray and his captains had driven many of the most loyal of the Irish and old English to espouse the now desperate cause of the insurgents. Each official endeavored "to do some exploit," as it was phrased; and Raleigh, who received the command in Cork, was one of those who evinced the most fiendish activity in tracking and hunting down the miserable Catholics. He repaired to Dublin for enlarged powers to proceed against the old English families of the Barrys and Roches, against whom some charges of treason had been trumped up. Lord Barry indignantly set fire to his castle rather than allow it to be overrun by the soldiery, and repaired to the woods, where he joined John of Desmond; but Lord Roche, who along with his lady, was seized and carried prisoner to Cork, established his innocence and escaped. Some

soldiers from Adare going on a marauding excursion into the barony of Kenry were cut off by David Purcell, the representative of an ancient Anglo-Irish family who had hitherto been an exemplary loyalist. Captain Achin, the officer in command of the station at Adare, obtained some troops at Kilmallock, and entering Kenry to wreak his vengeance on the people, came to Purcell's castle of Ballycalhanenear Kildimo, where, finding that David with his men had fled to the woods, he massacred one hundred and fifty women and children who had sought refuge in the castle.\* Foremost among the captains who distinguished themselves at this time were Zouch and Dowdall, but the former soon became so prominent for his services that he was appointed governor or president of Munster.

In Connaught, William Burke, one of the sons of the earl of Clanricard, having surrendered on a promise of protection, as our annalists say, was hanged in

off." It was a notorious fact that the expedition was sent by the king of Spain, as Camden says, to divert the attention of Elizabeth from the affairs of Belgium; and Cox further assures us that the massacre "very much displeased the queen." See the valuable notes of O'Donovan in the *Four Masters*, O'Sullivan's *Hist. Cath.*, Meehan's *Geraldines*, Spencer's *View of Ireland*, Hooker, Ware, Cox, Leland, &c. A valuable collection of extracts from State papers relative to the affair of the Fort Del Ore appeared in Nos. viii., xiii., xiv. xv., and xvi. of the *Kerry Magazine*, for 1854 and 1855.

\* The fate of David Purcell is related by the *Four Masters*. He descended the Shannon some time after this with a few followers, and sought to conceal himself for a night on Scatterry island. Here, however, he was immediately pursued by Turlough MacMahon of Clonderalaw in Clare, who took Purcell and his men to his

castle of Colmanston, where the latter were hanged on the nearest trees, Purcell himself being taken sick in Limerick and executed there. Yet this Purcell "had assisted the crown from the very commencement of the Geraldine war." (*Four Masters*, vol. v., p. 1759.) Archbishop Lombard (*De Regno Hib. Comment.*, p. 535) relates some horrible cruelties similar to that mentioned above, as perpetrated by the government officials in Munster even after Desmond's death and the suppression of his rebellion; such as the forcing of people into castles and houses, which were then set on fire; "and if any of them attempted to escape from the flames they were shot or stabbed by the soldiers who guarded them. It was a diversion," he continues, "to these monsters of men to take up infants on the points of their spears and whirl them about in their agony," &c. See Dr. Curry's *Civil Wars*, p. 27.



Galway on the 29th of May, and all his followers who had rashly relied on the same promise, were treated in like manner; and about the same time Turlough O'Brien, who had been a year in prison, was hanged in Clare. Nor did Dublin escape the rage for executions. It was said that some conspiracy was on foot, and that a plot was formed to capture the castle, massacre the English, and overturn the government. We are told that forty-five persons were brought to the scaffold for this imaginary treason, Nugent, who had been chief-justice of the Common Pleas, being one of the number. The earl of Kildare, his son, and the lord of Devlin, were arrested and sent for trial to England, where the groundlessness of the charge against them was proved; and then it became obvious that the execution of Nugent and the others had been premature. This overhasty "vindication of justice" excited some displeasure in England, where the affair of Smerwick Harbor made an impression not at all favorable to Lord Gray's humanity; but the custom of hanging men in hot haste prevailed to a fearful extent in Ireland then, and for centuries after.

The hopeless struggle of the Geraldines was still protracted. John of Desmond made a successful foray be-

yond the Suir in May, slaying several of his pursuers and carrying off the spoils to the fastnesses of Claenglass, in the south of the county of Limerick, and to the neighboring woods of Killmore. In June he took spoils from MacCarthy More, and again, about Christmas, Kilfeakle, in Tipperary, was plundered by him, or, as some accounts have it, by the earl of Desmond. A large number of faithful followers still surrounded the unhappy earl, but while encamped at Aghadoe, near Killarney, he was attacked unawares, on a Sunday morning, by Captain Zouch, and many of his men were slain. About the end of September he penetrated as far as Cashel, and carried off a large spoil of cattle and other property to the woods of Aherlow, after slaying, say our annalists, four hundred of his pursuers. Some time in the winter of this year, Dr. Saunders, the Pope's legate, died in cold and wretchedness in a miserable hovel in the woods of Claenglass. This illustrious and heroic ecclesiastic, for whom the government would have given a large reward, was worn out by fatigue and privation, and died the death of a confessor, attended in his last moments by Cornelius, bishop of Killaloe, who administered to him the last sacraments.\*

\* Dr. Nicholas Saunders, or Sanderus, was a native of Charlewood in England, and had been professor of canon law at Oxford; but flying from England on the accession of Elizabeth, he repaired to Rome, where he received priest's orders and the degree of doctor of divinity. He taught theology at Louvain, and was sent by the Pope as nuncio to Spain, where he wrote his fa-

mous "History of the Rise and Progress of the English Reformation;" but before that work was published, he proceeded, by orders of Gregory XIII., to Ireland. Cox called him "a malicious, cunning, and indefatigable rebel;" but Mageoghan more truly describes him as "a man of exemplary life, and most zealous in the Catholic cause." He died of dysentery, and English



A.D. 1582.—The fidelity of the peasantry to the Geraldines was one of the most interesting features of this heart-sickening war. Great rewards were offered for the heads of the leaders; but the humblest of their followers were still faithful to the last. An Irishman was, nevertheless, found to act as a spy on the footsteps of John of Desmond, and information obtained by this man from an unsuspecting messenger enabled Zouch to intercept John near Castle Lyons (Castle Hy-Liathain), while on his way to meet Lord Barry, between whom and FitzGerald of Imokilly there had arisen a misunderstanding, which John wished to arrange. The latter was accompanied only by his kinsman, James FitzGerald of Strancally, and four or five horsemen; and when he unexpectedly came face to face with Zouch and his troops, whom, in a dark and misty day, he had first supposed to be Barry's men, he saw immediately that escape was impossible. He desired his companions to fly, as their enemies only sought for him; but the lord of Strancally refused to abandon his leader. They made a fruitless attempt to gain a wood, and were surrounded by the soldiers, one of whom, named Thomas Fleming, said to have been once in the service of John of Desmond, plunged a spear into that chief's throat,

writers, who abhorred him, say that his body when found, was half devoured by wolves, while O'Sullivan tells us that he was carried to the grave by four Irish knights, of whom one was his (O'Sullivan's) own father, Dermot; and that his venerated remains were privately interred at night by priests. (*Hist. Cath.*, p. 121). His

ere Zouch, who wished to capture him alive, could ward off the blow. The noble Geraldine expired before his enemies had carried him a mile, and his body was then thrown across his own steed and conveyed thus to Cork, when his head being cut off, was sent to Dublin to be spiked in front of the castle; while his mutilated trunk was hung in chains at one of the gates of Cork, "where it remained," says O'Daly, "nearly three years, till, on a tempestuous night, it was blown into the sea." His kinsman, James, was hanged soon after, together with his two sons; but Lord Barry made his peace with the government.\*

With the gallant John of Desmond departed the last hope of the Geraldines; but the unhappy earl himself was still in arms. The three sons of FitzMaurice of Lixnaw escaped from captivity in Limerick, and fled to their paternal woods. They attacked the garrison of Ardfert, and slew its captain, Hatsim.† The lord of Lixnaw, who had hitherto committed no overt act of treason, now joined his infatuated sons, destroyed his principal castles, that they might not fall into the hands of the English, and retired to the woods at the head of a large body of followers; and Zouch, on coming to Ardfert, finding the FitzMaurices were beyond

companion in suffering, the bishop of Killaloe, escaped to Spain, and died in Lisbon, A.D. 1617.

\* Four Masters.

† This was no doubt the same person as the "Captain Achin" who slaughtered the women and children in Purcell's castle. (*Supra*, p. 425).



his reach, avenged the death of Hatsim by hanging a number of hostages whom he held, although, say the Four Masters, they were mere children. Soon after this, FitzMaurice repented of his rashness, and pleading as an excuse that the oppression of the queen's officers had driven him into rebellion, he obtained his pardon through the mediation of the earl of Ormond.

By this time Munster had been converted into such a solitude that, as our annalists tell us, the lowing of a cow or the voice of the ploughman, could scarcely be heard from Dunqueen, in the west of Kerry, to Cashel, in Tipperary. That fair province now presented the hideous spectacle of desolation which Spencer so graphically de-

\* After developing his remedy for the ills of Ireland, namely, the employment of large masses of troops "to tread down all that standeth before them on foot, and lay on the ground all the stiffnecked people of that land," and advising that war should be carried on against them not in summer only, but in winter; "for then the trees are bare and naked, which use both to clothe and house the kerne; the ground is cold and wet, which useth to be his bedding; the air is sharp and bitter, to blow through his naked sides and legs; the kine are barren and without milk, which useth to be his food, besides being all with calf (for the most part) they will, through much chasing and driving, cast all their calves and lose their milk, which should relieve him in the next summer" (*State of Ireland*, pp. 158, &c.); Spencer proceeds to say that "the end will be very short," and in proof he describes what he himself had witnessed in "the late wars of Munster;" "for notwithstanding that the same was a most rich and plentiful country, full of corne and cattle . . . . yet ere one yeare and a halfe they (the Irish) were brought to such wretchednesse as that any stony heart would have rued the same. Out of every corner of the woods and glynnes they came creeping forth upon their hands, for their legges could not bear them; they looked like anatomies of death; they spake like ghosts crying out of their graves; they did eate the dead carrions, happy where they could finde them; yea, and one another soone after,

scribes.\* It was reported that the earl of Desmond was dead, and the army was thereupon considerably reduced. Complaints, in the mean time, daily reached Elizabeth, of the inhuman rigor of Gray. That viceroy was truly described as a man of blood, who had alienated the hearts of all the Irish subjects by his barbarities, and who "left her majesty little to reign over but carcasses and ashes;"† and he was at length recalled in August, and Loftus, archbishop of Dublin, and Sir Henry Wallop, the treasurer at war, appointed lord justices. A more moderate policy was determined on, and several who had been involved in the insurrection were amnestied; the earl of Desmond, however, being excluded from

insomuch as the very carcasses they spared not to scrape out of their graves; and if they found a plot of water-cresses or shamrocks, there they flocked as to a feast for the time, yet not able long to continue therewithall: that in short space there were none almost left, and a most populous and plentiful country suddainly left voyde of man and beast." (*State of Ireland*, p. 166.) Similar pictures of the frightful state to which the south of Ireland was reduced at this period may be seen in *Hollinshed*, vi., 459; *Fynes Morrison*, p. 272 (folio); and *Cox*, p. 449.

But the poet Spencer, who could suggest no better means for the subjugation of a race with such kind hearts and gentle natures as the Irish, still saw that the scene of all this horrible waste and devastation was beautiful—too beautiful, alas! for those whose extermination was a necessary step to its enjoyment by others. "And sure it is yet a most beautiful and sweete country as any is under heaven," he says, "being stored throughout with many goodly rivers, replenished with all sorts of fish most abundantly; sprinkled with many very sweete islands and goodly lakes, like little inland seas, adorned with goodly woods; also full of very good ports and havens opening upon England, as inviting us to come unto them; besides the soyle itselfe is most fertile, and lastly, the heavens most milde and temperate." (*State of Ireland*, p. 28.)

† Cox, *Hib. Angl. Leland*, vol. ii., p. 287 (8vo. ed.)



mercy. Two or three times in the course of this year, this unhappy nobleman showed himself at the head of several hundred men. He despoiled the territory of the earl of Ormond, during the absence of the latter in England; defeated some English troops in a desperate conflict at Gort-na-pisi, or Peafield, in Tipperary; and almost annihilated a large irregular force led against him by the brothers and sons of the earl of Ormond, at Knockgraffon, in the same county. He carried off spoils from MacCarthy and other hostile parties; but these few predatory successes only helped to prolong the miserable struggle. By degrees his followers dwindled away, and with the few faithful adherents who remained he was hunted like a beast of the forest from one wood or mountain cavern to another. The glen of Aherlow, which the contemporary English writers sometimes call Harlow, was one of his favorite retreats; at other times he frequented woods in the southwest of the county of Limerick; and often he sought shelter among the woods and mountains of his own palatinate of Kerry.\*

\* The unhappy earl, we are told, passed the Christmas of this year in great distress in the wood of Kilquane, near Kilmallock, and on the 4th of January a plan was laid by one John Welsh to gain the large reward offered for his capture. Hooker relates the circumstances. Captains Dowdall and Bangor, and George Thorington, provost marshal of Munster, led a chosen band of soldiers from the garrison of Kilmallock, and every thing was so well arranged that they arrived by break of day at the earl's cabin, which was close by a river, then swollen from the rains. Desmond's watchful ear caught an approaching sound of footsteps or breaking twigs, and he and the countess rushed from

A.D. 1583.—In the summer and autumn of this year, say the Four Masters, the earl of Desmond was attended by only four persons, who accompanied him "from one cavern of a rock, or hollow of a tree, to another." They were so hunted from place to place, that "where they did dress their meat," says Hooker, "thence they would remove to eat it in another place, and from thence go to another place to lie. In the nights they would watch; in the forenoon they would be upon the hills and mountains to descry the country; and in the afternoon they would sleep." Their enemies were well apprised of these movements; and, on one occasion, in the autumn of this year, when so many as three score gallowglasses mustered round the earl in Aherlow, Captain Dowdall, with a troop of soldiers, surprised him while they were cooking a horse to eat. It was their hour of rest—the afternoon—and five and twenty of the gallowglasses were taken in their cabins and put to the sword, many others having been slain in attempting to defend themselves. The earl escaped and fled to Kerry, whither

their wretched couch into the river, in which they remained concealed under a bank, with only their heads over the water, until Welsh and his disappointed party had left. The unhappy Desmond more than once humbled himself to sue for pardon; and his countess, Eleanor, who was a Butler, being the daughter of Lord Dunboyne, and who, although she disapproved from the beginning of his resistance to government, still shared all his privations and sufferings, frequently supplicated for mercy for him in vain. His unconditional surrender would alone be accepted, but we are assured by O'Daly that he was offered pardon if he gave up Dr Saunders, a stipulation which he spurned.



we must follow to relate the last act in this harrowing tragedy.

On the 9th of November the earl of Desmond left his retreat in the woods near Castle-island, and went westwards towards the bay of Tralee. He sent two horsemen with eighteen kernes to carry off a prey from the Moriartys, who would appear to have been hostile to him; he himself and John MacEligot, with two or three footmen, staying for them at a place then called Doiremore. The predatory party proceeded to Cahirnifahy, lying by the seaside west of Castle Gregory, in the peninsula of Corkaguiney, and there took a prey consisting of forty cows, nine horses, and some other goods, from Maurice MacOwen and another, announcing at the same time that the earl of Desmond was hard by, and that it was for him the cattle were required. MacOwen dispatched messengers to Lieutenant Stanley, at Dingle, and to his brothers-in-law, Owen and Donnell, sons of Donnell O'Moriarty; and the two latter followed in the track of the prey with a band of eighteen kernes, of whom two were armed with muskets. At Castle-maine they applied for aid to the warder, Cheston, on the recommendation of Lieutenant Stanley, and obtained a reinforcement of five soldiers. On arriving at Tralee they traced the prey in the direction of Slieve Logher or

Luachra, and, about five miles east of Tralee, entering late in the evening the vale of Glanageenty (Gleann-an-Ghinn-tigh), in that mountain district, they ascended an eminence, and observed a fire in the glen beneath them. Donnell O'Moriarty explored the place under cover of the darkness, and reported that the party they were in search of were there, but had not the prey with them, and he suggested that they should wait until morning to make the attack. At the dawn of day Owen and Donnell O'Moriarty, with Daniel O'Kelly, one of the soldiers, who had served some time in England, took the lead of the band, the kerne following next, and the soldiers bringing up the rear. They rushed with a loud shout to the cabin where the earl's party had lain, but the latter had fled on the first sound of the enemy's approach, with the exception of a venerable looking man, a woman, and a boy. O'Kelly, who entered first, aimed a blow with his sword at the old man and almost severed his arm. The old man then exclaimed, "I am the earl of Desmond, spare my life." Donnell O'Moriarty took him on his back, and carried him a short distance, but, according to their own account, they feared the earl's party might return and rescue him, and O'Kelly cut off his head at Owen Moriarty's desire.\*

\* The circumstances above related are taken almost verbally from the depositions of Owen MacDonnell O'Moriarty (Muirchertaich), sworn before the earl of Ormond, the bishop of Ossory, and the sovereign of Kil-

kenny on the 26th of the same month of November. These depositions are to be found in a rare work by Thomas Churchyard, entitled "A Scourge for Rebels," printed in 1584, and have been reprinted in the *Kerry*



Thus, on the morning of the 11th of November, 1583, perished Gerald, the great earl of Desmond—"ingens rebellus exemplar," as some English writers call him. Most assuredly this unfortunate nobleman was driven into rebellion in order, once for all, to crush the power of his family, and for the baser purpose of seizing and partitioning his vast domains. He wanted the most essential qualities of a popular leader; and when the time required decision and action he was vacillating, and therefore powerless. His jealousy and pride would not suffer him to be guided by his cousin, James FitzMaurice, or by his brother, John, both of whom possessed superior mental and physical energy; and when they took the leadership he could not play a subservient part. Yet he possessed courage and military ability, as he proved in several hard-fought conflicts after the death of James and John; his sympathies were always with the

Catholic cause; and his heroic endurance of long and cruel sufferings, his unparalleled misfortunes and melancholy end, obliterated his faults, and have caused his memory to be venerated in the traditions of the country. His head was carried to Castlemaine, and thence forwarded to Queen Elizabeth, who caused it to be impaled in an iron cage on London bridge; and his body having been concealed for some time by the peasantry, was ultimately interred in the little chapel of Kilnamanagh, near Castleisland.

During the great Geraldine rebellion the rest of Ireland was comparatively tranquil. The earl of Clanrickard—called, by the Irish, Richard Saxonagh—returned from his long captivity in London to breathe his native air for the last time before he expired in Galway, in August, 1582; and a violent contention then arose between his turbulent sons, Ulick and John-of-the Sham-

*Magazine* for July, 1854. The story of the earl's men having shamefully robbed "a poor widow named Moriarty" is untrue, the woman in question being the wife of the man called Maurice MacOwen, and the sister of Donnell O'Moriarty. The two horsemen sent with the kerne on this expedition are called in Owen's depositions "Corroghore ne Scolly and Shane Deleo," names which have been identified as "Conor O'Driscoll and John Daly." Brother Dominic O'Daly, bishop elect of Coimbra, and author of "*Incrementum, &c., Geraldinorum*," was a near relative of this Daly, and tells us that "Cornelius O'Daly and a few others were at a short distance from the earl in the valley, watching the cattle that had been seized the day before," and that "John MacWilliam and James MacDavid were the only companions who partook of his miserable hut (and who deserted him) at the time of his death." (Meehan's Translation, p. 108.) O'Kelly, who was in such haste to murder the old earl, was rewarded by government with a pension of £30 a-year, but was hanged in London for

highway robbery; and Owen O'Moriarty was also hanged some years after, in the insurrection of Hugh O'Neill, by FitzMaurice of Lixnaw, the whole family becoming objects of popular detestation on account of the part he took in the earl's death. Long after Desmond's death it was a popular belief that the place where he was slain was still red with his blood. The spot is still called Bothar-an-Iarla, and an old tree used to be shown under which, it was said, his body was first buried. In addition to the authorities already quoted, see O'Sullivan's *Hist. Cath.*, Coxe's *Hib. Angl.*, Hooker, &c. We are grieved to add that the Four Masters evince an abject, time-serving spirit, in all their entries about the Geraldine war. Their patron, Farrell O'Gara, was, as Dr. O'Donovan observes in his just animadversions on these passages, an élève of Trinity College, and they wrote for him and for the loyalists of the reign of Charles I. Hence they constantly stigmatize the struggles of the Catholics of the south as treason, and apply disparaging epithets to their leaders.



rocks. The former succeeded as earl, and the latter received for his patrimony the barony of Leitrim, in the south-east of the county of Galway; but the next year Ulick slew his brother, John, at night, and was thus left in the exclusive enjoyment of the territory of Clanrickard. Viscount Baltinglass escaped to Spain, where he died in misery; and Captain Brabazon "pacified" the north of Connaught in 1582 by a series of sanguinary devastations.

A. D. 1584.—Following the ordinary rule, that a calm succeeds a storm, an interval of moderation and mercy succeeded the fierce persecution of the war in Munster, and Sir John Perrott was the man selected by Elizabeth to carry out the new policy. He arrived in Ireland on the 21st of June, and was sworn in on the 26th; and with him came Sir Thomas Norreys, or Norris, as president of Munster, and Sir Richard Bingham as governor of Connaught, in the place of Sir Nicholas Malby, who had recently died at Athlone. The new deputy set out on a circuit, commencing at Galway, where he was received with welcome by the leading

men of Connaught. He next proceeded to Limerick, and at Quin, on his way through Thomond, Donough Beg O'Brien, who had taken an active part in the late insurrections, was first hanged from a car, then taken down before he was dead, and his bones broken with the back of an axe; and finally his bruised body was hoisted to the top of the church steeple, to feed the birds and "serve as a warning to future evil-doers." The Four Masters add, that Perrott was "resolved to destroy and reduce a great number of gentlemen" in Limerick, when he was suddenly called away to repress a movement of Sorley Boy MacDonnell, who had lately obtained an accession of strength from Scotland. This duty, however, was easily performed, and the year passed away without any event of importance.\*

A. D. 1585.—Perrott summoned a parliament, which met in Dublin on the 26th of April, this year, and was memorable for the great number of Irish lords and heads of septs who attended, either as members or without the right to vote, to give the proceedings the sanction of their presence.† The first

\* On this occasion seven counties were marked out in Ulster, viz.:—Armagh, Monaghan, Tyrone, Coleraine, Donegal, Fermanagh, and Cavan; for each of which sheriffs, commissioners of the peace, and coroners, were nominated.

† The Four Masters give a list of the chieftains and heads of septs who attended this parliament. They appear in the following order those who had seats, as we find by the official list published in the third appendix to Hardiman's edition of the *Statute of Kilkenny*, being distinguished by an (\*), viz.:—Turlough Luineach (the) O'Neill; \* Hugh O'Neill, baron of Dungannon, created earl of Tyrone in this parliament; \* Hugh

O'Donnell, chief of Tirconnell; Cuconnaught Maguire, chief of Fermanagh; John Oge O'Doherty, chief of Inishowen; Turlough O'Boyle, chief of Boylagh, in Donegal; Owen O'Gallagher, O'Donnell's marshal; Ross MacMahon, chief of Oriel; Rory O'Kane, chief of Oireacht-O'Cahane; Con O'Neill, chief of Clannaboy (his nephew, \* Shane MacBrien O'Neill, was one of the knights for the county Antrim); \* Hugh Magennis, chief of Iveagh (one of the knights for the county of Down); Brian O'Rourke; \* John Roe O'Reilly (the official list has it Philip) and his uncle, \* Edmond O'Reilly (knights for the county of Cavan); \* O'Farrell Bane and \* O'Farrell Boy (knights for the county of Longford);



session closed on the 29th of May, and was a very stormy one, owing to violent debates between the court party and the country party, into which the members for the Pale were divided. Acts were passed to attain James Eustace, Viscount Baltinglass; to make estates tail forfeitable for treason; and to restore in blood Laurence Delahide, whose ancestor had been attainted during the rebellion of Silken Thomas. The second session was held on the 28th of April, 1586, when the late earl of Desmond and a hundred and forty of his adherents were attainted. A strong opposition was given to Desmond's attainder, on the ground that he had executed a conveyance of his estates to trustees several years before; but the government officers pretended to show that an act of treason preceded this conveyance; and it was then provided that any such instrument made for the last thirteen years should be entered on record in the Exchequer, within a year, or be

void. Thus were lands then estimated at 574,628 acres—but containing, in truth, a great deal more—confiscated to the crown, to be distributed among English undertakers.

The Scots, under a son of Sorley Boy, again excited troubles in Ulster; but the lord deputy on proceeding against them found that they had already been defeated. Their leader was hanged, Sorley Boy was taken by Sir John Perrott to Dublin, and the government of the northern province was intrusted to Turlough Luineach O'Neil, Hugh, baron of Dungannon, and Marshal Bagnal. Meanwhile the English of the Pale had begun to show an inveterate opposition to Perrott. His indulgence and courtesy towards the Irish had excited the jealousy and displeasure of the new English. The army was also dissatisfied with his pacific policy. Archbishop Loftus gave every possible opposition to his favorite project of establishing a university in Dublin.\*

Hugh, son of O'Connor Don; Tiege Oge O'Connor Roe; Donnell O'Connor Sligo; Brian MacDermot, deputed by MacDermot of Moylurg; Carbry O'Beirn, chief of Tir-Briuin-na-Sinna, in Roscommon; Tiege O'Kelly, of Mullaghmore in Galway; Donnell O'Madden; \* Ulick, earl of Clanrickard; John and Dermot O'Shaughnessy; Murrough-of-the-battle-axes O'Flaherty; \* Donough O'Brien, earl of Thomond; \* Sir Turlough O'Brien (knight for the county of Clare); Turlough, son of Tiege O'Brien; John MacNamara; \* Boetius MacClancy, the brehon of Thomond (knight for the county of Clare); Rossa O'Loughlin of Burren; \* Mac-I-Brien Ara, (Protestant) bishop of Killaloe, and chief of his family; Calvagh O'Carroll; John MacCoghlan; Philip O'Dwyer, of Kilnamanagh in Tipperary; MacBrien, of Coonagh in Limerick; Brian Duv O'Brien, lord of Carrigogunnell; Conor O'Mulryan (O'Ryan), chief of the two Ownneys; \* Donnell MacCarthy More, earl of Clancare; Sir Owen MacCarthy

Reagh, of Carbery in the county Cork, and his two nephews; Dermot and Donough MacCarthy of Dubhalow; Owen O'Sullivan Beare, and Owen O'Sullivan More; Conor O'Mahony, of Ivahagh in Carbery, county of Cork; Sir Fineen O'Driscoll More; \* Fineen MacGillapatrik, lord of Upper Ossory; Conla Mageoghegan, of Kineleagh in West Meath; Connell O'Molloy of the King's county; and Fiagh MacHugh O'Byrne, chief of the Gaval-Rannall, in Wicklow. There were none of the other O'Byrnes, Kavanaghs, O'Tooles, O'Conors Faly, O'Mores, O'Dunns, or O'Dempseys. See Dr. O'Donovan's invaluable notes to the *Four Masters*, under the year 1585 (vol. v., pp. 1827 to 1841), in which the existing or last known representative of each of the above heads of septs is identified.

\* The University of Trinity College was afterwards founded by Loftus himself, in 1592.



The machinations against him developed an incredible amount of hatred and baseness. It was even pretended that he purposed to throw off the English authority; letters were forged in the name of Turlough Luineach, and others, and sent to the queen to undermine him in her confidence; and when he applied for leave to justify himself in person, before the queen and council, his request was refused. He was, however, diligent in his duties, and succeeded in inducing the chiefs and lords of Connaught to adopt a composition in lieu of the former irregular assessments, the amount being ten shillings English, or a mark Irish, on every quarter of land, whether arable or pasture.\*

The project for repeopling from England, the depopulated districts of Munster, was now taken up with extraordinary zeal. Great inducements were held out to younger brothers to become undertakers. Estates were offered for three-pence, and in some places for two-pence, per acre, rent to commence only at the end of three years, and only half the sum to be payable for three years more. Seven years were allowed to each undertaker to complete his plantation. Garrisons were to be placed on the borders, and commissioners appointed to decide differences. Each person obtaining 12,000 acres was to plant eighty-six English families on his estate,

and for lesser quantities in proportion. The native Irish might be employed as laborers—they might become “the hewers of wood and drawers of water” in their own country—but on no account were they to be admitted as tenants! Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Christopher Hatton, Sir Thomas Norris, Sir Wareham Sentleger, and Sir George Bouchier, were among those who obtained large and early grants. It was expected that above 20,000 English would be planted in Munster in a few years; but this fine scheme failed in its most material points. The stipulations were evaded in a variety of ways by the undertakers; and the government on its side failed to provide the requisite defences. Above all, the Irish in many cases obtained leases and conveyances, and in some places the lands were abandoned to the old possessors.†

A.D. 1586.—Our attention is now demanded for a while by the affairs of Connaught, where the brutal severity of the president or governor, Sir Richard Bingham, was wholly opposed to the policy of moderation professed by the lord deputy. At a session held in Galway, in January this year, seventy persons, men and women, some of them people of distinction, were executed; and on the 1st of March, Bingham laid siege to the strong castle of Cloonoan, in Clare, which was held by Mahon

\* The cartron, or quarter, like other old denominations of land used in Ireland, contained no definite number of acres. “Some cartrons,” says Ware, “contained one hundred, some one hundred and twelve, some one hundred and twenty, and the largest of all one hun-

dred and sixty acres.” See Harris’s *Ware’s Antiq.*, vol. ii., p. 226.

† See Fynes Moryson, Smith’s *Cork and Kerry*, and Fitzgerald’s *Limerick*, for the names of the principal undertakers in Munster



O'Brien, "a chieffe champion of the pope's, and a greate practizer with foreign powers." On the seventh day Mahon was shot on the battlements while bravely defending his castle, and the garrison having then surrendered, were all put to the sword without mercy. The president next marched into Mayo, where the Burkes had shut themselves up in their castles for protection against his oppression. Richard Burke, surnamed Deamhan-an-Chorrain, or the "demon of the reaping-hook," and his kinsman, Walter Burke, had fortified themselves in the stronghold of the Hag's castle (*caisleán-na-cailighe*), built on an artificial island in Lough Mask. Bingham pitched his camp on the shore, and went with a party in four or five boats to attack the castle; but a storm coming on, one of the boats was capsized, and Bingham himself had a narrow escape. A few of his men were killed or drowned, and the boat fell into the hands of the Burkes, who used it the next night in escaping to the opposite shore.\* Bingham then demolished the castle, and hanged Richard Oge, surnamed *Falfo-Eirin*, or the "fence of Ireland," son of MacWilliam Burke, who had come voluntarily to the camp, and several other strongholds shared the fate of the Hag's castle. Soldiers were sent into West Connaught in search of "rebels," and they spared none who came in their

way, slaying "women, boys, and aged men," many of their victims being persons who considered themselves under the protection of government, as the tenants of *Murrough-na-duagh O'Flaherty*.†

This career of carnage in cold blood provoked Sir John Perrott, who had more than once endeavored to interrupt it. Bingham went to Dublin to defend his violent measures, and words of angry recrimination passed between him and Perrott, the council taking part with the former. Unfortunately, while the matter was still under consideration, news arrived that the Burkes had confederated to resist the extortions of the sheriffs, as well as to protect themselves against the monstrous tyranny of the president. In fact, they had broken out into open rebellion, so that Bingham, whose cruelty had produced that result, enjoyed a complete triumph over the pacific deputy. Perrott himself wished to proceed against the unruly MacWilliams, but the council would not allow him, and Bingham, returning to Connaught to exercise his severity with redoubled fury, commenced with the execution of the hostages whom the Burkes had given for their allegiance. A fleet of highland Scots arrived at Inishowen, and the Burkes sent to them for help, promising large spoils and extensive lands in Connaught, should they succeed in resisting Bingham. The

\* *Docwra's Relation*, published in the *Miscellany of the Celtic Society*.

† *Four Masters*. On this occasion they hanged Theo-

bald O'Toole, the proprietor of the distant island of Omev, on the coast of Connemara—a man "who supported the destitute, and practised hospitality."



<p>Scots embraced the opportunity, and Sir Richard finding that the insurgents were too powerful in the field, tried what might be done by stratagem. He feigned a retreat, and leaving the Scots under the impression that he fled from them, he collected what troops he could, and by a long, forced march on a dark night, surprised the enemy on the morning of September 22d, at Ard-naree, a suburb of Ballina-Tyrawly, on the Sligo side of the Moy. The Burkes were absent on a foraging excursion, and the Scots made an attempt to present a face to the foe, but they were routed with frightful slaughter, and</p>	<p>compelled in their flight to plunge into the wide and rapid river. Few of them escaped, and the Irish annalists say that 2,000 of them were killed or drowned. Most of the flying Scots were captured and hanged, or otherwise cut off; and Edmond Burke, an aged gentleman, whose sons were in arms, was hanged by Bingham, although he was "a withered, gray old man," without strength to walk to the gallows. Sessions were again held in Galway in December, and a large number of people were handed over to the executioner, among others, some of the MacSheehys of Munster, who had fought in the Geraldine war</p>
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## CHAPTER XXXIV.

## REIGN OF ELIZABETH—CONTINUED.

**Affairs of Ulster.**—Hugh, earl of Tyrone—His visit to Elizabeth—His growing power—Complaints against him.—Sir Hugh O'Donnell.—Capture of Hugh Roe O'Donnell; cunning device.—Sir William FitzWilliam, lord deputy.—The Spanish armada—The wrecks on the Irish coast.—Disappointed avarice of the Lord-deputy.—He oppresses the Irish chiefs—Murders MacMahon.—Hugh Geimhleach hanged by Hugh O'Neill, who then revisits London, excuses himself to Elizabeth, and signs terms of agreement.—O'Neill returns to Ireland, and refuses to give his sureties until the government should fulfil its engagements.—Hugh Roe's first escape from Dublin Castle, and his recapture.—Fresh charges against Hugh O'Neill—He carries off and marries the sister of Marshal Bagnal.—Brian O'Rourke hanged in London.—Hugh Roe's second escape—Affecting incidents—His adventures and return to Tirconnell—Drives off an English party—His father's abdication, and his own election as chieftain—He assails Turlough Luineach, and compels him to resign the chieftaincy of Tyrone to Hugh O'Neill.—An English sheriff hunted out of Fermanagh.—Rebellion of Maguire—Enniskillen taken by the English—Irish victory at the Ford of the Biscuits, and recapture of Enniskillen.—Sir William Russell, lord deputy.—Hugh O'Neill visits Dublin—Bagnal's charges against him—Vindication of his policy.—Fiagh MacHugh O'Byrne and Walter Riavagh FitzGerald.—Arrival of Sir John Norris.—Hugh O'Neill rises in arms—Takes the Blackwater Fort.—Protracted negotiations.—War in Connaught successes of O'Donnell—Bingham foiled at Sligo, and retreats.—Differences between Norris and the deputy.—Bingham disgraced and recalled.—Fresh promises from Spain.—Interesting events in Connaught.—Proceedings of the Leinster insurgents.—Ormond appointed lord lieutenant.—Last truce with O'Neill.—Hostilities resumed in Ulster.—Desperate plight of the government.—Great Irish victory of the Yellow Ford.—Ormond repulsed in Leix.—War resumed in Munster, &c.

(A. D. 1587 TO A. D. 1599.)

**S**YMP TOMS of approaching storm were now (1587) visible in Ulster, where the exactions and oppression of the English sheriffs excited wide-spread disaffection. Turlough Luineach had become old and feeble, and enjoyed little influence in his sept. On the other hand, Hugh O'Neill, the son of Mathew, was daily advancing in power and popularity. Like Turlough, he had been hitherto distinguished for his loyalty. He had, as it were, an hereditary claim to the support of the English government; and in return he had given the aid of his sword, and had fought under the English standard in the Geraldine war; but his valor and military habits inspired his countrymen with confidence and respect; he was in the vigor of his age, and was looked to naturally as the successor to the chieftaincy of Tyrone. In the parliament of 1585 he took his seat as baron of Dungannon; and ere the proceedings had terminated, obtained the title of earl of Tyrone, in virtue of the grants made to his grandfather, Con Bacagh, and to his father, by Henry VIII.; but on the ques-



tion of the inheritance annexed to the earldom he was referred to the queen. He accordingly repaired to England, carrying the warmest recommendations from the lord deputy, Sir John Perrott, and he gained the good graces of Elizabeth so effectually, by his courtly manners, and his skill in flattering her vanity, that she sent him back with letters patent under the great seal, granting him the earldom and inheritance in the amplest manner. He was, however, required to define clearly the bounds of Tyrone; to set apart 240 acres on the banks of the Blackwater, for the erection of an English fort; to exercise no authority over the neighboring chieftains; and to make sufficient provision for the sons of Shane O'Neill and Turlough Luineach—Turlough himself continuing, for the remainder of his life, to enjoy the title of Irish chieftain of Tyrone, with right of superiority over Maguire and O'Cahane, or O'Kane. On his return Hugh was received with enthusiasm by his countrymen, and the confidence reposed in him by government was such that his proposal to keep up a standing force of six companies of well-trained soldiers, to preserve the peace of the north, was gladly accepted; a step which proved to be incautious on the part of the English authorities.

With such power thrown into his hands, both by Irish and English, and with all the traditions of his ancient race, and all the wrongs of his oppressed country before him, it was not to be

expected that Hugh O'Neill would quietly sink into the subservient minister of his country's foreign masters; or that he would stifle every impulse of hereditary ambition within him. Such a course would have been revolting to his aspiring nature. From time to time complaints reached government from minor chiefs, over whom Hugh soon began to extend his power. Turlough and the sons of Shane-an-Diomaïs, appealed against him. He kept up amicable relations with the Ulster Scots, and secured the friendship of the powerful and hitherto hostile sept of O'Cahane, by giving them the fosterage of his son. All these circumstances caused uneasiness to the government of the Pale, which had suffered a considerable diminution of strength by the withdrawal of a thousand soldiers from Ireland to serve the queen in the Low Countries, at the close of 1586. The chief of Tirconnell, hitherto steadfast in his allegiance, also exhibited a growing spirit of independence which was sufficiently alarming. There was an intimacy between him and Hugh O'Neill which boded no good for the English. The earl of Tyrone had married a daughter of Sir Hugh O'Donnell, and the families were drawn together by friendly ties. O'Donnell refused to admit an English sheriff into his territory, and the traffic carried on between his remote coasts and those of Spain established relations between the countries not at all satisfactory to the English authorities.



The course which the government adopted under these circumstances was as extraordinary as it was infamous. It was known that Hugh Roe, or the "red," the eldest son of Sir Hugh O'Donnell, was a youth of rare abilities and aspiring mind; and it was resolved that by some means the council should get possession of this boy as a hostage. To accomplish this openly would, however, require a large army, and rouse the northern chiefs to resistance, and Sir John Perrott proposed a plan by which such danger and expense would be avoided. How the act of treachery, which he suggested, is to be reconciled with his general character for partiality to the old Irish race, seems puzzling; but he may have thought that a plan which avoided bloodshed, though not the most honorable, was the most humane means of attaining the end that had been resolved on.

A vessel, laden with Spanish wines, was sent round from Dublin to the coast of Donegal, on the pretence of traffic, and of having come direct from Spain. The commander was one John Bermingham, a Dublin merchant, and the crew consisted of fifty armed men. The ship arrived with a favorable wind in Lough Swilly, and anchored opposite Rathmullen, a castle built by MacSweeny of Fanad, one of O'Donnell's commanders of gallowglasses; it being previously ascertained that Hugh Roe was not far off with his foster-father,

MacSweeny-na-tuath. A party of the sailors landed, and while they pretended to sell their wine they took care to explore the country. The neighboring people flocked to the shore; abundance of the liquor was distributed among them; and when Hugh Roe came to MacSweeny's castle, and his host sent to the ship for wine, it was answered that none remained for sale, but that if a few gentlemen came on board all that was left would be willingly given to them. The unsuspecting Irish chiefs fell into the snare. Hugh Roe, then scarcely fifteen years of age, with MacSweeny and his party, proceeded in a small boat to the ship, were ushered into the cabin, and served with wine, until they became, as the annalists tell us, "jolly and cheerful;" then their arms were stealthily removed, the hatches closed down, the cable cut, and the prize secured. An alarm was instantly raised, and the people crowded from all quarters to the beach, but the ship was in deep water, and there were no boats by which she could be attacked. Young Hugh's foster-father rushed to the shore, and offered any ransom, but none of course would be accepted. The guests who were not required were put ashore, and the ship sailed for Dublin, where the young scion of the house of O'Donnell was safely lodged in Bermingham tower, along with several other State prisoners of the Milesian and old English races already confined there.\*

\* Four Masters, who abstracted the account from the life of Hugh Roe O'Donnell, written by Cuchory, or Per-

egrine O'Clery, one of themselves, and preserved in the library of the Royal Irish Academy.



A. D. 1588.—Hugh, earl of Tyrone, led an army, at the close of April, against Turlough Luineach O'Neill, and encamped at Corricklea, between the rivers Finn and Mourne. Sir Hugh O'Donnell joined his son-in-law, the earl, while the family of Sir Hugh's brother, Calvagh, took the side of Turlough, who was also supported by auxiliaries from Connaught and by Hugh O'Gallagher. A battle, in which the earl was defeated, was fought between them on the first of May. In the mean time, the importunities of Sir John Perrott to be relieved from his charge in Ireland, were at length listened to. His enemies had become insupportable, and he was brow-beaten at the council-board by subordinates.\* On the 30th of June he was succeeded by Sir William FitzWilliam—a man of a cruel and sordid disposition, without any redeeming quality in his character,

who had already filled the office of lord justice more than once.

The preparations that had been making for some time in Spain, for a descent on the English coasts, had excited much of hope and of fear among the different classes of the population in this country. The abortive result is familiar to the world. Scattered by the winds of heaven, the "invincible armada" made this year memorable by the example which it afforded of one of man's proudest efforts collapsing into nothingness. Many of the ships were wrecked on the coast of Ireland in September, and their crews, too frequently, only escaped from the dangers of the deep to fall into the hands of the queen's officers, by whom they were executed without mercy.† The ruling passion of the new deputy was avarice, and unfortunately for the Spanish sailors, and for the Irish on whose shores they were

\* See in Ware's annals, under A. D. 1587, an account of an altercation between the lord deputy and Sir Nicholas Bagnal, the marshal; Perrott was in the habit of saying that he could please the Irish better than the English. Many of the former lamented his departure; and old Turlough Luineach, who accompanied him to the water's-side, wept in taking leave. See Ware.

† The loss of the Spanish armada, on the coast of Ireland, according to Thady Dowling, was 17 ships and 5,394 men—the numbers generally given by historians; but it appears from a document in the State-paper Office, London, signed by Geoffry Fenton, the Irish secretary of State, that the total numbers were 18 ships and 6,194 men, viz.:—in Lough Foyle, 1 ship and 1,100 men; in Sligo, 3 ships and 1,500 men; in Tirawley, 1 ship and 400 men; on Clare Island, 1 ship and 300 men; "in Fynglasse, O'Male's country," 1 ship and 400 men; in O'Flaherty's country, 1 ship and 200 men; in the Shannon, 2 ships and 600 men; at Tralee, 1 ship and 24 men; at Dingle, 1 ship and 500 men; in Desmond, 1 ship and 300 men; in Erris, 2 ships, no men lost, these being taken into other vessels; in "Shannan, 1 burnt,

none lost, because the men were likewise embarked in other shippes;" in "Gallway Haven, 1 ship which escaped and left prisoners, 70;" "drowned and sunk in the N. W. sea of Scotland, as appeareth by the confession of the Spanish prisoners (but in truth they were lost in Ireland), 1 shipp, called St. Mathew, 500 tons, men 450; one of Byshey of St. Sebastian's, 400 tons, men 350; total of shippes, 18: men 6,194."—(See *Four Masters*, vol. v., p. 1870, n.) "The Spaniards cast ashore at Galway," says Dr. Lynch, in the *Icon Antistititis*, "were doomed to perish; and the Augustinian friars, who served them as chaplains, exhorted them to meet the death-struggle bravely, when they were led out, south of the city, to St. Augustin's hill, then surmounted by a monastery where they were decapitated. The matrons of Galway piously prepared winding-sheets for the bodies, and we have heard that two of the Spanish sailors escaped destruction by lurking a long time in Galway, and afterwards got back to their own country."—*Pii Antis. Icon edited and translated by the Rev. C. P. Meehan*, p. 2 also p. 176.



cast away, rumor attributed to the former the possession of fabulous treasures. A thousand Spaniards, under an officer named Antonio de Léva, found refuge with O'Rourke and MacSweeny-na-tuath, the foster-father of young O'Donnell, and were urged to commence hostilities, but their instructions did not apply to such a contingency, and they determined on returning for orders to Spain. For this purpose they re-embarked, but a fresh storm arose and the ship, with all on board, went down within sight of the Irish coast. A commission was issued by FitzWilliam to search for the treasure which these Spaniards were supposed to have brought, but none, of course, could be found, and the deputy, not content with this result, resolved to visit the locality himself, "in hopes to finger some of it," as Ware tells us. He was accompanied by Bingham, and laid waste the territories of the Irish chiefs who had harbored the strangers. O'Rourke escaped to Scotland, but was delivered up to Elizabeth, and subsequently executed in London; and FitzWilliam, disappointed in his search for Spanish gold, carried off John Oge O'Doherty and Sir John Mac-Tuathal O'Gallagher, "two of the most loyal subjects in Ulster," and threw them into prison in Dublin castle. The latter died from the rigor of his imprisonment, and the former remained two years in captivity, and owed his liberation, in the end, to the payment of a large bribe to the corrupt viceroy.

A. D. 1589.—That the hatred and

distrust of the Irish towards the English government were kept alive by such oppressive acts as these cannot be a matter of wonder; but at every step, as we proceed, we meet similar outrages. A very remarkable and atrocious instance occurred this year. Rosa MacMahon, chief of Monaghan, having abandoned the principle of tanistry, and taken a re-grant of his territory from Elizabeth, by English tenure, died without issue male, and his brother, Hugh Roe MacMahon, went to Dublin to be settled in the inheritance as his heir-at-law. His case was perfectly legal, but he found that a bribe to the venal lord deputy was, nevertheless, necessary, and six hundred cows were the stipulated douceur. He was, however, thrown into prison because some of the cows, it was said, were not forthcoming; but, in a few days, all was made right, and FitzWilliam set out with him for Monaghan, to give him possession of his estate. The sequel would seem almost incredible. MacMahon was suddenly arrested on a charge of treason, because he had employed an armed force, two years before, to recover rents due to him in Farney; he was tried by a jury of common soldiers, some of whom being Irish were shut up without food until they agreed to a verdict, while the English soldiers on the jury were allowed free egress and ingress, as they had immediately agreed to convict him; and, in short, within two days from his unexpected arrest he was indicted, tried, and exe-



cuted at his own house. FitzWilliam's object in proceeding into the country was to get rid of the obstacles which the forms of law would have thrown in his way in Dublin; and he now hastened to partition the vast estates of the murdered chieftain. Sir Henry Bagnal, who was wading to enormous Irish possessions through the blood of their owners, received a portion. This man was established at Newry, and had succeeded his father, Sir Nicholas, as marshal. MacMahon's chief residence and some lands were bestowed upon Captain Henslowe, who was appointed seneschal; and the bulk of the property was, on payment of "a good fine underhand" to the lord deputy, divided among four of the MacMahon sept, subject to an annual rent to the queen.\* The northern chieftains must have been devoid of human feelings if such proceedings did not confirm them in their aversion to English rule; nor can we be surprised that they were unanimous in refusing to admit English sheriffs, or other officials, into their lands, or that such officers, when forced upon them, required the constant presence of strong guards to protect them.†

A. D. 1590.—Hugh Geimhleach, *i. e.*, Hugh-of-the-fetters, an illegitimate son of Shane-an-diomais, communicated to

the lord deputy charges of treason against the earl of Tyrone, alleging among other things, that he had plotted with the shipwrecked Spaniards to obtain help from the king of Spain to levy war against the queen. The earl denied the charges, and soon after contrived to seize his accuser, whom he hanged as a traitor, after some form of trial. The respect for the memory of Shane O'Neill was such that, it is said, no man in Tyrone would act as the executioner of his son, and the earl had to procure one from Meath, though Camden maliciously asserts that the earl himself acted as the hangman. This proceeding exasperated the government, and Hugh having no confidence in the officials of the Pale, set out for England in May, in order to vindicate himself before Elizabeth. This step, however, was itself illegal, as he left Ireland without the licence of the viceroy, and he was accordingly cast into prison in London, but his incarceration was neither long nor rigorous, and in the following month his submission was graciously received, and articles by which he bound himself anew to his former engagements were signed by him. He renounced the title of O'Neill; consented that Tyrone should be made shire-ground; that gaols should be

\* So far we take the facts from Camden and Fynes Moryson, but the infamy of FitzWilliam is still more apparent from the State Papers, where that monster's own correspondence with Burghley shows that he was in treaty with one Brian MacHugh Oge MacMahon, to get him appointed to the chieftaincy for enormous bribes, which he calls God to witness "he meant for the profit

of her majesty, and not his own!"—See Shirley's *Account of Farney*, pp. 88 to 98.

† When Maguire received notice from the viceroy that a sheriff would be sent into Fermanagh, he answered significantly:—"Your sheriff will be welcome, but let me know his errand, that, if my people cut off his head, I may levy it upon the country."



erected there; that a composition similar to that agreed on in Connaught, in 1577, should be paid within ten months; that he should levy no armed force, or make any incursion into a neighboring territory except to follow a prey within five days after the capture of such prey from his own lands, or to prevent depredations from without. He undertook to execute no man without a commission from the lord deputy, except in cases of martial law, and to keep his troop of horsemen in the queen's pay ready for service. Further, he promised not to admit monks or friars into his territory; nor to correspond with foreign traitors; to promote the use of English apparel; to sell provisions to the fort of the Blackwater, &c. For the fulfilment of these conditions he pledged his honor, and promised to send unexceptionable sureties, who were, however, not to be detained as prisoners in Dublin castle, but to be committed to the care of merchants in the city, or of gentlemen of the Pale. The sureties might also be changed every three months. Government, on the other side, engaged to secure the earl from all molestation, by requiring similar conditions from the neighboring chieftains; and Hugh, on returning to Ireland, confirmed the above articles before the lord deputy and council; but very prudently excused himself from the execution of them until the neighboring Irish lords had given securities to fulfil the conditions on their part, as it was stipulated they should be obliged to do.

Camden tells us that for some time the earl omitted nothing that could be expected from a most dutiful subject.

Hugh Roe O'Donnell had now pinea for three years and three months in captivity, when, in concert with some of his fellow prisoners, he resolved on a desperate effort to escape. On a dark evening towards the close of winter, he and his chosen companions let themselves down by a rope from one of the windows of Dublin castle, crossed the drawbridge, and passed through the city gate unobserved. They fled towards Slieve Rua, or the Three-Rock mountain, which they crossed; but young O'Donnell became too fatigued to advance another step. His shoes were worn out, and his feet torn by the brambles in the rugged pathways which they had selected; and sinking down quite exhausted, he lay concealed in a wood while his companions reluctantly departed. One of these was Art Kavanagh, who was recaptured the following year and hung at Carlow. A faithful servant, who had been in the secret of Hugh's escape, still remained with him, and repaired for succor to the house of Felim O'Toole, chief of Feara Cualann, who resided in the place now called Powerscourt, and who had visited Hugh in prison. In the mean time, the flight of the prisoners had created great excitement in Dublin, and numerous bands were dispatched in pursuit of them. Felim O'Toole would have willingly protected young O'Donnell, but his friends persuaded





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REMEMBER THE GLORIES OF ERIN THE BRAVE.







him that the attempt would be useless to the latter, and disastrous to himself and family; and finding that the soldiers were approaching, they went in search of the fugitive in the woods, and made a merit of giving him up to his pursuers. Thus was Red Hugh consigned once more to the dungeons of Dublin castle, to be guarded more strictly than before.

A.D. 1591.—During this time many acts of the earl of Tyrone tended to place him in an equivocal position with the government, and enemies were not wanting to urge every charge that could be made against him. He was accused of having attacked and wounded Turlough Luineach; but he replied that the latter was the aggressor, and had been making an inroad into his lands at the time he was hurt. The earl permitted Tyrone to be marked out as shire land, and Dungannon to be made the county town in which criminals were to be imprisoned and tried; and the government was so pleased with this concession, that it would have overlooked a more serious charge on the occasion.

The earl, however, now involved himself in a proceeding which raised up for him the bitterest enemy of all. We have already made some mention of the marshal, Sir Henry Bernal. This man hated the Irish with a rancor which bad men are known to feel towards those whom they have mortally injured. He had shed a great deal of their blood, obtained a great deal of

their lands, and was the sworn enemy of the whole race. Sir Henry had a sister who was young and exceedingly beautiful. The wife of the earl of Tyrone, the daughter of Sir Hugh MacManus O'Donnell, had died, and the heart of the Irish chieftain was captivated by the beautiful English girl. His love was reciprocated, and he became in due form a suitor for her hand, but all his efforts to gain her brother's consent to their marriage were in vain. The story, indeed, is one which might seem to have been borrowed from some old romance, if we did not find it circumstantially detailed in the matter-of-fact documents of the State Paper Office. The Irish prince and the English maiden mutually plighted their vows, and O'Neill presented to the lady a gold chain worth £100; but the inexorable Sir Henry removed his sister from Newry to the house of Sir Patrick Barnwell, who was married to another of his sisters, and who lived about several miles from Dublin. Thither the earl followed her. He was courteously received by Sir Patrick, and seems to have had many friends among the English. One of these, a gentleman named William Warren, acted as his confidant, and at a party at Barnwell's house, the earl engaged the rest of the company in conversation while Warren rode off with the lady behind him, accompanied by two servants, and carried her safely to the residence of a friend at Drumcondra, near Dublin. Here O'Neill soon followed, and the Protestant bish-



op of Meath, Thomas Jones, a Lancashire man, was easily induced to come and unite them in marriage the same evening. This elopement and marriage, which took place on the 3d of August, 1591, were made the subject of violent accusations against O'Neill. Sir Henry Bagnal was furious. "I cannot but accurse myself and fortune," he wrote to the lord treasurer, "that my bloude, which, in my father and myselfe hath often beene spilled in repressinge this rebellious race, should nowe be mingled with so traiterous a stocke and kindred." He charged the earl with having another wife living; but this point was explained, as O'Neill showed that this lady who was his first wife, the daughter of Sir Brian MacFelim O'Neill, had been divorced previous to his marriage with the daughter of O'Donnell. Altogether, the government would appear to have viewed the conduct of O'Neill in this matter rather leniently; but Bagnal was henceforth his most implacable foe, and the circumstance was not without its influence on succeeding events.\*

\* The countess of Tyrone died in January, 1596, some years before the last scene of deadly strife between her brother and her husband.

† This Irish chieftain was famous for his personal beauty as well as for his firmness and haughty bearing. He could not understand English, and refused to plead before an English tribunal; but when told that the court would try him and condemn him whether he pleaded or not, he merely said, "if it must be, let it be." Miler Magrath, the apostate friar who had been made archbishop of Cashel, was sent to him just before his execution, to induce him to conform; but the heroic chieftain told Magrath rather to learn a lesson from his fortitude, and return to the bosom of the Church. Lord

A perpetual recurrence of outrages against the northern chieftains served effectually to prepare the way for the crisis which was now fast approaching in their province. This year Brian-na-Murtha O'Rourke, whose flight to Scotland we have already mentioned, was put to death in London, under circumstances that excited deep sympathy for him. The principal charge against him was, that he had sheltered some of the shipwrecked Spaniards, and refused to surrender them to government. He was given up by the Scots, and being taken to London, was tried, condemned, and executed.†

A.D. 1592—Once more Hugh O'Donnell shook off his fetters, and in a dark night of Christmas escaped for the second time, from the dungeons of Dublin castle. Henry and Art O'Neill, sons of Shane-an-diomais, were companions of his flight, and it was said that the lord deputy, FitzWilliam, winked at their escape, being bribed by the earl of Tyrone, who wished to get the sons of Shane into his own hands, as the English might at any moment have set them

Bacon says that O'Rourke "gravely petitioned the queen that he might be hanged with a gad or withe, after his own country fashion, which doubtless was readily granted him." Walker in his *Irish Bards*, and Hardiman in his *Irish Minstrelsy*, mention an extraordinary interview between Queen Elizabeth and O'Rourke, but the story appears to rest on no solid foundation. Dr. O'Donovan (*Four Masters*, vol. vi., p. 1907, note) says "the family of O'Rourke seems to have been the proudest and most inflexible of all the Irish race," and adduces the example of this chieftain's father, of whom Sir Henry Sidney said:—"I found hym the proudest man that ever I dealt with in Ireland."



up as rivals against him.\* They descended by a rope through the privy, which opened into the castle ditch; and leaving there their soiled outer garments, they were conducted by a young man named Turlough Roe O'Hagan, the confidential servant or emissary of the earl of Tyrone, who was sent to act as their guide. Passing through the gates of the city, which were still open, three of the party reached the same Slieve Rua which Hugh had visited on the former occasion. The fourth, Henry O'Neill, strayed from his companions in some way—probably before they left the city—but eventually he reached Tyrone, where the earl seized and imprisoned him. Hugh Roe and Art O'Neill, with their faithful guide, proceeded on their way over the Wicklow mountains towards Glenmalure, to Fiagh MacHugh O'Byrne, a chief famous for his heroism, and who was then in arms against the government. Art O'Neill had grown corpulent in prison, and had besides been hurt in descending from the castle, so that he became quite worn out with fatigue. The party were also exhausted with hunger, and as the snow fell thickly, and their clothing was very scanty, they suffered additionally from intense cold.

For a while Red Hugh and the servant supported Art between them; but this exertion could not long be sustained,

and at length Red Hugh and Art lay down exhausted under a lofty rock, and sent the servant to Glenmalure for help. With all possible speed Fiagh O'Byrne, on receiving the message, dispatched some of his trusty men to carry the necessary succor; but they arrived almost too late at the precipice under which the two youths lay. "Their bodies," say the Four Masters, "were covered with white-bordered shrouds of hailstones freezing round them, and their light clothes adhered to their skin, so that, covered as they were with the snow, it did not appear to the men who had arrived that they were human beings at all, for they found no life in their members, but just as if they were dead." On being raised up Art O'Neill fell back and expired, and was buried on the spot; but Red Hugh was revived with some difficulty and carried to Glenmalure, where he was secreted in a sequestered cabin and attended by a physician. Here he remained until a messenger came from the earl of Tyrone, with whom he departed, though still in such a state that it was necessary to lift him on and off his horse. Fiagh sent an armed troop to escort him to the Liffey, which he crossed near Dublin, although all the fords were guarded by English soldiers, and among his escort were Felim O'Toole and his brother, who did their best to make amends for

\* Camden and Fynes Moryson, who confound the two escapes of Hugh Roe, intimate that the connivance of the corrupt lord deputy was obtained by a bribe, of which, however, Hugh Roe himself and his biographer were

wholly "ignorant. If the corruption did not exist in both cases, it did at least in that of the second escape, when an object of importance to the earl of Tyrone was effected.



their inability to shelter him in his former flight. Hugh crossed the Boyne in a boat, while the servant conveyed the horses through the town, and at Mellifont abbey they reposed for a day and a night at the house of an English friend of the earl of Tyrone. At Dundalk they rode fearlessly through the town, thus disarming the suspicion of those who were watching for them along the borders of the Pale. On entering the Fews they halted for a day at the house of the chief, Sir Turlough, son of Henry O'Neill; thence they crossed Slieve Fuaid to Armagh, where they remained for a night in disguise, and the following day found them at Dunganon, where Red Hugh was hospitably received by the earl of Tyrone. Ultimately, young O'Donnell arrived in safety at his father's castle in Ballyshannon, where he found the country overawed and plundered by a party of 200 English, who, under captains Willis and Conwell, occupied the monastery of Donegal, and had also fortified themselves in a place now called Ballyweel. A large assemblage of people having collected to greet Red Hugh on his arrival, he invited them to march with him to Donegal, and there intimated to the English that they should leave—but might depart in safety, provided they left behind any prisoners or cattle they had seized in the neighborhood. Our annalists tell us that “they did as they were ordered, and thankful that they escaped with their lives, they went back to Connaught,” while the friars

returned to their monastery in Donegal. Red Hugh still suffered from the effects of the frost of the Wicklow mountains, and the physicians finding it necessary to amputate the great toes of both his feet, he remained at Ballyshannon under their care from the 1st of February until April. A general meeting of the Kinel Connel was then summoned, and all having met except the partisans of Calvagh O'Donnell's family, Sir Hugh abdicated the chieftaincy, which was then conferred amid the acclamations of the meeting on his son, Red Hugh. The young chieftain was inaugurated on the 3d of May, and according to the ancient usage, proceeded at once to make a hostile incursion. He entered the lands of Sir Turlough Luineach, which he laid waste; and this old chief having applied for the aid of some English soldiers, Red Hugh paid him another visit, and drove his adherents to seek an asylum in the castle of O'Kane of Glengiveen, where, being under the protection of a friendly chief, he would not molest them. Soon after, he besieged Sir Turlough and his Englishmen in the castle of Strabane, and burned the town up to the walls of the fortress; but as these proceedings amounted to an open defiance of English authority, his friend, the earl of Tyrone, feared that a premature and fruitless war would be the result, and brought about a meeting between Hugh Roe and the lord deputy at Dundalk, so arranging matters that the former obtained a full



pardon for all that was passed, including his escape from Dublin castle. This recognition of Hugh Roe's chieftaincy by the government induced the adherents of Calvagh O'Donnell's sons to admit him as their chief, so that his power at home was considerably augmented.\*

A. D. 1593.—O'Donnell collected another army, this year, at Lifford, and under his influence Turlough Luineach surrendered the chieftaincy of Tyrone to Hugh O'Neill, who now became the O'Neill, as well as earl of Tyrone; and Turlough further consented to dismiss his English guard, so that Ulster was left, once more, subject only to its ancient Irish dynasts, O'Neill and O'Donnell. This took place in May, but in the same month serious disturbances broke out in Breffny and Fermanagh. George Bingham, the brother of Sir Richard, entered the former district, with an armed force, to distrain for rents claimed for the queen. Brian Oge O'Rourke asserted that no rents were unpaid except for lands lying waste, and which ought not to be rated. Bingham, nevertheless, seized the cattle of O'Rourke, and the latter took up arms, and marching to

Ballymote, where Bingham resided, retaliated by acts of plunder. O'Rourke's neighbor, Hugh Maguire, was next provoked into hostilities. He had purchased exemption from the presence of an English sheriff, during FitzWilliam's administration, by a bribe of three hundred cows, which he had given that deputy; yet Captain Willis—the same whom young O'Donnell had ignominiously driven from Donegal—was appointed sheriff of Fermanagh, and went about the country with one hundred armed men, and as many women and children, who were all supported on the spoils of the district. Maguire hunted Willis and his retinue into a church, where he would assuredly have put them to the sword had not Hugh O'Neill interfered, and saved their lives on condition that they immediately quitted the country. The lord deputy was enraged because O'Neill did not punish Maguire, and he even called him a traitor; and O'Neill's mortal enemy, Marshal Bagnal, seized the opportunity to forward fresh impeachments against him.

Meanwhile Maguire joined O'Rourke in open rebellion. At that moment

\* Under this year (1592) Ware tells us that "eleven priests and jesuits were seized in Connaught and Munster, and brought up to Dublin, where they were examined before the lord deputy." The usual charge against "popish priests" at that time was, "that they sowed sedition and rebellion in the kingdom;" and among the witnesses against them in the present instance was one James Raily, or Reily, who swore that "Michael Fitzsimons, one of the said priests, stirred up above a hundred persons, amongst whom he himself was one, to assist Baltinglass in his rebellion." The witness—a true type of his class—said he was sure he

would be murdered if he went back to Connaught; and being asked by the lord deputy "if he would go to church and serve her majesty against the rebels," he answered, "Then truly I will forsake the devil and serve God and the queen." Whereupon the lord deputy clothed him, and made him turnkey of the prison of Dublin castle. Father Fitzsimons, who was the son of an alderman of Dublin, was executed in the corn market, but Ware does not mention the fate of the other priests. A great many of the Catholic clergy were, however, at that time pining in the government prisons, where they were left to die.



Edward MacGauran, who had been appointed by the pope archbishop of Armagh, returned to Ireland as the bearer of promises from the king of Spain to the Irish Catholics. A reward was offered by the deputy for his apprehension, but the primate repaired to Maguire, whom he encouraged by his exhortations, and accompanied in an incursion into Northern Connaught, against Sir Richard Bingham. They had proceeded as far as Tulsk, in Roscommon, when they unexpectedly encountered the forces of the president, whom they put to flight, slaying one of the English officers, Sir William Clifford; but, unhappily, Archbishop MacGauran and the abbot, Cathal Maguire, were killed, on the Irish side, while ministering to the wounded. The lord deputy now collected all the troops of the Pale, and marched into Fermanagh, where he was joined by the earl of Tyrone and Marshal Bagnal. To the latter he committed the chief command, and, at the same time, Sir Richard Bingham and the earl of Thomond approached from Connaught. For Maguire to attempt resisting such an overwhelming force was madness; yet, having sent his cattle into Tirconnell, he defended, with great bravery, a ford on the river Erne, to the west of Bal-leek, and lost two hundred of his men before the passage was forced. The earl of Tyrone, who crossed the river at the head of the cavalry, was wounded in the thigh, in the conflict; and O'Sullivan Beare tells us that Red

Hugh O'Donnell was marching to the aid of Maguire, and would have attacked the English the night after the battle of the ford, had not O'Neill privately requested him to refrain from doing so while he was in their ranks. O'Neill wished to abide his time, but was heartily disgusted with the part which circumstances, for the moment, obliged him to play. The campaign led to no result except the raising up of Conor Oge Maguire, in opposition to the legitimate chief of Fermanagh, according to the old policy of England, which would rule Ireland by the divisions of her people.

A. D. 1594.—The lord deputy again came to Fermanagh this year, took the town of Enniskillen, and having placed an English garrison there, returned to Dublin; but scarcely had he departed when Maguire appealed to O'Donnell, who, throwing off all semblance of allegiance, led an army to the aid of his friend, besieged the English garrison in Enniskillen, and plundered all who lived under English jurisdiction in the surrounding territory. The lord deputy ordered the gentlemen of the Pale, with O'Reilly and Bingham, to revictual the fort of Enniskillen, where the garrison had already begun to suffer severely from hunger; and the force collected for this purpose was placed under the command of Sir Edward Herbert, Sir Henry Duke, and George Bingham. Maguire, with such men as had been left with him by O'Donnell, and Cormac O'Neill, brother of the earl of



Tyrone,\* set out to intercept them, and encountered them at a ford about five miles from the town, where he routed them with the slaughter, according to O'Sullivan, of four hundred of their men. All the provisions intended for the beleaguered fortress were taken, so that the place was called Bel-atha-na-mBriosgadh, or, the "ford of the biscuits,"† and as soon as the news of the defeat reached Enniskillen the garrison capitulated, and were suffered, by Maguire, to depart in safety.

The victorious Irish left a sufficient garrison at Enniskillen, and marched into Northern Connaught, where Sir Richard Bingham exercised intolerable oppression. They laid waste all the English settlements, and slew every man from the age of fifteen to sixty whom they found who could not speak Irish, so that no Englishman remained in the country, except in a few fortified towns and castles; and O'Sullivan tells us that the severity of the Irish on this occasion was in retaliation for the truculence of the English, who hurled old men, women, and children from the bridge of Enniskillen, when it fell into their power.

On the 11th of August, this year, a new lord deputy was sworn into office, Sir William Russell, youngest son of the earl of Bedford, having been sent over to replace Sir William FitzWilliam, of whose qualities, as a man or a governor, the reader must have formed a low estimate.

The earl of Tyrone, whose loyalty had, of late, become more dubious than ever, made his appearance, unexpectedly, in Dublin, a few weeks after the instalment of the new deputy. He complained of the unworthy suspicions entertained against him; and in vindication of himself, appealed to the many services which he had rendered to the government, more especially to that which he had so lately performed against Maguire, and in which he had received a serious wound. It is thought that the lord deputy was inclined to receive his justification, but his old enemy, Bagnal, renewed his charges of high treason, with more energy than ever, against him. He asserted that O'Neill had entertained the late archbishop MacGauran, knowing him to be a traitor; that he corresponded with O'Donnell while the latter was levying war

\* O'Sullivan tells us that O'Donnell, on hearing that a force was about to march to relieve Enniskillen, sent word to O'Neill that he would regard him as an enemy unless he lent his aid at such a juncture. Tyrone was convinced that a rebellion at that moment, before the appearance of the expected aid from Spain, would rashly peril the Catholic cause; yet, he also knew that he gained little by holding aloof himself, as he was already an object of suspicion to the English government. He was perplexed how to act, but the matter seems to have been compromised by the departure of his brother, Cormac, with a contingent of one hundred horse and three hundred

disciplined musketeers, to join Maguire, at the same time that it did not publicly appear whether they were sent by O'Neill or went spontaneously. (*Hist. Cath.*, p. 166.) O'Sullivan, who gives a spirited description of the battle at the ford, says the army sent to relieve Enniskillen comprised four hundred horse and over two thousand foot; whereas Cox makes it only forty-six horse and six hundred foot.

† This name is now obsolete, but the tradition of the site of the battle is still preserved. It was fought where Drumane bridge, on the river Arney, now stands.—*Four Masters*, p. 1592, note.



against the queen; that, being allowed to keep six companies in the queen's service, he had contrived, by constantly changing them, to discipline to arms all the men in Tyrone; and that, under the pretence of building a castle for himself, in the English fashion, he had purchased a large quantity of lead, which he kept stored up at Dungannon, as material for bullets.

O'Neill's attempt to vindicate himself on this occasion, was a last alternative to avoid rebellion. English writers, and those who adopt their views, constantly accuse him of dissimulation and duplicity; yet the conduct to which these opprobrious terms are applied, would appear to have been, in him, only the result of sound policy and prudence. He must, at all times, have resented the oppression of his country by the English. The English rulers of Ireland were still regarded as strangers and invaders; while he, the representative of a long line of Irish kings, continued to preserve a remnant of hereditary independence which must have rendered him an object of hatred and suspicion to the foreign government. Sooner or later that vestige of ancient Irish royalty should be extinguished, and his own personal enemy, marshal Bagnal, was the man whose mission it was to work out that end. At the same time that O'Neill knew all this, the wisdom and depth of mind for which he was so remarkable, taught

him the futility of waging war against England in the old-fashioned piecemeal style. He knew that the aid of foreign Catholic powers was indispensable, and that a favorable opportunity should be awaited; and hence, while he would promote a spirit of nationality among the neighboring chiefs, he discouraged the rashness which would plunge the country into a premature civil war. It was not duplicity, but common prudence, therefore, which prevented him from hastily flying to arms; and not only does it seem certain that when he entered the field against the government, he was goaded into that course by insults and injustice, but it cannot be positively asserted that he would not have lived all his life in passive submission to the English crown had he not been ultimately driven to resistance. He foresaw this contingency from a distance, and was prepared for it; and, if he was slow in rising, he, at least, approached nearer than any other Irishman to the liberation of his country from a foreign yoke.

Tyrone despised the malignity of Bagnal, and offered to prove the injustice of his charges by the ordeal of single combat; but his enemy added cowardice to his malice, and declined. The council deliberated whether they should seize the earl while he was in their power, but some of the members were friendly to him, and he was permitted to depart in safety.\*

\* Captain Thomas Lee, who at this very time was writing the "memorial" which he addressed to Queen

Elizabeth, and who was intimately acquainted with the characters of all the parties concerned, says:— He



A. D. 1595.—Sir William Russell's first exploit was an attack upon Fiagh MacHugh O'Byrne, who was called "the firebrand of the mountains," and whose castle of Ballinacor (Baile-na-cuirre), in Glenmalure, he took by surprise in January. Fiagh, however, escaped with his family, having been alarmed by the accidental sound of a drum, just as the deputy's troops reached the outer rampart. Walter Riavagh, or the swarthy, one of the Kildare Geraldines, was goaded into rebellion, and joined Fiagh; and scarcely had Russell returned to Dublin from Ballinacor, where he placed an English garrison, when Walter made a nocturnal excursion to the vicinity of the metropolis, and burned the suburb-

an village of Crumlin, carrying off the leaden roof of the church to make bullets, while the garrison of Dublin witnessed the conflagration without being able to render any assistance. This happened on the 30th of January, and in the following April he was taken treacherously and executed in Dublin.\*

The Irish had been goaded by oppressions under which human nature could not long writhe without resistance; and disaffection had become so general, especially in Ulster and Connaught, that there could be no longer any doubt that a great civil war was imminent. The lord deputy solicited reinforcements from England, and it was resolved that Sir John Norris, or Norreys, an officer of great experience

(O'Neill) will, if it so stand with your majesty's pleasure, offer himself to the marshal, who hath been the chiefest instrument against him, to prove with his sword that he hath most wrongfully accused him; and because it is no conquest for him to overthrow a man ever held in the world to be of most cowardly behavior, he will, in defence of his innocency, allow his adversary to come armed against him naked, to encourage him the rather to accept of his challenge."—See the *Desiderat. Cur. Hib.*, vol. ii., pp. 91., &c.; and appendix to Curry's *Review*. Camden, in his character of Hugh O'Neill, gives him credit for "great physical powers of endurance, indefatigable industry, mental qualities suited to the greatest undertakings, great military knowledge, and a profound depth of mind to dissemble (*ad simulandum*)."  
*Annales*, an. 1590, p. 572, ed. of 1639. Dr. O'Donovan, in his notes to the *Four Masters*, (vol. vi., p. 1888,) says of this most remarkable man:—"Whether this earl, Hugh, was an O'Neill or not—and the editor feels satisfied that Shane-an-diomais proved in England that he was not—he was the cleverest man that ever bore that name. The O'Kellys of Bregia, of whom this Hugh must have been (if he were not of the blood of the O'Neills), were descended from Hugh Slaine, monarch of Ireland from 599 till 605. Connell Mageoghegan says that there reigned, of King Hugh Slaine's race, as monarchs of this kingdom, nine kings . . . . . we may, therefore, well believe that the blood of Hugh Slaine, which was

brought so low in the grandfather, found its level in the military genius and towering ambition of Hugh, earl of Tyrone."

\* O'Sullivan, in his *History of the Irish Catholics*, (p. 162, ed. of 1850,) gives an interesting account of the fate of this Walter Reagh, or Riavagh. One Peter Fitzgerald, who had become a Protestant, and who was in the employment of the government, was his great enemy, and attacked his house of Gloran. Walter, soon after, with Terence, Felim, and Raymond O'Byrne, the sons of Fiagh, attacked Peter's castle, and setting it on fire, burned it with its inmates. This, according to O'Sullivan, was the beginning of Walter's rebellion. Subsequently he was besieged in his castle by the English, and his brothers, Gerald and James, slain, some say hanged, when he cut his way through the enemy and escaped. Not long after he was wounded in a conflict with a party who were in pursuit of him, but was carried off by a companion named George O'More, who secreted him in a cavern, where he was betrayed by his attendant, and, being conveyed to Dublin, was impaled—other accounts say hanged and quartered, or hanged in chains. Terence O'Byrne was, some time after, delivered to the English by his own father, Fiagh, who was wrongfully persuaded that he had formed a plot to betray him. O'Sullivan says that Terence was executed in Dublin, after being offered his life if he changed his religion.



and celebrity, and whose brother, Sir Thomas, was president of Munster, should be sent over as lord general with 2,000 veteran troops who had distinguished themselves in Brittany, together with 1,000 men of a fresh levy. The earl of Tyrone now thought it high time to declare himself. He found himself already treated as an enemy by the government on the one side, while on the other his countrymen could bear their galling yoke no longer. He accordingly seized the fort of the Blackwater, commanding the passage into his own territory, while O'Donnell, who had never faltered in his hostility to England, and burned to avenge his own and his country's wrongs, made incursions, in March and April, into Connaught and Annally O'Farrell, to plunder the recent English settlements there, and to burn and destroy their castles. These movements Red Hugh executed with such rapidity that he escaped any serious collision with the English forces.

As soon as Sir John Norris and his troops arrived, an expedition to the north was prepared, and O'Neill relinquished the Blackwater fort, after destroying the works and burning the

town of Dungannon, including his own house. Our annalists say that the English army marched beyond Armagh until they came in view of the intrenched camp of the Irish, when they returned to Armagh, where they placed a strong garrison in the cathedral, and strengthened the fortifications; and that Sir William Russell having then committed the command to Norris returned to Dublin, where he proclaimed O'Neill a traitor by the name of Hugh O'Neill, son of Mathew Ferdarough, or the blacksmith.\*

O'Donnell, in the mean time, obtained in the west many successes, which raised the confidence of the Irish. The castle of Sligo was given up to him by Ulick Burke, who had held it for the English, and who took this important step after slaying George Bingham in a private fray;† the people of Northern Connaught who had been dispossessed of their lands by Bingham and his myrmidons, returned to their patrimonies; six hundred Scots arrived in Lough Foyle, under MacLeod of Ara, and entered into O'Donnell's service, and with these he scoured Connaught as far as Tuam and Dunmore, returning into Donegal through Costello and Sligo,

\* There are some important circumstances connected with these first movements in the north. The Four Masters state that O'Neill had invited O'Donnell to join him, and that they marched to Faughard, near Dundalk, to have a parley with the deputy, who, however, did not come; while from the English accounts it would appear that O'Neill had written letters both to Russell and to Norris, proposing to meet and confer with them on the occasion, but that the letters were intercepted by Baginbun. Thus the lord deputy proclaimed O'Neill a traitor, in ignorance of the overtures which the latter had made.

† George Bingham manned and armed a ship, with which he pillaged the coast of Tirconnell, plundering the Carmelite monastery of the Blessed Virgin, at Rathmullen, and the church of St. Columbkille, on Tory island; but on his return from the expedition, an altercation took place between him and Ulick Burke, son of Redmond-na-Scuab, who was in charge of the fortress of Sligo, relative to the share of the spoils to which the Irish section of the crew were entitled, and Burke having slain his antagonist, gave up the castle to Red Hugh O'Donnell.—*Four Masters*.



and thus avoiding Bingham, who thought to intercept him in the Curliou mountains. Sir Richard, who was accompanied by the earls of Thomond and Clanrickard, with their contingents, followed Red Hugh as far as Sligo, and laid siege to the castle, which was bravely defended by O'Donnell's garrison. He attempted to sap the walls under cover of a testudo or penthouse, constructed of the timber taken from a neighboring monastery; but the warders hurled down rocks and fired upon them from the battlements, destroying their machinery, and compelling them to raise the siege and depart. O'Donnell then demolished the castle, that it might not fall at a future time into the hands of the English, dismissed his Scottish mercenaries, and returned home.

An attempt made by Sir John Norris and his brother, to revictual Armagh, was defeated by O'Neill. Both Norrises were wounded and obliged to retreat to Newry; but they succeeded soon after in throwing relief into Monaghan, where an English garrison had fortified themselves in the monastery. In the return march from Monaghan, the royal troops were attacked at Clontibret, and a desperate fight

took place, in which several of the English were slain, and the remainder escaped with difficulty to Newry, from which town a party had come to succor them.\*

O'Neill had hitherto acted chiefly on the defensive, and when commissioners were appointed by the queen to treat with the confederated chiefs, he entered into the negotiations with alacrity. The commissioners were the treasurer, Wallop, and Chief-justice Gardiner, with whom the northern leaders conferred in an open field near Dundalk. The Irish chiefs made such representations of their grievances, that the commissioners confessed some of them were reasonable enough, but said these should be referred to the queen; and the confederates having no confidence in the English government, and being now taught reliance on themselves, broke off the conference. This occurred in July, and unless some of the incidents already noticed took place subsequent to that date, Hugh O'Neill remained inactive during the rest of the year;† but on the death of Turlough Luineach, in the course of the summer, he assumed the Irish title of the O'Neill in addition to the English one of earl of Tyrone.

\* O'Sullivan Beare (*Hist. Cath.*, tom 3, lib. 3, c. ii.) gives a detailed account of this battle at Clontibret, in the course of which James Segrave (Sedgreius) of Meath encountered O'Neill in single combat. Segrave was a man of great stature and strength, and the lances of both combatants having been shattered, he trusted to his enormous physical power, and grasping O'Neill by the neck, pulled him from his horse. Both fell to the ground and rolled over and over in the deadly struggle; but O'Neill contrived to seize his dagger, which he

plunged into the abdomen of his antagonist, and thus ended a combat of which both armies stood spectators.

† There is some discrepancy in the dates of these events; for while the Irish accounts place the affair of Clontibret in May, the English fix the revictualling of Armagh and Monaghan in the beginning of September, and therefore, after the first attempt (in July) to come to terms with the confederates. (See Wright's *History of Ireland*.)



O'Donnell returned to Connaught in December, and appeared to exercise regal powers in that province. He determined some disputed titles to chieftaincy, conferring that of the O'Dowda on Tiege, the legitimate heir, and formally inaugurating Theobald Burke, son of Walter Kittagh, as the MacWilliam.\* He destroyed thirteen castles on this occasion, and returned in triumph to Tirconnell. All the Irish of northern and eastern Connaught had joined in the insurrection; and the hostages of the province having, in August this year, broken from their prison in Galway, after drinking some wine, were all either shot by their guard, who stopped them at the west bridge in that town, or taken and hanged by Bingham.†

A. D. 1596.—Differences had long prevailed between the lord general, Norris, and the lord deputy, Russell. "The former," says Leland, "had judgment and equity to discern that the hostilities of the Irish had been provoked by several instances of wanton insolence

\* This Theobald, whose father, Walter Kittagh or the "left-handed," was the son of the MacWilliam who defeated Sir Edward Fitton at the battle of Shrute in 1750, was, according to the pedigree in Archdall's *Lodge*, vol. iii., pp. 414, &c., the representative of the eldest branch of the MacWilliam Iochtar, or Lower Burkes. In 1595, he took the castle of Belleck, near Ballina, from Bingham's garrison, and routed a body of troops sent to relieve it. His opponent in the claim to the chieftaincy was another Theobald Burke, better known as Tioboit-na-Long, of whom presently. It may be observed here that Lodge incorrectly writes the title of the lower or northern MacWilliams *Oughter* instead of *Iochtar*, and that of the upper or southern branch, *Eighter* instead of *Uachtar*, and that the mistake has crept into many works on Irish history.

and oppression." The deputy, who was jealous of the fame of Norris, adopted opposite views, and insisted on a "rigorous persecution of the rebels." The opinions of Norris became popular in England, and a commission was issued to him and Sir Geoffrey Fenton to treat with the confederates. Terms of submission were agreed on, and promises of pardon given; but our annalists tell us that the Irish did not regard this arrangement of differences as conclusive. O'Neill's first demand was for religious liberty, and this would not be conceded. Norris, who had remained inactive during the winter, took the opportunity, however, to withdraw his troops from Ulster, and marched to suppress the commotion in Connaught; but with the exception of placing garrisons in some strong castles abandoned by the Irish, nothing decisive was effected there. The repeated complaints of the barbarities of Bingham had at length made some impression on the queen and her council. Sir Richard left Ireland without permission to an-

† Among the chiefs of Eastern Connaught who had revolted at this time, was Donnell O'Madden, chief of O'Madden's country, on the Shannon. Cloghan, one of his castles in the district of Lusmagh, was summoned to surrender by the lord deputy, Russell, in March, 1596, and we mention the circumstance on account of the memorable reply of the Irish garrison. O'Madden himself was absent, but his brave warders told Captain Thomas Lee, who was sent by the deputy to summon them, that "if every man in his lordship's company were a lord deputy, still they would not surrender." Next day, however, the castle was captured, and forty-six persons slain; those who were taken, being hurled from the battlements and thus killed (See the extract from Sir William Russell's *Journal*, published in Dr. O'Donovan's *Hy Many*, pp. 149, 150.)



swer the charges against him, and on presenting himself at court was committed to prison, and Sir Conyers Clifford, a just and humane man, was appointed in his stead president of Connaught.

Scarcely had the cessation of arms been agreed to between the Ulster chiefs and the queen's commissioners, when three Spanish pinnaces arrived on the coast of Donegal, bringing encouraging letters from the king of Spain, and a supply of military stores, addressed specially to O'Donnell. O'Neill is charged by the English with having communicated to Fiagh MacHugh, and the other Leinster insurgents, the news of the promises held out by Spain, at the same time that he sent to the lord deputy, as an evidence of the sincerity of his submission, the letter which he had received from the Spanish monarch. Such charges of dissimulation, so frequently reiterated against the earl of Tyrone, by English writers, deserve little attention. It is natural that he should have wished to deceive the English government, and to gain time until his plans were matured and expected succor had arrived; and it may be questioned whether any means he employed for this purpose were not, under the circumstances, quite legitimate. It was understood that several Irish chiefs

now signed an invitation to the king of Spain to invade Ireland, but that O'Neill only intimated verbally his accession to the league. He remonstrated against the hostilities carried on against his friend, Fiagh MacHugh O'Byrne, and made these, soon after, a pretext for marching suddenly on Armagh, and forcing that garrison to surrender, before Sir John Norris could come to its relief. Yet strange to say, another commission, to treat once more with O'Neill, arrived after this from England. English writers express profound disgust at these repeated overtures of peace on the part of the government, and there is no doubt that the course pursued impressed the Irish with the idea of great weakness in their opponents. O'Neill refused, as usual, to confer with the commissioners in a town, and the meeting, like the former ones, took place in a field near Dundalk; but the other confederates do not appear to have been present, and the only result was a renewal of former terms with the earl of Tyrone.\*

A. D. 1597.—While O'Neill was inactive in Tyrone, Connaught was the scene of the wildest commotions. Towards the close of the last year O'Connor Sligo returned, after a long stay in England, and manifested a zealous and ostentatious loyalty. His old feudato-

\* Several conflicts, not recorded, indeed, with any minute attention to chronology, would nevertheless appear from O'Sullivan Beare's *Catholic History* to have taken place between O'Neill and the English before the close of this year. Owny, son of Rory Oge O'More, was, at this time, plundering the English of Leix, and Fiagh

MacHugh carried terror and desolation through a great part of Leinster. The former slew Alexander and Francis Cosby, the son and grandson of the Francis Cosby of Mullamast notoriety, and routed their troops at Stradbally Bridge, on the 19th of May.—See Hardiman's *Irish Minstrelsy*, vol. ii., p. 165.



ries, MacDonough of Tírerill, and O'Hart, were detached, by his influence, from the Catholic cause, and these examples, together with the popularity of Sir Conyers Clifford, greatly strengthened the English ranks in the west. Red Hugh O'Donnell took immediate steps to punish the defection. In December he crossed the river of Sligo, and swept off every head of cattle belonging to the friends of O'Connor; and the following January he returned with a much larger force, and overran all Connaught. He burned the gates of Athenry and pillaged the town; and all the territory of Clanrickard was plundered by him as far as Maree, Oranmore, and the walls of Galway. He then returned home laden with spoils, routing, on his way, a force which O'Connor Sligo had collected to intercept him. Theobald Burke, surnamed Na-Long, or "of the ships," who claimed the title and estates of MacWilliam, in opposition to Theobald, son of Walter Kittagh, succeeded, by the aid of Clifford and O'Connor Sligo, in expelling his rival, who, in his turn, was restored by O'Donnell, and once more expelled by the power of the English and of the

Irish loyalists. Thus was the whole province plunged in disorder.\*

In Leinster, Fiagh MacHugh O'Byrne was betrayed into the hands of the English through the jealousy of some of his kinsmen, and slain in May this year; and on the 22d of the same month, Sir William Russell was removed from the government, and Thomas, Lord Borough, or Burgh, sent over to replace him. One of the first acts of the new deputy was to deprive Sir John Norris of the generalship, and send him to govern Munster with his brother. The gallant veteran, who while in office had indeed performed no service worthy of his great military reputation, soon after died broken-hearted. Lord Borough next ordered a great muster of forces at Drogheda, on the 20th of July, and marching at their head, crossed the Blackwater without opposition; demolished a small fort which O'Neill had raised, and erected a strong one in which he placed a garrison of 300 men, under the command of a brave officer named Williams. O'Neill, who would appear to have been at first taken by surprise, vigorously assailed the lord deputy's camp, and sent reinforcements

\* Theobald-na-Long, mentioned in the text, was the son of Risdiard-an-Iarain, or "Iron Richard," who was highly praised by Sir Henry Sidney, and died in 1585. Theobald's mother was the famous Grace O'Malley, or Graine-ni-Mhaile (Granu-Weal), daughter of Owen O'Malley, chief of the Owles, or Umaile, in Mayo. This singular woman was married first to O'Flaherty, chief of West Connaught, and during the minority of her brother took the command of a fleet of galleys on several piratical excursions. She was then outlawed, and defeated some troops sent to besiege her castle of Carrigahooly;

but, on her marriage with Sir Richard Burke, she was reconciled to government, and subsequently performed some valuable services for the queen. Many traditions are preserved in the west about her exploits, her visits to Elizabeth, &c. On her voyage to London, at the queen's invitation, about 1575, her son Theobald was born; hence his sobriquet "Na-Long"—"of the ships." He was knighted, it is said, by Elizabeth while an infant, and was created first Viscount Mayo, by Charles I.—See Lodge; also, the *Anthologia Hibernica* for 1793 and 1794.



to Tyrrell, who carried on the war in Leinster.\*

Lord Borough had directed Sir Conyers Clifford to make a simultaneous movement against O'Donnell, and accordingly the loyalist forces of Connaught assembled at the monastery of Boyle, on the 24th of July. They marched to Sligo, and thence to the Erne, which, after some hard fighting, they crossed at the ford of Ath-cul-uain, about half a mile west of Belleek; Murrough O'Brien, baron of Inchiquin, was shot by the Irish while in the centre of the ford; and Clifford having obtained some cannon by sea from Galway, laid siege to the castle of Ballyshannon, which was defended with great bravery for O'Donnell by Hugh Crawford, a Scot, with eighty soldiers, of whom some were Spaniards, and the rest Irish. An incessant fire was kept up on the castle for three days, and under the shelter of a testudo an attempt was made to sap the walls; but the beams and rocks hurled from the battlements by the defenders demolished the works of the assailants, and O'Donnell arriving with a considerable force, besieged the royal army in their own camp. At the dawn of day, on the

15th of August, Clifford silently recrossed the Erne at a ford immediately above the cataract of Assaroe, over which several of his men were washed by the impetuosity of the torrent; and O'Donnell, regretting the remissness which suffered the enemy to escape, pursued him over the river. The powder of the Irish was, however, spoiled by a heavy shower of rain, and the royal army was enabled to retreat in safety to Sligo, having abandoned three pieces of ordnance and a quantity of stores.

The spirits of the Irish were elated by so many successes. O'Neill laid siege to the new Blackwater fort; but in storming it by the aid of scaling ladders—which proved to be too short—he lost thirty of his men, and then resolved to starve the garrison into submission. This would have been soon effected had not Lord Borough marched with a strong force, and succeeded in raising the siege, and throwing in relief both in men and provisions. The lord deputy, however, fell dangerously ill before the walls, or, as the Irish accounts say, was mortally wounded, and died in a litter before he could be carried as far as Newry.† On the

\* About this time Captain Tyrrell cut off a detachment of 1,000 men of the royal army sent against him from Mullingar, under the command of young Barnwell, son of Lord Trimblestone. Tyrrell had a much smaller force under his command, but prepared an ambuscade with great skill at the place since called Tyrrell's Pass, in West Meath, and it is said that only one man of the enemy escaped to relate the disaster at the English headquarters. (See the Abbé Mageoghegan's *History of Ireland*, p. 505, Duffy's ed.) It is probable, however,

that Tyrrell's Pass owes its name not to this conflict, but to the castle of the Tyrrells which stood near.

† Either on this or on his former march to the Blackwater, the lord deputy lost his wife's brother, Sir Francis Vaughan, who was killed by the Irish; and the earl of Kildare died at Drogheda of the wounds which he received, or, as others say, of chagrin for his two foster-brothers, who were killed before the Blackwater fort. This earl was Henry, who succeeded on the death (in 1585) of his father Garrett, brother of Silken Thomas.



news of his death reaching Dublin the council chose as his successor Sir Thomas Norris, the president of Munster; but this selection was provisional, for in a month after, the civil duties of the government were committed to Archbishop Loftus, who was also lord chancellor, and Sir Robert Gardiner, chief justice of the queen's bench, as lords justices, and the military government to the earl of Ormond, as lord lieutenant.

Meanwhile O'Donnell plundered the lands of O'Connor Roe, who had joined the English party, and this produced some jealousy between O'Donnell and O'Rourke, who was friendly to O'Connor. Hugh Maguire and Cormac, brother of O'Neill, entered West Meath and sacked and burned Mullingar. Theobald, son of Walter Kittagh Burke, retook the territory of MacWilliam, and plundered the Owles or O'Malley's country; Tyrrell, at the head of the Leinster insurgents, devastated Ormond, and cut to pieces a large body of the royal troops at Maryborough; Sir John Chichester, governor of Carrickfergus, with three companies of his garrison, was cut off by Sorley Boy MacDonnell; in short, the country was almost wholly in the hands of the Catholics, when the appointment of the earl of Ormond opened a new door for negotiations with the Irish chieftains. Our annalists say that shortly before Christmas the earls of

Ormond and Thomond went to Ulster and remained three days in a conference with O'Neill and O'Donnell; that they agreed to the terms of a treaty, which were to be submitted to the queen, and that a truce was to be observed until May, when the royal decision on the points at issue would be made known.

A. D. 1598.—The modifications which Elizabeth required in the terms of peace were received earlier than was expected, and another conference was held with O'Neill on the 15th of March, to communicate them to him. The chief of Tyrone discussed the several points with a freedom which showed that he well knew the weakness of the government and his own increased strength. He refused to desert his confederates until they had time allowed them to come in and submit; he consented to renounce the title of O'Neill, but would reserve the substantial rights of the chieftaincy; he would not give up the sons of Shane O'Neill, as he had not received them into his charge from the State: he would admit a sheriff into Tyrone, provided he was a gentleman of the country, and not appointed immediately; he would surrender political refugees, but not such as fled to Tyrone on account of religious persecution: in fine, refused to give up his eldest son as a hostage. The independent tone of O'Neill was deeply galling to the Eng-

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and he was succeeded in his turn by his brother, William. Among the losses of the government about this period, it may be stated that on the 11th of March, 1597, 144 barrels of gunpowder, just received from England,

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exploded in Winetavern-street, Dublin, producing fearful havoc in the neighborhood. (See Gilbert's *Hist. of Dublin*, vol. i., p. 154.)





THE BATTLE OF TEWKESBURY. A.D. 1471. From a contemporary woodcut. Reproduced by permission of the Trustees of the British Museum.

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lish, but the earls of Thomond and Clanrickard with other distinguished Irishmen, were nevertheless delegated to submit his propositions anew to Elizabeth, and that haughty princess not only consented to abate some of her claims, but O'Neill's pardon was actually drawn up, bearing date April 11th, 1598, and sealed with the great seal of Ireland. These hollow concessions, however, came too late. O'Neill believed that the opportunity had arrived to obtain infinitely more—the liberation of his country itself. He expected the long-promised succor from Spain; the national cause was progressing favorably at home, and he dreaded lest further delay should cool the ardor of the Irish chieftains. He therefore broke off the negotiations, and rejected the proffered pardon, by avoiding the messenger sent to convey it to him.\*

On the 7th of June, the last truce expired, and two days after, O'Neill appeared with a division of his army before the Blackwater fort, "swearing by his barbarous hand that he would not depart until he had carried it;† while he sent another division into Breffny, to attack the castle of Cavan. There could be no more valiant man

than Captain Thomas Williams, who commanded in the unhappy fort of the Blackwater, and who was resolved to defend his charge to the last man; and O'Neill, profiting by the lesson which the former vigorous defence had taught him, resolved to make no more assaults, but set about inclosing the fort with vast trenches, to prevent the sorties of foraging parties. These trenches, which were connected with great tracts of bog, were more than a mile in length, and several feet deep, "with a thorny hedge at the top." The approaches to the fort were "plashed," the roads rendered impassable to artillery by trenches, and the Irish army so posted that no force could advance to relieve the garrison without fighting a battle. The fort was scarcely victualled to the end of June, and would have been soon forced by hunger to surrender, had not the besieged had the good fortune to seize "divers horses and mares," on the flesh of which they subsisted.

Long and anxious was the debate at the council-board in Dublin, as to the course now to be pursued. The English power in Ireland was in a most critical position. Only a few garrisons remained in all Ulster. Connaught

\* O'Neill afterwards scorned to plead this pardon, so that he was outlawed in 1600, says Moryson, on the indictment of 1595. It may be here added that, during the truce, James, brother of the earl of Ormond, with other gentlemen, made an incursion into Ikerrin against Brian Reagh O'More, but lost several of their men. James Butler was made prisoner, but O'More generously gave him up to the earl of Ormond in a week after. Redmond Burke, son of John-of-the-Shamrocks, owing to the injustice of his uncle, the earl of Clan-

rickard, joined the insurgents, and received the command of 100 men from O'Neill, who sent him with others to fight under Tyrrell's standard in Leinster; and in Connaught, O'Rourke, who had made his submission to Clifford on account of his friendship for O'Connor Roe, returned to the national cause, for, as the Four Masters say, it was at that time thought safer in Connaught "to have the governor in opposition than to be pursued by O'Donnell's vengeance."

† Sir Geoffrey Fenton to Cecil, June 11th, 1598.



was in arms. A well-organized Irish army, under Captain Tyrrell, and other brave and experienced leaders, threatened the seat of government in Leinster. The prestige of O'Neill and O'Donnell was becoming every day greater. The latter entertained a hatred of England which nothing could mitigate; while the former was more formidable for his knowledge of modern warfare, his consummate prudence, and his subtlety as a statesman. Reinforcements of troops arrived at Dungarvan from England, but in attempting to reach Dublin, they were attacked by the Irish, and lost over 400 men.\* The English government of Ireland was never in more pusillanimous hands than those of the present lord justices; and the iron-hearted Ormond himself—"a man of great energy and boldness," as Camden describes him—was dismayed at the struggle before him. The council had written to England for help and advice. The civil members strongly urged that Captain Williams should be directed to surrender the Blackwater fort to O'Neill on the best conditions that he could obtain. Even Ormond would reluctantly yield to this view, but Bagnal cried shame at such timidity, and insisted that an army, which he himself undertook to command, should be dispatched immediately to revictual the fort. At this critical moment, Ormond took the fatal resolution to divide his

forces, and to march himself at the head of one division against the Leinster insurgents, while Bagnal led the other to relieve the fort of the Blackwater. This course was taken contrary to the pressing advice of the council; but Ormond considered that the active hostilities of Tyrrell and his confederates in Leinster, involving as they did the devastation of his own county palatine of Tipperary, demanded the most strenuous operations; while the other duty only concerned what he styled "the scurvie fort of Blackwater." Bagnal, too, was earnest in soliciting for himself the task of taking vengeance on the man whom, of all others, he hated with a deadly hatred; and so the plan was persevered in. At the last moment the lords justices sent a message to the commander to surrender the fort; but Bagnal, according to his old custom, intercepted the letter, and took it back to the council.†

On the morning of Monday, August 14th, the army, which had reached Armagh from Newry, with some slight losses the preceding day, set out from the former city for the Blackwater. It amounted, by the English accounts, to about 4,000 foot and 350 horse;‡ the infantry comprising six regiments, and the whole were disposed in three divisions, the van being led by Colonel Percy, supported by the marshal's own regiment, while the regiments of Colonel

\* See *Four Masters*, vol. vi., p. 2056, note.

† Letter of the LL. JJ. to the privy council of August 16th, 1598.

‡ Captain Montague's report to the council says 3,500 infantry and 300 cavalry; but O'Sullivan Beare makes the numbers 4,500 foot and 500 horse.



Cosby and Sir Thomas Wingfield came next, and those of captains Cunis, or Cuynis, and Billings, brought up the rear. The cavalry was commanded by Sir Calisthenes Brooke and captains Montague and Fleming. The main body of the Irish, whose infantry was about as numerous as that of the enemy, and the cavalry a little more so, but who in point of arms and equipments were greatly inferior to the royal army, occupied an intrenched position near the small river Callan, about two miles from Armagh, at a place called Bealan-atha-buy, or the mouth of the Yellow ford. Bogs and woods extended on either side; a part of the way was broken by small hills, and deep trenches and pitfalls were dug in the road and neighboring fields. The leaders on both sides harangued their respective forces, and the Irish were, moreover, encouraged by O'Donnell's poet, Fearfeasa O'Clery, who produced the words of an ancient prophecy attributed to St Bearchan, foretelling that at a place called the Yellow ford, the foreigner would be defeated by a Hugh O'Neill.

The morning, says O'Sullivan, was calm and beautiful, and the English army advanced from Armagh, before the rising of the sun, with colors flying, drums beating, and trumpets sounding, in all the pomp and pride of war; but their front had not proceeded more than half a mile, when the Irish skirmishers began to gall them severely from the brushwood on either flank. The most circumstantial account of the

sequel is that which we obtain from the English official reports. The vanguard of the royal army advanced gallantly, and after a desperate struggle gained possession of the first Irish intrenchments, about two miles from Armagh. They then pushed forward and reached an eminence, where they were vigorously charged by the Irish, and driven back beyond the trench. Bagnal's tactics were a miserable failure. His divisions were too far separated to support each other; and his leading regiment was cut to pieces before the second had come to the charge. The marshal himself came up at the head of his own regiment, and behaved with extraordinary valor, gaining the trench a second time; but the Irish were now engaged with the royal troops at every point, and the fighting was so hot in the rear, where Red Hugh O'Donnell, Maguire, and James MacSorley MacDonnell charged the English, that it was impossible for the reserve regiments to support their front. Bagnal raised the visor of his helmet, to gaze more freely about him, when a musket-ball pierced his forehead and he rolled lifeless to the earth. Almost at the same time an ammunition wagon exploded in the central corps of the English, and scattered destruction around, killing and wounding several; and one of the cannon got into a pit or bog-hole, and defied all their efforts to extricate it. O'Neill, who had the Irish centre under his own special command, saw that the moment was de-



cisive. Confusion had already seized the English ranks; and riding up with forty horsemen, followed by a body of spearmen, he plunged with a loud shout into the *melée*, and made the enemy fly in disorder. All this time the battle raged so fiercely in the rear that the English, according to their own account, had not been able to advance a quarter of a mile in an hour and a half, and the death of the marshal was not known at that point when the fight had begun. Maelmuire O'Reilly, who was called "the handsome," and, as being a royalist, was styled "the queen's O'Reilly," made a desperate effort to rally the royal troops, but he himself was soon numbered with the slain. About one o'clock the route became general, and the pits and trenches along the way caused more mischief to the flying English than even in the morning march. The new levies cast away their arms, and if they had not

been so near Armagh, scarcely a man would have escaped. As it was, the flight was not a long one; the ammunition of the Irish was nearly exhausted, and the shattered remains of the English army shut themselves up in the fortified cathedral, leaving their general, 23 officers, and about 1,700 of their rank and file, on the field; together with their artillery, and baggage, a great portion of their arms and colors, their drums, &c., in the hands of the Irish. The loss of the confederates was estimated, at the highest, as from seven to eight hundred. Never since the English set foot on Irish soil had they received such an overthrow in this country. "It was a glorious victory for the rebels," says Camden, "and of special advantage; for hereby they got both arms and provisions, and Tyrone's name was cried up all over Ireland as the author of their liberty.\*

\* The Irish and English contemporary accounts of the battle are collected by Dr. O'Donovan in his notes to the *Four Masters*, an. 1598; and all the documents connected with it preserved in the State-paper Office, have been published in the *Transactions of the Kilkenny Archæological Society* for January, 1857. John Mitchell describes it in his own nervous and eloquent style, in his "*Life and Times of Aodh O'Neill*," in *Duffy's Library of Ireland*. The battle is sometimes designated the "journey of the Blackwater," but by the Irish is usually called the battle of Athbuidhe, or the Yellow ford. Its site is marked on the Ordnance map of Armagh, sheet 12; and the name of Ballinaboy is still applied to a small marsh or cut-out bog in the townland of Cabragh, about a mile and three-quarters north of the city of Armagh (*Four Masters*, vi., p. 2061, note.) The Blackwater fort is called Portnua by the *Four Masters*, and Portmore by O'Sullivan Beare and other contemporary writers. The number slain on the English side is, by the Irish annalists, reckoned 2,500, including the general and 18 captains; and the first

English accounts vary the loss from 2,000 to 1,500; but the official list forwarded to the privy council a few days after the battle, gives the numbers thus, viz.: killed, the general, 14 colonels and captains, 9 lieutenants, and 855 rank and file; wounded, 363; captain Cosby taken prisoner, and 12 stands of colors lost. About 300 Irish in the queen's pay and 2 Englishmen deserted to the confederates. O'Sullivan states the loss of the Irish to have been less than 200 killed, and over 600 wounded. Ormond, in a letter to Cecil, of September 15, referring to the bad tactics of Bagnal, in placing the divisions at such intervals, writes:—"Suer the devill bewiched them that none of them did prevent this grose error!" The *Four Masters* give Aug. 10th as the date of the battle, but from the State-papers the correct date appears to be that given in the text, Aug. 14th. O'Sullivan says O'Donnell commanded the left wing, and Maguire, the Irish cavalry; the whole being under the command of O'Neill. Cucogry O'Clery, in his life of Hugh Roe O'Donnell, tells us that very few of the Irish were dressed in armor like the Eng-



The English cavalry, which had suffered least, escaped the night after the battle to Dundalk, under Captain Montague, pursued for a little way by Terence O'Hanlon; and a few days after the garrisons of Armagh and the Blackwater fort capitulated, and were allowed to march to Dundalk with their wounded men, leaving their arms and ammunition behind them. O'Neill supposed that Armagh was provisioned for a longer time than it really was, while his own supplies were running short, and he knew that an English force of 2,000 men was daily expected in his rear at Lough Foyle; and hence the favorable conditions which he granted. The Ulster chiefs returned to their respective homes, for it never had been the custom of the Irish to follow up a victory. Their hostings were temporary, and their commissariat imperfect. O'Neill knew the helpless state of the government at that moment, and it is not probable that he retired to Dungannon at such an important juncture without solid reasons. Ormond was at this time shut up in Kilkenny, whither he had retired after the discomfiture of his men in Leix; and the trembling lord justices were obliged to send out some six or seven hundred armed citizens, on the 17th of August, to prevent the approach of the Leinster insurgents, who were expected before the walls of

Dublin. Elizabeth was enraged at the losses which her arms had sustained in Ireland, and wrote upbraiding letters to her Irish council. She sent Sir Richard Bingham to replace Marshal Bagnal; and she could not have shown her exasperation better than by renewing her commission to the man who had been disgraced for his butcheries of the Irish in cold blood. Bingham, however, died immediately after his return to Ireland, and Sir Samuel Bagnal was then sent to Dublin as marshal, with the 2,000 men who had been originally intended for Lough Foyle.

O'Neill wrote to Capt. Tyrrell, Owny O'More, and Redmond Burke, to hasten into Munster, where the sons of Thomas Roe, brother of the late earl of Desmond, were prepared to raise the standard of revolt; and his orders were immediately carried out. The Leinster insurgents plundered Ormond in their march to the south, and a great number of Irish chieftains came to swell their ranks. The new Munster rebellion broke out, says Fynes Moryson, like lightning. Sir Thomas Norris was at Killmallock, but as soon as the confederates entered the county of Limerick he withdrew hastily to Cork. James, son of Thomas Roe, joined the Confederate army in Connello, and they proceeded to destroy the settlements of the English undertakers who occupied the lands of the

lish, but that they had a sufficient supply of spears and lances with strong handles of ash; straight, keen-edged swords, and thin, polished battle-axes. Dr. O'Donovan thinks that the prophecy which Fearfeasa

O'Clery turned to such good account on this memorable occasion, was originally intended for the Danes as the word "*Danair*" is in it applied to the foreigners.



late earl of Desmond. Their castles and houses were pulled down, their farms desolated, and they themselves—cast out naked—were all either slain or expelled; while, as our annalists say, the spoils were so great that an in-calf cow was sold for sixpence, a brood mare for threepence, and the best hog for one penny, in the Irish camp. Ormond marched to Killmallock, where he was joined by Norris; but the Irish army presented so formidable a front that he thought it well to return to his own palatinate, while the president retired to Mallow. The title of earl of Desmond was conferred, by the authority of O'Neill, on James, son of Thomas Roe,\* all the castles of Desmond were recovered except those of Askeaton, Castlemaine, and Mallow; and matters being thus advanced in Munster, the Leinster and Ulster confederates returned home, with the exception of Tyrrell—who remained to organize the forces of the newly-created earl. Among those who had now risen in arms in the south were Patrick Fitz-Maurice, lord of Lixnaw; the knight of Glynn; the white knight, and most

of the other Geraldines; some of the MacCarthys; the O'Donohoes; the Con-dons; Lord Roche; Butler, lord of Mountgarrett, who had married a daughter of O'Neill; Butler of Cahir, and other members of that family.

O'Donnell, who had purchased the castle of Ballymote from MacDonough of Corran, and made it his principal residence,† proceeded with a great host-ing, at the close of the year, into Clann-rickard, slaying several, and carrying off immense booty; and the following spring (1599) he made an incursion on a large scale into Thomond, and swept away such enormous spoils that the hills of Burren were black with the droves of cattle which were driven to the north. Thomond was at that time the scene of intestine broils among various parties of the O'Briens, and when O'Donnell had left, Clifford proceeded there to punish those who had given evidence of disloyalty. The earl of Thomond, who had returned lately from England, also came with some ordnance from Limerick, and inflicted vengeance on the obnoxious.

\* This James is better known by the title of the *Sugane* (straw-rope) earl, contemptuously applied to him by his enemies. For his parentage, *vide supra*, p. 396, n. Cox says, he was "the handsomest man of his time;" but Camden calls him, "*hominem vocatissimum*."

† The price paid for the castle was £400 and 300 cows, and Sir Conyers Clifford, president of Connaught, was bidding for it in opposition to O'Donnell. For thirteen years before it had been in the hands of the royalists, and it is curious to find any thing like a commercial transaction carried on under the circumstances.



## CHAPTER XXXV.

## REIGN OF ELIZABETH—CONCLUDED.

**The Earl of Essex Viceroy**—His incapacity—His fruitless expedition to Munster.—O'Connor Sligo besieged at Colloony.—Sir Conyers Clifford marches against O'Donnell.—Total defeat of the English at the Curliu mountains and death of Clifford.—Essex applies for reinforcements—His march to the Lagan—His interview with O'Neill—His departure from Ireland, and unhappy fate.—O'Neill's expedition to Munster.—Combat and death of Hugh Maguire and Sir Warham Sentleger.—Arrival of Lord Mountjoy as Deputy.—O'Neill returns to Ulster.—Presents from the Pope and the King of Spain.—Capture of Ormond by Owny O'More.—Sir George Carew president of Munster.—His subtlety—His plots against the Sugane Earl and his brother.—Capture of Glin Castle and general submission of Desmond.—Death of Owny O'More.—Barbarous desolation of the country by the deputy.—The son of the late earl of Desmond sent to Ireland—Failure of his mission.—Retribution on a traitor (*note*).—Docwra's expedition to Lough Foyle.—Defections from the Irish ranks.—Predatory excursions of Red Hugh O'Donnell.—Mountjoy's expeditions against O'Neill.—Complicated misfortunes of the Irish.—Niall Garv besieged in the monastery of Donegal by Hugh Roe.—Arrival of the Spaniards at Kinsale—They are besieged by Mountjoy and Carew.—Extraordinary march of O'Donnell and mustering of the Irish forces to assist them.—Battle of Kinsale, and total route of the Irish army.—Departure of Red Hugh O'Donnell for Spain.—Surrender of Kinsale, and departure of the Spaniards.—Deplorable state of the Irish.—Dreadful famine—Siege of Dunboy Castle.—Flight of O'Sullivan.—Submission of O'Neill.—Death of Elizabeth.

(A. D. 1599 TO A. D. 1603.)

INVESTED with more ample powers, and endowed with a more splendid allowance than any of his predecessors, the earl of Essex landed in Ireland, as lord lieutenant, on the 15th of April, 1599, and was sworn in the same day. He was provided with an army of 20,000 foot and 2,000 horse—the most powerful and best equipped force ever sent into this country—and his instructions were to prosecute the war strenuously against the Ulster insurgents, and to plant garrisons at Lough Foyle and Ballyshannon. This was, indeed, the course which he himself had warmly advocated in those discussions at the council-board, in one of which his dis-

respectful manner extracted one of her habitual oaths and a box from the withered hand of his royal mistress; yet these commands, however explicit, and however obvious the end to be attained, were, through some unaccountable infatuation, wholly overlooked by this unfortunate favorite of Elizabeth.

Essex issued a proclamation on his arrival, offering pardon and restoration of their property to such of the Irish as submitted, but very few availed themselves of the proffered favors. He sent reinforcements to the garrisons of Carrickfergus, Newry, Dundalk, Drogheda, Wicklow, and Naas; and then instead of marching with the main body of his



army towards Ulster, he proceeded to the south with 7,000 of his best soldiers. He was repeatedly attacked along the route by Owny\* O'More and the other Leinster Confederates; and in one of these conflicts, at a place called Bearnana-gCleti, or, the gap or defile of the feathers, from the number of plumes collected there after the battle, he lost, according to O'Sullivan Beare, five hundred men. In Ormond Lord Mountgarrett made his submission, and Essex then besieged the castle of Cahir, which was held by another of the insurgent Butlers, and was surrendered after part of the building had been demolished. Sir Thomas Norris, president of Munster, while waiting for the viceroy, at Kilmallock exercised his men in forays against the Irish; but in one of these he was mortally wounded by Thomas Burke, brother of the baron of Castleconnell, and died a few weeks after at Mallow.† Near Limerick, Essex, who was accompanied on this expedition by the earl of Ormond, was joined by Sir Conyers Clifford, president of Connaught, the earls of Thomond and Clanrickard, and Donough O'Connor Sligo. Clifford and Clanrickard, returned to Connaught, and Essex with the other commanders marched against the Geraldines, who gave them a warmer reception than was anticipated. After some hard fighting, in his second day's march from Limerick, the viceroy pitched his camp a little to the east of

Askeaton; and having succeeded in conveying some ammunition to that garrison, he was again attacked in marching to Adare, at a place called Finneterstown, where he lost several men, among others Sir Henry Norris. Then, without even attempting any further service with his fine army, he returned by a circuitous route, through Fermoy and Lismore, into Leinster; the Geraldines hovering on his rear and cutting off several of his men in the early part of the march, while the Leinster insurgents were equally unmerciful to him in the latter portion of it.

O'Connor Sligo, on returning from Munster, was blockaded in his only remaining castle of Coloony, by O'Donnell, and Essex directed Sir Conyers Clifford to hasten with all his available forces to relieve him, and to dispatch by sea, from Galway, materials for the construction and fortification of a strong castle at Sligo, to defend that passage against the men of Tirconnell. Clifford proceeded to obey these orders, and while the naval expedition sailed round the coast, under the command of Theobald-na-long, he, himself, with a well-appointed army, advanced from Athlone towards the Curliou mountains, beyond which in the famous pass of Ballaghboy, Red Hugh O'Donnell awaited him, with such men as he could spare, after leaving a sufficient force under his kinsman, Niall Garv O'Donnell, to

\* The Irish name Uaithne is sometimes anglicized Anthony, but more frequently Owny.

† O'Sullivan Beare places the death of Sir Thomas Norris two years earlier.



continue the blockade of Coloony castle.

The eve of the 15th of August was passed by Red Hugh in fasting and prayer, and on the morning of that festival of the Blessed Virgin mass was celebrated in the Irish camp, and the Holy Communion administered to O'Donnell and several of his men. The day was already far advanced when the Irish scouts from the hill-tops signalled the approach of the royal army from the abbey of Boyle, where it had encamped the previous night; and O'Donnell having addressed his people in a few spirit-stirring words, invoking all the religious ideas which the occasion suggested, to encourage them, sent the youngest and most athletic of his men, armed with javelins, bows, and muskets, to attack the enemy as soon as they should reach the rugged part of the mountain, the way having been already impeded by felled trees and other obstructions; while he himself followed with the remainder of his small force, marching with a steady pace, and more heavily armed for close fighting. The English say that Sir Conyers Clifford was deceived and did not expect any resistance here; but, that a quarter of a mile before he entered the defile he found a barricade defended by some of the Irish, who ran as soon as they discharged their javelins and other missiles. The English army

continued to advance in a solid column by a road which permitted twelve men to march abreast, and which led through a small wood, and then through some bogs, where the Irish made their principal stand. It is clear that the latter behaved with desperate bravery from the outset. Their musketeers were few, but they made up for the smallness of their number by the steadiness of their aim. Several English officers fell, and the Irish fought with such fury that the English leaders had great difficulty in bringing their men to the charge. Sir Alexander Radcliff was slain early in the fight, and the English vanguard was soon after thrown into such disorder that it fell back upon the centre, and in a little while the whole army was flying panic-stricken from the field. Indignant at the ignominious retreat of his troops, Sir Conyers Clifford refused to join the flying throng, and breaking from those who would have forced him from the field, even after he was wounded, he sought his death from the foe. The Four Masters say he was killed by a musket ball, but according to O'Sullivan Beare and Dymmok, he was pierced through the body with a spear. O'Rourke, who was encamped to the east of the Curleus, arrived with his hosting in time to join in the pursuit and slaughter of the queen's army, which lost, according to O'Sullivan, 1,400 men;\* the English and the Anglo-Irish

\* O'Sullivan probably exaggerates the loss of the queen's forces, although Fynes Moryson, who passes very lightly over this battle, decidedly underrates it

when he says that the English lost only 120 men. John Dymmok, a contemporary writer, in his "Brief Relation of the Defeat in the Corleus," states that besides



of Meath having suffered most, as the Connaught royalists were better able to avail themselves of the nature of the country in the flight. The body of Clifford was recognized, after the battle, by O'Rourke, and his death excited a feeling of regret among the Irish, who esteemed him for his exalted principles of honor and humanity. His decapitated body was sent to be honorably interred in the old monastery of the Holy Trinity, in Lough Key, and his head was taken to Coloony, and shown to O'Connor, who, on receiving this evidence of the failure of his friends to relieve him, surrendered his castle to O'Donnell, who magnanimously restored his lands to the fallen chief, together with cattle to stock them. Red Hugh and his late foe seemed now to be on friendly terms, and Theobald-na-long, before returning with his fleet to Galway, also made peace with the triumphant chief of Tirconnell.

Essex had been writing to Elizabeth reports of his experience in the affairs of Ireland which quite exhausted her patience. She was amazed at the incapacity and infatuation which he manifested; and his enemies, who were numerous in the council, and who had originally encouraged his appointment

to the government of Ireland in the hope that it would lead to his destruction, besides removing him from the court, where his personal influence with the queen was so powerful, now secretly rejoiced at every fresh evidence of his folly. His splendid army was wasted away to a few thousand men, and he wrote to England for two thousand fresh troops, without which he said he could take no step against the Ulster chiefs. The reinforcement he demanded came, and he then wrote over to say he could do no more that year than march to the frontier of Ulster with 1,300 foot and 300 horse. When Essex arrived at the Lagan, where it bounds Louth and Monaghan, O'Neill appeared with his forces on the opposite hills. The chief of Tyrone sent O'Hagan to demand a conference, which the aspiring viceroy at first refused but next day consented to grant. This memorable meeting took place at Ballyclinch, now Anaghclart-bridge, on the Lagan. Essex cautiously sent persons first to explore the place, and then posting some cavalry on a rising ground at hand, rode alone to the bank of the river. O'Neill approached unattended on the opposite side, and urging his steed into the stream, up to the saddle-girths, saluted

the officers, there were slain two hundred men, whom he calls "base and cowardlye raskalls" because they ran from the Irish.—See Irish Archæological Society's *Tracts* for 1843. Dymmok adds that the rest of the royal army would have inevitably perished had not Sir Griffin Markham charged the pursuers with Lord Southampton's cavalry, and thus covered the retreat to Boyle Abbey. The English, according to their own accounts, brought 2,100 men into the field, under twenty-five en-

signs, and lost all their military stores, and nearly all their arms, colors, &c. The Irish, whose loss is stated by O'Sullivan to have been only 140 killed and wounded, gave thanks to God and the Blessed Virgin, attributing their victory, with such inequality of numbers and equipments, to the special intervention of heaven.—See O'Sullivan's *Hist. Cath.*, tom. 3 lib. 5, c. x.; Cucogry O'Clery's *Life of Hugh Roe O'Donnell*, MS.; and notes to the *Four Masters*, vol. vi., pp. 2124, &c.



the viceroy, says Camden, with great respect. The interview lasted nearly an hour without witnesses, and it has been generally supposed that during that time O'Neill, who possessed a profound knowledge of character, was able to make on the mind of the vain and ambitious Essex an impression by no means favorable to English interests. The meeting was then, after a pause, resumed, with the addition of six leading men on each side; and the result was a truce until the 1st of the ensuing May, with a clause that either party might at any time renew the war, after a fortnight's notice. It is evident that O'Neill's tone at the meeting was higher and more decisive than English writers pretend, for he demanded that the Catholic religion be tolerated; that the principal officers of state and the judges should be natives of Ireland; that he himself, O'Donnell, and the earl of Desmond (whom O'Neill had created) should enjoy the lands of their ancestors; and that half the army in Ireland should consist of Irishmen.

This conference hastened the downfall of Essex. He left Ireland suddenly, and without permission, to explain his conduct, and on presenting himself before the queen was thrown into

prison. His subsequent proceedings—his insane attempt to cause a popular outbreak, his trial, his execution in the tower on the 25th of February, 1601, and Elizabeth's remorse and sorrow, are familiar to every reader of English history.\*

A.D. 1600.—In the undisturbed possession of its native princes, Ulster had now enjoyed some years of internal peace, and O'Neill resolved to make a journey to the south, that he might ascertain, by his own observation, what were the hopes and prospects of the country. For this purpose, having left garrisons at the principal points along his own frontier, he set out in January with a force of nearly 3,000 men. He marched through Westmeath, wasting, as he passed, the lands of Lord Delvin and Theobald Dillon, till their owners submitted to him. He next ravaged the territory of O'Carroll of Ely, to punish him for the base murder of some of the MacMahons, of Oriel, whom he had slain, after inviting them into his service as soldiers. He then continued his march by Roscrea and the present Templemore, to the abbey of Holy Cross, where the sacred relic, whence that monastery took its name, was brought forth and venerated by the

\*Essex appears to have been more tolerant to the Irish Catholics than his predecessors. He allowed the public celebration of mass in chapels and other houses, although not in the parish churches. He also conferred honors on some Catholics, and liberated some priests from prison; such being the extent of the toleration granted to Catholics in return for the loyalty displayed by so many of them who fought under the standard of

Elizabeth. See primate Lombard's *Commentaria*, p. 412 &c., and O'Sullivan's *Hist. Cath.*, p. 206, note, ed. 1850. Captain Thomas Lee, who wrote in 1594 "a brief declaration of the government of Ireland," &c., became a devoted partisan of the earl of Essex, and was implicated in some of the insane plots of that nobleman after his departure from Ireland, for which he was arrested in the palace, tried, and hanged at Tyburn.



northern chief and his army; O'Neill presenting many rich gifts to the monks, and extending his protection to the lands of the abbey. The earl of Ormond, at the head of the royal army, approached O'Neill in his passage through Eliogarty, but avoided a collision. At Cashel James FitzThomas, whom he had created earl of Desmond, joined O'Neill with some men, and accompanied him through the county of Limerick, into Cork, by the pass of Bearnadhearg, or Red Chair. O'Neill laid waste the lands of the loyalist lord Barry, but those of the Roches, and other friendly families, were respected; and, in the beginning of March he encamped at Inishcarra, between the rivers Lee and Bandon, about eight miles from Cork; where he remained twenty days, during which Florence MacCarthy, of Carberry, together with the O'Donohoes, O'Donovans, Donnell O'Sullivan Beare, the O'Mahonys, and others, either submitted and paid homage to him in person, as our annalists say, or sent tokens of submission and presents.

While O'Neill was thus encamped at Inishcarra it happened that one of his most valiant warriors, Hugh Maguire, while exploring the country, accompanied only by a priest and two horsemen named MacCaffry and O'Durneen, met Sir Warham Sentleger, president of Munster, riding in advance of a party

of sixty horse. Maguire was renowned among the Irish for his prowess and skill as a champion, and Sir Warham enjoyed the same reputation among the English. Not dismayed by the number of the enemy, the Irish chief, poising his spear, spurred his horse towards Sentleger, but the latter fired a pistol and wounded him mortally as he approached. Maguire still urged his horse onward, and transfixed Sentleger with his spear, while the latter exposed himself by turning his head to avoid the blow. Then, leaving the weapon in the body of his antagonist, he drew his sword and fought his way through the English cavalry, returning to the camp of O'Neill, where he expired, after receiving the last sacraments from the intrepid priest who had witnessed the struggle. Sentleger survived the combat only a few days.\*

The death of Maguire, and the news that a new viceroy was marching against him from Dublin, determined O'Neill to withdraw rather precipitately from Munster. The new English governor was Sir Charles Blunt, Lord Mountjoy, who arrived at Howth, with the title of lord deputy, on the 24th of February. He was known to Elizabeth as a man of prudence and experience, and had been designed by her for the office before she made the imprudent choice of her favorite Essex. Mountjoy was

\* Such is the account given by O'Sullivan Beare of this encounter. The English say the meeting was accidental; but the Irish assert that Sentleger had information that Maguire was attended only by a small party,

and, therefore, had come out from Cork with the design of cutting off the Irish warrior. Compare the *Pacata Hibernia* with the *Four Masters*, and O'Sullivan's *Hist Cath.*



accompanied by Sir George Carew, or Carey, soon after appointed to succeed Sir Warham Sentleger as president of Munster; and, while the earls of Ormond and Thomond guarded the passes near Limerick and west of the Shannon, he thought he should find it easy to cut off O'Neill's retreat to Ulster. In this, however, he was mistaken. Notwithstanding the precautions taken to intercept his march, O'Neill arrived in Tyrone without meeting the slightest obstacle, having left some forces with Dermot O'Connor Don and Redmond Burke to aid the earl of Desmond in carrying on the war in Munster. O'Neill's position was now, in some respects, that of uncrowned king of Ireland. The fame of his victory at the Blackwater had spread throughout the continent, and had given the best contradiction to the false reports industriously circulated by the English government, of the total subjugation of the Irish. Matthew of Oviedo, a Spaniard, who had been named archbishop of Dublin by the Pope, brought from the holy father indulgences to all those who had fought for the Catholic faith in Ireland, and to O'Neill himself a crown of phoenix feathers: while from Philip III., who had succeeded Philip II., as king of Spain, in 1598, he brought a sum of 22,000 golden pieces to pay the Irish soldiers.\*

Meantime, Owny O'More fought with great bravery and frequent success, against the royal troops, in defence of his ancestral territory of Leix. Ormond came to a conference with him a few miles from Kilkenny, and was attended, at the interview, by the earl of Thomond and Sir George Carew. Father James Archer, an Irish jesuit, famous for his heroic zeal in the cause of religion and his country, accompanied O'More, and entered into an animated discussion with Ormond. They spoke in English, and as their words were warm, the earl calling the father a traitor, while the latter, who was old and unarmed, emphatically raised his cane, a young man named Melaghlin O'More, dreading, perhaps, some violence to the priest, rushed forward and seized the reins of the earl's horse, and, almost at the same moment, one or two other Irishmen pulled the earl from his saddle. The earl of Thomond and Sir George Carew immediately put spurs to their steeds, and getting clear of the throng which gathered around, escaped to Kilkenny; but, in the *melée* which took place, one man was slain on each side, and fourteen of Ormond's people made prisoners. The Irish accounts do not intimate that the affair was premeditated, while the English not only assert that it was, but would lead us to suppose that it was

\* The letter of Clement VIII. to O'Neill is dated Rome, April 16th, 1600, and could not have been conveyed to him by Matthew of Oviedo until some time after his return from the Munster expedition; but a Spanish captain

had arrived, with two ships, immediately after O'Neill's conference with Essex. Cerda, or Lerda, another envoy from the king of Spain, arrived in the beginning of 1602. *Lombard*, p. 452; *O'Sullivan* p. 212, n. It is possible



pre-arranged with Ormond himself. The earl appears to have acted rashly, but it is impossible to suggest any reasonable object he could have in surrendering himself to the Irish. He remained in their hands from the 10th of April, the day of the meeting, until the 12th of June, when he was set at liberty at the desire of O'Neill, to whom the countess of Ormond applied for his liberation; and Mountjoy, who was jealous that the military command had not been withdrawn from Ormond, would, probably, have been well pleased had he remained a captive.\*

Sir George Carew prided himself on his powers of "wit and cunning." In the "*Pacata Hibernia*," he or his secretary, Stafford, has left us many curious and frightful examples of his subtlety. Indeed, craft and treachery seem to have been in such constant requisition on the royal side in these wars, that we can set but little value on any charges made against the Irish of employing the same unworthy weapons. Some of Carew's refined strokes of policy now present themselves. Dermot O'Connor, who has been already mentioned, and who commanded 1,400 *bonnaught-men*, or mercenary soldiers, chiefly from Connaught, in the service of James Fitz-Thomas, whom we may here designate

by his popular though derisive title of the "sugane earl," was married to Margaret, daughter of the late unfortunate earl of Desmond. This lady naturally disliked the sugane earl as the usurper of her brother's rights. To her, therefore, the lord president proposed, chiefly through the agency of Miler Magrath, the Protestant archbishop of Cashel, that her husband should take the sugane earl prisoner, and deliver him into his (the president's) hands, for which act a sum of £1,000 and a commission in the queen's pay would be his reward. Other conditions flattering to her and her brother, who from his childhood had been in the queen's custody in London, were added, and the Lady Margaret prevailed upon her husband to accept the lord president's proposition. About the same time, a miscreant named Nugent, who had first been servant to Sir Thomas Norris, and had then turned over to the insurgents, presented himself to Carew, and offered, as the price of his pardon, to assassinate either the sugane earl or his brother John. A plot having been already laid against the former, Nugent was instructed to murder John; but when in the act of levelling his pistol at John's back, he was seized, and being sentenced by the Irish lead-

that the present called the phoenix feather was similar to that sent by a former pontiff to Prince John, on his being made nominal king of Ireland. *Vide supra*, p. 230, n.

\* The *Four Masters* say the capture of Ormond took place at Ballyragget (Bel-atha-Raghat); and, in the *Pacata Hibernia*, the place is called Corronneduffe.

See in the latter work, lib. i., c. iii., the joint account of the affair given by Carew and the earl of Thomond; also, O'Sullivan's *Hist. Cath.*, tom. iii., lib. v., c. viii., p. Lombard's *Comment.*, pp. 436, &c.; and Ledwich, p. 275, 2d ed.

Ormond gave sixteen hostages for the payment of £3,000, should he seek any retaliation.



ers to die, he confessed his design, adding that the president had hired several others, who were sworn to commit the deed. Carew then proceeded to carry out his scheme against the sugane earl. He dispersed his troops among different garrisons, to give the Irish confidence, and then wrote a feigned letter to his intended victim, implying that an understanding existed between them, and that there was a plan which he urged him to execute for delivering up Dermot O'Connor dead or alive! This letter was conveyed to Dermot, who pretended that he had intercepted it, and made it a pretext to seize the sugane earl, after employing some ingenious excuses to separate him from his followers. This was effected on the 18th of June. Dermot arrested the sugane earl in the name of O'Neill; produced the counterfeit correspondence; and charged the earl and his brother John with treason to the Catholic cause. He then imprisoned his captive in Castlelishin,\* and sent intelligence of his success to Carew, adding that he was ready to deliver to him James FitzThomas as soon as he was paid the stipulated reward. However, before this part of the dastardly scheme could be executed, John FitzThomas and Pierce Lacy, penetrating O'Connor's baseness, mustered 4,000 men and rescued the sugane earl; whereupon O'Connor was obliged to withdraw with his

provincials into his own country. Thus the plan failed in its primary object, but it had the effect of breaking up the confederacy which O'Neill had established in Munster.†

Early in July the castle of Glin, on the banks of the Shannon, was taken after an obstinate defence, and the garrison put to the sword, by Sir George Carew and the earl of Thomond, who marched on the Clare side of the river from Limerick, and crossing at a convenient point attacked the castle with ordnance conveyed by shipping. O'Connor Kerry then surrendered his castle of Carriagafoyle, and the population of Desmond in general having fled to the woods and mountains, the president planted garrisons in their castles and returned with the earl of Thomond to Limerick; while in a short time the sugane earl found himself abandoned by the great bulk of his followers, who made their submission to government.

During this time Lord Mountjoy was engaged in making some incursions to the borders of Tyrone, and in carrying on a war of extermination against the people of Leix, who, under their brave chieftain, Owny O'More, had recovered all their ancestral possessions except Port-Leix, or Maryborough; but the intrepid Owny, having exposed himself incautiously, was killed by a musket-shot, on the 17th of August, and Leix

\* In the townland of Castle-Ishin, parish of Knocktemple, county of Cork, not far from the borders of the county of Limerick.—*Four Masters*, p. 2173, note.

† See all the details of these base plans related with shameless parade in the *Pacata Hibernia*, pp. 65, 91, 97, 193, ed 1810.



fell once more into the hands of the invaders.\*

Elizabeth's wily secretary, Cecil, bethought himself of a plan to render the youthful James, son of Gerald, earl of Desmond, useful in the present Irish war. For this purpose it was resolved that he should be released from his captivity for a space, and sent over to Ireland, apparently, but not really, restored to his title and inheritance, in order to draw off the followers of his house from the usurper, James Fitz-Thomas. Great precaution was employed. A letter was written in the queen's name to Sir George Carew, to whom also were sent the patents for the young earl's restoration, to be used only as might be found expedient. Reports of the expected arrival of the Geraldine were circulated; a servant wearing the well-known livery of the family was sent through the country with the news; and at length, on the 14th of October, the young earl landed at Youghal, attended by a Captain Price, who was directed to watch all his movements, and to report carefully every circumstance to government. From Youghal he proceeded to Mallow,

where he was met by the lord president, Carew; and thence accompanied by Miler Magrath and Master Boyle—then clerk of the council, and afterwards the great earl of Cork—he went to Kilmallock, whither the people flocked in great multitudes, not only filling the streets and the windows, but the very roofs of the houses, to greet the heir of ancient Desmond. It required the efforts of a guard of soldiers to make a passage for him through the crowd; but this popular enthusiasm was soon rudely checked. The next morning being Sunday, the young earl, who was educated in the religion of the State, went to the Protestant service; numbers, who met him on the way, implored him in Irish, not to desert the faith of his fathers; but the sad truth now broke upon them—the son of the earl of Desmond was a renegade, and those who saluted him with reverence and affection the day before, groaned and reviled him as he returned from the Protestant church. Shunned by the people, the unhappy youth, being useless to his employers, was recalled to his London exile, where he sunk into the grave a few months after.†

\* We are told by Fynes Moryson, who was Mountjoy's secretary, that when the government troops penetrated into Leix, on this occasion, they found the land well manured, the fields well fenced, the towns populous, and the roads and pathways well beaten, so that it seemed incredible, as he insolently observes, that this should have been done "by so barbarous inhabitants;" and he adds, "the reason whereof was, that the queen's forces, during these wars, never, till then, came amongst them." They came, alas! soon enough, for the same historian tells us, "our captains, and by their example, the common soldiers, did cut down with their sword all

the rebels' corn, to the value of £10,000 and upwards the only means by which they were to live." Who were the barbarians in this instance?—the men who, in a few short years of precarious security, gave such evidence of industry and progress, or Mountjoy's soldiers? About this time the same viceroy invaded Offaly, and with a kind of harrows called *pracas*, constructed with long pins, tore up from the roots all the unripe corn, and thus prepared the way for one of the most horrible famines which ever visited this unhappy country.—See *Four Masters*, vol. vi., p. 2187.

† The young earl of Desmond got possession of Castle



We have now to go back a little, in point of time, in order to trace the progress of events in Ulster. On the 16th of May a fleet arrived in Lough Foyle from England, having touched, in its passage, at Carrickfergus, to take up some troops that had marched from Dublin. This fleet conveyed an army of 4,000 foot and 200 horse, under the command of Sir Henry Docwra, together with large supplies of military stores, building materials, and other necessaries. The troops disembarked at Culmore, on the Donegal side of the bay, and constructed a fort there, in which Captain Lancelot Atford was left with six hundred men; and after visiting Ellogh, or Aileach, where Captain Ellis Flood was placed with 150 men, Sir Henry marched on the 22d to Derry, where he resolved to erect two forts, and to make a chief plantation. His buildings were constructed chiefly from the materials of the ancient churches which he found there, and of the monastery of St. Columbkille. Lord

Mountjoy made a feint of entering Tyrone by the Blackwater, and thus drew off the attention of O'Neill and O'Donnell, until Docwra's expedition had secured the required ground, when the deputy returned to Dublin,\* and the Irish chiefs hastened to attack the invaders at Lough Foyle. The latter only stood on the defensive, and, having intrenched themselves behind strong works, were able to resist the assaults of the Irish with little loss. A part of the original plan was, that one thousand foot and fifty horse, under the command of Captain Mathew Morgan, should be detached from the expedition and sail to Ballyshannon, to form another fort there; but this idea was abandoned, and all the troops were found few enough for Docwra's enterprise. Their ranks were soon greatly strengthened by the accession of some renegade Irish, the first to come in being Art O'Neill, son of Turlough Luineach, who joined Docwra, with a few followers on the first of June.

maine for the president through his influence with the warders, but this was the only service which he was able to perform; and Listowel, the last castle held for the sugane earl, was taken by Sir Charles Wilmot, in November. See *Pacata Hib.* b. i., c. xvi. Connected with this visit of the young earl to Ireland, we find a remarkable instance of retribution in the case of the traitor Dermot O'Connor Don. O'Connor being married to the sister of the young earl of Desmond, wished to visit his brother-in-law on his arrival in Munster, and for this purpose procured safe-conducts from the lord deputy and from Sir George Carew. Thus prepared, and accompanied by an escort of armed men, he set out from the country of O'Connor Roe; but in his route towards Thomond, he was attacked near Gort, in the county of Galway, by Theobald-na-long, who had the command of a hundred men in the queen's pay. Dermot and his party sought refuge in a church but Theo-

bald set fire to the building, slew about forty of Dermot's men as they issued from the burning pile, and having taken the traitor himself prisoner, had him beheaded the following day. Theobald may have been actuated by some patriotic motive in this proceeding, but he excused himself on the plea that he only avenged the death of a kinsman, Lord Burke, who was slain by O'Connor in Munster. The act greatly annoyed the government, and he was deprived of the queen's commission.—See *Pacata Hib.*, b. i., c. xvii.

\* The lord deputy marched to the confines of Tyrone, in May, July, and September, this year. On the last of these occasions he was repulsed by O'Neill, at the Moyry Pass, between Dundalk and Newry; but, owing to some remissness on the side of the Irish, he penetrated soon after beyond the pass. Here, however, he was vigorously attacked by O'Neill, and returned to Dublin without effecting any object for that time.



Red Hugh O'Donnell soon grew weary of the slow work of besieging the English in their forts at Lough Foyle. His taste was for a more active and desultory warfare, and leaving the task of watching the movements of Docwra to Niall Garv O'Donnell and O'Doherty of Inishowen he set out himself, with the hosting of North Connaught, and such men as could be spared from Tirconnell, and marched into the territories of Clanrickard and Thomond. His plundering parties visited almost the whole of Clare, and the work of pillage having been completed without any opposition, by the 24th of June, he returned home. On the 28th of that month some English troops were defeated, and their leader, Sir John Chamberlaine, slain in an attack on O'Doherty; and, on the 29th of July, O'Donnell drove off from their pasture before Derry, a great number of the English horses, and repulsed Sir Henry Docwra, who went in pursuit with a strong force; Docwra himself receiving a wound in the forehead, which obliged him to return to his fortress.

In October, O'Donnell set out on another plundering excursion to Thomond, leaving the command at home to his kinsman and brother-in-law, Niall Garv; but Niall, who was the son of Con, son of Calvagh O'Donnell, turned traitor and went over to the English, with his three brothers, Hugh Boy, Donnell, and

Con. Niall marched with one thousand men to Lifford, which he took for the English, who set about constructing a fort there; and Red Hugh hearing of this defection before he had passed Ballymote, hastened back and besieged his false cousin in Lifford. Thus he remained thirty days, when he thought it time to secure his army in winter-quarters. Two Spanish ships arrived off the Connaught coast, about Christmas, and put into the harbor of Killibegs, at the desire of O'Donnell, who sent immediate notice to O'Neill. The latter hastened to Donegal, where the treasure and military stores sent to them from Spain were divided among the two chiefs and their adherents.\* During the winter various services were rendered to the English by their new adherents, Niall Garv O'Donnell and Art O'Neill; so that Docwra confesses that but for the "intelligence and guidance" of these Irish allies, little or nothing could have been done by the English troops at Lough Foyle.†

A. D. 1601.—Disasters now began to rain thickly upon the Irish in every part of the country. Mounjóy once more crossed the Pass of Moyry, in June, this year, through the negligence of the Irish, and erected a strong castle on the northern side. He next marched beyond Slieve Fuaid and the Blackwater, burning and destroying the crops as he passed. From this he threatened O'Neill's castle of Benburb, but en-

\* Mageoghan says it was by these vessels that Mathew of Oviedo and Cerda arrived in Ireland

† See Docwra's *Narration*, published in the *Miscellany of the Celtic Society*.



countering a desperate resistance on his march, he returned to Dublin in August, after placing garrisons at several strong points. Twice did Mountjoy proclaim O'Neill. He offered a reward of £2,000 to any one who would capture him alive, and £1,000 for his head; yet, the English writers complain that these promises did not induce a single Irishman to raise his hand against the sacred person of his chief. An Englishman, however, whose name is not mentioned, undertook to assassinate O'Neill, and obtained, for that purpose, from Sir Charles Danvers, governor of Armagh, leave to pass the English sentinels, on his way to Tyrone's camp. The assassin subsequently boasted that he had drawn his sword to slay the chief. But, he was pronounced to be of unsound mind, "although," says the lord deputy, "not the less fit on that account for such a purpose."

The wretched sugane earl sent his brother John, and Pierce Lacy, to Ulster, to sue for aid from O'Neill, while he himself, deserted by all his followers, save a poor harper named Dermot O'Dugan, sought refuge in the wilds of Aherlow. He was chased from this place, and subsequently taken in a cave

by his old adherent, the white knight, who delivered him to Sir George Carew, for a reward of £1,000. He was then tried at Cork, and convicted of high treason, but his life was spared, lest his brother, John, should be set up as earl after him; and, about the end of August, he was sent in chains to London, along with Fineen, or Florence, MacCarthy, who had placed himself incautiously in the hands of the president. Both were confined in the tower until their death.

In Connaught, Ulick, earl of Clanrickard, who was such an exemplary loyalist from the time he murdered his brother, died, and was succeeded by his son Rickard, who became a most active leader in the queen's service. Some of the smaller chieftains in Tirconnell went over to the English, and O'Donnell was kept in constant motion by enemies on every side. The young earl of Clanrickard marched against him, but was compelled to retire; and Niall Garv was next sent by Docwra, with five hundred English troops, to occupy the monastery of Donegal, where he was besieged by Red Hugh.\* On the evening of the 29th of September, some gunpowder in the monastery having exploded, the building took fire, and this was a signal

\* F. Donatus Moony, who was the sacristan of the Donegal monastery, and afterwards provincial of his order for Ireland, gives, in his MS. history of the Irish Franciscans, compiled in 1617, some curious details of the arrival of the English soldiers at Donegal, and of the siege which followed. Up to that time there were forty brothers in the house, and the sacred ceremonies were performed there with great solemnity. He enumerates the suits of vestments, many of which were

of cloth of gold or silver; and the sacred utensils, among which were sixteen large chalices of silver, only two of which were not gilt. Notice being received of the approach of the military, all these valuables were removed in a boat to a place of safety in the woods, but in some time after they fell into the hands of Oliver Lambert, when governor of Connaught, and were converted to profane uses. See appendix to O'Sullivan's *Hist. Cath.*, ed. of 1850.



to O'Donnell to attack the garrison. A struggle, of which the horrors were intensified by the conflagration and the surrounding darkness, was kept up during the night, but Niall Garv held out with indomitable obstinacy. He was supported by an English ship in the harbor, and retreated next morning, with the remnant of his troops, to the monastery of Magherabeg, which he fortified, and defended against the renewed attacks of Red Hugh.

The long-expected aid from Spain at length arrived. A Spanish fleet, conveying an army of about 3,000 infantry, under the command of Don Juan del Aguila, entered the harbor of Kinsale, on the 23d of September, and the English garrison having retired to Cork on their approach, the Spaniards took possession of the town, and proceeded to fortify themselves there, and in two castles which defended the harbor; that of Rincorran, on the east, and Castle-ni-Park, on the west of the mouth. Lord Mountjoy was at Kilkenny when he received news of the invasion, and with Sir George Carew, lord president of Munster, hastened to reconnoitre the enemy. The army, which Carew had under his command, consisted of 3,000 men, of whom at least 2,000 were Irish; and the entire royal army, at this time, mustered about 7,000 men. The Spaniards were not more than about half the number originally destined for Ireland; but ill-luck seemed to attend this expedition from the beginning. Owing to the absence of the fleet at

Terceira, its departure was retarded until the 6,000 men, originally composing the armament, were diminished to less than 4,000; and when the expedition did sail it encountered a storm that compelled seven of the ships, conveying a chief part of the artillery and military stores, and the arms intended for distribution to the Irish, to put back to Corunna. O'Neill and O'Donnell had besought King Philip to send his aid to Ulster, where they would be prepared to co-operate with their Spanish allies, and where a smaller force would thus suffice, while in Munster they could give no help; and yet this small army was thrown into an inconsiderable port of the southern province, long after the war there had been totally extinguished.

Mathew of Oviedo, who arrived in the Spanish fleet, as well as the general, del Aguila, sent notice to the northern chiefs, who, notwithstanding the distance and the difficulties of so long a journey in winter, prepared with devoted bravery to set out to join their allies. O'Donnell, with his habitual ardor, was first on the way. He was joined by Felim O'Doherty, MacSweeny-na-tuath, O'Boyle, O'Rourke, the brother of O'Conor Sligo, the O'Conor Roe, MacDermot, O'Kelly, some of the O'Flaherties, William and Redmond Burke, and others, and mustered about 2,500 hardy men. FitzMaurice of Kerry, and the Knight of Glin, who had been for some time with him, were also in this corps. He set out about the end of October, and had



reached Ikerrin, in Tipperary, where he purposed to await O'Neill, when he found that Sir George Carew was encamped in the plains of Cashel, to cut off his advance to the south, while St. Lawrence, with the army of the Pale, was approaching from Leinster, and the lofty mountains, which lay to west, were impassable at that season for an army incumbered with baggage. Fortunately a frost of unusual intensity set in, and opened a firm road over the bogs, of which O'Donnell availed himself; and by a circuitous route across Slieve Phelim, and by the abbey of Owey, he reached Croom, after a march of thirty-two Irish miles in one day, on the 23d of November. Carew, still attempting to intercept him, only succeeded in reaching Kilmallock the same day; but despairing of being able to cope with "so swift-footed a general," he rejoined the lord deputy, then besieging Kinsale, and left O'Donnell to pursue his march.

The English carried on the siege with great activity during the month of November, and the Spaniards, on their side, behaved with admirable bravery. On the 1st of that month the besiegers took the castle of Rincorran, and made eighty-six Spaniards prisoners, besides a number of Irish "churls," and women and children; and on the 20th, Castle-ni-Park fell into their hands. The Spaniards made sev-

eral desperate sorties, in which great numbers were slain on both sides; but as the chief part of their artillery was in those ships which had put back to Spain, they had only three or four cannon to defend the fortifications, while the English had about twenty pieces of ordnance constantly playing on the walls of the town, and an army which amounted on the 20th, according to Moryson, to 11,800 foot and 857 horse, but which was probably in the gross nearer to 15,000 men.\* On the 1st of December, a breach having been made practicable, the English sent forward a storming party of 2,000 men, who were repulsed with great gallantry by the Spaniards. On the 3d, the missing portion of the Spanish fleet, under Don Pedro Zubiaur, arrived at Castlehaven, some twenty-five Irish miles west from Kinsale, and landed over 700 men, parties of whom were put in possession of Fineen O'Driscoll's castle of Baltimore, Donnell O'Sullivan Beare's castle of Dunboy, at Bearehaven, and the fort of Castlehaven. Part of the English fleet, under Admiral Sir Richard Levison, was sent from Kinsale to attack the Spaniards at Castlehaven, and an action ensued on the 6th, the English losing over 300 men, and being obliged to return to Kinsale next day, although Moryson, as usual, claims the victory for them.

O'Neill, who had tarried on his way

\* The English army was about this time considerably augmented. Sir Christopher St. Lawrence arrived with the levy of the Pale; the earl of Clanrickard, with his re-

tainers: the earl of Thomond with 1,000 men from England; and 2,000 infantry, with some cavalry, which had been landed at Waterford, were all recent additions.



to plunder Meath, at length arrived, and on the 21st of December showed himself, with all his forces, on a hill to the north of Kinsale, about a mile from the English camp, at a place called Belgoley. His own division must have been under 4,000 men, seeing that with O'Donnell's 2,500, O'Sullivan Beare's retainers, and the few others whom the shattered resources of Munster could supply, the whole Irish army amounted, even according to the English accounts, to only 6,000 foot and 500 horse, with 300 Spaniards from Castlehaven, under Captain Alphonso Ocampo; while the English force at this time, allowing for losses, must have been at least 10,000 strong. The position of the English was now very critical. They were losing great numbers by sickness and desertion, and were so closely hemmed in between the Irish on one side and the town on the other, that they could procure no fodder for their horses, and were threatened with famine, so that Mountjoy thought seriously of raising the siege and retiring to Cork for the winter. But on the other hand, the Spaniards in Kinsale had lost all patience. They had been in error as to the state of the country, and learned with chagrin, on their arrival, that Florence MacCarthy and the earl of Desmond were prisoners in London; that the Catholics of Munster could afford them no active co-operation; and that a large portion of the army arrayed against them consisted of Catholic Irish. Their own shipping had been sent back

to Spain, and the harbor was blockaded by an English squadron, which cut off all hope of succor from abroad. Under these circumstances, Don Juan del Aguila wrote pressing letters to the Irish chiefs, importuning them to come to his assistance without further delay. He was a brave soldier, but an incompetent general; and in his self-conceit and ignorance of their real circumstances, had conceived a disgust and personal enmity for the Irish, that unfitted him to act effectively with them. He urged them to attack the English camp on a certain night, and promised on his side to make a sortie in full force simultaneously; but when this plan was discussed in the council of the Irish chiefs, it was opposed by O'Neill, who well knew that with delay the destruction of the English army by disease and famine was certain. O'Donnell, however, took a different view, and thought they were bound in honor to meet the wishes of their allies; and the majority of the leaders agreeing with him, the immediate attack was resolved on.

It happened, for the ill-luck of the Irish, that Brian MacHugh Oge MacMahon, whose son had been a page in England with the president, Carew, sent a boy, on the night of the 22d of December, to the English camp to request Captain William Taaffe to procure for him from the president a bottle of aquavitæ or usquebagh. The favor was granted, and next day MacMahon again sent the boy with a letter



to thank Carew for his present, and to warn him of the attack which the Irish were to make on the English lines that night. This message, which was confirmed by a letter from Don Juan, which the English intercepted, was acted on, and thus the English were perfectly prepared against the intended surprise. After some dispute about the command—for it would appear that O'Neill and O'Donnell were not at all in accord on this ill-concerted enterprise—the Irish army set out under cover of the darkness on the night of the 23d in three divisions, Captain Tyrrell leading the vanguard, O'Neill the centre, and O'Donnell the rear. The obscurity was broken by frequent flashes of lightning, but their lurid and fitful glare only rendered the way more doubtful. The guides missed their course, and after wandering throughout the night, O'Neill, accompanied by O'Sullivan and the Spanish captain, Ocampo, ascended a small hill at the dawn of day, and saw the English intrenchments close at hand, with the men under arms, the cavalry mounted and in advance of their quarters, and all in readiness for battle. His own men were at the time in the utmost disorder, and O'Donnell's division was at a considerable distance. It was therefore determined that the

attack should, under the circumstances, be postponed, or, as others say, that the men should retire a little that they might be put into order; but this moment of hesitation was fatal. The English cavalry poured out upon them, and charged the broken masses. For an hour a portion of the Irish struggled to maintain their ground; but the scene was one of frightful carnage and confusion, and the retreat, which had actually commenced before the charge, was soon turned into a total rout. Ocampo's Spaniards made a gallant stand; but he himself was taken prisoner, and most of his men were cut to pieces. O'Donnell's division came at length into the field, and repulsed a wing of the English cavalry; but the panic became general, and in vain did Red Hugh strain his lungs to rally the flying multitude. O'Neill exerted his wonted bravery, but all his efforts were fruitless. At least a thousand of the Irish were slain in that disastrous overthrow, and all of them who were taken prisoners were hanged without mercy; while the loss of the English was very trifling, and the pursuit was only abandoned through fear of an ambuscade, or, as Moryson says, through the fatigue of the horses, which had been exhausted for want of fodder.\*

\* This fatal conflict took place on the morning of the 24th of December, 1601, according to the old mode of computation, which was still in use among the English, but on that of the 3d of January, 1602, according to the reformed calendar, which the Irish and Spaniards had adopted. Fynes Moryson asserts that 1,200 of the Irish were left dead upon the field, besides those slain in the

pursuit; while on the English side, Sir Richard Greame was killed, and Captains Danvers and Godolphin wounded; but Camden says that several of the English were wounded. No reliance, however, can be placed on these numbers, and it is probable that the English loss was much greater than was thus assumed. The earl of Clanrickard distinguished himself by his zeal



A.D. 1602.—The night after their defeat, the Irish army halted at Inishannon, near Bandon, and bitter was the anguish in which their leaders indulged for the misfortunes of that day. They attributed it, say the annalists, to the anger of God, and deemed the number of the slain a trifling loss compared to the irreparable injury inflicted on their cause. O'Neill, more especially, was plunged in the deepest dejection. He was already advanced in years, and seemed to have no hope of retrieving their lost fortunes; yet gloomy though

killing twenty of the Irish kerne with his own hand, crying out to "spare no rebel;" for which services the lord deputy knighted him on the field. That MacMahon, who betrayed to the enemy the secret of the intended attack, may have also hastened the disastrous flight is not improbable, but history is silent on this point. Carew, or his secretary, Stafford, states in the *Pacata Hibernia*, that the earl of Thomond often mentioned an old prophecy, which foretold that the Irish would be defeated near Kinsale, and Moryson says an old manuscript, containing the prophecy, was shown to Lord Mountjoy on the day of the battle. Both English and Irish accounts refer to some deception which led the Irish and Spaniards into error as to their respective movements; and the English horsemen, says the *Pacata*, imagined that they saw "lamps at the points of their spears" that night. For the details of this unfortunate affair, the reader may consult the *Hist. Cath. Compend.* of P. O'Sullivan Beare, Fynes Moryson's *History of Ireland*, the *Pacata Hibernia*, Camden, and the Four Masters.

\* O'Donnell landed at Corunna on the 14th of January, and was received with great honor by the Count Caracena, governor of Galicia, who treated him as a prince, and with higher honor than would have been bestowed on any of the grandees of Spain. The count presented him at his departure, on the 27th, with the sum of a thousand ducats, and accompanied him as far as Santa Lucia. Next day O'Donnell proceeded to the city of Compostella, where the highest honor was paid to him by the archbishop, clergy, and citizens. The archbishop invited him to lodge in his own palace, but O'Donnell respectfully declined; and on the 29th, the prelate celebrated mass with pontifical solemnity, and administered the Holy Sacrament to O'Donnell. He af-

the forebodings of the Irish chiefs must have been that night, darker far was the fate of their country than they could have foreseen. It was resolved that O'Donnell should proceed to Spain to explain their position to King Philip; and on the sixth of January, 1602 (new style), that is, three days after the battle of Kinsale, Red Hugh sailed in a Spanish ship from Castlehaven, accompanied by Redmond Burke, Hugh Mostian or Mostyn, and father Flaithry or Florence, O'Mulconry; and followed by the loud wailings of his people.\*

terwards entertained the Irish chief at dinner with great magnificence, and presented him on his departure, as the count of Caracena had done, with a thousand ducats. "The king," says F. Patrick Sinnot, an Irish priest (whose letter from Corunna, relating these circumstances, to F. Dominic Collins, a Jesuit in the castle of Dunboy, is published in the *Pacata Hibernia*), "understanding of O'Donnell's arrival, wrote unto the Earle of Caracena concerning the reception of him, and the affairs of Ireland, which was one of the most gracious Letters that ever King directed; for by it plainly appeared that hee would endanger his kingdom to succor the Catholickes of Ireland, for the perfecting whereof great preparations were in hand." O'Donnell repaired to Zamora, where the king then was, and was graciously received by Philip III., by whose desire he returned to Corunna, to wait until the preparations for another armament for Ireland could be completed. Spring and summer wore away, and O'Donnell, whose impatience would let him wait no longer, set out for Valladolid, where the court was then held; but fell sick on the way and died at Simancas on the 10th of September, 1602, in the twenty-ninth year of his age. He was buried in the cathedral of Valladolid, where the king caused a suitable monument to be erected over him. Thus died one of the most illustrious heroes that Ireland had produced, and with him perished the last hope of succor for his country. In his last illness he was attended by his confessor, F. Florence O'Mulconry, or Conroy, and by F. Maurice Ultagh, or Donlevy, both Franciscan friars. The latter was from the convent of O'Donnell's town of Donegal; and the former, who was highly distinguished for his learning among the schoolmen of Spain, was, in 1610, made archbishop of Tuam by the pope, and obtained,



O'Neill returned by a rapid march to Ulster, and Rory O'Donnell, to whom the chieftaincy of Tirconnell had been delegated by his brother, Red Hugh, proceeded with his followers to North Connaught. In the mean time Don Juan del Aguila, after some other fruitless sallies, sent proposals of capitulation, which were accepted by Mountjoy on the 2d of January, old style, or the 12th, new style. They were very honorable to the Spaniards, who evacuated Kinsale with their colors flying, and with their arms, ammunition, and valuables, and were to be conveyed back to Spain on giving up their other garrisons of Dunboy, Baltimore, and Castlehaven. The siege had lasted for more than ten weeks, from the 17th of October; and in it the Spaniards, who displayed great bravery, lost about 1,000 men; while the loss of the English, by fighting and by disease, must have been at least 4,000 men. Don Juan's chivalry was of the quixotic kind. He challenged lord Mountjoy to settle by single combat the questions at issue between king Philip and Queen Elizabeth; but the offer was of course rejected; and after the surrender of Kinsale an intimate friendship grew up between him and Sir George Carew. The Irish, for whom Don Juan expressed contempt, believed him to be guilty of perfidy or cowardice; and Donnell O'Sullivan Beare, acting on this impression, contrived to recover possession of his own castle of Dunboy,

by causing an aperture to be made in the wall, and entering it with eighty men, at the dead of night, while the Spanish garrison were asleep; and then declaring that he held it for the king of Spain, to whom he had formally transferred his allegiance. Don Juan was enraged when he heard of this proceeding, which he considered a violation of the capitulation, and offered to go himself to dispossess O'Sullivan; but Mountjoy was more desirous for his departure than his assistance, and the Spaniards re-embarked for their own country, some on the 20th of February, and the remainder on the 16th of March. Don Juan, on his return, was placed under arrest, and died of grief.

The castle of Dunboy (Dunbaoi) was deemed from its position to be almost impregnable. Situated on a point of land separated by a narrow channel from Bear Island, in Bantry Bay, it could only be approached on the land side through a vast extent of mountainous and boggy country, while by sea it was also difficult of access, owing to the extreme ruggedness of the coast. Its capture was therefore regarded as an enterprise full of danger and difficulties, and many were the arguments used with Sir George Carew to dissuade him from undertaking it. The lord president had resolved, however, upon the project, and set out from Cork on the 23d of April, accompanied by the earl of Thomond, who had been sent a little before to re-

in 1616, from Philip III., the foundation of the college of St. Anthony of Padua, at Louvain, for Irish Francis-

cans. See his life in T. Darcy Magee's *Irish Writers* also in the *Irish Writers* of Ware and of O'Reilly.



connoitre the Irish position. Carew's army amounted to about 3,000 men, although he himself says the efficient men were not above half that number; and to these was soon after added a force with which Sir Charles Wilmot had been hunting down the scattered "rebels" in Kerry, and with which he had forced his way across Mangerton, in spite of the resistance of Tyrrell. Various causes protracted Carew's march and the preparations for the siege, but especially the delay in the arrival of the shipping which conveyed the ordnance; so that it was only on the 1st and 2d of June that the army landed on Bear Island, and on the 6th that they crossed to the main land on the western shore of Bearehaven, and commenced the operations of the siege. The defence of the castle was intrusted by O'Sullivan to Richard Mageoghegan, while O'Sullivan himself and Tyrrell, with their forces, were encamped at some distance in the interior. There were a few Spanish gunners in the castle, and Carew contrived to have a letter in Spanish conveyed to them, tempting them to desert, but ineffectually. The earl of Thomond also, by Carew's directions, held a parley with Mageoghegan on Bear Island, on the 5th of June; but all the offers held out to him, and all the earl's "eloquence and artifice," failed to turn that brave and faithful soldier from his duty. The siege was now carried on with unrelenting vigor, but the heroism of the besieged could not be subdaed. The

garrison consisted at the commencement of only 143 chosen fighting men, who had but a few small cannon, while the comparatively large army which assailed them were well supplied with artillery and all the means of attack. At length, on the 17th of June, when the castle had been nearly shattered to pieces, the garrison offered to surrender if allowed to depart with their arms; but their messenger was immediately hanged, and the order for the assault was given. Although the proportion of the assailants in point of numbers was overwhelming, the storming party were resisted with the most desperate bravery. From turret to turret, and in every part of the crumbling ruins, the struggle was successively maintained throughout the livelong day; thirty of the gallant defenders attempted to escape by swimming, but soldiers had been posted in boats, who killed them in the water; and at length the surviving portion of the garrison retreated into a cellar, into which the only access was by a narrow, winding flight of stone steps. Their leader, Mageoghegan, being mortally wounded, the command was given to Thomas Taylor, the son of an Englishman, and the intimate friend of Captain Tyrrell, to whose niece he was married. Nine barrels of gunpowder were stowed in the cellar, and with these Taylor declared he would blow up all that remained of the castle, burying himself and his companions, with their enemies, in the ruins, unless they received a promise of life. This was refused by



the savage Carew, who, placing a guard upon the entrance to the cellar, as it was then after sunset, returned to the work of slaughter next morning. Cannon balls were then discharged among the Irish in their last dark retreat, and Taylor was forced by his companions to surrender unconditionally; but when some of the English officers descended into the cellar, they found the wounded Mageoghegan with a lighted candle in his hand, staggering to throw it into the gunpowder. Captain Power thereupon seized him by the arms, and the others dispatched him with their swords; but the work of death was not yet completed. Fifty-eight of those who had surrendered were hanged that day in the English camp, and some others who were then reserved were hanged a few days after; so that not one of the one hundred and forty-three heroic defenders of Dunboy survived. On the 22d of June the remains of the castle were blown up by Carew with the gunpowder found there.\*

The fall of Dunboy was of fatal importance to the Irish cause. As soon as the news reached Spain, the prepar-

ations for a new expedition to this country were suspended, and on the death of Red Hugh O'Donnell, a few months later, the project was wholly abandoned. The war was over in Munster, but the work of extermination was only well begun. Captain Roger Harvey was sent into Carberry to "purge the country of rebels" by martial law, and Wilmot returned to Kerry with instructions to remove the whole population of certain districts. All suspected persons of the poorer class were to be executed without mercy;† and in one instance we find a number of sick and wounded, who were left behind on the removal of an Irish camp, massacred, "to put them out of pain!"‡ The crops were destroyed, and in fact, Sir George Carew set about reducing the country to a desert. O'Sullivan's castle on Dursey island, which was intended as a last retreat, fell even before Dunboy, and its garrison were put to death; but Donnell O'Sullivan still continued to maintain his independence, surrounded at first by a numerous host of followers in the wild recesses of Glengarriff. Encouraging promises, together

\* See minute details of the siege in the *Pacata Hibernia*, and in O'Sullivan's *Hist. Cath.* Among the prisoners taken in Dunboy was Father Dominic Collins, or O'Collane, who is called in the *Pacata* a friar, and by P. O'Sullivan Beare "a lay religious of the Society of Jesus." In his youth he was an officer in the French service, but abandoned the world and became a Jesuit. He was taken to Youghal, his native town, and executed there. Father Archer, another Irish Jesuit, was at that time in O'Sullivan's camp; and in one of the attacks made by Tyrrell on the English during the siege of Dunboy, had a narrow escape from falling into the hands of his bitter enemies. Among the incidents of the

siege it should be stated that the sons and retainers of Owen O'Sullivan, who claimed the right of chieftaincy against Donnell O'Sullivan, were actively engaged on the English side. We may also take this opportunity to mention, with reference to the orthography of this name, that although the commonly received form be "O'Sullivan," it was written "O'Sullivan" by the author of the *Historæ Catholicæ Ibernix Compendium*, the latter being also nearer to the Irish *Ua Suilleabhain*. Both spellings are used by Dr. O'Donovan in the *Four Masters*.

† *Pacata Hibernia*, p. 449 (ed. 1810).

‡ *Ibid.*, p. 659.



with a large amount of gold—which had been brought this summer from Spain by Owen MacEgan, vicar apostolic and bishop of Ross\*—had helped to sustain them; but O'Donnell's adherents gradually deserted him, and even the gallant Tyrrell separated from him. At length, on the 31st December, 1602, he set out from Glengariff with nearly 1,000 followers, of whom about 400 were fighting men, the rest being servants, women, and children; and after one of the most extraordinary retreats recorded in history, reached O'Rourke's castle in Leitrim. Along their entire route they were pursued and attacked by the population of the country, Irish as well as English; and what with fighting all day and marching all night, there was scarcely any time for repose. They crossed the Shannon at Portland, in Tipperary, by means of currachs, which they constructed of twigs covered with the skins of their horses; and having been attacked near Aughrim by a considerable force, under the command of the earl of Clanrickard's brother, and of Henry Malby and others they fought with such desperation

that they routed the enemy, and slew Malby and several of the officers. A great many fell in the perpetual fight which they had to sustain; several who were wounded or exhausted by fatigue, had to be abandoned along the way; and at length their number, on arriving in Leitrim, was reduced to thirty-five, of whom eighteen were fighting men, sixteen servants, and one woman.†

Words cannot adequately describe the state to which Ireland was reduced before the close of this eventful year. A horrible famine, brought on by the repeated destruction of the crops by Mountjoy, was wasting the country, and unnumbered carcasses of its victims lay unburied by the way-side. Sir Henry Docwra, governor of Derry, had been planting garrisons at all the points he chose, without opposition; and Mountjoy traversed Ulster, during the summer, erecting forts, while O'Neill, driven into his last fastnesses, with a few followers, stood merely on the defensive. About the 10th of August, Mountjoy's forces, augmented by those of Docwra from Derry, Chichester from Carrick-

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\* This prelate was slain by the English in a skirmish with some of the fugitive insurgents in Carberry, on the 15th of January, 1603, new style. He was clothed in his pontifical robes, and carried his breviary in one hand and his rosary in the other, at the time he was struck down by a soldier. He was regarded by the Catholics as a martyr, and his remains were interred in the abbey of Timoeague. A priest, who acted as his chaplain, was taken at the same time, and hanged soon after, at Cork. *Vide*, O'Sullivan's *Hist. Cath.*, p. 343, and *Pac. Hib.*, p. 661.

† In the party who reached O'Rourke's castle, were

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the father and mother of the historian; Dermot, the father, being then nearly seventy years of age. Philip, the author of the *Historiæ Catholicæ Ibernæ Compendium*, had been sent out to Spain while a boy, in the beginning of 1602, and was then at Corunna, under the tuition of Father Sinnott. He was soon joined, in Spain, by his whole surviving family; his father, mother, brother, and two sisters, together with Donnell O'Sullivan Beare himself. When Philip grew up he entered the Spanish navy, and while thus serving wrote his invaluable Catholic history, which was published in 1621.



fergus, Danvers from Armagh, and of some from the Mountjoy, Mountnorris, Blackwater, and Charlemont forts which he had erected, amounting, on the whole, to at least 8,000 men, were prepared to act against O'Neill. Their first exploit was to take a stronghold or cranoge called Inisloghlin, situated in a great bog on the borders of Down and Antrim, and which was defended by only a few men, but contained a great quantity of valuables belonging to O'Neill. Mountjoy then proceeded, as he states in a letter to Cecil, "by the grace of God, as near as he could, utterly to waste the country of Tyrone;" and his secretary, Fynes Moryson, tells us that on the 20th, hearing that O'Neill had passed from O'Kane's territory into Fermanagh, he was resolved to spoil the entire country, and to banish the inhabitants to the south side of the Blackwater, "so that if O'Neill returned he would find nothing in the country but the queen's garrisons." O'Neill had now retired to a great fastness near the extremity of Lough Erne, accompanied by his brother Cormac, Art O'Neill of Clannaboy, and MacMahon, with a muster of some six hundred foot and sixty horse; and Mountjoy followed him in the beginning of September with his army, but could get no

nearer than twelve miles; besides which the confederates had a means of retreat into O'Rourke's country. Henry and Con, the sons of Shane O'Neill, who were in the English service, and were followed by some of the men of Tyrone, were permitted by Mountjoy to remain with their creaghts or herdsmen in the territory, which was otherwise wholly depopulated; and the lord deputy returned, on the 11th of September, to Newry. Describing this march, in his letters to Cecil and the privy council, he says—"We found everywhere men dead of famine, inso-much that O'Hagan protested to us, that between Tullaghoge and Toome there lay unburied 1,000 dead, and that since our first drawing this year to Blackwater there were about 3,000 starved in Tyrone."\*

Mountjoy proceeded to Connaught in the latter end of November, and at Athlone, on the 14th of the following month, received the submission of Rory, the brother of Red Hugh O'Donnell, and of O'Connor Sligo. With the news of Red Hugh's death in Spain, on the 10th of September, every vestige of hope was indeed destroyed, and none of the Irish chiefs now remained in arms except O'Neill, with his companions, and the chief of Leitrim,

\* Among other examples of the "unspeakable extremities" to which the population was driven by famine, Mountjoy's secretary, Fynes Moryson, relates how Sir Arthur Chichester, Sir Richard Moryson, and other English commanders in Ulster, witnessed "a most horrible spectacle of three children (whereof the eldest was not above ten years old) all eating and knawing with their teeth the entrails of their dead mother, upon

whose flesh they had fed twenty days past." The details which follow in this horrible description are too disgusting in their minuteness for quotation. And he adds that "no spectacle was more frequent, in the ditches of townes, and especiallie in wasted countries, than to see multitudes of these poore people dead, with their mouthes all coloured greene, by eating nettles, docks, and all things they could rend up above ground."



whom Moryson calls "the proud and insolent O'Rourke." At the close of January, the lord deputy returned to Dublin, and from his correspondence with the queen and council in England, during that and the following month, it is evident that O'Neill was still considered formidable, and that unscrupulous means for his destruction were contemplated.

A.D. 1603.—At length negotiations were entered into between O'Neill and Mountjoy, through the medium of Sir Garrett Moore. Elizabeth was so exasperated against the Tyrone chief, whom she called "a most ungrateful viper," that she could with difficulty be induced to grant him any terms; but she died on the 24th of March, and Mountjoy receiving private intelligence of this event on the 27th, while at Garrett Moore's castle at Mellifont, hastened the arrangement with O'Neill, who repaired to Mellifont and made his submission there in the usual form, to the lord

deputy, on the 31st of March. He abjured all foreign power and jurisdiction, especially that of the king of Spain; renounced the title of O'Neill and all his lands, except such as should be granted to him under the crown; and promised future obedience, and to discover his correspondence with the Spaniards; but he received a full pardon, was restored in blood, and allowed the free exercise of his religion. It was only on the 5th of April that the queen's death was publicly announced, and that O'Neill discovered he had made his submission to a dead sovereign, and lost the opportunity of continuing the war against her weak successor, or of making more favorable terms for himself. Soon after O'Neill's submission, Cerda arrived with two ships conveying ammunition and money; which were, however, returned to King Philip, as no longer available.\*

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\* After his submission, O'Neill wrote to the king of Spain, requesting him to send home his son, Henry, but the boy never returned. He was page to the archduke Albert, and was strangled at Brussels, in 1617, the year after his father's death. The murder was enveloped in the profoundest mystery, but there can be no doubt that it was contrived by English influence, as the youth's great ability gave reason to fear that he would yet be dangerous in Ireland. See Mooney's ac-

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count, quoted by Dr. Kelly, in note to the *Hist. Cath.*, p. 336, where the murdered youth is called Bernard. The last year of O'Neill's war cost the English treasury £290,733, besides "contingencies," which would appear from Cox to have been at least £50,000 more, making the last year's expenditure for this Irish war at least £340,733, while the revenue of England at this period was not more than £450,000 per annum



## CHAPTER XXXVI.

## REIGN OF JAMES I.

The Irish submit to James, as a prince of the Milesian race, and suppose him to be friendly to their creed and country.—They discover their mistake.—Revolt of the southern towns.—Hugh O'Neill and Rory O'Donnell accompany Mountjoy to England.—Title of Earl of Tirconnell created.—Religious character of the Irish wars.—Suspension of penal laws under Elizabeth.—Persecution of the Catholics by James.—Remonstrance of the Anglo-Irish Catholics.—Abolition of Irish laws and customs.—O'Neill persecuted—Inveigled into a sham plot.—Flight of Tyrone and Tirconnell to Rome.—Rising of Sir Cahir O'Doherty—His fate, and that of Niall Garv O'Donnell and others.—The confiscation and plantation of Ulster—The Corporation of London receives a large share of the spoils.—A Parliament convened after twenty-seven years.—Creation of boroughs.—Disgraceful scene in the election of Speaker.—Secession of the recusants.—Prototype of the Catholic Association.—Treatment of the Catholic Delegates by the king.—Concessions—Act of Pardon and Oblivion.—Unanimity of the new Session of Parliament.—Bill of attainder against O'Neill and O'Donnell, passed.—First general admission of the Irish under English law.—Renewed persecution of the Catholics.—The king's rapacity.—Wholesale confiscations in Leinster.—Inquiry into defective titles—Extension of the inquiry to Connaught.—Frightful system of legal oppression.

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*Contemporary Sovereigns.*—Popes: Clement VIII., Leo XI., Paul V., Gregory XV., Urban VIII.—Kings of France: Henry IV., Louis XIII.—Kings of Spain: Philip III., Philip IV.

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(A. D. 1603 TO A. D. 1625.)

JAMES I. may be regarded as the first sovereign of England who was undisputed monarch of Ireland. The Irish willingly submitted to him as the direct descendant of their own ancient Milesian kings; they also believed him to be in secret friendly to the Catholic religion—an opinion which

he had himself encouraged—and thus they hailed his accession as a new and happier era for their country and their creed.\* It was generally supposed by Catholics that the ancient faith would be restored under him as it had been under Mary; and so strong was this delusion, that the people of the southern

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\* It was the policy of James, before his accession, to gain the friendship of the Catholic potentates, and to weaken the power of England. "Lord Home—who was himself a Roman Catholic—was intrusted," says Robertson (*Hist. of Scot.*), "with a secret commission to the Pope. The archbishop of Glasgow, another Roman Catholic, was very active with those of his own religion. Sir James Lindsay made great progress in gaining the

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English papists." As to his intrigues for facilitating his own approach to the throne by "wasting the vigor of the state of England," they were suspected by Elizabeth herself (*vide* Robertson); and Dr. Anderson (*Royal Genealogies*, p. 786), says, that during the reign of Elizabeth, James "assisted the Irish privately more than Spain did publicly."



towns, who, although Anglo-Irish, and wholly free hitherto from any "taint of rebellion," were almost universally Catholic, thought they might resume with impunity the public exercise of their religious worship. In some places they took possession of their own ancient churches, which had been appropriated to the Protestant service, and once more celebrated in them the Divine Mysteries; and in others they thought of repairing the ruined abbeys and monasteries. Moreover, the mayors of Cork and Waterford, supposing the authority of Elizabeth's deputy to be no longer valid, delayed obeying his orders for the proclamation of the new king. The news of these proceedings came by surprise upon Mountjoy. He was provoked at such "simplicity," as he called it, and marching with a formidable army to the south, speedily convinced the Catholic townspeople of their error. Cork first submitted. The citizens of Waterford closed their gates, pleading the privilege of an ancient charter which exempted them from receiving soldiers; but the lord deputy threatened to "cut to pieces the charter of King John with the sword of King James," and to "strew salt" on the ruins of their town. No further show of resistance was made; and the towns of Kilkenney, Wexford, Cashel, and Limerick were compelled in their turn to submit.

To allay the ferment in the popular mind, the king published an act of general indemnity and oblivion, and a brief period of profound tranquillity followed.

Mountjoy, on whom James conferred the higher dignity of lord lieutenant of Ireland, with the privilege of residing in England, left Sir George Carew as lord deputy, and proceeded to England in May, 1603, accompanied by Hugh O'Neill, Rory (or Roderick) O'Donnell, and other Irish gentlemen. The king received the two Ulster chieftains very graciously, and confirmed the former in his restored title of earl of Tyrone, while he granted to O'Donnell that of earl of Tirconnell. Niall Garv, it must be observed, had forfeited all claim to reward for his former services to the government against Red Hugh. Docwra had found his insolence and ambition intolerable; and on the submission and reconciliation of Rory to the State, Niall threw off all restraint and got himself proclaimed the O'Donnell. His revolt, however, was easily put down, and he was content to receive pardon and his patrimonial inheritance. English law was now for the first time introduced into the territories of Tyrone and Tirconnell. The first sheriffs were appointed for them by Carew; and Sir Edward Pelham and Sir John Davis were the first to administer justice there according to the English forms.\*

\* Sir John Davis, who was king James's attorney-general for Ireland, referring, in his *Historical Relations*, to his experience on these Irish circuits, says: "The truth is, that in time of peace the Irish are more

fearful to offend the law than the English, or any other nation whatsoever;" and in concluding that tract, he observes: "There is no nation of people under the sun, that doth love equal and indifferent justice better than



That the Irish fought for the freedom of the Catholic religion as well as for their national independence, in the reign of Elizabeth, there cannot be any reasonable doubt. All the contemporary authorities show that the wars both of Ulster and Munster were essentially religious wars. The English writers pretend that they were chiefly fomented by the priests; and most of the Irish writers of that period expressly distinguish the national forces as the Catholic army. Nevertheless, a vast number of Catholics, Irish as well as Anglo-Irish, from one cause or another, fought under the royal standard, and their services could not be dispensed with by Elizabeth. Hence, while a sanguinary and unrelenting persecution was carried on against Catholics in England during her reign, it was necessary in Ireland to suspend to a great extent the operation of her persecuting laws. This did not amount to toleration. Simply, it was not convenient in many cases to put in force the existing laws against Catholicism. Under James, however, the case was different. Ireland had at length been conquered; a large portion of the Irish race had been exterminated; all was profound peace; the services of Catholics were no longer required; and, in fine, there was no reason in the

shape of expediency, why religious persecution should be longer delayed. The puritan party was rising into power, and James, who, as a Stuart, was "ever forward in sacrificing his friend to the fear of his enemy,"\* thought the time favorable for dissipating the illusions of the Irish Catholics about the public toleration of their faith.† Accordingly, on the 4th of July, 1605, he issued a proclamation, formally promulgating the Act of Uniformity (2 Eliz.), and commanding the "Popish clergy" to depart from the realm; and an insulting commission was issued to certain respectable Catholics, requiring them, under the title of inquisitors, to watch and inform against those of their own faith who did not frequent the Protestant churches on the appointed days. The great Anglo-Irish families of the Pale remonstrated against this severity, and presented a petition for freedom of religious worship; but the leading petitioners were confined in the castle of Dublin, and their principal agent, Sir Patrick Barnwell, was sent to England and committed to the tower. The same year the ancient Irish customs of tanistry and gavelkind were abolished by a judgment of the Court of King's Bench, and the inheritance of property was subjected to the rules of English law.

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the Irish; or will rest better satisfied with the execution thereof, although it be against themselves, so that they may have the protection and benefits of the law, when, upon just cause, they do desire it."

\* Plowden, *History of Ireland*, vol. i., p. 338.

† Shortly after he came to the throne, James sent orders to Dublin that the oath of supremacy should be

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administered to all Catholic lawyers and justices of the peace, and that the laws against recusants should be strictly enforced. Accordingly, sixteen Catholic aldermen and citizens of Dublin were summoned before the Privy Council, and six of them were fined £100 each, and three others £50 each, while all were committed prisoners to the castle during the pleasure of the court.



A.D. 1607.—While the Irish feelings and institutions were thus trampled under foot, it was not to be expected that O'Neill and O'Donnell would be left in the quiet enjoyment of the vast tracts of country which they still continued to possess. The former illustrious chief was persecuted in a variety of ways. He himself complained that he was so watched by the spies of the government that the slightest of his actions could not escape their notice. His claims to portions of his ancestral lands were disputed under the English law, and he was harassed by legal inquiries into title, and processes issued from the courts in Dublin. George Montgomery, the Protestant bishop of Derry, was his chief persecutor in this way, and obtained against him the aid of O'Cahane, or O'Kane, with whom O'Neill had a dispute about certain boundaries. Finally, a conspiracy, devised most probably by Cecil himself, was resorted to. Christopher St. Lawrence, baron of Howth, was employed to carry the scheme into execution, which he did by entrapping the earls of Tyrone and

Tirconnell, the baron of Devlin, and O'Cahane, into a sham plot. Their meetings were held at Maynooth, the ancient seat of the earls of Kildare; but none of the Kildare family were cognizant of their proceedings. It is possible that the Irish chieftains may have entered seriously into the plans proposed to them, St. Lawrence having kindled their anger by the statement that he had private information of fresh persecution intended against their religion; but the plot was, nevertheless, a sham. On a certain day an anonymous letter, addressed to Sir William Ussher, clerk of the privy council, was dropped at the door of the council chamber, mentioning a design, then in contemplation, for seizing the castle of Dublin, murdering the lord deputy, and raising a general revolt, to be aided by Spanish forces. This letter came from Lord Howth; and, although it mentioned no names, it was pretended that government was already in possession of information that fixed the guilt of the conspiracy on the earl of Tyrone.\* Shortly after, the country was

\* Mr. Moore, who read the correspondence of Lord Howth, and the depositions of Lord Devlin, taken on the 6th of November, 1607, came to the conclusion that the earls of Tyrone and Tirconnell had really entered into the conspiracy. *Hist. of Irel.*, vol. iv., pp. 453, &c. This, considering all the circumstances, is extremely probable, for the religious persecution at that time had become intolerable. See some of its features set forth in a Latin letter dated May, 1607, and signed by a bishop, a vicar-general, six priests, and a knight. This document, published for the first time by Dr. Kelly, in his edition of O'Sullivan's *Catholic History*, p. 271, has the following passage: "Even the illustrious earl of Tyrone, the Catholic Mardochai, already oppressed in

various ways, is now coming to Dublin, under a citation from the viceroy. It is not pleasant to foretell evil: but the malice of the heretics towards him, and their inveterate guile, compel us, at least, to have some fear for him." The account of the so-called conspiracy, preserved by tradition in his time, is briefly mentioned by Dr. Anderson, an English Protestant divine, in his *Royal Genealogies*, a work printed in London in 1736, and dedicated to the Prince of Wales. In page 786, he says: "Artful Cecil employed one St. Laurence to entrap the earls of Tyrone and Tirconnell, the lord of Devlin, and other Irish chiefs, into a sham plot which had no evidence but his. But these chiefs being basely informed that witnesses were to be hired against them



startled by the news that O'Neill and O'Donnell, with their families, had fled privately from Ireland. They took shipping at Rathmullen, on Lough Swilly, in Donegal, on the 14th of September, and sailed to Normandy, whence they proceeded through Flanders to Rome, where they lived on a pension from the pope and the king of Spain. O'Donnell died the following year; but O'Neill survived until 1616, when he died at an advanced age, having become blind towards the close of his life. Less impulsive and enterprising than Red Hugh O'Donnell, but equally valiant and devoted, Hugh

O'Neill was a better strategist and commander. His tastes were enlightened; his manner dignified, polished, and agreeable; his habits temperate, his powers of endurance very great. He possessed an acute understanding and great prudence; and while he was generally an overmatch for English statesmen in council, he was decidedly the most formidable adversary in the field which the English power ever encountered in this country. With the heroic struggles of O'Neill and O'Donnell terminated the power of the Irish chiefs, and the national independence of the Milesian race.\*

foolishly fled from Dublin, and so taking guilt upon them, they were declared rebels, and six entire counties in Ulster were at once forfeited to the crown, which was what their enemies wanted." That this Christopher St. Laurence, baron of Howth, who had embraced the new doctrines, was a fit person to carry out the nefarious plan, appears from the statement of Camden, who says (Eliz. p. 741), that he offered his services to the earl of Essex to murder Lord Grey de Wilton and the Secretary, lest they should prejudice the queen against the earl, but that the latter declined availing himself of such means. Lord Delvin was arrested, but contrived to escape by means of a rope, conveyed to him by a friend, and was afterwards pardoned. Cormac, the brother of O'Neill and O'Kane, were sent to the tower of London.

\* Some curious particulars about the departure of O'Neill from Ireland are given by Sir John Davis (*Hist. Rel.*), agreeing very nearly with those which appear in an Irish MS. at St. Isidore's, of which an extract has been published by Dr. O'Donovan, in the *Four Masters*, p. 2352, &c. In the beginning of September, 1607, nearly four months after the pretended discovery of St. Laurence's plot by the anonymous letter, O'Neill was at Slane with the lord deputy, Sir Arthur Chichester, and they conferred relative to a journey which the former was to make to London, before Michaelmas, in compliance with a summons from the king. While here, a letter was delivered to O'Neill from one John Bath, informing him that Maguire had arrived in a French ship in Lough Swilly. He then parted from the deputy in sadness, and was observed to weep bitterly on leaving

the house of his old friend, Sir Garrett Moore, at Mellifont, where he took his leave even of the children and the servants. On his way northward, he remained two days at his own residence in Dungannon, and proceeded thence hastily to Rathmullen, on the shore of Lough Swilly, where he found O'Donnell and several of his friends waiting and laying up stores in the French ship. The *Four Masters* enumerate the principal companions of his voyage. There were his countess, Catherine, daughter of Magennis (O'Neill's fourth wife); his three sons, Hugh, baron of Dungannon, John, and Brian; Ar. Oge, the son of his brother Cormac, and others of his relatives: Rory, or Roderic, O'Donnell, earl of Tirconnell; Caffar, or Cathbar, his brother, and his sister, Nuala, who was married to Niall Garv O'Donnell, but abandoned her husband when he became a traitor to his country; Hugh O'Donnell, the earl's son, and other members of his family; Cucon naught Maguire; Owen Roe MacWard, chief bard of Tirconnell, &c. "Woe to the heart that meditated, woe to the mind that conceived, woe to the council that decided on the project of their setting out on this voyage!" exclaim the annalists of Donegal, thus intimating that the flight of the Irish princes was, in the opinion of their contemporaries, a rash proceeding, or that it was artfully prompted by their enemies. On the arrival of the earls in France, the English minister demanded their surrender as rebels, but Henry IV. would not give them up. In passing thence through the Netherlands, they were honorably received by the Archduke Albert; and in Rome, "the common asylum of all Catholics," as it is called in the epitaph on young Hugh



A. D. 1608.—The slumber which followed these sad events was soon and rudely broken. Sir Cahir O'Doherty, chief of Inishowen, had hitherto lived on terms of friendship with the English authorities, but he was taunted with being privy to the escape of O'Neill; and Sir George Paulett, who had succeeded Sir Henry Docwra as governor of Derry, carried his insults so far as to strike him on the face. The blood of the young chieftain, who was only in his twenty-first year, boiled with rage at this indignity. The annalists say he was driven almost to madness, and rested not till he took fearful vengeance. He got possession of Culmore fort by stratagem at night, the 3d of May. Cox adds that he put its garrison to the sword; and before morning he marched to Derry, which he took by surprise; he slew Paulett and some other leading persons, slaughtered the garrison, and sacked and burned the town. Thus, his revolt was kindled in a moment. He was joined by several of the northern chieftains, and expect-

ing foreign aid through the intervention of the Irish princes abroad, held out until July, when he was killed by an accidental shot in a conflict with Wingfield, the marshal, and Sir Oliver Lambert, and his head sent to Dublin. Niall Garv O'Donnell, his son Naughtan, and his brothers, were arrested as confederates of O'Doherty's, and the two former were sent to London and confined in the Tower, until their death in 1626. Felim MacDevit and others were executed.\*

All this seemed to happen most opportunely for King James, who was now enabled to carry out his favorite scheme of colonization to his heart's content. Six counties of Ulster, Tyrone, Derry, Donegal, Fermanagh, Armagh, and Cavan, were confiscated to the crown, and were parcelled out among adventurers from England and Scotland. Various plans were proposed for the purpose, and among others, Lord Bacon was consulted; but his plan was disapproved of. Sir Arthur Chichester, the lord deputy, was found to be more useful

O'Neill's tomb, they met an affectionate and honorable welcome from Pope Pius V. The venerable pontiff regarded them as confessors, and, in conjunction with the king of Spain, afforded them liberal pensions for their support. But these illustrious exiles soon dropped into their foreign graves. O'Donnell died July 28th, 1608; his brother, Caffar, September 17th, the same year; Hugh, the baron, son of O'Neill, died the 23d of September, the following year, in the 24th year of his age; and, lastly, the renowned Tyrone himself departed on the 20th of July, 1616. Their way to death was smoothed by all the consolations of religion, and their ashes repose together in the Franciscan church of St. Peter-in-Montorio, on the Janiculum. The murder of Henry (or Bernard), another son of O'Neill's, at Brussels,

has been already mentioned. Maguire died at Genoa, on his way to Spain, August 12, 1608. Of the elegy composed for the earls by MacWard, a beautiful English version, by Clarence Mangan, will be found in the *Ballad Poetry of Ireland*, "Duffy's Library of Ireland."

\* It is clear from statements in Sir Henry Docwra's *Narration*, that Sir Cahir O'Doherty had been goaded into resistance by acts of legal spoliation, under which he suffered before he was charged with rebellion or publicly insulted by Paulett. He had been induced to make some conveyances, probably during his minority, and endeavored, in vain, to have them rescinded. According to tradition in the country, says Dr. O'Donovan, Sir Cahir O'Doherty was killed under the rock of Doon near Kilmacrenan. *Four Masters*, p. 2362, n.



and practical in his views, and richly was he rewarded for the assistance which he rendered to his royal master. He received the wide lands of Sir Cahir O'Doherty for his share in this wholesale spoliation. But the wealthy citizens of London were the largest participators in the plunder. They obtained 209,800 acres, and rebuilt the city, which, since then, has been called Londonderry. According to the plan finally adopted for the "plantation of Ulster," as this scheme was called, the lots into which the lands were divided were classified into those containing 2,000 acres, which were reserved for rich undertakers and the great servitors of the crown; those containing 1,500 acres, which were allotted to servitors of the crown in Ireland, with permission to take either English or Irish tenants; and thirdly, those containing 1,000 acres, which were to be distributed with still less restriction. The exclusion of the ancient inhabitants, and the proscription of the Catholic religion, were the fundamental principles which were to be acted on as far as practicable in this settlement.\*

A. D. 1611.—The persecution of the Catholics was becoming daily more sanguinary and relentless, but the execution of the venerable Conor O'Devany, bishop of Down and Connor, which took place this year in Dublin, affords

the most striking example of the extent to which it was carried at this time. This venerable prelate, who was then about eighty years of age, was originally a Franciscan friar, and was condemned to death on the nominal charge of having been with O'Neill in Ulster; and at the same time a priest named Patrick O'Loughrane was tried and condemned for having sailed in the same ship with O'Neill and O'Donnell to France, although it appeared that he was only accidentally their fellow-passenger, the real offence of these pious men being the rank which they held in the Catholic Church. The sentence was that they be first hanged, then cut down alive, their bowels cast into the fire, and their bodies quartered. When the hangman, who was an Irishman, heard that the bishop was condemned, he fled from the city, and no other Irishman could be found to execute the atrocious sentence, so that it was necessary to release and forgive an English murderer, that he might hang the bishop. The old prelate, fearing that the horrible spectacle of his torments might cause the priest to waver, requested the executioner to put the latter to death first; but the priest said "he need not be in dread on his account, that he would follow him without fear; remarking, that it was not meet a bishop should be without a priest to attend

\* See Pynnar's *Survey of Ulster*, and other original documents published in Harris's *Hibernica*; also, *The Confiscation of Ulster*, by Thomas MacNevin, in Duffy's *Library of Ireland*. Cox says, that in the instructions,

printed for the direction of the settlers, it was especially mentioned "that they should not suffer any laborer, that would not take the oath of supremacy, to dwell upon their land."



him. This he fulfilled, for he suffered the like torture with fortitude, for the sake of the kingdom of heaven and for his soul.\* These executions produced great excitement among the people. The Catholics collected the blood of the victims, whom they justly regarded as martyrs, and the next day they contrived to procure the mangled remains, and to inter them in a becoming manner.†

A. D. 1613.—Sir Arthur Chichester, who still held the reins of government in Ireland, was resolved to carry out his puritanical principles‡ to the utmost, and conceived a plan for erecting a "Protestant ascendancy" in this country. The plantation of Ulster with English Protestants and Scotch Presbyterians had paved the way for this project, but the work was as yet only half done. The deputy persuaded James that a parliament should be called. It was twenty-seven years since one had been held in Ireland; but the vast preponderance of population, property, and influence was still on the side of the Catholics, and to break that down

a great deal was to be done in the shape of preliminary arrangements. The deputy demanded, and easily obtained from the king, ample powers for these preparations, with which he undertook to secure a sufficient majority in both houses. Seventeen new counties had been formed since the last parliament; but many of these would send Catholic representatives, and it was by the creation of new boroughs that Chichester proposed to overwhelm the Catholic rank and population of the country. Forty new boroughs were accordingly created, many of them paltry villages or scattered houses, inhabited only by some half dozen of the new Ulster settlers, and several of them not being incorporated until after the writs had been issued. No previous communication of the design to summon parliament, or of the laws intended to be enacted, had been made pursuant to Poyning's act, and the Catholics justly apprehended a design to impose fresh grievances upon them. A letter signed by six Catholic lords of the Pale was accordingly addressed to the king, but he

\* Four Masters.

† P. O'Sullivan Beare, who gives an interesting account of the trial of the bishop and priest, mentions several other cases of the execution of Catholics about this period; among others, that of the prior of Lough Derg, who was hanged and quartered. Vide *Hist. Cath.*, p. 269.

‡ This Sir Arthur Chichester was a pupil of the famous Puritan minister, Cartwright, who was in the habit of praying in his sermons: "O Lord, give us grace and power as one man to set ourselves against them" (the bishops). "At this time," says Plowden (*History of Ireland*, vol. i., p. 338), "the general body of the reformed clergy in Ireland was Puritan; the most eminent

of whom for learning was Ussher, then (1610) Provost of Trinity College, Dublin, and afterwards (1624) Archbishop of Armagh, who by his management and contrivance procured the whole doctrine of Calvin to be received as the public belief of the Church of Ireland, and ratified by Chichester in the king's name. Not only the famous Lambeth articles concerning predestination, grace, and justifying faith, sent down as a standard of doctrine to Cambridge, but immediately suppressed by Queen Elizabeth, and afterwards rejected by King James, but also several particular fancies and notions of his own were (in 1615) incorporated, says Carte (*Orm.*, vol. i., p. 73), into the articles of the Church of Ireland."



treated their remonstrance with contempt. He pronounced their memorial to be a rash and insolent interference with his authority, and the lord deputy was allowed to pack his parliament as he pleased.\* The first trial of strength was in the election of a speaker. Sir John Everard, who had resigned his position as justice of the king's bench, rather than take the oath of supremacy, was proposed by the recusants, and Sir John Davis, the attorney-general, by the court party. The proceedings which ensued were scandalous. The recusants deemed the numerical majority of their opponents to be factious and illegal, as it really was, and in the absence of the court party in another room to be counted, according to the forms then in use, they placed their own candidate in the speaker's chair. On the return of the court party into the house a tumultuous scene took place. These placed Sir John Davis in the lap of Sir John

Everard, and then pulled the latter out of the chair, tearing his garments in the act. The Catholic party thereupon seceded from parliament, and sent a deputation to London to lay their complaints before the king, eight peers and about twice as many commoners being chosen for this purpose, parliament having in the mean time been prorogued.†

The reception given to the Catholic delegates was harsh and insulting. Two of the members, Talbot and Luttrell, were committed, one to the Tower, and the other to the Fleet prison; but ultimately James dismissed them after a severe rating in his own peculiar style,‡ and a commission of inquiry was granted; one of the concessions made being, that the members for boroughs incorporated after the writs were issued had no right to sit. In the subsequent sessions of this parliament, until it was dissolved in October, 1615, no further

\* Of the 232 members returned, 125 were Protestants, 101 belonged to the "recusant" or Catholic party, and 6 were absent. The Upper House consisted of 16 temporal barons, 25 Protestant prelates, 5 viscounts, and 4 earls, of whom a considerable majority belonged to the court party. The wonder, observes Plowden, is how so large a majority of Protestants was obtained, considering how very few of the Irish had adopted the new doctrines; not sixty, says the Abbe Mageoghegan, down to the reign of James.

† "It may be here remarked," observes Mr. Moore, "as one of the proofs of the sad sameness of Irish history, that nearly 200 years after these events, when, by the descendants of these Catholic lords and gentry, the same wrongs were still suffered, the same righteous cause to be upheld, it was by expedients nearly similar that they contrived to resist peaceably their persecutors. In the separate assembly formed by the recusants we find the prototype of the Catholic Association; while

the large funds so promptly raised to defray the cost of the deputation to England was, in its spirit and national purpose, a forerunner of the Catholic Rent."—*History of Ireland*, vol. iv., p. 166.

‡ This silly, pedantic despot, whom his flatterers styled the "British Solomon," and who has been lauded by Hume and others for his Irish legislation, taunted the Irish agents as "a body without a head; a headless body; you would be afraid to meet such a body in the streets; a body without a head to speak!" and he asked, "What is it to you whether I make many or few boroughs? My council may consider the fitness if I require it; but if I made forty noblemen and four hundred boroughs—the more the merrier, the fewer the better cheer." As to his Irish government, he told them there was nothing faulty in it, "unless they would have the kingdom of Ireland like the kingdom of heaven!" See his incoherent speech, which was addressed to the lords of the council in presence of the Irish delegates, given in full by Cox.



display of angry feelings between the two parties took place. There appeared, indeed, to have been mutual concessions. An intended penal law, of a very sweeping character, was not brought forward;\* and while, on the other hand, large subsidies, which gratified the insatiable rapacity of the monarch, were voted, an act of oblivion and general pardon was passed in return; and the Irish in general were, for the first time, taken within the pale of the English law. But the measure which renders this parliament of James's most memorable, was that for the attainder of Hugh O'Neill, Hugh Roe O'Donnell, Sir Cahir O'Doherty, and several other Irish chiefs,—an unjust and vindictive act for which the grounds were never proved, and which, as being sanctioned by the Catholic party in a suicidal spirit of compromise, assumed, remarks Mr. Moore, "a still more odious character, and left a stain upon the record of their proceedings during this reign."†

A. D. 1616.‡—Sir Arthur Chichester having completed his task, and received as his reward an additional grant of Irish lands, together with the title of baron of Belfast, withdrew from the Irish government, and was replaced by

Sir Oliver St. John, afterwards created Viscount Grandison, whose instructions were to enforce with extreme rigor the fine inflicted on Catholics for absence from the Protestant service. This penal tax was not only most galling to the feelings of Catholics, but was most oppressive in a pecuniary point of view; for while the sum levied each time was only twelve pence according to the law, it was swelled up to ten shillings by the fees always exacted for clerks and officers; and the appropriation of the penalty to works of charity, as the act required, was shamefully evaded, as it was argued that the poor being Catholics themselves were not fit to receive the money, but "ought to pay the like penalty themselves."

In 1617 a proclamation was issued for the expulsion of the Catholic regular clergy, and the city of Waterford was deprived of its charter and liberties in consequence of the spirited and steadfast rejection of the oath of supremacy by its corporation. In 1622 Henry Carey, Viscount Faulkland, was sent over as lord deputy, and at the ceremony of his inauguration, the celebrated James Ussher, then Protestant bishop of Meath, and soon after made

\* See O'Sullivan's *Hist. Cath.*, pp. 310–312. Ed. 1850.

† It has been argued that the Irish chieftains possessed only the *suzeraineté*, and not the property of the soil; and that therefore the rights of their feudatories to the latter could not have been forfeited by the rebellion of the chiefs. See translator's note to *De Beaumont's Ireland*, p. 57. Mr. O'Connell, in his *Memoir of Ireland* (p. 172), argues that James undermined his own title to the six confiscated counties of Ulster by declar-

ing that the exiled earls had no title whatever to the possessions forfeited. These, however, are but speculative objections. As to the Catholics who voted the attainder of O'Neill, they were chiefly Anglo-Irish.

‡ The Four Masters desert us at this date, under which they give their last entry: the death of Hugh O'Neill; and for the few preceding years, from the death of Red Hugh O'Donnell, the information they afford is very scanty.



archbishop of Armagh, taking as his text the words of St. Paul, "He beareth not the sword in vain,"\* delivered a fanatical harangue, which filled the Catholics with alarm; and finally, in the following year, another proclamation was issued for the banishment of all the "Popish clergy," regular and secular, ordering them to depart from the kingdom within forty days, and forbidding any one to hold intercourse with them after that period.† Thus was the penal code, although then only in its infancy, rapidly approaching that acme of cruelty which it afterwards reached.

The systematic rapine called "plantation" was so successful in Ulster, that James was resolved to extend it into other parts of the kingdom. For this purpose he appointed a commission of inquiry to scrutinize the titles and de-

termine the rights of all the lands in Leinster, that province being the next theatre of this iniquitous spoliation; and so rapid was the progress of the commissioners, that in a little time land to the extent of 385,000 acres more was placed at the king's disposal for distribution. Old and obsolete claims, some of them dating as far back as Henry II., were revived; advantage was taken of trivial flaws and minute informalities. The ordinary principles of justice were set at naught; perjury, fraud, and the most infamous arts of deceit were resorted to; and, as even Leland tells us, "there are not wanting proofs of the most iniquitous practices of hardened cruelty, of vile perjury, and scandalous subornation employed to despoil the fair and unfortunate proprietor of his inheritance."‡ From Leinster the system was extended into

\* ROLL xiii. 4. For Ussher's Puritanism, see note, p. 501.

† P. O'Sullivan Beare, who wrote towards the close of the reign of James I., says he did not know the number of ecclesiastics then in Ireland; but he was aware that government had, through its spies, ascertained the names of 1160 priests, regular and secular; and Dr. Kelly, in his note on this passage (*Hist. Cath.*, p. 298), says he once saw a list of all the Catholic clergy in Ireland at this time, but that at present it is not easily accessible. F. Moony says there were 120 Franciscan friars, of whom 35 were preachers, in Ireland; besides 40 more engaged in their studies at Louvain when he wrote (about 1616). It is said in the *Hibernia Dominicana* that there were but four Dominicans in Ireland at the time of Elizabeth's death. The Jesuits, though not numerous, were exceedingly active. F. Verdier reported that there were 53 Fathers, 3 coadjutors, and 11 novices of the Company of Jesus in Ireland in 1659. The affairs of the Irish Church were chiefly managed by the four Archbishops, the succession of whom was well kept up by the Pope. These appointed Vicars-General, with Apostolic authority in the

suffragan dioceses, and these, again, appointed the parish priests. O'Sullivan gives the names of the four Archbishops when he wrote (1618) as: Eugene Magauran, of Dublin; David O'Carney, of Cashel; Peter Lombard, of Armagh; and Florence O'Mulconry, of Tuam. He mentions, as then established, the Irish seminaries of Salamanca, Compostella, and Seville, in Spain; Lisbon, in Portugal; Louvain, Antwerp, and Tournay, in Flanders; and Bordeaux, Toulouse, and Paris, in France. Irish students were also received in other colleges, and in some of the places just mentioned the seminaries for the Irish were not yet regularly founded.—*History of Ireland*, B. iv., c. 8.

‡ See as an illustration of this scandalous plunder, and of the unprincipled ingenuity and perseverance of the "discoverers," as they were called, the account of the spoliation of the O'Byrnes of Ranelagh, in Wicklow, as given in Taylor's *History of the Civil Wars in Ireland*, vol. i., pp. 243, 246, and quoted in full in O'Connell's *Memoirs of Ireland*, p. 161, &c. The native sept of the Queen's county were transplanted to Kerry; and in many instances proprietors, as in the case of the Farralls, were dispossessed without receiving any compensation



Connaught, but its principal operation in the latter province was reserved for the next reign. James I. died on the 27th of March, 1625; and in conse-

quence of his wholesale plunder, oppression, and persecution of the Irish, left a woeful legacy to his unfortunate successor.\*

\* Some of the minor crimes of James's government against the Irish, are thus summed up by Leland (B. iv., c. 8): "Extortions and oppressions of the soldiers in various excursions from their quarters, for levying the king's rents, or supporting the civil power; a rigorous and tyrannical execution of martial law in time of peace; a dangerous and unconstitutional power assumed by the Privy Council in deciding causes determinable by common law; the severe treatment of witnesses and jurors in the Castle-chamber whose evidence or verdicts had

been displeasing to the State; the grievous exaction of the established clergy for the occasional duties of their functions; and the severity of the ecclesiastical courts." As to the punishment of jurors, it was laid down as a principle by Chichester that the proper tribunal to punish jurors, who would not find for the king on "sufficient evidence," was the Star-chamber; sometimes they were "pilloried with loss of ears, and bored through the tongue, and sometimes marked on the forehead with a hot iron, &c."—*Commons' Journal*, vol. i., p. 307.

## CHAPTER XXXVII.

### REIGN OF CHARLES I.

Hopes of the Catholics on the accession of Charles, and corresponding alarm of the Protestants—Intolerant declaration of the Protestant bishops.—The "graces."—The royal promise broken.—Renewed persecution of the Catholics.—Outrage on a Catholic congregation in Cook-street.—Confiscation of Catholic schools and chapels.—Government of Lord Wentworth or Strafford—He summons a Parliament—His shameful duplicity.—The Commission of "Defective Titles" for Connaught.—Atrocious spoliation in the name of law.—Jury-packing.—Noble conduct of a Galway jury—Their punishment.—Plantation of Ormond, &c.—Fresh subsidies by an Irish Parliament.—Strafford raises an army of Irish Catholics—He is impeached by Parliament—His execution.—Causes of the great insurrection of 1641.—Threats of the Puritans to extirpate the Catholic religion in Ireland.—The Irish abroad—Their numbers and influence.—First movements among the Irish gentry—Roger O'More—Lord Maguire—Sir Phelim O'Neill.—Promises from Cardinal Richelieu.—Officers in the king's interest combine with the Irish gentry—Discovery of the conspiracy.—Arrest of Lord Maguire and MacMahon.—Alarm in Dublin.—The outbreak in Ulster—Its first successes—Proclamation of Sir Phelim O'Neill—Feigned commission from the king.—Gross exaggeration of the cruelties of the Irish.—Bishop Bedell and the remonstrance from Cavan.—The massacre of Island Magee.—The fable of a general massacre by the Catholics refuted.—Proclamations of the lords justices.—The Catholic nobility and gentry of the Pale insulted and repulsed.—Scheme of a general confiscation.—Approach of the northern Irish to the Pale—They take Mellifont and lay siege to Drogheda.—Sir Charles Coote's atrocities in Wicklow.—Efforts of the Catholic gentry to communicate with the king.—Outrages of troopers—The gentry of the Pale compelled to stand on their defence.—Meeting on the Hill of Crofty.—The lords of the Pale take up arms.—The insurrection spreads into Munster and Connaught.—Royal proclamation.—Conduct of the English parliament.—The insurrection general—Siege of Drogheda raised.—The battle of Kiltrush.—The general Assembly, &c.

(FROM A. D. 1626 TO A. D. 1642.)

THE well known moderation of Charles I. inspired the Irish Catholics with hope of a mitigation of the intolerance under which they groaned, but a corresponding alarm was manifested by the Protestants lest any such



mercy should be extended to their opponents. In 1626 Faulkland, who was still lord deputy, advised the Catholics to send agents to the king, encouraging them to expect some favor in return for pecuniary support; and taking this implied promise for a reality, they are said to have boasted too readily of the relief which they anticipated. This kindled the zeal of all classes of Protestants. The Protestant pulpits resounded with declamations on the subject; and Archbishop Ussher, with all the prelates of the state church, joined in protest, declaring that "to grant the papists a toleration, or to consent that they may freely exercise their religion and profess their faith and doctrines, was a grievous sin," and "a matter of most dangerous consequence;" wherefore they prayed God "to make those in authority zealous, resolute, and courageous against all popery, superstition, and idolatry." No political, or any other than theological grounds, were put forward for this ebullition of bigotry; but in the mean time the Catholic agents persevered in their negotiations with the king, whose exigencies were well understood. The prodigality of his father had burdened him with a heavy debt, and foreign wars demanded supplies which his parliament refused to grant, except on hard and dishonorable terms. He was therefore glad to accept from the Irish Catholics the offer of a voluntary subsidy of £120,000, to be paid in three annual instalments,

and in return he undertook to grant them certain concessions or immunities which are known in the history of the period as the "graces." Many of these "graces" applied to others in Ireland besides Catholics. The more important were those which provided "that recusants should be allowed to practise in the courts of law, and to sue out the livery of their lands on taking an oath of civil allegiance in lieu of the oath of supremacy; that the undertakers in the several plantations should have time allowed them to fulfil the conditions of their tenures; that the claims of the crown should be limited to the last sixty years; and that the inhabitants of Connaught should be permitted to make a new enrolment of their estates." The contract was duly ratified by a royal proclamation, in which the concessions were accompanied by a promise that a parliament should be held to confirm them. The first instalment of the money was paid, and the Irish agents returned home, but only to learn that an order had been issued against "the popish regular clergy," and that the royal promise was to be evaded in the most shameful manner. When the Catholics pressed for the fulfilment of the compact, the essential formalities for calling an Irish parliament were found to have been omitted by the officials, and thus the matter fell to the ground for the present. Lord Faulkland was recalled at the representation of the Puritans; and viscount Ely (the chancellor) and the earl of Cork (lord



high treasurer) having been appointed lords justices, the penalties against recusants, under the 2d of Elizabeth, were, without any instructions from the king, put in force with extreme rigor, and a system of frightful terrorism carried out.\*

A single fact will show the nature of the persecution to which the Catholics were subjected at this time in Dublin. The protestant archbishop, doctor Launcelot Bulkeley, being informed that a fraternity of Carmelites had the temerity to celebrate Mass publicly in their chapel in Cook-street, proceeded thither with the mayor and a file of soldiers, during the celebration of High Mass, on St. Stephen's Day, December, 1629, dispersed the congregation, profaned the altar, and heaved down the statue of St. Francis, and arrested some of the friars. These were, however, rescued by the people, who did not hesitate to pursue even the archbishop

himself and compel him to seek shelter in a house. A few days after an order arrived from the English council to have the chapel demolished, and three other chapels and a Catholic seminary in Dublin seized and converted to the king's use.† Eight Catholic aldermen of Dublin were arrested for not assisting the mayor, and the persecution was afterwards extended over the kingdom; yet at this time the Catholics formed a majority of at least a hundred to one of the population of Ireland.

In July, 1633, viscount Wentworth, whose hateful memory is better preserved by his subsequent title of earl of Strafford, commenced his duties as lord deputy of Ireland. He had recently abandoned the popular cause in England, and attached himself to the king, to whom he became a most devoted, but most unprincipled, minister. He came to Ireland with feelings of thorough contempt for all classes here, and his

\* Sir Richard Boyle, commonly called the "great" earl of Cork, one of the lords justices mentioned above, and one of the most fortunate of all English adventurers in Ireland, left an autobiography which he called his "True Remembrances," and of which a portion has been printed in *Lodge's Irish Peerage* (Archdall's *Lodge*, vol. i., p. 150, &c.) He was second son of a Mr. Roger Boyle, of Herefordshire, and being too poor to support himself as a student in the Middle Temple, became a clerk to the chief baron of the English Court of Exchequer; but he says "it pleased Divine Providence to lead him into Ireland," where he arrived in 1588, being then in his twenty-second year. He was a lucky and a prudent man, and opportunities were not wanting at that time in Ireland for such a person to make a large fortune. He was made clerk of the council in Munster; was the bearer of the news of the English victory at Kinsale to Elizabeth; purchased the Irish estates of Sir Walter Raleigh, amounting to many thousand acres in Cork and Waterford, for £1,500; married as his second wife (his first being a Mrs. Apsley, a Limerick lady,

who brought him £500 a-year), the daughter of Sir Geoffrey Fenton, the potent and despotic secretary of state for Ireland; and obtained a variety of titles, until he became earl of Cork, lord high treasurer, and lord justice of Ireland. "At great expense," says the memoir, "he encouraged the settlement of Protestants, the suppression of popery, the regulation of the army, the increase of the public revenue, and the transplantation of many septs and barbarous clans from the fruitful province of Leinster into the wilds of Kerry." Robert Boyle, the philosopher, was the youngest of his sons.

† The circumstances are thus related by Harris and others on the authority of a publication called *Foxes and Firebrands*; but the Carmelite and Franciscan chapels were both at this time in Cook street, and Mr. Gilbert (*Hist. of Dub.*, vol. i., p. 299) says it was in the latter this outrage was committed. He adds, that consequent upon this affair the Franciscan schools throughout Ireland were dissolved, and F. Valentine Browne, the provincial, sent the novices to complete their studies in foreign countries.



supercilious bearing gave great offence to the council and the nobility. In July, 1634, he assembled a parliament, the subserviency of which he endeavored to secure by having a number of persons in the pay of the crown, chiefly military officers, returned as members. The question of the "graces" still agitated the public mind; and he gave the strongest assurances that those concessions would be confirmed, provided the supplies, demanded by the king, were readily voted. "Surely," said he, in his speech from the throne, "so great a meanness cannot enter your hearts, as once to suspect his majesty's gracious regards of you, and performance with you, where you affie yourselves upon his grace." The supplies were accordingly granted, and with so generous a hand, that six subsidies of £50,000 each were voted, although Wentworth tells us that "he never propounded more to the king than £30,000." But while parliament acted thus, relying on the promises of the king and his deputy, the latter had basely resolved that those promises never should be fulfilled, and contrived to evade them in such a way as to remove the odium of doing so from his royal master, who, however, unfortunately for his own fame, fully sanc-

tioned the scandalous treachery of his servant.\*

The "grace" to which Wentworth had the strongest objection was that which would make sixty years of undisputed possession a bar to the claims of the crown, in cases of landed property—and with good reason, as he showed; for as soon as parliament was dissolved in April, 1635, a commission of "defective titles" was issued for Connaught, with the design of confiscating the whole of that province to the crown by fictitious forms of law. James I. having extended the system of spoliation called "planting" wherever the native Irish continued to hold their own, first, in the six counties of Ulster, and then in the Irish parts of Leinster, as Longford, which was the O'Farrell's country; Wicklow, which was held by the O'Tooles and O'Byrnes; the north part of Wexford, which belonged to the Kavanagh's; Iregan, in the Queen's County, which belonged to the Mageoghegans; and Kilcoursey, in the King's County, belonging to the O'Molloys; and having also replanted Desmond, which had been desolated in the last war in Munster, it now remained, in order to find fresh ground for a Protestant colonization from England and Scotland, to hunt out old claims, or

\* The king writes thus to the deputy:—"Wentworth: Before I answer any of your particular letters to me I must tell you that your last public despatch has given me a great deal of contentment; and especially for keeping off the envy" (odium) "of a necessary negative from me, of those unreasonable graces that people expected

from me." *Strafford's State Letters*, vol. i. p. 331. Wentworth describes how Sir John Radcliffe and two of the judges assisted him in his plan; and how, through the medium of a committee, a positive refusal to recommend the passing of the "graces" into law was conveyed to parliament at its next session." *Ibid.*, vol. i., p. 279, &c



supposed claims, of the crown, and thus to reach lands long held under the security of the English law.\* Wentworth commenced the work of plunder with Roscommon, and, as a preliminary step, directed the sheriff to select such jurors as might be made amenable, "in case they should prevaricate;" or, in other words, they might be ruined, by enormous fines, if they refused to find a verdict for the king.† The jurors were told that the object of the commission was to find "a clear and undoubted title in the crown to the province of Connaught," and to make them "a civil and rich people" by means of a plantation; for which purpose his majesty should, of course, have the land in his own hands to distribute to fit and proper persons. Under threats which could not be misunderstood the jury found for the king, whereupon Wentworth commended the foreman, Sir Lucas Dillon, to his majesty, that "he might be remembered upon the dividing

of the lands," and also obtained a competent reward for the judges.‡

Similar means had a like success in Mayo and Sligo; but when it came to the turn of the more wealthy and populous county of Galway, the jury refused to sanction the nefarious robbery by their verdict. Wentworth was furious at this rebuff, and the unhappy jurors were punished without mercy for their "contumacy." They were compelled to appear in the castle chamber, where each of them was fined £4,000, and their estates were seized and they themselves imprisoned until these fines should be paid; while the sheriff was fined £1,000, and being unable to pay that sum, died in prison. Wentworth proposed to seize the lands, not only of the jurors, but of all the gentry who neglected "to lay hold on his majesty's grace;" he called for an increase of the army "until the intended plantation should be settled;" and recommended that the counsel who argued the cases

\* Leland describes Wentworth's project in the following words: "His project was nothing less than to subvert the title to every estate in every part of Connaught, and to establish a new plantation through this whole province: a project which, when first proposed in the late reign, was received with horror and amazement, but which suited the undismayed and enterprising genius of Lord Wentworth. For this he had opposed the confirmation of the royal graces, and taken to himself the odium of so flagrant a violation of the royal promise. The parliament was at an end, and the deputy at leisure to execute a scheme, which, as it was offensive and alarming, required a cautious and deliberate procedure. Old records of state and the memorials of ancient monasteries were ransacked to ascertain the king's original title to Connaught. It was soon discovered that in the grant of Henry III. to Richard de Burgo, five cantreds were reserved to the crown, adjacent to the

castle of Athlone; that this grant included the whole remainder of the province, which was now alleged to have been forfeited by Aedh O'Connor, the Irish provincial chieftain; that the land and lordship of De Burgo descended, lineally, to Edward IV., and were confirmed to the crown by a statute of Henry VII. The ingenuity of court lawyers was employed to invalidate all patents granted to the possessors of these lands, from the reign of Queen Elizabeth." *Hist. of D. B.* iv., c. i.

† *Strafford's Letters*, i., p. 442.

‡ Sir Lucas Dillon received a large estate, probably out of his own lands; and we are told by *Strafford (Letters*, ii., p. 241) that Sir Gerard Lowther, chief justice of the Common Pleas, and the chief baron, got four shillings in the pound of the first year's rent raised under the commissioners of "Defective Titles." Never was justice more disgraced.



against the king before the commissioners should be silenced until they took the oath of supremacy, which was accordingly done.\* A title in the crown to the baronies of Upper and Lower Ormond, in the county of Tipperary, and to some adjacent territories, all belonging to the earls of Ormond, was also set up, and an inquisition for trying the claim ordered; but Lord Ormond prudently compromised the matter, although he knew that his own case was perfectly good, and that the crown would have an insuperable difficulty in the production of the ancient title-deeds. He thus secured a large proportion of the lands for himself and his friends.† Besides this scandalous system of spoliation, other modes of legal persecution were resorted to. A Court of Wards, by which the heirs of estates were reared up in the Protestant religion, was instituted; also a high commission court, which exercised a fearful tyranny over all classes; and the extortions practised by the ecclesiastical courts were wholly intolerable.

Matters proceeded thus for a few years, and in 1640 we find another Irish parliament appealed to for subsidies under the pressure of the Scottish rebellion, and a voluntary contribution,

headed by £20,000 from Wentworth himself, raised to meet the immediate wants of the monarch. Though not a warm nor generous patron, Charles could not fail to recognize so much devotedness on the part of the deputy, who was accordingly rewarded with the titles of earl of Strafford and baron of Raby, and with the dignity of lord lieutenant of Ireland. As on the last occasion, the Irish parliament was loyal and liberal in the extreme, and voted four entire subsidies; some of the members protesting, with characteristic warmth, that six or seven more ought to be given, and others declaring that "their hearts contained mines of subsidies for his majesty." The annual revenue of Ireland had been increased under Strafford's management to over £80,000. The trade of the country had considerably improved; and although he destroyed the Irish woollen manufacture, which threatened to affect the staple of England, he attempted to give a substitute by encouraging the growth of flax and the manufacture of linen, for which purpose he expended large sums of money. He raised an army of 8,000 foot and 1,000 horse in Ireland, at least nine-tenths of this force being Catholic, and committing the government to his friend

\* "The gentlemen of Connaught," says Carte (*Life of Ormond*, vol. i.) "labored under a particular hardship on this occasion; for their not having enrolled their patents and surrenders of the 13th Jacobi (which was what alone rendered their titles defective) was not their fault, but the neglect of a clerk intrusted by them. For they had paid near £3,000 to the offices at Dublin for the enrolment of these surrenders and patents, which was never made."

The same authority tells us that all these proceedings of Wentworth were sanctioned by the king; his majesty having assured the deputy before the English council in 1636 that his treatment of the Galway jurors "was no severity," and wished him "to go on in that way;" adding "that if he served him otherwise he would not serve him as he expected." (*Carte's Ormond* iii., p. 11.)

† Carte, vol. i., p. 59.



Sir Christopher Wandesford, as his deputy, he went to England, and took the command of the army sent against the Scots. Fortune now turned against him; he was unsuccessful as a commander, and had incurred the hatred of the Scots and English to even a greater extent than that of the Irish. The long parliament was opened on the 3d November, 1640, and one of its first acts was the impeachment of Strafford. Many of the charges against him related to his Irish administration, but the most serious of them in the eyes of the Puritans were his attempts to establish the arbitrary power of the crown, and his enrolment of an army of "Irish Papists," which he was accused of intending to bring over to support the king against his subjects in England. A deputation from the Irish parliament arrived with a "remonstrance of grievances" against him; and he was convicted of offences amounting in the aggregate to constructive treason. The wretched king was compelled to sign his death-warrant, and on the 12th of May, 1641, Strafford was beheaded on Tower-hill, a fate which he deserved, if not for the charges laid against him, at least for the horrible injustice that he exercised during the eight years of his administration in Ireland.\*

A. D. 1641.—With the forty preceding years' continuity of wholesale spoliation, galling oppression, terrorism, re-

ligious proscription, and national degradation still present to us, and with a due consideration of the traditions of the people on the one side, and of the passing events in surrounding countries on the other, the reader will not be at a loss to account for the events which it now becomes our duty to relate. The royalist earl of Castlehaven, who writes as an eyewitness, and was not prejudiced in favor of the native Irish, tells us that these latter assigned as the causes of the civil war of 1641, first, that "they were generally looked upon as a conquered nation, seldom or never treated like natural or free-born subjects;" secondly, "that six whole counties in Ulster were escheated to the crown, and little or nothing restored to the natives, but a great part bestowed by king James on his countrymen;" thirdly, "that in Strafford's time the crown laid claim also to the counties of Roscommon, Mayo, Galway, and Cork, with some parts of Tipperary, Limerick, Wicklow, and others;" fourthly, that "great severities were used against the Roman Catholics in England, and that both houses (of the Irish parliament) solicited by several petitions out of Ireland to have those of that kingdom treated with the like rigor; which," he adds, "to a people so fond of their religion as the Irish, was no small inducement to make them, while there was an opportunity offered, to

\* It should be mentioned as a redeeming feature in Strafford's character that he persecuted no man solely

on account of his religion, and that he disliked the Puritans quite as much as he did the Catholics.



stand upon their guard;" fifthly, "that they saw how the Scots, by pretending grievances, and taking up arms to get them redressed, had not only gained divers privileges and immunities, but got £300,000 for their visit (to England), besides £850 a day for several months together;" and lastly, "that they saw a storm draw on, and such misunderstandings daily arise between the king and parliament as portended no less than a sudden rupture between them," and therefore they believed that "the king thus engaged, partly at home and partly with the Scotch, could not be able to suppress them so far off," but "would grant them any thing they could in reason demand, at least more than otherwise they could expect."\*

One point, put only obscurely among the preceding reasons, was in reality of considerable importance, namely, the dread which the Irish Catholics at this time entertained of the extirpation of

their religion. This appears from a multitude of authorities. Petitions which tended to nothing less than the destruction of the Catholic religion, and of the lives and estates of Catholics, were privately circulated among the Protestants, and were countenanced by the very men who had the government of Ireland then in their hands; it was confidently reported that the Scottish army had threatened never to lay down their arms until the Catholic religion had been suppressed, and a uniformity of worship established in the three kingdoms. Letters to that effect were intercepted; and it cannot be denied that the course which events were then taking beyond the channel rendered the very worst of these apprehensions probable.†

Another circumstance that presents itself in a strong light to us, while investigating the causes of the great outbreak which renders this year so mem-

\* *Castlehaven's Memoirs*, pp. 8, 11; ed. 1819. An English contemporary Protestant writer represents the motives of the Irish much in the same way, and particularly observes that they considered "that they also had sundry grievances and grounds of complaint, both touching their estates and consciences, which they pretended to be far greater than those of the Scotch. For they fell to think that if the Scotch were suffered to introduce a new religion, it was reason they should not be punished in the exercise of their old, which they glory never to have altered."—*Howel's Mercurius Hibernicus* for 1643.

† See some of the authorities on this point, collected by Dr. Curry in his *Review of the Civil Wars*, pp. 147, 148; ed. 1810. "Some time before the rebellion broke out," says Carte, "it was confidently reported that Sir John Clotworthy, who well knew the designs of the faction that governed the House of Commons in England, had declared there in a speech that the conversion of the Papists in Ireland was only to be effected by the Bible

in one hand, and the sword in the other; and Mr. Pyne gave out that they would not leave a priest in Ireland. To the like effect Sir William Parsons (one of the lords justices of Ireland), out of a strange weakness, or detestable policy, positively asserted before so many witnesses at a public entertainment, that within a twelvemonth no Catholic should be seen in Ireland. He had sense enough to know the consequences that would naturally arise from such a declaration; which, however it might contribute to his own selfish views, he would hardly have ventured to make so openly and without disguise, if it had not been agreeable to the politics and measures of the English faction whose party he espoused."—*Carte's Ormond*, vol. i., p. 235. Dr. Warner, a Protestant writer, observes (*Hist. of the Irish Rebel.*) that it was evident from a letter of the lord justice to the earl of Leicester, then lord lieutenant, "that they hoped for an extirpation, not of the mere Irish only, but of all the old English families also, that were Roman Catholics."



orable in our history, is the position, in point of numbers and influence, which Irishmen then occupied on the continent. In their struggles for national and religious independence, during the reign of Elizabeth, the Irish looked for help to the great Catholic powers; but now their own countrymen in Spain, France, and the Low Countries had ac-

quired great military eminence, many of whom were able, of themselves, to furnish armies and money. These friends abroad were not unmindful of their suffering fatherland, and during the whole of 1640 and 1641 the prospect of an invasion of Ireland seems to have agitated their minds.\*

Early in the latter of these years we

\* Early in the reign of James I. the Irish began to seek refuge in foreign countries from the ruin and desolation which had overspread their own. A great many, says O'Sullivan, speaking of his own times, went to France, but by far the greater number flocked to Spain; and everywhere, he adds, those exiles for their faith were received most hospitably and courteously by Catholics. The king of Spain, in particular, was most generous to them, assigning monthly pensions to their principal men, according to their rank, and putting others under military pay. He formed an Irish legion, which served with great bravery in Belgium, first under Henry O'Neill, and after his death, under his brother, John—both sons of the illustrious Hugh O'Neill. (*Hist. Cath.*, p. 262.) The number of Irish soldiers abroad was very much increased by the licence which James I. granted in 1623 for the enlistment of Irish for the Spanish service; and on that occasion great terror was excited in the Pale by the assembling of bands of Irishmen, preparatory to their embarkation, under the sons of their ancient chieftains then acknowledging allegiance to a foreign king. Such was the origin of the Irish Brigade, afterwards so celebrated in the history of Europe. It was a little before the date at which we have now arrived, namely in June, 1535, that an Irish regiment in the Spanish service, under their colonel, Preston, immortalized themselves by their heroic defence of Louvain, one of the most remarkable incidents in the history of the time. (See it related in *O'Connor's Military Memoirs of the Irish*, and in the introduction of Dr. French's works in *Duffy's Library of Ireland*.) The great Irish Franciscan, Father Luke Wadding, was at this time a centre of intellectual attraction among the learned and the pious in Rome. But not to dwell on those children of the Green Isle, who, by attaining to distinction in the church and the court among the most enlightened nations of the world, vindicated in that age the character of their country as the missionary Irish saints and scholars on the continent had done a thousand years before; we come to an important and significant list of "Irishmen abroad," made out, about the very time referred to in the text, by some indus-

trious spy of the English government. The compiler of this list, after observing that the dangers of Ireland "doe depend most on the practices of their Romish priests, the plots and purposes of Irish commanders serving foreign princes, and the discontentment of the people, especially the Irish natives;" and stating that "the Romish priests were much multiplied of late years in number, power, and countenance," proceeds to enumerate the chief men of Irish and Anglo-Irish extraction then serving foreign princes, in Spain, Italy, France, Germany, Poland, and the Low Countries. The list begins with Don Richardo Burke, "a man much experienced in martial affairs," and "a good inginiere." He served many years under the Spaniards in Naples and the West Indies, and was the governor of Leghorn for the duke of Florence. Next, "Phellomy O'Neill, nephew unto old Tyrone, liveth in great respect (in Milan), and is a capitaine of a troop of horse." Then comes James Rowthe or Rothe, an alfaros, or standard-bearer in the Spanish army, and his brother, Captain John Rothe, "a pensioner in Naples, who carried Tyrone out of Ireland." One Captain Solomon MacDa, a Geraldine, resided at Florence, and Sir Thomas Talbot, a knight of Malta, and "a resolute and well-beloved man," lived at Naples, in which latter city "there were some other Irish captaines and officers." The list then proceeds: "In Spain, Captain Phellomy Cavanagh, son-in-law to Donell Spaniagh, serveth under the king by sea. Captain Somlevayne (O'Sullivan), a man of noted courage. These live commonly at Lisbonne, and are sea-captaines. Besides others of the Irish, Captain Driscoll, the younger, sonne to old Captain Driscoll, both men reckoned valourous. In the court of Spaine liveth the sonne of Richard Bourke, which was nephew untoe William, who died at Valladolid . . . . he is in high favour with the king, and (as it is reported) is to be made a marquis. Captain Toby Bourke, a pensioner in the court of Spain, another nephew of the said William, deceased, Captain John Bourke M'Shane, who served long time in Flanders, and now liveth on his pension, assigned on the Groyne. Captain Daniell, a pensioner at Antwerp. In the Low Countries, under the Archduke: John O'Neill.



find a few of the native Irish gentry at home, meeting together to talk over a plan for redressing their grievances by insurrection. The first movement is traced to Mr. Roger O'More, or Moore, a member of the ancient family of the chiefs of Leix: and with him we find associated by degrees, Lord Maguire, an Irish nobleman who retained a small fragment of the ancient patrimony of his family in Fermanagh, and who was overwhelmed with debt; his brother, Roger Maguire; Sir Phelim O'Neill of Kinnaird, of the illustrious stock of Tyrone;\* Turlough O'Neill, brother of the last-named; Sir Con Magennis; Philip MacHugh O'Reilly; Colonel Hugh Oge MacMahon; Collo MacBrian MacMahon; Evan MacMahon, vicar-general of Clogher, and others. To enforce his views, O'More employed arguments similar to those which we have quoted from Lord Castlehaven. He spoke of the afflictions and sufferings of the native Irish, and of the general discontent which prevailed

among the new as well as the old Irish. He dwelt particularly on the injury done to the Catholic Church, and alluded to the well-grounded rumor that parliament intended the utter subversion of their religion. He had already, he said, ascertained that the principal Irish gentry of Leinster and Connaught were favorable to the design of taking up arms; and urged that they never would have a better opportunity of improving their condition and recovering at least a portion of their ancient estates than during the present Scottish troubles. O'More was a man of handsome person and fascinating manners, as well as of great bravery and undoubted honor, and we need not wonder that he became one of the most popular leaders of the exciting time which followed. Lord Maguire was active as a medium of communication between the confederates; but among those we have yet mentioned, Sir Phelim O'Neill was destined to play the most important part in their future proceedings.

sonne of the archtraitor, Tyrone, colonel of the Irish regiment. Young O'Donnel, sonne of the late traitorous Earl of Tirconnel. Owen O'Neill (Owen Roe), sergeant-major (equivalent to the present lieutenant-colonel) of the Irish regiment. Captain Art O'Neill, Captain Cormack O'Neill, Captain Donel O'Donel, Captain Thady O'Sullevane, Captain Preston, Captain FitzGerrott; old Captain FitzGerrott continues sergeant-major, now a pensioner; Captain Edmond O'Mor, Captain Bryan O'Kelly, Captain Stanihurst, Captain Corton, Captain Daniell, Captain Walshe. There are diverse other Captains and officers of the Irish under the Archduchess (Isabella), some of whose companies are cast, and they made pensioners. Of these serving under the Archduchess there are about 100 able to command companies, and 20 fitt to be colonels. Many of them are descended of gentlemen's families and some of noblemen. These Irish soldiers and pensioners doe stay their resolutions

until they see whether England makes peace or war with Spaine. If peace, they have practised already with other souveraine princes, from whom they have received hopes of assistance: if war doe ensue they are confident of greater ayde. They have been long providing of arms for any attempt against Ireland, and had in readiness five or six thousand arms laid up in Antwerp for that purpose, bought out of the deduction of their monthly pay, as will be proved, and it is thought they have now doubled that proportion by these means." This extremely curious document, which is preserved in the State-paper Office, and was first brought to light in the *Nation* of February 5th, 1859, would appear to have been prepared very shortly before 1640, and throws considerable light on some facts in the sequel of our history.

\* He was fourth in descent from John of Kinnaird, youngest brother of Con Baccagh O'Neill, first earl of Tyrone.



About May, 1641, Nial O'Neill arrived in Ireland as a messenger from the titular earl of Tyrone (John, son of Hugh O'Neill) in Spain, to inform his friends that he had obtained from Cardinal Richelieu, prime minister of France, a promise of arms, ammunition, and money for Ireland, when required, and desiring them to hold themselves in readiness. The confederates sent back the messenger with information as to their proceedings, and announcing that they would be prepared to rise a few days before or after All-hallow-tide, according as the opportunity answered; but scarcely was the messenger dispatched when news was received that the earl of Tyrone was killed, and another messenger was sent with all speed into the Low Countries to Colonel Owen O'Neill, who was the next entitled to be their leader.\* Orders had been issued by the English parliament to disband the "popish" army raised by Strafford in Ireland; and that the men might be removed from the country, license was given that they might enter into foreign service. Certain officers were ostensibly commissioned to enrol them for that purpose. But here we have a double plot; for the real object of these officers was to keep the men collected at home ready to be employed

in the king's interest. Among those sent to Ireland for this purpose were Colonels Plunket, Bourn, or Byrne, and Sir James Dillon, and Captain Brian O'Neill, and it required little ingenuity to bring about a common understanding between the gentlemen thus interested for the king and the Irish associates of Roger O'More. Conferences were held between a few of either side, and Colonel Plunket and his friends were the first to suggest that Dublin castle should be seized by surprise, and the arms, of which a large quantity were stored there, distributed among the insurgents. In the course of September their plans were matured, and after some changes as to the day, the 23d of October was finally fixed on for the execution of them. There was to be a simultaneous movement throughout the country, and at the same time that Dublin castle was to be taken, with two hundred men counted off for that purpose, all the strong places in the kingdom were to be attacked or surprised. They were to seize on the forts and arms, and to make the gentry prisoners, but it was particularly directed that none should be killed,† "but where of necessity they must be forced thereunto by opposition." It was also resolved that nothing should be done to attract the ani-

\* Colonel Owen Roe O'Neill was son of Art, the youngest brother of Hugh O'Neill, earl of Tyrone, and was, therefore, first cousin of the titular earl, John, whose death has been just mentioned. Some have erroneously called him the grand-nephew of Tyrone, and others, without any authority, make him illegitimate for three successive generations. See the Rev. J. Willis's *Life of Owen Roe*, and a paper by H. F. Hore, Esq.

in the *Ulster Journal of Archæology*. This is decidedly erroneous, the only case of illegitimacy in his pedigree being that of Ferdoragh. The name of Colonel Owen O'Neill appears in the list given in the note in the last page.

† See *Relation of Lord Maguire*, from which the above particulars of the conspiracy are taken. *Ronlase's Hist. of the Irish Rebell.* App.



mosity of the Scots. Encouraging news was received from Colonel Owen O'Neill, holding out hopes of aid from Cardinal Richelieu, and desiring that the rising should take place as speedily as possible.

Sir William Parsons and Sir John Borlase, who were at this time lords justices, were violent partisans of the English parliament.\* They were men of narrow minds, violent prejudices, and the meanest intellect, and were capable of acting for the basest motives. They received sundry intimations of the approach of danger, but treated them with stolid indifference; and it soon became apparent that nothing could have gratified them more than a movement which would place the Catholic landed gentry at their mercy.† In compliance with a petition of grievances from the Irish parliament, the king ordered the lords justices to assure his Irish subjects that his former promises should be speedily performed, and to prepare for that purpose two bills for securing the titles of estates, and limiting the claims of the crown to sixty years. This was an effort on the part of the unfortunate Charles to recover the confidence and affection of the Irish people, but nothing could be

further from the intention of Parsons and Borlase than any such consummation. When it was known that the Irish agents were returning with the royal answer, the lords justices, notwithstanding entreaty and remonstrance, prorogued parliament for three months, and refused to issue a proclamation announcing the wishes of the king. This proceeding greatly exasperated the gentry of the Pale, and helped to hasten and extend the subsequent outbreak.‡

At length the eve of the 23d of October arrived, and several of the confederates assembled in Dublin, according to appointment. Among these were Lord Maguire, Roger O'More, Colonels Plunket, Bourn, and Hugh MacMahon, Captains Brian O'Neill and Fox, and others; but it was found that some were not punctual in sending their contingents of men, and that of two hundred who were to seize the castle next day, only eighty were in town that afternoon. Still, they resolved on carrying out their plan; but in an evil hour Hugh MacMahon revealed their project to one Owen O'Connolly, who had been reared a Protestant, and was a servant to the fanatical Sir John Clotworthy. This infatuation of Mac-

\* The earl of Liecester, who was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, after the execution of Strafford, also became a partisan of the parliamentary faction. He never came to Ireland.

† So early as the 16th of March, 1641, the king ordered secretary Vane to send notice to the lords justices of an intended rebellion in Ireland; his majesty having received advices to that effect from his minister in Spain, who had observed the movements among the

Irish refugees. This, however, did not disturb the security of Parsons and Borlase.

‡ Such was the opinion of the king himself, who, in answer to a declaration of the English parliament, said: "If he had been obeyed in the Irish affairs before he went to Scotland, there had been no Irish rebellion; or after it had begun, it would have been in a few months suppressed."—*Reliq. Sac Carolina*, p. 273.



Mahon's, at the last moment, has not been explained. O'Connolly hastened to denounce the conspiracy to Sir William Parsons, who, perceiving that he was partly intoxicated, did not credit his story. On reflection, however, the lord justice went to consult with his colleague, Sir John Borlase, who resided at Chichester House, in College Green. It was then ten o'clock at night, and O'Connolly having been brought before them, and repeating his statement, immediate steps were taken to arrest the conspirators. The city gates were closed, and search made for the confederates, but O'More and some of the others, having timely notice of the discovery, contrived to escape across the Liffey. MacMahon was taken in his lodgings near the King's Inns, but seemed to feel little concern at his position; for he passed the time during the night, in the hall of Chichester House, sketching with chalk the figures of men on gibbets, or slain in various postures, and observing that it was too late to stop the rising, which had already taken place, and that he would be amply revenged. Lord Maguire was captured in the morning in a loft in Cook-street, and he and MacMahon were subsequently taken to London, where they were tried and hanged at Tyburn.

All was now alarm in the city. Early in the morning a proclamation was issued, announcing the discovery of a "detestable conspiracy, intended by some evil affected Irish papists, against

the lives of the lords justices and council, and many other of his majesty's faithful subjects, universally throughout the kingdom." The Castle was put into a state of defence, under Sir Francis Willoughby, the governor of Galway, who had arrived the preceding night; Sir Charles Coote was made governor of the city; the earl of Ormond, then at Carrick-on-Suir, received notice to repair to Dublin with his troop; arms were distributed among the Protestants, and also to some Catholics; commissions of martial law were issued; and all persons not residing in Dublin or the suburbs were ordered to depart under pain of death. The lords and gentlemen of the Pale, who were almost to a man Catholics, complained that the words "Irish papists" in the proclamation appeared to involve them in the charge of rebellion, and accordingly, on the 29th, another proclamation was published explaining that these words were only intended to designate "such of the old mere Irish in the province of Ulster as had plotted, contrived, and been actors in that treason, and others that adhered to them, and none of the old English of the Pale."

The failure of the plot in Dublin did not prevent its success in the north, where several important places were surprised or captured by the confederates before the news of the premature discovery in Dublin could penetrate so far. Sir Phelim O'Neill got possession by stratagem of Charlemont Fort, and



of its commander, Sir Tobias Caulfield; Newry was seized by Sir Con Magennis, and the arms and ammunition stored up there were distributed among the people; Roger Maguire overran Fermagh; Castleblaney, Carrickmacross, Dungannon, Mountjoy Fort, and a great number of small stations fell into the hands of the insurgents, who so far contented themselves with plunder, stripping and turning out the English occupiers. Sir Phelim O'Neill issued the following proclamation:

"These are to intimate and make known unto all persons whatsoever in and through the whole country, that the true intent and meaning of us whose names are hereunto subscribed, that the first assembling of us is nowise intended against our sovereign lord the king, nor hurt of any of his subjects, either English or Scotch; but only for the defence and libertie of ourselves and the Irish natives of this kingdom. And we further declare that whatsoever hurt hitherto hath been done to

any person shall be presently repaired, and we will that every person forthwith, after proclamation hereof, make their speedy repaire unto their own houses under paine of death, that no further hurt be done unto any one under the like paine, and that this be proclaimed in all places.—At Dungannon, the 23d October, 1641.

PHELM O'NEILL."\*

A few days after, Sir Phelim exhibited a commission which he pretended to have received from the king; having taken for that purpose a seal from an old patent found in Charlemont Fort, and attached it to the fictitious royal commission. The *ruse* had the desired effect in inducing some royalists to join his standard; but it was also laid hold on by the king's enemies as a charge against that unfortunate prince. Sir Phelim afterwards declared in the most solemn manner that he never received any commission or other authorization from the king.†

There were few places of strength in

\* The subjoined published letter, written by Sir Con Magennis two days after the rising, shows the spirit in which the Irish took up arms. It is preserved in the Custom-house, Dublin, with some other papers of historical interest, in the same place with the Down survey:—

"To my loveinge friendes, Capt. Vaughan, Marcus Trevor, and other commanders of Down these be. Deere friendes,—My love to you all, although you thinke it as yet otherwise. Sure it is, I have broken Sir Edward Trevor's letter, fearing that any thinge should be written against us. We are for our lives and liberties, as you may understand out of that letter. We desire no blood to be shed, but if you meane to shed our blood, be sure we will be as ready as you for the purpose. I rest your assured friende, CONNOR MAGNEISSE. Newry, 25th October, 1641."

† At the trial of Sir Phelim O'Neill in February, 1652, an infamous attempt was made by the judges to blacken the memory of the late king by endeavoring to elicit from the prisoner that he really had a commission from the unfortunate Charles. They first in private, and afterwards publicly, offered him his pardon and the restitution of his estates if he made a public confession to that effect, but he protested that he could not do so. At the conclusion of the trial the sentence was deferred to the next day, to give him an opportunity of considering the tempting offer. But Sir Phelim persevered in asserting that the king had no hand in the matter, and he called witnesses to prove that he himself had attached the seal to the pretended document. Finally, on the scaffold, the offer was repeated to him by the order of Ludlow, and, raising his voice, Sir Phelim said: "I declare, good people, before God and his angels, and all



Ulster which had not fallen by the end of the first week into the hands of the insurgents. Sir Phelim O'Neill already found himself at the head of some 30,000 men, as yet of course undisciplined, and but few of them efficiently armed; and it is not to be expected that such an irregular multitude, with wild passions let loose, and so many wrongs and insults to be avenged, could have been engaged in scenes of war, even so long, without committing some deeds of blood which the laws of regular warfare would not sanction. In some cases resistance was punished by them with little humanity; they had little compassion for the English settlers and undertakers; and life was taken in some few instances where the act deserved the name of murder; but the cases of this nature, on the Irish side, at the commencement of the rebellion, were isolated ones; and nothing can be more unjust and false than to describe the outbreak of this war as a "massacre." A single murder is a disgrace to our nature, and it is most painful to have to refer to such a crime in a way that sounds like palliation; but the foul misrepresentation which has sought to blacken the character of the northern

Irish by charging them with prearranged and systematic murder in this insurrection, is no less a disgrace to history. The cruelties which may be objected to the Irish insurgents belong to a somewhat later period of the war. "It was as yet"—observes a recent writer, of undoubted learning and research, but of the strongest bias against the Irish Catholics—"an insurrection of lords and gentlemen; nor is there any reason to believe that any thing more was designed by these than a partial transfer of property, and certain stipulations in favor of the Church of Rome."\* But the successes of the Irish were soon interrupted by serious reverses, in which they were treated with barbarous severity; several strong places were retaken from them, and in their attacks on others they were repulsed. Sir Charles Coote, the most truculent and merciless of the Puritan commanders, had very early commenced his work of carnage in the vicinity of Dublin; and a numerous body of the plundered English Protestants, uniting with the Scottish garrison of Carrickfergus, with whom they had sought shelter, wreaked their vengeance on the unprotected and unoffending peasantry of the neighbor-

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you that hear me, that I never had any commission from the king in what I have done in levying and prosecuting this war." (*Curte's Ormond*, vol. ii., p. 181. *Nelson's Historical Collections*.) We have thought it needless to allude in the text to the statement of the earl of Antrim, that before the breaking out of the rebellion, orders had been conveyed to him and to the earl of Ormond to seize the castle of Dublin, and to raise an army of 20,000 men in Ireland to make war against the parliament. The earl of Antrim (Randal

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MacDonnell, grandson of Sorley Boy, and second of that title) was notoriously a vain and frivolous man, and was either deceived by a Mr. Burke, a relative of the earl of Clanrickard, who pretended to bring such a message from the king; or else, in order to increase his importance, magnified some silly circumstance into the story in question. See his statement and the remarks on it in Clarendon's *Vindication of Ormond*.

\* The Rev. James Wills' *Illustrious and Distinguished Irishmen*, vol. ii., p. 437.



hood by a fearful massacre. These circumstances and many local causes combined to exasperate the Irish, and to elicit retaliation at which the heart sickens. Sir Phelim O'Neill, who was somewhat volatile and was subject to violent fits of passion, was not the man to control, as he should have done, the irregular masses which he commanded; and at a later period he lamented the cruelties which he had tolerated or ordered, but from the beginning, Roger O'More, and other leaders, set their faces against the commission of any act of unnecessary severity.\*

It was about this time that the learned and amiable William Bedell, Protestant bishop of Kilmore, drew up a remonstrance for the Catholic gentry and people of Cavan, among whom he continued to reside in safety; the respect and affection entertained for him by his Catholic neighbors rendering his house an inviolable sanctuary for all those who sought shelter in it.† Dr. Bedell would not have sanctioned what he did not believe to be the truth, yet this remonstrance, prepared by him, after alluding to the causes of fear which the Catholics believed themselves

justified in entertaining, namely, "of invasion from other parts (Scotland) to the dissolving of the bond of mutual agreement which hitherto hath been held inviolable between the several subjects of the kingdom," thus continues:—"For the preventing of such evils growing upon us in this kingdom we have, for the preservation of his majesty's honor and our own liberties, thought fit to take into our own hands, for his highness's use and service, such forts and other places of strength as coming into the possession of others, might prove disadvantageous and tend to the utter undoing of the kingdom." And it thus refers to the acts of violence already committed, in terms that would not seem to imply that any "massacre" was among the number:—"As for the mischiefs and inconveniences that have already happened, through the disorder of the common sort of people against the English inhabitants, or any other, we, with the nobility and gentlemen, and such others of the several counties of this kingdom, are most willing and ready to use our and their best endeavors in causing restitution and satisfaction to be made, as in part we have already done."‡

\* A contemporary writer, unfriendly to the native Irish, says:—"The truth is, they were very bloody on both sides, and though some will throw all on the Irish, yet 'tis well known who they were that used to give orders to their parties, sent into enemies' quarters, to spare neither man, woman, or child. And the leading men among the Irish have this to say for themselves, that they were all along so far from favoring any of the murderers, that not only their agents, soon after the king's restoration, but even in their remonstrance, presented by the Lord Viscount Gormanstown and Sir Robert Talbot, on the 17th of March, 1642, the nobility and gentry

of the nation desired that the murders on both sides committed should be strictly examined, and the authors of them punished, according to the utmost severity of the law; which proposal, certainly, their adversaries could never have rejected, but that they were conscious to themselves of being deeper in the mire than they would have the world believe."—*Castlehaven's Memoirs*, p. 21, ed. 1815.

† He, and all those within his walls, says his biographer, Bishop Burnet, "enjoyed, to a miracle, perfect quiet."

‡ Burnet's *Life of Bedell*.



There appears to be good reason for the assertion that the outrage near Carrickfergus, already alluded to, was the "first massacre" perpetrated at this dismal period. The statement is, that about the beginning of November, 1641, the English settlers, who, being plundered by the Irish, sought refuge in Carrickfergus, sallied forth at night with the Scotch garrison, and murdered all the people whom they found in the neighboring peninsula called Island Magee, to the number of about 3,000, men, women, and children, all innocent persons, as none of the Catholics of the county of Antrim had yet taken up arms. As to the fact of this massacre there is no doubt, but some question has been raised as to the time and the number. Protestant historians would make it appear that it took place a few months later, and they also argue on the improbability of so many persons residing in so small a district, the length of the peninsula being little

more than five Irish miles, and its greatest width only a mile and a half. Leland's statement is that only thirty families were butchered on the occasion; but the contemporary authority which we have for the number and time first stated appears to be undeniable; the population of the place may have been increased at the moment by many persons flying to that remote locality from danger in other quarters; and it is expressly added, that "this was the first massacre committed in Ireland of either side."\* The subject of these massacres is revolting to human nature, and we cordially agree with those who wish that it could be effaced from the page of Irish history; but as long as the calumnies of Sir John Temple and Borlase remain in print, and as the character of Ireland is held up to execration for a "universal massacre of Protestants," which never took place, so long will it be necessary to discuss these horrible details.†

\* See the "*Collection of some of the massacres and murders committed on the Irish in Ireland, since the 23d of Oct. 1641,*" appended to Clarendon's *Vindication of the Earl of Ormond*, and to Curry's *Review of the Civil Wars*, p. 623. It was first published in London in 1662, and its truth has never been disproved, although it makes frequent appeals to the testimony of enemies then living.

† That there was no premeditated design of a general massacre, in the great Irish rebellion of 1641, and that no such massacre took place, are facts that by the closest investigation of the subject may be established. How the monstrous falsehoods and exaggerations on this matter first got into circulation is a curious subject of inquiry. Clarendon, in his history, loosely asserted that 40 or 50,000 Protestants were murdered at the commencement of this rebellion, before they suspected any danger, which must have been within the first three or four days, at the farthest. Sir John Temple exaggerates

the number to 150,000! Sir William Petty made it a subject of statistical estimate, and fixed the number, more moderately, at upwards of 30,000. A writer named May has raised it to 200,000! The Rev. Dr. Warner, an English Protestant clergyman, in his *History of the Rebellion in Ireland*, took great pains to ascertain the truth out of "authentic documents," and the result of his minute inquiry was, "that the number of persons killed *out of war*, not at the beginning only, but in the course of the two first years of the rebellion, amounted, altogether, to 2,109; on the report of other Protestants, 1,619 more; and on the report of some of the rebels themselves, a further number of 300; the whole making 4028;" besides 8,000 more killed by ill usage; and he adds: "If we allow that the cruelties of the Irish out of war extended to these numbers, which, considering the nature of several of the depositions, I think, in my conscience, we cannot, yet, to be impartial we must allow that there is no pretence for laying



The lords justices published a proclamation on the 30th of October, to contradict the statement that Sir Phelim O'Neill held any commission from the king; and another on the 1st of November, offering pardon to such of the insurgents as would come in within two days, and were not freeholders; but the conditions were clearly intended to prevent the pardon from having any effect. The lords and gentlemen of the Pale, although not yet involved in any disloyalty, were treated with coldness and suspicion. Parliament

met, according to adjournment, on the 16th of November, but was again prorogued, and the lords justices plainly intimated that they required neither the advice nor the co-operation of any beyond the small clique of Puritans who acted as their council. It was obviously the design of these men to urge the Catholic landed gentry into rebellion, for the purpose of confiscating their property, and "they were often heard to say," as we are told by one well acquainted with them, "that the more were in rebellion, the more lands

greater number to their charge." This account, he tells us, was corroborated by a letter which he copied out of the council books at Dublin, and which was written ten years after the beginning of the rebellion, from the parliament commissioners in Ireland to the English parliament. The commissioners expressly say in this letter "that it then appeared that, besides 848 families, there were killed, hanged, and burnt 6,062." There is a great difference between these numbers and those quoted above, which vary from Petty's 30,000 to Mr. May's 200,000; but an examination of the "authentic documents," on which both Dr. Warner and the parliamentary commissioners grounded their calculations, will show that little or no reliance can be placed upon them, and that the very lowest estimate is most probably a monstrous exaggeration. A commission was issued by the lords justices in 1644, to "inquire what lands had been seized; what murders committed by the rebels; what number of British Protestants had perished on the way to any place whither they fled, &c.," and the commissioners continued from March till October to take depositions. Crowds came with their stories, but their evidence was nearly all a hearsay, and but few of them were sworn. Great numbers of them were poor women and servants, illiterate persons unable to sign their names; and it may be suspected that the mere parole evidence of such persons, under the circumstances, could be of little value. They allowed free scope to their imagination; every one wished to exceed his neighbor's story; and most of them could only tell what they heard others say while they were prisoners with the Papists. If a Protestant girl heard a Papist cow-boy boast of the number of murders that he and his friends committed—making no allowance at all for the grim waggery of such a person wishing to frighten the poor Protestant prison-

ers out of their wits—the horrible tale was brought to the commissioners, and a deposition taken to that effect. Sometimes the examinations related to the ghosts of the murdered Protestants who appeared walking on the water, brandishing spectre swords, and raising their hands to heaven. A great part of the deposition of the Rev. Robert Maxwell, afterwards Protestant bishop of Kilmore, is actually taken up with these dreadful apparitions? Many of the deponents described the same murders as if committed in different places; and many also deposed to numbers of persons who were known to be alive several years after. However, all the depositions were collected and carefully bound up in thirty-two folio volumes, which are still preserved in the library of Trinity College, Dublin, and these are the precious documents on which, and on some official reports, Dr. Warner made his calculations. Sir John Temple collected from them the best extracts he could for his history, and these have been republished innumerable times as authentic evidence, but the whole together are of little historic value except as a curious monument of the times. Dr. Lingard (vol. vii., note NNN. 6th ed.) quotes several dispatches, letters, and commissions from the lords justices to the English parliament, privy council, &c., written within the first two months after the outbreak, which either make no allusion at all to murders, or do so in terms which plainly indicate that there was no general massacre; and that profound historian argues—"If we consider the language of these dispatches, and at the same time recollect who were the writers, and what an interest they had in exaggerating the excesses of the insurgents, we must, I think, conclude that hitherto no general massacre had been made or attempted,"—that is, the reader will observe, no massacre of the Protestants by the Catholics.



should be forfeited to them.”\* This nefarious scheme of forfeiture was, indeed, scarcely concealed from the beginning. The greedy lords justices exulted openly at the rich harvest which they anticipated; and not later than two months after this time a company of adventurers was formed in London, who calculated on the confiscation of ten millions of acres in Ireland, as soon as the work of reduction could be completed.

The state of feeling thus produced in the Pale encouraged the northern Irish, who marched towards Drogheda, under the command of Sir Phelim O'Neill, now invested with the title of “lord general of the Catholic army in Ulster.” On the 24th of November they took Lord Moore’s house at Mellifont, and put the foot-soldiers who defended it to the sword, the cavalry having cut their way through to Drogheda. This latter town was now closely besieged, the garrison being under the command of Sir Henry Tichbourne, who was ably assisted by Lord Moore. About this time the Irish were repulsed in an assault on Lisburn, then called Lisnagarvy; but their loss was repaired soon after by a victory over an English detachment of six hundred or seven hundred men, who were sent from Dublin to relieve Drogheda, and were cut to pieces at the bridge of Gillianstown, near Julianstown, one hundred only, with three of the officers, making their

escape to Drogheda. This success gave fresh courage to the insurgents, who levied contributions in the surrounding country, and caused no slight alarm to the government. Some of the nobility joined in an address to the lords justices, but their remonstrances were treated with contempt. Lords Dillon and Taaffe had been sent with letters to the king from the Irish parliament, but they were made prisoners at Ware, and their papers seized. The arms that had been given in the first alarm to the Catholic nobility and gentry were recalled, and they themselves were ordered to withdraw to their respective habitations, which were thus rendered defenceless.

The same day that the detachment was defeated by the Irish on the march to Drogheda, Sir Charles Coote was sent into Wicklow, where it was said the people had risen, and seized several strong places. The sanguinary character of this officer has been already alluded to. In the town of Wicklow he cruelly put to death several innocent persons, without distinction of age or sex, and is charged with saying, when he saw a soldier carrying an infant on the point of his pike, “that he liked such frolics.”\* On his return to Dublin, his conduct was highly approved by the lords justices; and a rumor was spread that he made a proposal at the council-board to execute a general massacre of the Catholics. “The character

\* *Castlehaven's Memoirs*, p. 28.

\* *Carte's Ormond*, i., p. 243.



of the man," says Dr. Curry, "was such, that this report, whether true or not, was easily credited."\* "All this while," says Lord Castlehaven, "parties were sent out by the lords justices and council from Dublin, and most garrisons throughout the kingdom, to kill and destroy the rebels; but the officers and soldiers took little or no care to distinguish between rebels and subjects, but killed in many places promiscuously men, women, and children; which procedure not only exasperated the rebels, and induced them to commit the like cruelties upon the English, but frightened the nobility and gentry about; who, seeing the harmless country people, without respect to age or sex, thus barbarously murdered, and themselves openly threatened as favorers of the rebellion, for paying the contributions they could not possibly refuse, resolved to stand upon their guard."†

These gentlemen, however, made another attempt to convey their loyal sentiments to the king, before they would commit themselves in any way with his majesty's Irish government. For that purpose they prevailed on Sir John Read, a gentleman in the king's service, to take a memorial from them

into his charge; but Read was arrested and imprisoned, and soon after put to the rack, one of the questions which he was pressed to answer being, whether the king and queen were privy to the Irish rebellion. About this time, also, Patrick Barnwell of Kilbrew, a man sixty-six years of age, was also put to the rack to extort similar information. At length, on the 3d of December, the lords justices summoned several of the noblemen and gentlemen of the Pale to attend in Dublin on the 8th, on the pretence of holding a conference with them; but suspecting that this was only an artifice to draw them within the clutches of those functionaries, and deprive them of their liberty, these gentlemen replied by a letter, which they agreed to at a meeting held at Swords, stating that they had cause to think that their loyalty was suspected by the lords justices, and "that they had received certain advertisement that Sir Charles Coote, at the council-board, had uttered certain speeches, tending to a purpose to execute upon those of their religion a general massacre, by which they were deterred from waiting on their lordships, not having any security for their safety." The same day this

\* "Sir Charles Coote," says Leland, "in revenge of the depredations of the Irish, committed such unprovoked, such ruthless and indiscriminate carnage in the town of Wicklow, as rivalled the utmost extravagancies of the northerners."—*Hist. of Ir.*, vol. iii., p. 146. "He was a stranger to mercy," says Warner, "and committed many acts of cruelty, without distinction, equal in that respect to any of the rebels."—*Hist. of the Ir. Reb.*, p. 135. Borlase tells us that he was "as terrible to the enemy, as his very name was formidable to them."

Lord Castlehaven calls him "a hot-headed and bloody man, and as such accounted even by the English Protestants; yet," he adds, "this was the man whom the lords justices picked out to intrust with a commission of martial law to put to death rebels or traitors, that is, all such as he should deem to be so; which he performed with delight, and with a wanton kind of cruelty."—*Vide Carte's Ormond*, i., pp. 279, 280. It was after his brutal massacre in Wicklow that he was made governor of Dublin.

† *Castlehaven's Memoirs*, p. 30.



letter was dispatched to the lords justices a party of troopers slaughtered four poor men at Santry, in the vicinity of Dublin, one of the four happening to be a Protestant. On the 15th Coote was sent with a troop of horse to Clontarf, Raheny, and Kilbarrack, where they burned the houses, and among others the house of Mr. King at Clontarf.

It was a few days previously that, on the invitation of Lord Gormanston, a meeting of Catholic noblemen and gentry was held on the hill of Crofty, in Meath. Among those who attended were the earl of Fingal, Lords Gormanston, Slane, Louth, Dunsany, Trimleston, and Netterville; Sir Patrick Barnwell, Sir Christopher Bellew, Patrick Barnwell of Kilbrew, Nicholas Darcy of Platten, James Bath, Gerald Aylmer, Cusack of Gormanston, Malone of Lismullen, Segrave of Kileglan, &c. After being there a few hours a party of armed men on horseback, with a guard of musketeers, were seen to approach. The former were the insurgent leaders, Roger O'More, Philip O'Reilly, MacMahon, Captains Byrne and Fox, &c. The lords and gentry rode towards them, and Lord Gormanston, as spokesman, demanded, "for what reason they came armed into the Pale?" O'More answered, "that the ground of their coming thither, and taking up arms, was for the freedom and liberty of their consciences, the maintenance of his majesty's prerogative, in which they understood he was

abridged, and the making the subjects of this kingdom as free as those of England." Lord Gormanston then said—"Seeing these be your true ends, we will likewise join with you therein."\* This is the first act of combination between the nobility and gentry of the Pale and the northern insurgents of which we have any authentic account. The meeting, which of course was prearranged, was one deeply interesting; and in a week after a more numerous meeting of the gentry was held on the hill of Tara.

A. D. 1642.—On the first of January the king issued a proclamation against the "Irish rebels," and on several occasions, both before and after that date, he proposed to come to Ireland himself, to take the command against them. He complained of the negligence of the parliament to adopt proper measures to put down the insurrection; but that body was too much occupied with other views. On no account would the parliament suffer Charles to visit Ireland; and, notwithstanding all his protestations, and all his denunciations of his "rebellious Irish subjects," they pretended to believe that the unfortunate monarch was, himself, at the bottom of the Irish movement. He had committed the affairs of Ireland entirely to their charge, and on the 8th of the preceding month they had plainly indicated upon what principle they were resolved to act,

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\* Examination of Edward Dowdall, one of the gentlemen who attended the meeting. *Borlase's Hist. of the Irish Insurr.*, p. 39.



by voting that "they would never consent to any toleration of the Popish religion in Ireland, or in any other part of his majesty's dominions."\* They calculated, with confidence, on being able to crush the Irish when they chose, and, after a little while, proceeded to vote the confiscation of some millions of Irish acres, and to promise Irish estates for the pay of their troopers; but, although they sent over several large reinforcements to the lords justices, they were chiefly concerned, at present, in preparing for the war which they themselves were about to levy against their king; and throughout the progress of the Irish troubles they continued to make these a pretence for raising men and money to be employed in their own rebellion. For that purpose, also, they encouraged, by every means in their power, the most false and extravagant reports of "Popish massacres and outrages," which they turned to good account in appealing to the pockets and prejudices of the affrighted people of England.†

Meanwhile matters went on but indifferently with Sir Phelim O'Neill and the northern Irish. They were repulsed in several assaults by the garrison of Drogheda, and some powerful reinforcements having reached that town, they

finally raised the siege on the 3d of March. On the 26th the English recovered possession of Dundalk. The lords justices, by a proclamation of the 8th of February, had offered large rewards for the heads of the Irish leaders: a thousand pounds being offered for that of Sir Phelim; six hundred pounds each for several of the others; and smaller sums for the men of less importance.

Notwithstanding the numerous reinforcements which arrived to them from England, Parsons and Borlase were afraid to allow their army to pursue the Irish to any distance. Ormond had been sent to overawe the Irish force collected before Drogheda, but was strictly prohibited from crossing the Boyne; and Tichburne, who now found himself at the head of a very efficient force in Drogheda, was ordered not to pursue the Irish so far that he could not return to that town in the evening. But the lords justices were fully as brutal as they were pusillanimous in their orders. The instructions to their commanders to pillage, burn, and slay were most imperative, and their lieutenant-general, the earl of Ormond,‡ more than once incurred their displeasure for what was thought to be too much leniency

\* Borlase, p. 34.

† The first commission to collect depositions on the subject of the crimes imputed to the Irish was issued on the 23d of December, 1641, to Dr. Jones, dean of Kilmore, and six other Protestant clergymen; a fresh commission for the same purpose being issued in 1644. We have already seen what amount of credit is due to the information obtained, by the commissioners, on those occasions.

‡ The earl of Ormond, so familiar to the reader as a captain and a statesman, during the wars of Elizabeth's reign, and who was known among the Irish as "Black Thomas," died in 1614, at the advanced age of 82 years, having been old enough to have been the playmate of Edward VI. At the close of his life he became blind, and died a Catholic, lamenting the part which he had taken against the Catholic religion and his country (*O'Sul. Hist. Cath.*, p. 290; and Lynch's *Alithenologia*)



in the execution of these horrible commands. Ormond, however, was generally accompanied by Sir Charles Coote, whose thirst for blood could not be easily restrained, were the commander-in-chief even inclined to be merciful. This was instanced in the case of Father Higgins, of Naas, who, although under Ormond's protection, was executed, without trial, by Coote; and in that of Father White, to whom Ormond had also extended his protection, until he could be taken to Dublin to be imprisoned, but who was brutally put to death by the soldiers, who mutinously demanded the priest's life.\*

It was some weeks before the insurrection penetrated into Munster; but about the middle of December Sir William St. Leger, lord president, com-

menced a series of atrocities which soon kindled the flame of civil war in that province. In retaliation for some wanton outrage, the peasantry drove off in a tumultuous way a number of cattle from the lands of his brother-in-law: and to avenge this indignity Sir William sallied forth with two troop of horse, and slaughtered a great number of men and women wholly innocent of the offence. Lord Muskerry and other noblemen, who had made thankless offers of their services to preserve the peace, respectfully remonstrated against these cruelties; but their friendly interference was treated with insult, and the lord president told them "that they were all rebels, and he would not trust one of them, and that he thought it most prudent to hang the best of

It was generally supposed that he was converted by Father Archer during his captivity with Owny O'More. This extraordinary man was succeeded by his nephew, Sir Walter, the 11th earl of Ormond, who was a Catholic, and received the nick-name of "Walter of the Rosaries," from his piety. (*Dr. French's Unkind Deserter*, p. 26). His vast estates were most unjustly sequestered by James I. in favor of Preston, who had been made earl of Desmond; but they were restored to his grandson, James, who succeeded to the earldom on Walter's death in 1633, and had married the daughter of Preston, in 1629. This James, who was born in England in 1607, was educated as a Protestant by the archbishop of Canterbury, to whose care he had been committed by the king, on the death of his father, Sir Thomas, who was a Catholic, and was drowned at Skerries, returning from England in 1619; and it is to him—"the great duke of Ormond" of a subsequent date—that we are introduced at the present epoch. He was a bitter enemy of the Irish, and of the Catholics. The able author of the *Confederation of Kilkenny*, describing his character, writes:—"With military talents of a superior order, he was in every respect equal to many of the generals of his time. In diplomacy, however, he excelled them all. With the most fascinating and artful address, he easily worked himself into the confidence

of friends and foes; but under the guise of simplicity and candor he covered a heart which was full of treachery and craft." (*The Rev. C. P. Meehan's Confed. of Kil.*, p. 23.)

\* The case of Father Higgins excited a great deal of interest. He had been extremely kind to the English and the Protestants, having, says Carte, saved many of them from the fury of the Irish, and afforded them subsequent relief; and relying upon this conduct on his part, and on his own unblemished character, he presented himself before Ormond at Naas, instead of attempting to escape, and only besought his lordship to preserve him from the violence of the soldiery, for they might then try him in Dublin, on any charge they could bring against him. The historian tells us that "when it was spread abroad among the soldiers that he was a Papist, the officer in whose custody he was, was assaulted by them, and it was as much as the earl could do to compose the mutiny..... Within a few days after when the earl did not suspect the poor man's being in danger, he heard that Sir Charles Coote had taken him out of prison, and caused him to be put to death in the morning before, or as soon as it was light." The earl complained of this barbarity, but the lords justices did not seem to think that the provost-marshal had exceeded his duty.



them." These proceedings had the desired effect, and the people rose in arms.\* They first took possession of Cashel, on which occasion Philip O'Dwyer and the other popular leaders acted in the most friendly manner towards the English, protecting them against the violence of those whom St. Leger's brutality had exasperated; but the humanity displayed by the Catholic clergy was particularly praiseworthy. Father James Saul, a Jesuit, sheltered several persons, and among others the Rev. Dr. Samuel Pullen, Protestant chancellor of Cashel and dean of Clonfert, with his family; Fathers Joseph Everard and Redmond English, Franciscan friars, concealed some of the Protestant fugitives in their chapel, and even under the altar; and others of the Catholic clergy exhibited the like generous compassion.\*

In Connaught the exertions and influence of the earl of Clanrickard, who was a Catholic, but was devotedly

attached to the cause of the king and to the English interests, stayed for a long time the progress of the insurrection; and even when the movement had reached Galway, he nevertheless procured the submission of the town without bloodshed. But all his active loyalty did not obtain for him the confidence of the lords justices, and he himself complained that these officials acted towards him "as if their design were to force him and his into resistance."†

The discordant elements of old and new Irish, nationalists and royalists, now involved in the insurrection, were at length about to be amalgamated, and organization introduced into the movement. This was to be effected by the Catholic clergy, whose influence these various parties recognized; for whatever might have been their other principles of action, they had at least one in common, namely, a devoted attachment to the Catholic Church. A

\* The particular views for goading this province into rebellion," observes Plowden, "are fully laid open in Lord Cork's letter to the speaker of the English House of Commons, which he sent, together with 1,100 indictments against persons of property in that province, to have them settled by crown lawyers and returned to him; 'and so,' says he, 'if the house please to direct to have them all proceeded against to outlawry, whereby his majesty may be entitled to their lands and possessions, which I dare boldly affirm was, at the beginning of this insurrection, not of so little yearly value as £200,000.' This earl of Cork was notorious for his rapacity, but this last effort he called 'the work of works.' In Dublin many were put to the rack, in order to extort confessions; and, in the short space of two days, upwards of 4,000 indictments were found against landholders and other men of property in Leinster."—*Hist. of Ireland*, vol. i., p. 375.

† Various other instances are on record of the hu-

manity of the Catholic priests at this disastrous period, notwithstanding the persecution which then raged against themselves. Mr. Hardiman (*Iar Connaught*, p. 406) quotes, from the famous depositions in Trinity College, extracts which show the exertions of the clergy of Galway to save the Protestants when the O'Flaherties entered that town, in the beginning of 1642, with several hundred men, and laid siege to the fort. Among others, Mary Bowler, servant to Lieutenant John Gell, who commanded in the fort, deposed "that she herself saw the priests of the towne and other priests, being about eight in number, going about the towne in their vestments, with tapers burning and the Sacrament borne before them, and exhorting the said Murrough-na-mart (O'Flaherty) and his company, for Christ's sake and our Lady's and St. Patrick's, that they would shed no more blood, and if they did they would never have mercy."

† *Mem. of the Marq. of Clanricarde*. This earl was the son of him who fought against the Irish at Kinsale



provincial synod, convened by Hugh O'Reilly, archbishop of Armagh, was the first step in this direction. It was held at Kells, on 22d of March, and was attended by all the bishops of the province, except Thomas Dease, bishop of Meath, who had opposed the rising as premature, and who, by preventing supplies of men and provisions from being sent to Sir Phelim O'Neil, had, it was considered, caused the failure of the siege of Drogheda. The synod pronounced the war undertaken by the Catholics of Ireland lawful and pious; issued an address denouncing murders, and the usurpation of other men's estates; and took steps for convoking a national synod, to be held at Kilkenny, on the 10th of May.

Reinforcements arrived, almost every week, of Scots in Ulster, or of English troops at Dublin; but the lords justices continued to call for more, and to appeal to the generosity of the English people on behalf of the numerous plundered English Protestants who crowded the streets of Dublin and other towns. On the 15th of April an additional detachment of 2,500 Scots arrived at Carrickfergus, under the command of General Monroe, a man of violent sectarian feelings, and of a savage, unrelenting nature, who now placed himself at the head of a numerous and powerful army, composed chiefly of Scots, with an admixture of the despoiled English settlers, who took the field with accumulated rancor against their Irish Catholic foes.

Meanwhile the Irish throughout the country acted without plan or co-operation, and were consequently defeated in detail. Lord Mountgarret, whose family and personal interest was very great, seized Kilkenny without any bloodshed, and through his exertions almost every place of strength in the counties of Kilkenny, Waterford, and Tipperary fell into the power of the Irish in the space of a week. He then marched to the south, and took several places in the county of Cork; but the people of that county preferred Gerald Barry as their leader, and for want of unanimity they failed in their attempts on Youghal, Bandon, and Kinsale, and were successfully repulsed before Cork, by St. Leger and Lord Inchiquin. Lord Mountgarret returned to Leinster, and having mustered a numerous, but ill-armed and undisciplined force, thought to intercept the earl of Ormond, who was returning to Dublin after some services in the south of the county of Kildare. The two armies were in view of each other at Athy, when Ormond wished to avoid a battle; but after a parallel march of both armies for a few miles, an action took place near Kilrush, about twenty miles from Dublin, when the Irish were totally routed, and driven into a bog at their rear, having lost about six hundred men, with all their ammunition, and twenty pair of colors. Among the killed on the Irish side were the sons of Lord Dunboyne and Lord Ikerrin; and after this the gallant



Roger O'More ceased to appear on the scene.\* Ormond, who was accompanied by Sir Charles Coote, Colonel Monck, Sir Thomas Lucas, and other officers of note, was received with great triumph in Dublin, and the English parliament voted £500 to purchase a jewel to be presented to him as a mark of their esteem. Lord Mountgarret returned to Kilkenny.†

At length the 10th of May arrived, and the national synod met at Kilkenny. It was attended by the archbishops of Armagh, Cashel, and Tuam; the bishops of Ossory, Elphin, Waterford and Lismore, Kildare, Clonfert, and Down and Connor; the proctors of the archbishop of Dublin, and of the bishops of Limerick, Emly, and Killaloe; and by sixteen other dignitaries and heads of religious orders. The occasion was most solemn, and the proceedings were characterized by calm dignity and an enlightened tone. An oath of association, which all Catholics throughout the land were enjoined to take, was framed; and

those who were bound together by this solemn tie were called the "Confederate Catholics of Ireland." Such a bond of union and expression of opinion was essential where parties so different were to act in concert. A manifesto explanatory of their motives, and containing rules to guide the confederation, and an admirable plan of provisional government, was issued. It was ordained that a General Assembly, comprising all the lords, spiritual and temporal, and the gentry of their party, should be held; and that the Assembly should select members from its body to represent the different provinces and principal cities, and to be called the Supreme Council, which would sit from day to day, dispense justice, appoint to offices, and carry on, as it were, the executive government of the country. Severe penalties were pronounced against all who made the war an excuse for the commission of crime; and after three days' sittings this important conference brought its labors to a close.‡

\* According to other accounts O'More retired, disappointed, to Flanders, after the failure of the siege of Drogheda, but returned to Ireland at the time of the Synod of Kilkenny, and died in the latter town. See Wills' *Illust. Irishmen*, vol. ii., part ii., p. 433.

† The pedigrees of this nobleman (Richard, third Viscount Mountgarret) and of James, twelfth earl (and afterwards duke) of Ormond, the commander of the English at the battle of Kilrush, meet in Pierce Butler, eighth earl of Ormond, who died in 1539; the former being the third and the latter fifth in descent from Pierce through his two sons. Lord Mountgarret, whose first wife was Margaret, eldest daughter of the great Hugh, earl of Tyrone, was always found on the Irish side, and distinguished himself in the last war of Elizabeth's reign.

‡ The Acts of the Synod decreed, among other things,

that "whereas the war which now in Ireland the Catholics do maintain against sectaries, and chiefly against Puritans, (is) for the defence of the Catholic religion, for the maintenance of the prerogative and royal rights of our gracious king, Charles—of our gracious queen, so unworthily abused by the Puritans, . . . . and lastly, for the defence of their own lives, lands, and possessions, . . . we, therefore, declare that war, openly Catholic, to be lawful and just; in which war, if some of the Catholics be found to proceed out of some particular (private) and unjust title—covetousness, cruelty, revenge, or hatred, or any such unlawful private intentions—we declare therein grievously to sin," &c. That nothing be done to excite emulation or comparison between the different provinces, towns, families, &c. That a council, composed of the clergy, nobility, &c., be constituted in each province; the provincial councils to be



Although the war during this time was not carried on with much activity on either side, several incidents took place worthy of note. Lord Lisle, son of the earl of Leicester, having arrived in Dublin a few days after the battle of Kiltrush, with his own regiment of 600 horse carbiniers and 300 dragoons, went, with Sir Charles Coote, to the relief of Letitia, baroness of Offaly, who was besieged, in her castle of Geashill, in the king's county, by the O'Dempseys. This lady, who was grand-daughter of Gerald, earl of Kildare, the brother of Silken Thomas, showed much heroism in defying the menaces of the assailants: and the siege having been raised, Coote and Lord Lisle, burning the country as

they proceeded, marched to Trim, of which they took possession, the Catholic army having retired at their approach. Lord Lisle now set out for Dublin, Sir Charles Coote remaining to place Trim castle, of which the walls were quite dilapidated, in a state of defence; and the Irish returned, on the 7th of May, and attempted to regain the place. They were unsuccessful in their effort, but Coote was killed on the occasion, as it was supposed by a shot from one of his own troopers, and the death of a foe so merciless and active was deemed in itself a sufficient triumph. Coote's son was appointed provost-marshal of Connaught.\*

Limerick had opened its gates to General Barry and Lord Muskerry

subordinate to the general or national council. That an inventory be kept in each province "of the murders, burnings, and other cruelties which are committed by the Puritan enemies, with a quotation of the place, day, cause, &c., subscribed by one of public authority." That "all who forsake this union, fight for our enemies, and accompany them in their war, defend or in any way assist them, be excommunicated;" and also that "all those that murder, dismember, or grievously strike; all thieves, unlawful spoilers, &c., be excommunicated."

The following was the "oath of association," as given by Lord Castlehaven, the form, according to Borlase, being substantially the same:—"I, A. B., do profess, swear, and protest before God, and his saints and angels, that I will, during my life, bear true faith and allegiance to my sovereign lord, Charles, by the grace of God king of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, and to his heirs and lawful successors; and that I will, to my power, during my life, defend, uphold, and maintain all his and their just prerogatives, estates, and rights, the power and privilege of the parliament of this realm, the fundamental laws of Ireland, the free exercise of the Roman Catholic faith and religion throughout this land; and the lives, just liberties, possessions, estates, and rights of all those that have taken, or that shall take, this oath, and perform the contents thereof; and that I will obey and ratify all the orders and decrees made, or to be made, by the supreme council of the confederate

Catholics of this kingdom, concerning the said public cause, and will not seek, directly or indirectly, any pardon or protection for any act done or to be done, touching this general cause, without the consent of the major part of the said council; and that I will not, directly or indirectly, do any act or acts that shall prejudice the said cause, but will, at the hazard of my life and estate, assist, prosecute, and maintain the same. Moreover, I do further swear that I will not accept of, or submit unto any peace made, or to be made, with the said confederate Catholics, without the consent and approbation of the general assembly of the said confederate Catholics. . . . So help me God and his holy gospel"

\* An incident mentioned by the earl of Castlehaven occurred probably a few weeks before this time. The earl gives it on the authority of his brother, who relates how, while accompanying a party sent out by the earl of Ormond, they met Sir Arthur Loftus, governor of Naas, returning with a party of horse and dragoons after having killed such of the Irish as they met. "But the most considerable slaughter," he proceeds, "was in the great strait of furze, seated on a hill, where the people of several villages, taking the alarm, had sheltered themselves. Now, Sir Arthur, having invested the hill, set the furze on fire on all sides, where the people, being a considerable number, were all burnt or killed, men, women, and children. I saw the bodies and furze still burning." (*Castlehaven's Memoirs*, p. 38).



<p>long before this time, but Captain Courtenay continued to defend himself, in the castle, with great bravery, and the protracted siege was not brought to a close until the 23d of June, when the garrison capitulated. The cannon and ammunition taken by the confederates on this occasion were of great importance; and most of the neighboring castles surrendered to them. One of the guns was a thirty-two pounder, and required twenty-five yoke of oxen</p>	<p>to draw it. Sir William St. Leger died at his house near Cork on the 2d of July; and his son-in-law, Lord Inchiquin, was appointed to succeed him as lord president of Munster. This degenerate descendant of the great Brian rivalled the most sanguinary of the Puritan generals in the cruelties which he executed upon his Catholic countrymen, and, in the traditions of the peasantry, his name was long preserved as "Murrough of the burnings."</p>
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## CHAPTER XXXVIII.

## REIGN OF CHARLES I. CONCLUDED.

The arrival of Owen Roe O'Neill—He assumes the command of the Irish army in Ulster.—Conduct of the Scots in Ulster.—Lord Lieven's opinion of Owen Roe.—Colonel Preston's arrival in Wexford with officers and arms.—Position of the lords justices.—State of the belligerents in Connaught and Munster.—Opening of the General Assembly—Outline of their proceedings.—Constitution of the Supreme Council—Appointment of generals, &c.—Levy of money and soldiers.—Remittances from the Continent—Establishment of a Mint.—Progress of the war.—Overture from the king to the Confederates.—Hostile conduct of Ormond.—Gallant defence of Ross.—Preston defeated near Ross.—Conference with the Royal Commissioners at Trim—Remonstrance of grievances—Obstacles to negotiation.—Success of the Confederates.—Death of Lord Moore.—Capture of Colonel Vavasour.—Foreign envoys.—Arrival of Father Scarampi.—Divisions in the Supreme Council.—Disgrace of Parsons.—Treaty of Cessation signed—Its rejection by the Puritans.—The Scots in Ulster take the Covenant.—Bravery of the Irish soldiers sent into Scotland for the king.—Ormond appointed lord lieutenant.—His negotiations with the Confederates.—Catholic and Protestant deputations to the king.—Infringement of the Cessation by the Scots.—Abortive expedition of Castlehaven against Monroe.—The king's impatience for a peace in Ireland.—Ormond's prevarication.—Renewed hostilities in the south and west.—Death of Archbishop O'Kealy.—Mission of Glamorgan—His secret treaty with the Confederates.—Mission of the Nuncio Rinuccini—His arrival in Ireland—Reception at Kilkenny.—Renewed discussion of the peace question.—Arrest of Glamorgan.—Division among the Confederates.—Treaty of peace signed by Ormond—Not approved by the Nuncio.—Siege of Bunratty.—Battle of Benburb.—Increasing opposition to the peace.—Ormond's visit to Munster.—Glamorgan joins the Nuncio's party.—Dublin besieged by the Confederates.—Given up to the Parliamentarians.—Ormond leaves Ireland.—Dissension in the Assembly.—Battles of Dungan Hill and Knocknonos.—O'Neill takes arms against the Confederates.—Ormond returns.—The peace of 1649.—Departure of the Nuncio.—Prince Rupert's expedition.

(FROM A. D. 1642 TO A. D. 1649.)

THE position of the confederate Catholics at the time to which the preceding chapter has brought us was discouraging enough, but brighter prospects were about to dawn upon them. The organization, of which they were yet destitute, was soon to be supplied by the General Assembly, and their want of military leaders was about to be filled up by the arrival of Colonel Owen Roe O'Neill and Colonel Thomas Preston. The former of these distinguished commanders landed near Castle Doe, in Donegal, about the middle of July, 1642, accompanied by a hundred officers, and having with him a quantity of arms and ammunition. Sir Phelim O'Neill went to receive him, and, at a meeting of the Irish gentry, resigned to him the command of the Catholic army of Ulster.\* Endowed with a high sense of honor,

\* These occurrences are thus recorded in Sir Phelim O'Neill's journal: "He (Owen Roe) came with a single

ship, commanded by Captain Antony Fleming, and one company of soldiers. He landed at the castle of Doe



and inured to the strict discipline of the soldier, the gallant defender of Arras expressed the strongest disapprobation of the retaliatory cruelties which had been tolerated by Sir

Phelim; and hastened, with the assistance of the experienced officers whom he had brought with him, to strengthen Charlemont fort, and to organize a disciplined army.\* The

A day of general meeting was appointed at Clones. The clan of the O'Neills came with the general (Sir Phelim) and Owen; also, the O'Reillys, O'Kanes, MacRorys, O'Dalys, MacMahons, and the MacDonnells with Sir James MacAlister. Sir Phelim resigned the generalship, which was conferred on Owen; Sir Phelim being nominated President of Ulster."

\* Owen O'Neill, says Carte, who writes in no friendly spirit, "was a man of clear head and good judgment, sober, moderate, silent, excellent in disguising his sentiments, and well versed in the arts and intrigues of courts." As to the cruelty attributed to his predecessor in the command, Sir Phelim, it has been grossly exaggerated, although his character was far from being faultless. One of the principal crimes laid to Sir Phelim's charge was the murder of Lord Charlemont, when removed from Charlemont fort to Kinard, on the

1st of March, 1641; yet it appears certain that this deed was done without his orders. The journal quoted in the last note tells us expressly that "he hanged and beheaded six persons for the murder of Lord Caulfield," and that "this execution was done at Armagh." Sir Phelim's attempt to inflict punishment for the murder of this English nobleman is referred to in one of the depositions in Trinity College, quoted in Archdall's *Lodge*, (vol. iii., p. 141), but in a way evidently not intended to clear the character of the Irish leader. As to the stratagem by which Sir Phelim got possession of the fort and its commander, we find the same artifice resorted to by Monroe to seize Lord Antrim at Dunluce Castle\*—namely, by inviting himself and a party to the intended victim's table to dinner—and yet we never hear of any odium thrown on the Scottish general on that account.

\* Dunluce Castle is situated three miles to the east of Portrush. It is famous for its situation, the picturesqueness of which is hardly excelled by that of any other ruin in the world. On the top of a perpendicular rock which rises upwards of a hundred feet from the sea, this venerable remains of antiquity looks proudly out on the ocean, the waves of which girdle the rock on which it stands, except where a deep chasm separates the rock from the mainland—a junction being formed at its bottom by a narrow wall. The yawning chasm above is spanned by a bridge which forms the only entrance to the castle, which, so long as the bridge is secured, is impregnable. The ruins cover a considerable space, and so accurately has the building been framed to the rock that the whole looks like one formation, and it appears rather to have been constructed by the hand of nature than by that of man. When the castle was entire it must have contained a great many apartments. One of its vaulted chambers is said to be inhabited by a banshee, the legend having probably arisen from the cleanness and freedom from dust in which it is kept by the wind. There is another remarkable chamber. The rock on which it was originally built and on which it rested has fallen away, and the apartment now hangs suspended in the air like a dove-cot. A long narrow cave perforates the rock on which the castle is built, at its base, from the sea to the rocky basin on the land side. Into it the sea rolls incessantly, the waves of which have polished through their action the stones that form its floor perfectly round, as may be seen at low-water, when a considerable part of it is left dry. The floor and the roof are composed of basalt. When the sea is calm there is a good echo in the cave. The erection of Dunluce castle is said to have been the work of De Courcy, earl of Ulster, although the evidence on which this report rests is not entirely satisfactory. History, however, informs us that it was in the hands of the English during the fifteenth century. In the following century, and somewhere about the year 1580, the castle came to be the scene of an incident which has given rise to numerous traditions. Colonel MacDonald, the founder of the MacDonnells of Antrim, came over from Scotland to render assistance to Tyrconnell at the time when he was hard pressed by his enemy, the powerful O'Neill. MacDonnell was hospitably entertained by Mac-

Quillan, the lord of Dunluce, to whom he rendered material aid in bringing his enemies in the neighborhood of the castle to terms. On their return from the foray, MacDonnell was invited to spend the winter in the castle, and he accepted the invitation, his men being at the same time quartered on the vessels of MacQuillan. During the visit MacDonnell ingratiated himself into the affections of the daughter of his host, and induced her to contract with him a private marriage. The discovery of his marriage incensed the Irish to such a degree that they resolved to put the Scottish chief and the whole of his followers to the sword, and they entered into a conspiracy to this end. It came, however, to the knowledge of the daughter of MacQuillan, who immediately disclosed it to her husband, and MacDonnell and his wife and retainers, or clansmen, made their escape from the castle. At a subsequent date, however, they returned, and in process of time they came into the possession of a considerable portion of county Antrim. The wars, the successes, and the misfortunes of the MacQuillans and their successors, the MacDonnell's, form the subject of many traditions. The descendants of the MacQuillan family have fallen from the high estate which their ancestors possessed, and are now unknown in the aristocracy of the country. The lordship of Antrim and Dunluce has remained in the family of the wily Scotchman who won the love of MacQuillan's daughter, and the MacDonnells are lords of Antrim and Dunluce. In the succeeding century, and in the year 1642, an act of treachery of a much more infamous character was perpetrated at the same castle, and what is remarkable enough, also by a Scotchman. In April of that year General Monroe, with a detachment of troops, paid a visit to the earl of Antrim at Dunluce Castle, and was received with the highest demonstrations of hospitality and festivity; the earl at the same time offering him a contribution of men and money to reduce the country, which was in a disturbed state, to tranquillity. Monroe repaid this friendship on the part of the earl by seizing his person and imprisoning him in the castle of Carrickfergus, while at the same time he took possession of all his other castles, putting them into the hands of Argyle. The earl, however, not long afterwards effected his escape from Carrickfergus, and took refuge in England.



Scots in Ulster were, at this time, a sort of independent power, equally opposed to the king and to the Catholics. Left to their own resources by the English parliament, which was now too much occupied with its own war against its sovereign, they plundered both parties, and, according to Warner, "wasted Down and Antrim more than the rebels had done."\* Lord Lieven arrived in August with fresh supplies from Scotland, which raised the Scottish army in Ulster to 10,000 men; the whole force of Scots and English in that province amounting now to 20,000 foot and 1,000 horse. Lieven crossed the Bann at the head of a formidable army, but retired without performing any service, and soon after returned to Scotland, leaving to Monroe the sole command. Lieven entertained a high opinion of Owen Roe, to whom he wrote expressing his concern "that a man of his reputation should be engaged in so bad a cause;" but O'Neill justly replied that he had a better right to come to the relief of his country than his lordship could plead for marching into England against his king. Lieven warned Monroe that he might expect a total overthrow should Owen O'Neill once collect an army.

Colonel Preston, the brother of Lord Gormanston, and ranking next to Owen Roe in military skill and reputation, landed early in autumn on the coast of Wexford. He came in a ship of war,

attended by two frigates, and some transports bringing a few siege-guns, field-pieces, and other warlike stores, together with 500 officers and a number of engineers. Shortly after other ships arrived with further supplies of artillery, arms, and ammunition, and a considerable number of experienced Irish officers and veteran soldiers, discharged from the French service by Cardinal Richelieu, with the obvious view of their coming to the aid of their countrymen at home. These important accessions of strength, if well applied, might have been made decisive of the war, but as yet the Irish leaders acted without unity of plan or purpose, and the whole work of organization was still to be effected. The lords justices were all this time cooped up in Dublin, trembling with fear, and incapable of making any effort which required manliness or wisdom. The earl of Clanrickard co-operated with Lord Ranelagh, president of Connaught, against the Catholics of that province, and drew upon himself particular odium by countenancing the Puritan garrison of the fort of Galway, in their outrages against the people of the town and neighborhood; while in the south Lord Inchiquin, with an army of 2,000 foot and 400 horse, defeated the confederates, under General Barry, on the 3d of September, near Liscarroll in the county of Cork; the Irish having only just before succeeded in capturing that strong castle after a siege of thirteen days.

\* Warner, vol. i., p. 227.



The 24th of October, 1642, will ever be memorable in our history as the day on which the General Assembly, projected by the national synod of the 10th of May, commenced its sittings in the ancient city of Kilkenny. Eleven spiritual and fourteen temporal peers, with two hundred and twenty-six commoners, representing the Catholic population of Ireland, of both races, assembled on this occasion. Patriotism and loyalty, religion and enlightened liberality, were the principles which drew together this national convention. Meeting in that old town where Clarence's parliament passed the infamous anti-Irish statute, with which the name of Kilkenny has thus been connected, this great national assembly, a true Irish parliament in all but name, must have suggested many strange associations; while its own existence, almost realizing in its form and its object the fond dream of Irish independence, constitutes one of the most interesting facts of our history.\* The assembly is said to have held its first meeting in the house of Sir Richard Shea, in the market-place of Kilkenny. Peers and commoners sat in the one hall, the forms of parliament being in this respect departed from; but an upper or private room was provided for the consultations of the lords. Those of the clergy who were not qualified to sit as prelates or

abbots met in "convocation," in an adjoining house. Mr. Patrick Darcy, an eminent lawyer, who had been persecuted by Strafford, sat bareheaded, representing the chancellor and the judges; and Mr. Nicholas Plunket acted as the speaker of the House of Commons, both lords and commons addressing their speeches to him. The Rev. Thomas O'Quirke, an eloquent and learned Dominican friar of Tralee, was appointed chaplain to both houses.

One of the first acts of the assembly was to declare that they did not intend their body as a parliament, lest they might infringe on the prerogative of the crown; but as a provincial government "to consult of an order for their own affairs, till his majesty's wisdom had settled the present troubles." The preliminary arrangements and administration of the oath of association occupied the interval to the 1st of November, when a committee was appointed to draw up a form of the confederate government, and on the 4th the acts of the committee were formally sanctioned by the two houses. "Magna Charta and the common and statute laws of England, in all points not contrary to the Roman Catholic religion, or inconsistent with the liberty of Ireland, were," says Carte, "acknowledged as the basis of the new government; and," continues the same writer, "as the

\* For a vivid and detailed account of the first meeting of the assembly, and of its subsequent proceedings, as well as for a minute and accurate elucidation of this complicated and important epoch of our his-

tory, we must refer the reader to the Rev. C. P. Meehan's *Confederation of Kilkenny*—by far the best work which we possess on the history of the period.



administrative authority was to be vested in the supreme council, it was decreed that at the end of every general assembly the supreme council should be confirmed or changed as the general body thought fit.\*

The supreme council was then chosen, and having elected Lord Mountgarret as its president,† it commenced the exercise of its executive functions by the appointment of generals to take the command of the army. These were—Owen Roe O'Neill for the forces of Ulster; Thomas Preston for those of Leinster; Gerald Barry for Munster; and John Burke as lieutenant-general for Connaught, the chief command in that province being reserved for the earl of Clanrickard, in the hope that he might at some time be induced to join the confederation. Lord Castlehaven

got the command of the Leinster horse, under General Preston. A great seal was ordered to be made; a press was set up to print the acts and proclamations of the assembly,—for every thing was done openly before the world; and a mint was established, in which, in a very short time, half-crown pieces, of full sterling value, to the amount of £4,000 were coined, besides a large quantity of copper money.‡ It was ordained that corn might be imported duty free until the present exigencies were removed, and that lead, iron, arms, and ammunition might also be introduced free; the privileges of free citizens were granted to ship-builders and mariners from other countries, and various other encouragements to commerce were held out. One of the first acts passed under the new great seal was

\* See the orders of the assembly, published in full in the appendix to Borlase.

† The supreme council was composed of the following members, there being six from each province, viz.:—For Leinster; the archbishop of Dublin, Viscount Gormaston, Viscount Mountgarret, Nicholas Plunket, Richard Belling, and James Cusack. For Ulster; the archbishop of Armagh, the bishop of Down, Philip O'Reilly, Colonel MacMahon, Heber Magennis, and Turlough O'Neill. For Munster; Viscount Roche, Sir Daniel O'Brien, Edmund FitzMaurice, Dr. Fennell, Robert Lambert, and George Comyn. For Connaught; the archbishop of Tuam, Viscount Mayo, the bishop of Clonfert, Sir Lucas Dillon, Geoffrey Brown, and Patrick Darcy. To these twenty-four the earl of Castlehaven was added as a twenty-fifth member, not representing any particular province. He had just made his escape from Dublin, where he was imprisoned by the lords justices on suspicion of being concerned in the insurrection; and arriving in Kilkenny during the sitting of the assembly, he joined the confederates after a little hesitation, and took the oath of association.

‡ "The total absence of embellishment or legend

on the silver coin," observes Mr. Meehan, "is evidence of the haste with which it was struck, for the half-crown piece bears no mark save that of the cross, and the figures indicating its value. The copper money subsequently produced and circulated is far more elaborate, and the legend 'Ecce Grex,' 'Floreat Rex,' together with the beautiful device, must be convincing proofs of a more prosperous moment in the affairs of the confederates."—*Confed. of Kil.*, p. 45. The half-penny has on one side the figure of a king kneeling and playing on a harp, over which is a crown, with the inscription "Floreat Rex;" on the reverse the figure of St. Patrick, with a crozier in his right hand and a shamrock in his left, extended over the people; on his left are the arms of Dublin, with the inscription "Ecce Grex." The farthing was similar, except that behind St. Patrick, in the reverse, was a church, and a parcel of serpents as if driven from it, with the inscription "Quiescat Plebs." (See Simon's *Essay on Irish Coins*.) The great seal of the confederation had in its centre a long cross, resting on a flaming heart; a dove with outspread wings above, a harp on the left hand, and a crown on the right; with the legend, *Pro Deo, Rege, et Patria, Hiberni Unanimes*.



an order to raise a sum of £30,000 in Leinster, and a levy of 31,700 men, who were to be drilled with all possible expedition by the officers whom Preston had brought from the continent. A guard of 500 foot and 200 horse was appointed to attend upon the supreme council. The bishops and clergy agreed to pay a large sum out of the ecclesiastical revenues, and envoys were sent to the Catholic courts of Europe to solicit aid. The learned and gifted Father Luke Wadding, who was appointed their agent for Rome, applied himself to their cause with all his heart and soul. He sent memorials on their behalf to all the Catholic courts, and was soon enabled to remit to Ireland 2,000 muskets and a sum of 26,000 dollars. Father James Talbot, their agent in Spain, collected in a short time 20,000 dollars in that country, and procured in France another large sum, together with two iron cannons carrying twenty-four pound balls. The assembly seemed at that time to appreciate the radical evil of Ireland, and prohibited, under severe penalties, all distinction and comparison between "old Irish, and old and new English, or between septs or families," &c. Finally, a remonstrance to the king was adopted, as a declaration of their loyalty and an exposition of their grievances; and the assembly broke up on the 9th of January, 1643, fixing the 20th of the following May for their next meeting.

A. D. 1643.—At the close of the last and the beginning of the present year

there was fighting in every direction, and with various success on both sides; but with the discipline and experience gained in the war, the Irish were improving rapidly as soldiers, and it was obvious that their resources in all that constitutes the sinews of war were vastly superior to those of the enemy. The strong places of the King's county, as Borris, Birr, Banagher, and others, fell in quick succession into the hands of Preston; some after a siege, and others without firing a shot. From Birr eight hundred English prisoners were escorted in safety by Lord Castlehaven, and given up to their friends at Athy. On the other hand, Colonel Monck (afterwards duke of Albemarle) relieved Ballinakill, in the Queen's county, besieged by Preston, and defeated the latter when he attempted to intercept him at Timahoe, in the same county. At this time circumstances enabled Preston to distinguish himself by a great number of exploits; but as a general he was too volatile and impulsive, and was therefore often unfortunate; while Owen O'Neill, having the powerful army of Monroe to keep him in check, had enough to do to hold his ground in the north, and retired into Leitrim and Longford to train up soldiers for future victories. The general assembly committed many faults, and assuredly one of the most fatal was the division of the military command, resulting, as it did, in want of union and co-operation.

The very power of the confederates



now became the root of their misfortunes. It led the king to desire to come to terms with them, not from any intention to do them justice, but with the hope of deriving assistance from them in his difficulties; and it exposed them to all those assaults of diplomatic craft, and that policy of fomenting internal division, which ultimately proved their ruin. For some time Borlase and Parsons, for their own base purposes, contrived to counteract the king's designs. Any amicable arrangement with the Irish would have frustrated all their hopes of plunder;\* but the delays thus caused only provoked Charles, who issued a commission to the (now) marquis of Ormond, the earl of St. Alban's and Clanrickard, the earl of Roscommon, Lord Moore, Sir Thomas Lucas, Sir Maurice Eustace, and Thomas Burke, Esq., to receive propositions from the confederates, to be transmitted for his majesty's consideration.

Goodwin and Reynolds, who had been sent over by the English parliament to watch the progress of affairs in Ireland, took alarm at this proceeding, and returned in haste to England; and the lords justices, as a further expedient for delay, sent the marquis of Ormond on an expedition against the confederates in Wexford. Whatever his apologists may say, Ormond was never either

slow or merciful in the execution of his duties against the Catholics. On the 4th of March he took Timolin on his way to the south, and the brave garrison, after surrendering on promise of quarter, were inhumanly butchered. On the 11th he laid siege to Ross, and having made a breach stormed the place, but was gallantly repulsed by the inhabitants; and Purcell, coming up with a strong detachment of the confederates, compelled him to raise the siege. Chagrined beyond measure at the position in which he was placed by the lords justices, and at their failure to send him succor by sea, which they had promised, Ormond prepared to return to Dublin, when he found his march intercepted by Preston with a numerous army. In this strait Ormond owed his safety to the bad generalship of his antagonist. Preston, despising the small force which he saw arrayed against him, left a strong position which he had first taken up, and so exposed his raw levies to the concentrated attack of Ormond's veterans, as to cause a total defeat and the loss of five hundred of his men. This conduct should have been fatal to Preston as a general, but he was only reprimanded by the supreme council.

This battle of Ross, as it is called, took place on the 18th of March, the

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\* So early as the 11th of May, 1642, consequent on the English vote for the confiscation of two and a-half millions of Irish acres, "the lords justices wrote a private letter to the speaker of the house of commons in England, without the rest of the council, beseeching the

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commons to assist them with a grant of some competent proportion of the rebels' lands. Here," says Warner, "the reader will find a key that unlocks the secret of their iniquitous proceedings." (*History of the Irish Rebellion.*)



very day on which Ormond's fellow-commissioners held a conference with the committee of the confederation at Trim. Those who represented the confederates on this occasion were Lord Gormanston, Sir Lucas Dillon, Sir Robert Talbot, and John Walsh, Esq., and the remonstrance of grievances which they presented in the name of the Catholics of Ireland, was duly received and transmitted to the king.\* A fresh commission was next issued by Charles to Ormond to conclude a cessation of arms for a year with the confederates; but various obstacles were thrown in the way of this arrangement, first by the lords justices, who tried every means which baseness and craft could suggest to prevent a pacification; next by Ormond, who was most reluctant to treat with the Catholics, except as a conquered people; and thirdly, by the Catholics themselves, who were divided into two parties—the old Irish, who were utterly opposed to any terms short of perfect religious liberty, and the old English or gentry of the Pale, who longed for peace with more moderate views, but felt themselves repelled by the insolence employed towards them by the government.

Meantime the arms of the confederates were prosperous in several quarters. Lord Castlehaven defeated Colonel Lawrence Crawford at Mo-

nasterevan, and other successes were obtained by the Catholics in Leinster. In the beginning of May, Monroe attempted to surprise Owen Roe at Charlemont, and so stealthily did he approach that he nearly succeeded; but O'Neill, who was out hunting when the advance guard of the Scots came upon him, repulsed them with slaughter in a narrow lane near the fort, and defeated them again the following day. O'Neill then marched towards Leitrim, but at Clones, on the borders of Fermanagh and Monaghan, he was defeated by Sir Robert Stewart. His loss, however, was not very serious, and soon after he gained an important victory over the English at Portlester Mill, about five miles from Trim, when Lord Moore, the English commander, was killed by a cannon ball. In the west, the parliamentary general, Wilmoughby, after a long and obstinate defence, surrendered the forts of Galway and Oranmore to the confederates on the 20th of June; and in the south an important victory was gained by the Catholics, near Fermoy, under Lord Castlehaven, General Barry, and Lieutenant-General Purcell. On this occasion Sir Charles Vavasour, the English commander, was taken prisoner, and about 600 of his men slain, besides the loss of his cannon, colors, &c.; and it appears that the battle was decided by the impetuosity of a troop of young

\* This document, which contains a clear and able statement of the principal grievances under which the Catholics of Ireland labored, and of the causes which

led to the outbreak of 1641, as well as of the course which events had since taken, will be found in full in the Appendix to Curry's *Review of the Civil Wars*.



Irish boys mounted on fleet horses, who bore down on the forlorn hope of the English with a velocity that was irresistible.\* At such a moment, with an army thus training up to victory, and abundantly supplied with money, arms, and provisions, while the English army was in want of every thing—ragged, barefoot, and almost starving in the few garrisons which it held—negotiations for peace only tended to damp the ardor of the confederates. Peace could then only mean the ruin of the Irish cause.

In return for the envoys sent by the supreme council to the Catholic powers, the king of France sent, in the first instance, M. La Monarie, who was succeeded by M. Du Moulin, after whom came M. Talon; the king of Spain sent, first, M. Fuissot, a Burgundian, and then O'Sullivan, count of Beerhaven, who was succeeded by Don Diego de los Torres; but the most important of the foreign envoys at this time was Father Peter Francis Scarampi, a priest of the oratory, whom Pope Urban VIII. sent to report to him on the state of Irish affairs. Scarampi was the bearer of a bull of indulgences to the Irish Catholics, and he also brought with him from Father Wadding a sum of 30,000 dollars, with a quantity of arms and ammunition. He found the general assembly at Kilkenny engaged in discussing the question of a cessation

of arms, and he must very soon have perceived to which side he should adhere. The Catholics of the Pale, or Anglo-Irish, showed a marked distaste for the continuance of the war; while the old Irish, bent on establishing their independence, were opposed to all overtures that did not include perfect freedom of conscience. With these latter the bishops and clergy agreed, and it was only natural that the papal envoy should also adopt their views. But the political opinions of these men were far in advance of the age.

Well aware of these divisions, Ormond exerted his skill to foment them. A supersedeas had been granted by the king long before to remove Sir William Parsons from the post of lord justice, but it had not been acted on. Ormond thought the opportunity a favorable one to make the confederates suppose that a concession was intended to themselves, and he obtained an order for the arrest of Parsons, Loftus, Meredith, and Sir John Temple, on a charge of contravening the royal will in the management of public affairs. Parsons escaped imprisonment on the plea of ill health, but the others were committed to custody; and Sir Henry Tichburn, governor of Drogheda, another bigot, though of a different stamp, was given as a colleague to Sir John Borlase in the government.

At length, on the 15th of Septem-

\* The very day before this battle, Colonel Vavasour having taken the castle of Cloghleigh, commanded by one Condon, twenty men, eleven women, and seven

children were stripped and massacred in cold blood by the brutal troopers. These are the numbers given by Borlase.



ber, 1643, after Ormond had been peremptorily required by the king to bring the matter to a conclusion, a cessation of arms for one year was signed in Ormond's tent at Sigginstown, near Naas; the commissioners of the confederation being Lord Muskerry, Sir Lucas Dillon, Nicholas Plunket, Sir R. Talbot, Sir Richard Barnwell, Turlough O'Neill, Geoffry Browne, Heber Magennis, and John Walshe, Esqrs. The confederates were bareheaded, and Ormond, as the royal commissioner, alone wore his hat and plume. On the following day the instrument, by which the confederates engaged to pay the king £30,800, as a free contribution, in certain instalments, was also signed."\*

If the old Irish were dissatisfied with the cessation, they, at all events, observed it honorably; but not so the Puritan party, who wholly repudiated any concession to the Catholics, and regarded the cessation as a monstrous iniquity.† In the beginning of November, Owen O'Connolly, whose name is

infamous as the betrayer of Lord Maguire and his associates,‡ came over with orders from the English parliament to the Scotch troops in Ulster, to take the covenant, as the parliament had done on the 25th of September; and this mandate was gladly obeyed, and with due solemnity, at Carrickfergus. At the same time the Scots were enjoined by the parliament to treat as enemies all who should observe the cessation.

One of the first results of the cessation was the arrival of the marquis of Antrim to treat with the supreme council for supplies of men, to proceed to Scotland, in the king's service. The valor displayed by the brave Irishmen who were sent on this expedition, under Alexander MacDonnell, surnamed Colkitto, and who fought under Montrose at St. Johnston's in Athol, at Aberdeen, and elsewhere, was such as to call forth the admiration of English and Scotch historians. In their first battle, although without a single horse, even their gen-

\* According to the treaty of cessation, the quarters of the different armies in the several provinces were to be as follows:—In *Connaught*, the county and town of Galway, the counties of Mayo, Roscommon, Sligo, and Leitrim, to remain in the possession of the Catholics; in *Leinster*, the county and city of Dublin, the city of Drogheda, and the county of Louth, to remain in possession of the Protestants; the counties of Tipperary, Limerick, Kerry, Waterford, and Clare, except Knockmore, Ardmore, Pilltown, Cappoquin, Balinatra, Stronacally, Lismore, and Lisfinny, to remain in the possession of the Catholics; in *Ulster* each party was to remain in the possession of such places as they happened to hold at the time the treaty was signed.

† The English parliament showed its appreciation of the truce by ordering, on the 24th of September, eight days after the cessation had been signed, "that no

Irishman or Papist, born in Ireland, should have quarter in England" (*Cox*, vol. ii., p. 137); and to show how this brutal order was understood, it is recorded by Carte (*Ormond*, vol. iii., p. 480, &c.) that Captain Swanly, the commander of one of the parliamentary cruisers in the Channel, having taken a transport conveying troops, sent by the marquis of Ormond for the king's use, selected from the prisoners seventy men and two women of Irish birth, and threw them overboard. And it is worthy of remark that these men had faithfully served the king, their only "crime" being that they were Irish. See the incident related by Leland, vol. iii., p. 227.

‡ Owen O'Connolly then held the commission of a captain, and subsequently served as a colonel under the parliament. He was rewarded with a pension of £500 a-year for the discovery of Lord Maguire's plot.



eral being obliged to march on foot, and the numbers being three or four to one against them, they routed the enemy with such slaughter "that men might have walked upon the dead corpses to the town, being two miles from the place where the battle was fought."\*

A. D. 1644.—The marquis of Ormond was appointed lord lieutenant, and was sworn into office on the 21st of January this year; but although such men as Borlase and his colleagues no longer had the government in their own hands, several of their clique continued to act as members of the council. A deputation from the supreme council of the confederates waited on the king at Oxford, in the beginning of April, to present a statement of their grievances, and to pray for a repeal of the penal restrictions under which they labored; but they obtained nothing more than empty assurances of his majesty's kind intentions, the utmost extent of which was, that he was willing to remove from them any incapacity to purchase lands or hold offices, and to allow them to have their own seminaries for the education of their youth. Scarcely had the Catholic commissioners departed, when Sir Charles Coote and others, deputed by the Protestants of Ireland, arrived, to present to the king counter propositions. They demanded that his majesty should "encourage and enable Protestants to replant the kingdom, and

cause a good walled town to be built in every county for their security, no Papist being allowed to dwell therein;" and they further prayed his majesty "to continue the penal laws, and to dissolve, forthwith, the assumed power of the confederates; to banish all Popish priests out of Ireland, and that no Popish recusant should be allowed to sit or vote in parliament." The extravagance of these propositions and the peremptory manner in which they were enforced astounded the king, but he was somewhat relieved by the arrival of Archbishop Ussher and other commissioners, sent by the council in Dublin, to require Coote to withdraw his fanatical proposals, and to present propositions a little less intolerant. This new scheme submitted to his majesty required, however, "that all the penal laws should be enforced, and that all Papists should be disarmed."

Complaints were made on both sides of infringement of the cessation; but Monroe's disregard of it was such that it became necessary to take immediate steps against his aggressions. For this purpose Owen O'Neill was summoned to consult with the supreme council, at Kilkenny. He complained bitterly of the state of his men, left as they were without supplies; but he undertook to raise a levy of 4,000 foot and 400 horse in Ulster, if properly seconded by the council, who, on their side, promised to send 6,000 foot and 600 horse against

\* See "Intelligence from his Majesty's Army in Scotland," &c., in Carte's Collection of Original Let-

ters, vol. i., p. 73; also Curry's *Review*, Append., No. viii.





*St. Francis, Falmouth.*

PRINTED BY THE LONDON CO., 1845







Monroe. However, when the choice of a commander came to be considered, the council, on which the gentry of the Pale had an overwhelming majority, voted the chief command to the earl of Castlehaven—a man who was wholly incompetent for such a duty, and was besides utterly opposed to the views of the old Irish and to the continuance of the war. O'Neill was deeply hurt at this unjust preference, but his generous nature overcame his personal feelings for the sake of their common cause, and he congratulated Castlehaven on the distinction conferred on him. That vainglorious nobleman marched to Longford, whither Monroe had advanced; but he avoided a collision with the Scots, and suffered them to carry off large preys of cattle to Ulster.

Inchiquin and Lord Broghil, in the south, also treated the cessation with contempt; and in August, the former expelled all the Catholics from Cork, Youghal, and Kinsale; Ormond, in the mean time, refusing to enforce the observance of the cessation by Monroe or Inchiquin, although bound by the terms of the treaty to do so. In August the cessation was renewed by the general assembly to the 1st of December, and subsequently for a longer period; and Inchiquin made a truce on his own part with General Purcell, until the 10th of April, 1645. Thus the remainder of the year was wasted in inaction.

A. D. 1645.—The king became more impatient for a definite peace with his

Irish subjects, and sent express orders for that purpose to Ormond. Lord Muskerry and Sir Nicholas Plunket were sent by the supreme council, on the 6th of March, 1645, to confer with Ormond on the subject. The wily viceroy concealed from the confederates the ample powers with which he was vested by the king to remove their religious grievances, and cajoled them with assurances of Charles's determination not to put the penal laws in force; to abolish all outlawries and attainders which might have been passed against them; and to confer places of trust and honor on Catholics and Protestants indiscriminately. The great majority of the assembly would not be satisfied with a peace which did not include a guarantee for the free exercise of their religion, and on receiving the report of their commissioners, rejected Ormond's terms with scorn. The clergy were unanimous in taking this course, being secretly acquainted with the intention of the king to grant much more than Ormond stipulated for. Thus was the agitation of the question protracted, and the animosity which was growing up between the old Irish and the lords of the Pale every day strengthened.

Inchiquin having set out in the course of the summer to destroy the growing crops, the supreme council sent Castlehaven, with an army of 5,000 foot and 1,000 horse against him, and, having reduced several castles and compelled Inchiquin to shut himself up within the walls of Cork, the confed-



erate general disbanded his troops and returned to Kilkenny. At the same time Sir Charles Coote, Sir Robert Stewart, and Sir Frederick Hamilton, with an army of Scots and English, mercilessly wasted Connaught, and took possession of Sligo. The supreme council directed Sir James Dillon and Malachy O'Kealy (or Queely), archbishop of Tuam, to recover that important town. They did so, but the Irish again abandoned the place on hearing that a large force of Scots was approaching; and on this occasion the heroic prelate—who was as pious and learned as he was brave—underrating the strength of the enemy, suffered himself incautiously to fall into their hands, and although quarter had been given him, was, together with two friars who accompanied him, brutally slaughtered, his body being cut into small fragments by the soldiery.\*

Despairing of being able to induce the unbending Ormond to offer such terms to the Catholics as they might with consistency accept, and feeling his difficulties in England daily increase, the king now resolved to try another expedient to bring about a peace in Ireland. This he hoped to do by employing a Catholic envoy to treat secretly with the confederates, and he sent over for that purpose Lord Herbert, whom he created earl of Glamorgan, the son of the marquis of Worcester. This young nobleman,

who was married to the daughter of the earl of Thomond, entertained a chivalrous devotion for the king, and had already, in conjunction with his father, advanced £200,000 for the maintenance of the royal cause. On arriving in Dublin he had a conference with the marquis of Ormond, to whom, therefore, the nature of his mission could not have been a secret; and he then proceeded to Kilkenny, where he fully explained to the supreme council the powers with which he had been invested. The terms which he offered were unexceptionable, and a treaty was therefore entered into between him, on the part of the king, and Lords Mountgarret and Muskerry on the part of the confederation, by which it was stipulated that the Catholics of Ireland should enjoy the free and public exercise of their religion; that they should hold for their use all the churches of Ireland not then in the actual possession of the Protestants; that they should be exempt from the jurisdiction of the Protestant clergy; that neither the marquis of Ormond, nor any other person, should have power to disturb them in these privileges; and that, while the earl of Glamorgan engaged his majesty's word for the performance of these articles, the confederate Catholics should pledge the faith of the kingdom to him for sending 10,000 men armed, one half with muskets and the other half with

\* See the notices of his death in *Hardiman's History of Galway*, *Meehan's Confederation of Kilkenny*, and the

notes of the latter author to his translation of *Lynche's Icon Antistitis*.



pikes, to serve the king in England, under the said earl of Glamorgan. There was, however, another condition which the king's position rendered indispensable, namely, that these concessions should be kept secret until the forces designed for his majesty should arrive in England; then the king engaged publicly to avow and confirm the treaty. We shall presently see how it was prematurely divulged and rendered nugatory; but in the meantime other important events were passing.

Belling, the secretary of the supreme council, was sent on a mission to Rome, where he arrived about the end of February, 1645, and was presented by Father Luke Wadding to the then sovereign pontiff, Innocent X., by whom he was received as the accredited envoy of the confederate Catholics. On receiving his report of the state of Irish affairs, the Pope resolved to send an envoy to Ireland qualified with the powers of nuncio extraordinary; and chose for that purpose John Baptist Rinuccini, archbishop of Fermo. This distinguished prelate set out on his arduous mission early in 1645, and arrived in Paris, where he was detained about three months, chiefly by negotiations with the English queen, then at St. Germain. The communications between them were exchanged through the medium of Sir Dudley Wyatt and the queen's chaplain, as they had no interview: and the queen's feelings being embittered by the impression that the

Irish Catholics only desired to take advantage of the difficulties of her unhappy consort to exact concessions, the nuncio failed to obtain for them any favorable terms. She regarded the nuncio's mission as unfriendly, and her cause being espoused by the French court, it is natural to think that the same view of the subject was entertained there; and there is no doubt that Cardinal Mazarin was but little inclined to expedite the journey of the Papal envoy, although he gave him 20,000 livres for the use of the Irish, and 5,000 more to fit out a ship for his expedition. At Rochelle the nuncio purchased a frigate of twenty-six guns, called the *San Pietro*, in which he embarked at St. Martin, in the Isle of Rhe with a retinue of twenty-six Italians, several Irish officers, and the secretary, Belling. He took with him a large quantity of arms and warlike stores,—among the rest, 2,000 muskets and cartridge belts, 4,000 swords, 2,000 pike-heads, 400 brace of pistols, and 20,000 lbs. of powder. In addition to the money furnished by the Pope, Father Wadding had given a sum of 36,000 dollars. The *San Pietro* was chased by some parliamentary cruisers on her passage; but a fire having broken out, providentially, on board a large vessel which was foremost in pursuit, and which was thus obliged to slacken sail, the frigate anchored safely in the bay of Kenmare on the 21st of October, 1645. On landing, the nuncio took up his abode in a shepherd's hut, where



he celebrated Mass, surrounded by peasantry from the neighboring mountains. The arms were landed at Ardully, and the frigate having been sent round to Duncannon, which the confederates had taken, the nuncio journeyed by Macroon and Kilmallock to Limerick. Here he celebrated the obsequies of the archbishop of Tuam, the news of whose death, at Sligo, had just been received. From Limerick he proceeded to Kilkenny, where he was received with great honor by many thousands of the gentry and people. He entered the city riding on a richly caparisoned horse, and wearing the pontifical hat and cape as insignia of his office, while the secular and regular clergy walked in processional order before him, preceded by their several standard-bearers. At the entrance to the old cathedral of St. Canice he was received by the venerable David Rothe, bishop of Ossory, who was too feeble to walk in the procession, and then advancing to the altar he intoned the *Te Deum*, after the chanting of which he pronounced a blessing on the vast congregation. After the religious ceremony he was received in the castle by the general assembly, the archbishops of Dublin and Cashel meeting him at the foot of the grand staircase, and Lord Mountgarret, president of the assembly, receiving him standing, but without advancing a step from his chair; and a seat, richly decorated with crimson damask, was fixed for him at the president's right hand, yet so that it was

difficult to say which of the seats occupied the centre. The nuncio then addressed the president in Latin, declaring the object of his mission, which was:—"to sustain the king, then so perilously circumstanced; but above all, to rescue from pains and penalties the people of Ireland, and to assist them in securing the free and public exercise of the Catholic religion, and the restoration of the churches and church property, of which fraud and violence had so long deprived their rightful inheritors."\* Heber MacMahon, bishop of Clogher, next addressed the assembly, and the nuncio then retired to the residence prepared for him, attended by Preston, Lord Muskerry, and the troops.

The peace discussions were now continued with more earnestness than ever: the two parties in the assembly began to be distinguished as Nuncionists and Ormondists; and the estrangement between them grew every day more marked and more rancorous. Two sets of negotiations were carried on: those with Ormond openly, in which the terms offered were humiliating to the Catholics, in the position in which they then stood; and those with Glamorgan in secret, in which the terms, as we have seen, were favorable, but had no other guarantee than the king's promise. Glamorgan produced his credentials, dated April 30th, 1645, in which the king promised to ratify whatever terms Glamorgan should deem fit to conclude with the

\* *Vide Meehan's Confederation of Kilkenny, in which these details are given at length.*



Irish Catholics; but the necessary condition for that ratification was the landing of Irish troops for the king's service in England. Glamorgan also presented to the nuncio another letter, in the king's hand, addressed to Pope Innocent X.; and when further pressed by the nuncio, who had his misgivings as to the sincerity of Charles, he undertook, that in case the king refused to ratify the treaty, the Irish soldiers should be carried back to their own shores.

Such was the state of the question when news arrived that Glamorgan, who had gone to Dublin to treat about the levying of troops, was arrested, on St. Stephen's day, by order of Ormond, on a charge of high treason. It then transpired that a copy of his secret treaty with the confederates was found on the person of the archbishop of Tuam, when killed by the Scots at Sligo, and that it was sent by Coote to the English parliament, who published it as a ground of accusation against the king; hence the proceeding of Ormond, who feigned the utmost amazement at the discovery. The explosion produced general consternation; and the commissioners of the confederates were told to inform their assembly that "the Protestants of England would fling the king's person out of the window if they believed it possible that he had lent himself to such an undertaking."

A. D. 1646.—The general assembly met at Kilkenny early in January, and sent a message to Ormond to say, that

if Glamorgan were not immediately liberated all negotiations for peace should be suspended. The confederates took the arrest as an insult to themselves, and some proposed that without waiting for the armistice to conclude on the 17th of January, they should march immediately to lay siege to Dublin. Glamorgan, however, was bailed out, the marquis of Clanrickard and the earl of Kildare being his securities, to the amount of £40,000; the king disavowed the commission; and it became quite clear that it was intended to both delude the Irish Catholics and the English Protestants.

The ebullition of feeling on the part of the confederation being over, the discussions on the peace were resumed in the assembly, and the acrimony with which they were carried on daily increased. Ormond took care to foment dissension by every means in his power, and in this he was eminently successful. A small party of the clergy were opposed to the nuncio; Dr. Leyburn, one of the queen's chaplains, and Father Peter Walsh, a friar, being at their head. News arrived that a treaty, on behalf of the Irish Catholics, was about to be concluded between the pope and the queen of England, acting on the part of Charles; but this, too, proved to be illusory, and only protracted the suspense. At length the "moderate" party in the assembly prevailed, and on the 28th of March Ormond's treaty was signed by the marquis on the king's behalf, and by Lord



Muskerry, Sir Robert Talbot, John Dillon, Patrick Darcy, and Geoffry Browne, on the part of the confederates. The treaty contained thirty articles, the only one of which bearing directly on the question of religion was the first, which provided—"that the professors of the Roman Catholic religion, in this kingdom of Ireland, be not bound to take the oath of supremacy expressed in the 2d of Queen Elizabeth." An act of oblivion was to be passed, and the Catholics were to continue in their possessions until settlement by parliament; the impediment to their sitting in parliament being also removed. The nuncio was no party to this treaty. It left wholly untouched the great objects on which he had fixed his mind—the restoration of the Catholic church to its legitimate position, and the deliverance of the Irish people from the degradation to which he saw them reduced; and he had before this induced nine of the bishops to sign a protest against any arrangement with Ormond or the king that would not guarantee the maintenance of the Catholic religion.\*

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\* "Rinuccini's views," observes Mr. Meehan, "were those of an uncompromising prelate. He had learned to appreciate the impulsiveness of the true Irish character, and determined to convince the confederates that they had within their own body all the materials which were required to insure success. He set his mind on one grand object, the freedom of the Church, in possession of all her rights and dignities, and the emancipation of the Catholic people from the degradation to which English imperialism had condemned them. The churches, which the piety of Catholic lords and chieftains had erected, he determined to secure to the rightful inheritors. His mind and feelings recoiled from the idea of worshipping in crypts and catacombs. He ob-

The country was, at this time, in a deplorable state. While the Catholics were distracted by cabals in their councils, and their armies paralyzed by the jealousies of their generals, Monroe plundered Ulster with impunity, and sent detachments of his Scots to Coote, the parliamentary lord president of Connaught, whose inroads alarmed the peaceful Clanrickard so much, that even he consented to take the field in his own defence; and in the south, since the defection of the earl of Thomond, all Munster might be said to be in the hands of the implacable Inchiquin. Castlehaven had shown himself unfit to command, and was tired of the war. As to Preston, the nuncio was too discriminating an observer not to perceive his defects. Preston hated Owen Roe, who despised him in turn; and Sir Phelim O'Neill disliked Owen, as a rival, both in military fame and in his claim to the chieftancy.† Such a state of things would have disheartened any other, but Rinuccini did not flinch from his purpose. He was resolved to give the Irish a lesson in self-reliance, and

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horred the notion of a priest or bishop performing a sacred rite as though it were a felony; and, spite the wily artifices of Ormond and his faction, he resolved to teach the people of Ireland that they were not to remain mere dependants on English bounty, when a stern resolve might win for them the privileges of free men. His estimate of the Irish character was correct and exalted."—*Confed. of Kil.*, pp. 117, 118.

† Sir Phelim's second wife was the daughter of Preston, a circumstance which must have added to his enmity for Owen Roe, Preston's great rival. The dowry which Sir Phelim received with his wife was arms for 500 horsemen, 200 muskets, and £3,000.—*Vide O'Neill's Journal.*



his first step was to bring about a reconciliation between Owen Roe and Sir Phelim O'Neill. He was determined to strike a vigorous blow in the north against the Scots; and assured the assembly that Ulster should soon be rid of its invaders, and the cathedral of Armagh restored to the ancient worship. In the mean time, Chester having been taken by the parliamentary troops, there was no place in England where the Irish forces could be landed for the king, and, although ready to embark, they were compelled to remain in Ireland. The unfortunate Charles soon after committed the last of his fatal mistakes, by placing himself in the hands of his inveterate enemies, the Scots.\* Ormond refused to publish the peace, although the confederates had done all in their power to fulfil their share of the conditions; and he declined to take any step to repress the aggressions of Monroe, after receiving from the assembly a sum of £3,000 to aid in getting up an expedition for that purpose.

The Irish troops who were to have accompanied Glamorgan to England were sent to besiege Bunratty, in Clare, but were driven off by the parliamentary garrison. Rinuccini caused Glamorgan to be superseded by Lord Muskerry, and accompanied the army himself in a

second attack on the castle, which, after a siege of twelve days, surrendered; the success being attributed to the presence of the nuncio, and adding immensely to his popularity. Castlehaven was again sent against Inchiquin, and Preston acted against Coote, in Connaught; but the successes which the arms of the confederates could boast of elsewhere, sink into insignificance before the victory which now awaited them in Ulster, under Owen Roe O'Neill.

Having collected an army of about 5,000 foot and 500 horse, Owen O'Neill marched, about the 1st of June, from the borders of Leinster in the direction of Armagh to attack Monroe. The Scottish general received timely notice of this movement, and, setting out with 6,000 infantry, and 800 horse, encamped about ten miles from Armagh.† His army was thus considerably superior to that of O'Neill's in point of numbers, as it must also have been in equipments; but he sent word to his brother, Colonel George Monroe, to hasten from Coleraine to reinforce him with his cavalry. He appointed Glasslough, in the north of Monaghan, as their rendezvous, but the march of the Irish was quicker than he expected, and he learned on the 4th of June that O'Neill had not only reached that point, but

\* Charles I. left Oxford in disguise and gave himself up to the Scottish army on the 5th of May, 1646. On the 30th of January, 1647, the Scots concluded their bargain with the English parliament, and delivered him to them in consideration of a sum of £400,000; and twelve days after they recrossed the Tweed with

the money for which they had thus sold their king.

† Monroe had on this occasion ten regiments of infantry, fifteen companies of horse, and six field-pieces of artillery, and was followed by fifteen hundred wagons, containing baggage and ammunition. His army was provisioned for a month.—*Rinuccini*.



had crossed the Blackwater into Tyrone, and encamped at Benburb.\* Here, in the ancient seat of his forefathers, in view of scenes which the great Hugh had rendered famous by former victories, O'Neill was resolved to give battle to the enemies of his country and his religion. He encamped between two small hills, protected in the rear by a wood, with the river Blackwater on his right and a bog on his left, and occupied some brushwood in front with musketeers, so that his position was admirably selected. He was well informed of Monroe's plans, and dispatched two regiments to prevent the junction of Colonel George Monroe's forces with those of his brother. This important service, we may observe, was satisfactorily performed by Colonels Bernard MacMahon and Patrick MacNeny, to whom it had been committed. Finding that the Irish were in possession of the ford at Benburb, Monroe crossed the river at Kinard, a considerable distance in O'Neill's rear, and then, by a circuitous march, approached him in front from the east and south. The manner in which the morning of the 5th of June was passed in the Irish camp was singularly solemn. 'The whole army having confessed, and the general, with the other officers, having received the Holy Communion with the greatest piety, made a profes-

sion of faith, and the chaplain deputed by the nuncio for the spiritual care of the army, after a brief exhortation, gave them his blessing."† Owen Roe then, addressing his men, said, "Behold the army of the enemies of God, the enemies of your lives. Fight valiantly against them to-day; for it is they who have deprived you of your chiefs, of your children, of your subsistence, spiritual and temporal; who have torn from you your lands, and made you wandering fugitives."‡ We may conceive the enthusiasm inspired by such words and under such circumstances. On the other hand, the Scots were inflamed with fierce animosity against their foe and an ardent desire for battle. "All our army," says Monroe in his dispatch, "did earnestly covet fighting, which it was impossible for me to gainstand without reproach of cowardice, and never did I see a greater confidence than was amongst us."

As the Scots approached, their passage was disputed in a narrow defile by the regiment of Colonel Richard O'Farrell, but this resistance was soon removed by Monroe's artillery, and the whole Scottish army advanced against O'Neill's position. The Irish general manœuvred so skilfully, that for four hours he engaged the attention of the enemy by his skirmishers, and by light parties of musketeers posted in thickets.

\* "*Beann-borb*, i. e., the bold ben or cliff, or, as it is translated by P. O'Sullivan Beare, *Pinna Superba*; now Benburb, a castle standing in ruins on a remarkable cliff over the Blackwater river on the borders of the

counties Tyrone and Armagh."—Dr. O'Donovan's note to *Four Masters*, vol. vi., p. 2257

† Rinuccini's *Relatione*.

‡ Sir Phelim O'Neill's *Journal*.



He wished to gain time until the sun, which dazzled his men by the glare of light in front, should have declined to the west, and until the detachment he had sent to intercept Monroe's expected reinforcement should return; and this design he accomplished. Some troops were seen approaching in the distance. Monroe supposed them to be those of his brother George; but he was soon undeceived when he saw them enter the Irish camp. He now thought it prudent to retire, and ordered the retreat to be sounded; but this resolve was fatal. O'Neill saw that the moment was decisive, and ordered his gallant army to charge, commanding his men to reserve their fire until within a pike's length of the enemy's lines. Never were orders more bravely obeyed. The Irish rushed forward with a terrific shout, and an impetus that was irresistible. Lord Blaney's regiment first met the brunt of their onset, and after a stubborn resistance was cut to pieces. The Scottish cavalry twice charged to break the advancing column of the Irish, but were, themselves, thrown into disorder by the impetuous charge of the Irish horse. The ranks of Monroe's foot and horse were now broken, and the Irish con-

tinuing to press on vigorously, the confusion was soon converted into a total rout. The Scots fled to the river, but O'Neill held possession of the ford, and the flying masses were driven into the deep water, where such numbers perished that, tradition says, one might have crossed over dry-shod on the bodies. The regiment of Sir James Montgomery was the only one that retreated in tolerable order, the rest of the army flying in utter confusion. Col. Conway had two horses killed under him, but escaped on a third to Newry, accompanied by Captain Burke, and about forty horsemen. Monroe himself fled so precipitately that his hat, sword, and cloak were found among the spoils, and he halted not until he reached Lisburn. Lord Montgomery was taken prisoner, with twenty-one officers and about 150 soldiers; and over 3,000 of the Scots were left on the field, besides those killed in the pursuit, which was resumed next morning. All the Scottish artillery, tents, and provisions, with a vast quantity of arms and ammunition, and thirty-two colors, fell into the hands of the Irish, who, on their side, had only 70 men killed and 200 wounded.\*

This brilliant victory, won, not by

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\* The Abbe Mageoghegan, whom we have chiefly followed above, and whose account of the battle has been adopted by such hostile writers as Warner and Leland, takes his numbers, as Carte also did, from Rinuccini, who says that as many as 3,243 bodies were reckoned on the field; but adds that the Irish took no prisoners except the officers mentioned above. The writer of Sir Phelim O'Neill's journal, who, no doubt, was present, says:—"The confederates got (on the

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battle-field) 1,000 muskets, a large quantity of pikes, drums, seven field-pieces, and thirty-six standards, which were sent to the nunzio in charge of Bartholomew McEgan, definitor of the order of St. Francis. The nunzio was then in Limerick, and he sent his dean along with Father McEgan to congratulate Owen Roe. The dean gave each soldier three rials (about one shilling and sixpence), and more to the officers. The army then dispersed over Monaghan, Cavan, Leitrim, and



dint of numbers, but by sheer good generalship and gallantry, over a brave and ruthless foe, numerically superior, and better equipped, showed what Owen O'Neill might have done had he not been shackled by the temporizing and craven-hearted party with whom circumstances compelled him to act, and who hated him and his brave northerners as much as they did the Puritan enemy. The covenanters were filled with consternation; and the Ormondists in the general assembly regarded O'Neill with more fear and jealousy than ever, while, in the same proportion, the Irish were inspired with higher and brighter hopes; but the victory had no other result. Monroe, in the panic of the moment, burned Dundrum, abandoned several strong posts, and called all the English and Scots of Ulster to arms; but the Irish made no further attempt to molest him, and he awaited at Carrickfergus the arrival of fresh supplies from the parliament. A great many flocked to O'Neill's standard, and as the arms and other stores obtained at Benburb helped him to equip them, his effective force was soon increased to 10,000 men. These he designated the "Catholic army;" but the appropriation of this title to his own particular force, where all were supposed to be enlisted under the banner of Catholicity, ex-

cited fresh jealousies and suspicions. It identified him still more with the nuncio, and increased the hatred of Preston and the Ormandists; the intrigues of which faction now called away his attention from the common enemy.

The standards captured at Benburb were sent to the nuncio at Limerick, where they reached on the 13th of June; and the following day they were carried in procession to the cathedral, and a solemn Te Deum was chanted for the victory. The discussion on the publication of the political articles of March 28th was resumed in the assembly with animosity; but in the midst of it their commissioners came to announce that the king had countermanded all the instructions which he had given to Ormond to make terms with the Irish. This order had been conveyed to Ormond on the 26th of June through the Puritan commissioners in Ulster, and it was clear that Charles had issued it under the compulsion of the Scots, whose prisoner he was; but Ormond pretended to think that it should be obeyed, although Lord Digby, who was acquainted with the king's wishes, assured him to the contrary. The nuncio wrote to Rome for fresh instructions. The pontifical treaty with the queen on behalf of the Irish Catholics was actually prepared,

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Longford, 'till the crops should be ripe. The wounded were sent to Charlemont, where Sir Phelim had surgeons for them." The account of the battle, printed and posted in the streets of London immediately after the

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news was received, describes it as "the bloody fight at Blackwater, on the 5th of June, by the Irish rebels against Major-General Monroe, where 5,000 Protestants were put to the sword."



but was never signed; and at length, on the 29th of July, Ormond's treaty was publicly ratified, and solemnly proclaimed in Dublin on the first of the following month. This treaty, which left for the future decision of the king the grand object for which the confederates had taken up arms, made no provision for the plundered people of Ulster, and gave to the lord-lieutenant the command of the confederate Catholics, until settlement by act of parliament was everywhere rejected by the old Irish. In Waterford, Clonmel, and Limerick the herald was prevented by the people from proclaiming it. Galway and many other towns refused to receive it; and by the Irish of Ulster it was indignantly repudiated. Owen Roe entered Leinster with his formidable *creaghts*,\* and the nuncio summoned a national synod, which met at Waterford on the 6th of August, and was attended by three archbishops, ten bishops, five abbots, two vicars apostolic, fourteen representatives of religious orders, and the provincial of the Jesuits. The synod was unanimous in condemning the treaty, and on the 12th of August issued a decree declaring "that all and every one of the confederate Catholics that will adhere to such a peace, and consent to the furtherance thereof, or in any other manner or way

will embrace the same, shall be absolutely as perjurers esteemed; chiefly inasmuch as there is no mention made in the thirty articles, nor promise for the Catholic religion or safety thereof, nor any respect had for the preservation of the kingdom's privileges, as were promised in the oath of association, but, on the contrary, all remitted to the king's will and pleasure."†

As opinion became developed, the people unanimously rejected the discreditable peace; even the vacillating Preston declared for the nuncio and the clergy; and Mountgarret, Muskerri, and their few adherents, finding themselves deserted by the clergy, the army, and the people, invited Ormond to come to Kilkenny, in the hope that his presence might overawe their opponents. He accepted the invitation, and arrived at Kilkenny on the 31st of August, with 1,500 foot and 500 horse. Thence he proceeded to Munster, but he found the people everywhere averse to the treaty. Meantime O'Neill, who was not a listless observer, advanced to the south, encamping at Roscrea on the 9th of September, and Ormond, alarmed at this movement, returned precipitately towards Dublin. To the timely notice which he received from Lord Castlehaven he owed, in fact, his escape from the hands of O'Neill and Preston,

\* The *creaghts* were, originally, the drivers in charge of a prey of cattle; but the term came to be applied to those who led a nomadic life, and removed their cattle from one pasturage to another. As these were numerous in Ulster, the ranks of O'Neill's army were supposed to be chiefly filled by them, and their char-

acter having been purposely misrepresented by their enemies, they were rendered objects of the greatest terror to the Irish and Anglo-Irish of Leinster and Munster.

† Vide Frenche's *Unkind Deserter*, and Meehan's *Confed. of Kilkenny*.



who were concentrating their forces on his route, with the intention of making him prisoner; but he arrived in safety in Dublin on the 13th of September.

Events of great importance were now succeeding each other with startling rapidity. On the 18th of September the nuncio entered Kilkenny, escorted by the generals, the Spanish envoy, and a crowd of military officers, having previously caused O'Neill to encamp near the city with his army, which now consisted of 12,000 foot and 1,500 horse. His first measure was to cause the members of the supreme council to be committed as prisoners to the castle; Patrick Darcy and Plunket being alone excepted. On the 20th a new council, consisting of four bishops and eight laymen, was appointed, and Rinuccini himself was unanimously chosen president. Thus the tables were turned on the Ormandists, and the whole power was thrown into the hands of the clergy, who appointed Glamorgan to the command of the confederate troops of Munster instead of Muskerry; but the imprisonment of the old council has been generally condemned as a harsh and imprudent proceeding. Ormond hastened to strengthen Dublin against the confederates, from whom he now anticipated an attack; and it was well known that he was then meditating the surrender of the city to the parliamentarians, with whom he was prepared to co-operate against the Catholics. Aware of Ormond's intrigues with the king's ene-

mies, and fearing that Dublin might be delivered up to the Puritans before any step could be taken to save it, the supreme council directed the generals to march at once to besiege it. Preston threw obstacles in the way. He desired that they should first communicate with Ormond; and he expressed a fear that Owen Roe intended to attack himself and to destroy the Leinster troops. The mutual hatred of the generals became more violent than ever, and there was strong reason to doubt Preston's sincerity in the cause.

At length, at the end of October, both armies moved towards Dublin, and by mutual agreement Preston fixed his camp at Leixlip, about seven miles from the city, and O'Neill his at Newcastle, a few miles to the south of Preston's camp. Alarmed at their approach, Ormond caused the mills to be destroyed and the country laid waste for a considerable distance, so that no provisions could be obtained; and the winter having set in with intense severity, the troops suffered greatly, so many as twenty or thirty men perishing every night at their posts. The defences were in so bad a state that the besiegers might have found it easy to storm the city at many points; but they were too much engaged with their own dissensions to think of attacking the enemy. The two confederate camps were, in fact, armed against each other, and the nuncio was occupied in passing from one to the other vainly endeavoring to reconcile the



generals. At one time it was debated in council whether Preston should not be seized and imprisoned as a traitor to the cause. He was openly in correspondence with Ormond, through the medium of Clánrickard, and it subsequently transpired that he agreed to a plan by which he and Clánrickard were jointly to garrison Dublin, and to compel the confederates to accept the peace; but at the persuasion of the nuncio Preston relinquished this scheme, and disappointed Ormond. Twelve days were thus fruitlessly spent before Dublin, when an alarm was suddenly given in the council of the confederates that the English were already in the city; and without any attempt to ascertain the truth of the report, which happened to be utterly groundless, the camps were hastily broken up, and the armies retreated to the south. All appeared to be thoroughly ashamed of this disgraceful proceeding; and the nuncio, who remained at Lucan three days after the retreat, induced the generals on arriving at Kilkenny to sign a mutual agreement, pledging themselves to forget their dissensions, and to act together in the common cause. A new general assembly was called; the members of the old council were released from prison, and it was even proposed that the armies should return to besiege Dublin, where Ormond still carried on his negotiations with the parliamentary commissioners.

A. D. 1647.—The general assembly met on the 10th of January. All the

members attended High Mass in the cathedral of St. Canice, David Rothe, the venerable bishop of Ossory, officiating as high-priest. The nuncio sat on an elevated throne, and the scene was august and imposing in an eminent degree. From the cathedral the members repaired to the castle, where the nuncio opened the proceedings with an address, in which he dwelt particularly on the glorious victory obtained by O'Neill in Ulster, but for which, as he truly observed, the confederation would have been crushed ere then. An angry discussion was then raised on the decrees of the synod of Waterford, and on the charge of perjury which they implied against the commissioners who subscribed the articles of Ormond's treaty. In the course of the debates Dr. French, bishop of Ferns, moved that Preston be impeached, and to such a pitch of violence was the discord carried, that at one time some members were about to draw their swords. After three weeks spent in these rancorous discussions, it was at length resolved that the treaty with Ormond was invalid, and "that the nation would accept of no peace not containing a sufficient security for the religion, lives, and estates of the confederate Catholics." Out of three hundred present, only twelve voted against this resolution. A new oath was framed and administered for the maintenance of their union until the following rights were attained, viz.:—the free and public exercise of the



Roman Catholic religion as it was in the reign of Henry VII., or any former Catholic king; the full enjoyment of their jurisdiction by the Roman Catholic clergy, as in the reigns of the aforesaid Catholic kings; the repeal of all laws made against the Roman Catholics since the reign of Henry VIII.; and the full enjoyment of the churches and church livings by the Roman Catholic clergy in all places then in possession of the confederate Catholics, or which might be recovered by them. Until these articles were fully ratified the confederates were now bound by their oath not to lay down their arms; and on the 8th of March a proclamation was published by the assembly, enjoining on all Catholics to contend for these rights, and denouncing as traitors to God and to their country all those who refused to take the oath with these conditions.

An attempt to renew negotiations with Ormond on the basis of these propositions was treated by him with scorn; and all hopes of peace being thus at an end, the confederates began to prepare for war. Their coffers were empty and the country waste; but extraordinary contributions were raised, and the church plate was converted into money. Owen Roe got the command of the troops of Ulster and Connaught; Preston, distrusted as he was, was reappointed to the command in Leinster; and Glamorgan was made general of the army of Munster. Dangers threatened them on all sides,

and weakened as they now were by their own divisions, their preparations against the coming storm were feeble and ill-arranged. Negotiations with Ormond were once more renewed through Dr. Leyburn, who, under the assumed name of Winter Grant, had arrived with dispatches from the queen to the lord lieutenant; but nothing was concluded. The nuncio would yield no principle, while Ormond on his side was inflexible in resisting the demands of the Catholics, and was, in fact, too deeply involved already in his negotiation with the rebel parliament. He had sent his son, Sir Richard Butler, with the earl of Roscommon and Sir James Ware, to London, as hostages for the performance of the articles stipulated between them, and had admitted into the garrisons of Drogheda and Dublin a Puritan force of 1,000 foot and 400 horse from Ulster, and an English regiment under Colonel Castle. In Munster, Inchiquin was again abroad, like an unchained demon, spreading desolation around him; and to add to the difficulties of the confederates, the army of the South mutinied against Glamorgan, and insisted on having their old general, Muskerry, restored to the command. Muskerry was accordingly reinstated, and by him the command was transferred to Lord Taaffe, a creature of Ormond's, and a vain, hasty, and weak-minded man, destitute of every quality which could fit him for the post. Thus was the country sacrificed. The nuncio



repaired to Connaught to consult with Owen Roe—the only man whom he saw worthy of his confidence, or who was devoted heart and soul to the great cause which they had undertaken.

The English parliament was more urgent and imperious than Ormond had anticipated. He was consoled, indeed, with a reward of £5,000 in hand for his treachery, and a promise of £2,000 a-year; but he was ordered out of Dublin castle more unceremoniously than he expected; and had to surrender the regalia to the parliamentary commissioners on the 28th of July, when he sailed for England, whence he soon found it necessary to remove to France. Colonel Jones took possession of the castle for the English rebels.

The news of Ormond's perfidy filled the country with indignation, and brought home to the confederates the alarming nature of their position. In the south Lord Taaffe was powerless and inactive, while Inchiquin devastated the land without resistance; O'Neill found himself destitute of resources in Connaught, and might well have been sullen and dispirited; while Preston, a man quite unfit for the task, marched towards Trim to manœuvre against the parliamentary forces. In the mean time, Jones marched from Dublin, by Swords, Hollywood, Naul, and Garristown, to Skreene, which he reached on the 4th of August, his army, with additions from Ulster, that had joined him on the way, amounting

by that time to 12,000 foot and 700 horse, with two pieces of artillery. Here he learned that Preston was the same day at Portlester, five miles west of Trim, with an army of 7,000 foot, 1,000 horse, and four cannons. Jones then advanced to Tara, where he reviewed his troops, and next day marched to Scurlogstown, about a mile from Trim, where he encamped. The following day he marched to Trimbleston, where a small garrison that had been left by Preston surrendered to him; but receiving information that the confederate general had suddenly marched in the direction of Kilcock, with a view of getting between him and Dublin, he set out in haste to frustrate that design, and on the morning of the 8th reached Lynche's Knock, near Summerhill, about a mile from which, on an eminence called Dungan Hill, Preston was encamped.

Jones advanced in full force to attack the confederates, who were strongly intrenched, and might have held their ground even against the superior numbers of the enemy; but Preston was too volatile and imprudent to act on the defensive. He charged down the hill to break the columns of the parliamentarians, but was encountered with a firmness which threw his men into confusion. His artillery were so placed as to be useless, and his cavalry were drawn up in marshy ground, where they were at the mercy of the enemy. Sir Alexander MacDonnell, or Colkitto, made desperate efforts to retrieve



the fortune of the day;\* but bravery was insufficient where such fatal errors had been committed. The Irish army was driven into an adjacent bog, where, surrounded by the parliamentary forces, they were shot down without mercy. Resistance had ceased, but no quarter was given; and such as attempted to escape from the bog were slaughtered by Jones's dragoons. The confederates lost on that fatal day 5,470 of their men, of whom 400 were MacDonnell's brave Redshanks; and Preston fled in dismay, followed by 500 infantry, the sole wreck of his army that could be mustered after the battle. The loss of the English is said to have been only twenty men.

Terrified at this disaster, even the Ormondists now looked to O'Neill as a protector; and at the desire of the council, Owen marched to the very neighborhood which had been the scene of Preston's misfortune. He had an army of 12,000 men, and so harassed Jones by his rapid movements and by those inscrutable tactics which have obtained for him the title of the Irish Fabius, that the parliamentary general was scared from the open country, and sought shelter behind the walls of Dublin. O'Neill followed him as far as Castleknock, and the alarmed citizens could count that night from a steeple 200 Irish watch-fires.

The ferocious Inchiquin entered Tipperary on the 3d of September, and after taking several small castles, crossed the Suir and attacked the fortress of Cahir, which he took in one day, although it was counted the strongest castle in Munster, and had held out for two months against the army of Essex in the reign of Elizabeth. The principal strongholds were left in so weak a state by the imbecile Taaffe, that some collusion was supposed to have existed between him and Inchiquin, who was allowed to butcher the inhabitants and destroy the crops of the country with impunity. The other exploits of this sanguinary monster were but of trivial consequence, however, when compared to the sack of Cashel. It was about the end of September that Inchiquin sat down before the royal city, in which Taaffe had left only a paltry garrison, he himself flying, as usual, at the approach of Murrough O'Brien. The city was summoned to pay £3,000 under the threat of being taken by storm, and, unfortunately, the municipal authorities had too much spirit to yield to these terms. The attack was, therefore, commenced; the walls were battered down; and at the first rush of Inchiquin's soldiers the feeble garrison flung down their arms, and were slaughtered without resistance. A gallant action will excite admiration, whether

\* The celebrated Sir Alexander MacDonnell, so frequently mentioned by Anglo-Irish and Anglo-Scottish writers, as Colkitto (Colla-Ciotach), was son of the real Colkitto, who was not famous as a warrior, and proba-

bly never left Antrim. The pedigree of Sir Alexander has been ascertained beyond any doubt by Professor Curry, and the application to him of the surname Colkitto, was unquestionably a popular error.



performed by friend or foe; but the bloody scene which was now enacted displayed not human bravery but fiendish ferocity. A general carnage of the unarmed townspeople commenced. In the streets and the houses they were butchered without mercy, and without distinction of age or sex. Multitudes of panic-stricken people fled to the cathedral on the rock, and shut themselves up within the sacred walls. But these afforded them no asylum. Inchiquin poured in volleys of musket balls through the doors and windows, unmoved by the piercing shrieks of the crowded victims within; and then sent in his troopers to finish with pike and sabre the work which the bullets had left incomplete. The floor was encumbered with piles of mangled bodies; and twenty priests who had sought shelter under the altars were dragged forth and slaughtered with a fury which the mere extinction of life could not half appease. In fine, the victims of that day's massacre in Cashel amounted to 3,000 !\*

The town of Fethard opened its gates to Inchiquin as soon as summoned to do so; nor need we wonder, for the fate of Cashel spread terror throughout Munster. But when the sanguinary Murrough appeared before Clonmel he was met with a stern defiance. The gallant Sir Alexander MacDonnell, with such of his brave northerns as could be collected after the slaughter of Dungan

Hill, had taken his stand here, and his name was a host in itself. So Murrough slunk away, leaving the walls of Clonmel unharmed, and retired to Cahir, where the thanks of the rebel parliament were conveyed to him for his achievements, together with supplies of men and money.

In the beginning of November, Inchiquin again took the field, and was encamped at Mallow, on the 12th of that month, with an army of about 6,000 foot and 1,200 horse; while Lord Taaffe, with over 7,000 foot and nearly 1,200 horse, lay at Kanturk, some ten miles distant. The confederate general had been urged by the supreme council to fight Inchiquin if a favorable opportunity was presented, and such he deemed the present one to be. Advancing, accordingly, a few miles, to a hill called Knocknanos,† he there drew up his army in order of battle. To Sir Alexander MacDonnell, whom he made his lieutenant-general, he committed the right wing, which was supported by Colonel Purcell, with two regiments of horse; and he himself took the command of the left wing, on the slope of the hill, where he posted the Munster troops, numbering 4,000 foot, supported by two regiments of horse. The front was defended by a morass, and a small rivulet which nearly encompassed the base of the hill. His position was therefore good: and Inchiquin,

\* Vide Meehan's *Confederation of Kilkenny*, p. 200.

† "Cnoc-na-n-os, i. e., the Hill of the Fawns."—*O'Donovan's Note to the Four Masters*, vol. vi., p.

1897); or it might be Cnoc-na-n-dos, *dos* signifying a "thicket," or a "dense body of men."—See *O'Brien's Ir. Dict*



having advanced from Mallow, commenced the attack at considerable disadvantage. MacDonnell's northerns, following the Highland custom, flung down their muskets after the first volley, and charged the enemy with their broadswords. They broke Inchiquin's left wing, took his artillery, and pursued his flying men for two miles, killing a great number. But a different result attended the combat in another part of the field. Availing himself of a fatal oversight on the part of Taaffe, Inchiquin detached a squadron of horse so as to gain the summit of the hill; and these, charging from the rear, caused a panic in the left wing of the Irish. This decided the battle. The Munster troops fled in dismay, and were slaughtered with little resistance; while the northerns, returning from the pursuit of those whom they had so gallantly routed, and secure in the thought that the day was their own, were surprised by the victorious English, and cut to pieces. Their heroic leader gave up his sword to Colonel Purdon; but Inchiquin having ordered that no quar-

ter should be given, the chivalrous MacDonnell was, together with many of his brave men, put to the sword in cold blood.\* Four thousand of the confederates, according to the English accounts, perished in the field; their arms, colors, and baggage were lost; and the general's tent, with all his papers, were among the spoils. This battle, so disastrous to the confederates, was fought on the 13th of November. On receiving the news the parliament voted £10,000 for Inchiquin's army, and £1,000 as a present to himself; but only a small portion of the money was sent, and Murrough, feeling that he was badly treated, began to think of changing sides again.†

A.D. 1648.—The prospects of the confederates were now gloomy in the extreme. Their generals, Preston and Taaffe, had each lost an army; O'Neill, indeed, could still keep their enemies in check, but he was feared and hated by the Ormond faction even more than Inchiquin himself; the complete triumph of the fanatics in England gave cause for the darkest forebodings; the

\* The death of Sir Alexander (Alastram) MacDonnell has added not a little to the tragic interest of Knocknanos. That brave soldier, who is famous in Scottish history as Sir Alaster M'Donnell and Colkitto (Colla-Ciotach, or Colla the left-handed), having, as we have seen, been sent by Randal, marquis of Antrim, to Scotland, in command of Irish troops, had a chief part in the victories gained by Montrose for the king in 1644. His name is preserved in the traditions of the Irish peasantry in connection with a well-known piece of popular music, called from him *Marshúil Alastraim*, or "Alexander's March;" but, observes Professor Curry, "whether the march is older than the name I am not able to say, but I think it is" The remains of Sir Alastram were de-

posited in the Dominican abbey at Kilmallock, but the spot is unknown. *Vide Croker's Researches in H. S. of Id.*, p. 67.

† Personal considerations had induced him to desert the king's cause in 1643, when he was refused the presidency of Munster, which he expected to obtain after the death of his father-in-law, Sir William St. Leger. The earl of Portland was made lord president, and Inchiquin turned over to the parliament. It is remarkable that both Inchiquin and Ormond, two of the most inveterate enemies of the Catholic Church at that time, were the sons of Catholic parents, but had been educated under the infamous Court of Wards, the great proselytizing engine of that day



resources of the country were exhausted; and the general assembly was now engaged in discussing the question of a foreign protectorate. After long and anxious deliberation, it was resolved to send agents to Rome and France, both to solicit aid in money and to ascertain what might be the most prudent course for placing the country under the protection of a foreign power. Dr. French and Plunket were deputed to Rome; Muskerry and Brown to France; and the marquis of Antrim also proceeded in the name of the assembly to the latter country. Ormond had already arrived at St. Germain's, and prepared the queen for the reception to be given to the Irish envoys. Besides the instructions which they had received from the general assembly, Muskerry and Browne were the bearers of a private message from Preston and Taaffe, and to this alone was any serious consideration given in the conference with the queen. Her majesty's answer to the public message was a mere deception; and henceforth the confederation was nothing more than an instrument in the hands of Ormond.

The supreme council and Inchiquin had for some time been treating in an underhand way about a truce, but their negotiations now became more direct. Inchiquin demanded from them 4,000 dollars a month, to support his mercenary army, at the same time that he continued to press his demands on the English parliament, to conceal his de-

signs. A meeting of the general assembly was called, and Rinuccini, who was at Waterford, was very pressingly invited by the supreme council to give it the sanction of his presence. At length he complied, and the session was opened on the 20th of April, when the discussion of the treaty with Inchiquin commenced. Inchiquin had already incurred the suspicions of parliament, and some of his officers had revolted against him. His power was therefore greatly diminished, and the nuncio protested against any accommodation with the man whose hands were still red with the blood of the priests whom he had massacred on the rock of Cashel. The nuncio's energetic remonstrance prevailed with the bishops, fourteen of whom subscribed a condemnation of the truce. But it was too late. The truce was signed at Dungarvan on the 20th of May. It provided that Catholics should not be molested in the practice of their religion, except in the garrisons or quarters of Lord Inchiquin, where it would not be tolerated. Preston and Inchiquin now united their forces, and prepared to march against O'Neill; to crush whom was the object uppermost in the minds of both. The nuncio had, however, a dreadful weapon yet in store. On the morning of the 27th of May, a sentence of excommunication against all abettors of the truce, and an interdict against all cities, towns, and villages in which it would be received or observed, were published on



the gates of the cathedral at Kilkenny, and the nuncio himself privately withdrew from that city and repaired to the camp of Owen Roe at Maryborough. This was a fearful expedient, involving as it did the innocent and the guilty in one punishment. It was, perhaps, inexcusable; but we must bear in mind that the nuncio was aware the life of O'Neill was aimed at, and that he saw the cause of the Church and the people of Ireland sacrificed by the perverse conduct of the Ormondists, upon whom no ordinary argument could make any impression. It was with him a last and a desperate resource.

The Ulster chieftain had but 700 of his followers now about him, and in a few days news was brought that Preston was within four miles with an army of 10,000 men to attack him. Preston, however, was ignorant of O'Neill's weakness, and did not advance; and 2,000 of his men, smarting under the excommunication, deserted to Owen's camp. O'Neill was galled to the heart at these proceedings. He fell back towards Athlone, where he had a garrison, but before he could come to its relief it had been compelled to yield to Preston and Clanrickard, the latter being also in the field against him. Owen Roe made a truce with the Scots, and on the 11th of June proclaimed war against the supreme council, and the nuncio took his final leave of him and retired to Galway, where he was hemmed in by Clanrickard's

people. An angry correspondence passed between the nuncio and the now degenerate confederation, and when he endeavored to convoke a national synod, Clanrickard prevented the prelates from assembling. These were, indeed, sad events for Ireland; and it is melancholy to see how utterly dissipated were the hopes which but a little while before were so full of promise.

The discord of the confederates freed the parliamentarians from restraint in Dublin, and Monroe and his Presbyterians not desiring the abolition of monarchy, nor approving of the course which affairs had taken in England, Monck got the command in Ulster in his stead, and marching suddenly into that province, surprised Carrickfergus and seized Monroe, whom he sent prisoner to England. Jones, the parliamentary governor of Dublin, glad to promote the war between O'Neill and the confederation, allowed the former to pass unmolested through Leinster to attack Kilkenny. Finding, however, that the combined forces of Preston and Inchiquin were too numerous, O'Neill would not hazard an engagement, and withdrew to Ulster, having foiled by his skilful manœuvres an attempt which those generals, in conjunction with Clanrickard, made to surround his small army. The marquis of Antrim, on returning from France, took the nuncio's side; raised an army in the north, and was supported by the O'Byrnes, Kavanaghs, and other Lein-



ster septs; but he was defeated by Inchiquin and the confederates. Ormond next reappeared on the stage, in compliance with the reiterated invitations of Inchiquin and the supreme council. On the 29th of September he landed at Cork, whither Inchiquin went to receive him. He invited commissioners from the confederation to meet him at Carrick; but after much delay, caused by the discussion of terms and other obstacles, the marquis came at the invitation of the general assembly to Kilkenny, where he was received in great state by that body, and installed in his own castle. The peace negotiations were again interrupted by a mutiny in Inchiquin's army, when it was found Ormond had brought no money; but at length, on the 17th of January, 1649, the treaty of peace between Ormond and the confederation was finally ratified and published amidst great rejoicings.

A. D. 1649.—That the war, which was thus brought to a close after seven years' continuance, had been undertaken on religious grounds, is evident from the leading conditions of this treaty, as well as from all the negotiations that had taken place between the parties during that period. The first article provided that in the next parliament to be held in Ireland the penal statutes against Catholics should be repealed; that a simple oath of allegiance

should be substituted for the oath of supremacy; and that Catholics should not be molested in the possession of the churches and church livings which they then held, or their clergy in the exercise of their respective jurisdictions, until such time as their claims could be fully considered in a free parliament. By another article the native Irish Catholics were to be relieved from all civil disabilities, and were to be allowed to erect one or more inns of court in or near the city of Dublin, and to establish free schools for the education of their youth. They might hold the command of garrisoned towns and forts; the Catholics ejected from Cork, Youghal, and Dungarvan by Inchiquin, were to be reinstated in their possessions; the Catholic regular clergy were to be allowed to hold the ancient abbeys and monasteries of which they were then in possession, and to retain any pensions which they then enjoyed; and finally, twelve of the confederates were to act as commissioners of trust with the marquis of Ormond to see the articles of the treaty fully carried out, and to participate in certain of the functions which belonged to him as lord-lieutenant.\* In fact, the treaty granted concessions to the Catholics but little inferior to those proposed by Glamorgan; and if Ormond had only yielded so much a few years earlier he would have prevented innumerable calamities, and most probably have preserved the

\* The commissioners of trust were: Lord Dillon, of Costello, Lord Muskerry, Lord Athenry, Alexander MacDonnell, Esq., Sir Lucas Dillon, Sir Nicholas Plunket,

Sir Richard Barnwell, Geoffry Browne, Donagh O'Callaghan, Turlough O'Neill, Miles O'Reilly, and Gerald Fennell, Esqrs.



life of the king. On the 30th of the same month the unfortunate Charles I. closed his wretched career on a scaffold at Whitehall. On the 10th of February Prince Rupert entered the harbor of Kinsale with sixteen frigates, and the news of the king's death having been received about the same time, Ormond proclaimed the prince of Wales king, by the title of Charles II., at Cork and Youghal, the same ceremony being performed by Prince Rupert at Kinsale.

On the 23d of February, Rinuccini embarked at Galway in his own frigate to return to Rome. His mission was unsuccessful, but its failure is to be attributed to the recreant and temporizing party who, from the very day when

they found themselves involved in the war, were prepared to sacrifice the principles for which the country had taken up arms. Rinuccini desired to raise the Catholic Church in Ireland to the dignity to which it was entitled, and the native race of Ireland to the social state for which he saw them fitted. These were the principles for which he contended. The only fault with which even his enemies could charge him was, that he was uncompromising. And for the rest, it can hardly be denied that on his side was all that the confederation could boast of as chivalrous, high-minded, and national; while on that of the Ormandists we find intrigue, incapacity, and cowardice.



## CHAPTER XXXIX.

### CROMWELL.

State of parties after the death of Charles I.—O'Neill's services sought by Ormond and by the Parliamentarians.—Ormond and Inchiquin take the field.—Drogheda and other towns surrender to the latter.—Siege of Dublin by Ormond.—Great defeat of the royalists at Rathmines.—Arrival of Cromwell.—Siege of Drogheda.—Horrible massacre.—Wexford betrayed to Cromwell.—Frightful massacre of the inhabitants.—Death of Owen O'Neill.—Ross surrendered.—Siege of Waterford—Courageous conduct of the citizens—The siege raised.—The Southern garrisons revolt to Cromwell.—Wretched position of Ormond.—Meeting of the bishops at Clonmacnoise—Their declaration.—Kilkenny surrendered to Cromwell.—Siege of Clonmel—Heroic self-devotion of the bishop of Ross.—Surrender of Clonmel.—Cromwell embarks for England.—Death of Heber MacMahon.—Meeting of the bishops at Jamestown.—Ormond excommunicated.—The king subscribes to the covenant.—New general assembly.—Ormond retires to France, and the marquis of Clanrickard becomes lord deputy.—Negotiations with the duke of Lorraine.—Limerick besieged by Ireton.—Valor of Henry O'Neill—Limerick betrayed to the besiegers.—Barbarous executions.—Death of Ireton.—Surrender of Galway.—Clanrickard accepts terms and leaves the kingdom.—Wholesale confiscations and plunder.—Horrible attempts to exterminate the people.—Banishment to Connaught and the West Indies.—Execution of Sir Phelim O'Neill—Atrocious cruelties.—Oliver proclaimed Lord Protector.—Henry Cromwell in Ireland.—Death of Oliver.—Proceedings of the Royalists.—The Restoration.

(FROM A. D. 1649 TO A. D. 1660.)

A GENERAL subversion of principles and confusion of parties characterize the period which followed the death of Charles I. The Scots in Ulster had, as we have seen, become royalists, and Ormond and Inchiquin were at the head of the confederates. The old Irish still flocked round the standard of Owen O'Neill as their leader, and his chivalrous character, military skill, and influence commanded the respect of his enemies; but the high and sacred principles for which he contended had been long since abandoned by his old colleagues of the confederation; a barrier of personal enmity was, moreover, placed between him and them: and provided he could keep an army on his hands, and watch the moves on the political chess-board for some one favorable to his country, it was to him of little consequence to which of the contending parties he lent his temporary aid. Ormond made overtures to him, and some accommodation would probably have taken place between them, had not the animosity of the commissioners of trust, old members of the supreme council, interfered to prevent it; whereupon O'Neill in disgust listened to the suggestions of the parliamentary party, and arranged with Monck, who held the command of Dundalk, to intercept the communica-



tion between the Scottish royalists in the north and Ormond in the interior. This arrangement, which was made on the 8th of May, 1649, was to secure to O'Neill and his followers perfect religious freedom and the restoration of their estates;\* but Owen did not reckon with any confidence on it, and the cessation or treaty was only signed for three months. The young king was now at the Hague, uncertain what course to take. He had been long promising to come to Ireland, and his baggage had, it is said, been embarked for this country; but want of money in the first instance, and then other impediments, prevented him from coming. It is thought that Ormond, for some sinister motives, discouraged his visit to Ireland; but Charles placed the fullest confidence in the crafty marquis as his lord lieutenant, and confirmed the treaty which he had made with the confederates.

Ormond and Inchiquin having mustered a considerable army in the south, at length took the field. In their march through Leinster, several small places, in which either Owen O'Neill or the parliamentarians had placed garrisons, surrendered to them: and they advanced, Ormond to invest Dublin, and Inchiquin to besiege Drogheda.† The latter town held out for seven days, and on the 30th of June surrendered on honorable terms, the parliamentarian

garrison, consisting of 600 men, being permitted to march to Dublin. Inchiquin's next exploit was to intercept a quantity of ammunition which Monck was sending from Dundalk to Owen O'Neill; and soon after Dundalk, Newry, and several places in Ulster, together with the castle of Trim, surrendered to him; and he marched back to rejoin Ormond, who had encamped at Finglas, two miles north of Dublin, on the 18th of June, but removed to Rathmines, in the southern suburbs of that city, on the 25th of July. Ormond found his army too small either to besiege or storm so large a place as Dublin, and his only hope now being to reduce the city by famine, he left Lord Dillon, of Costello, with 2,000 men on the north side, while with the remainder of his army he proposed to cut off supplies coming from any other quarter. So great was his confidence in the loyalty of his men, that he wrote to the king to say "he could persuade half his army to starve outright for his majesty."

On the same day that Ormond moved from Finglas to Rathmines, large reinforcements arrived to the garrison from England under Colonels Reynolds and Venables; and it became a matter of great importance to the besiegers to command the mouth of the river, to prevent the landing of further supplies from beyond the Channel. With that

\* *Philop. Iren.*, i., p. 121; also *Hist. of Independence*, p. 237.

† At this period Drogheda was called Tredagh or

Treda, by English writers; this corruption of the name being an attempt to imitate the pronunciation of the Irish word *Droichet-atha*.



view, and to deprive the besieged of pasturage for their horses on the south side, Major-General Purcell was sent, on the night of the 1st of August, with a detachment of 1,500 foot to take possession of the ruined castle of Baginbun, about a mile from the camp. This place they hoped to fortify sufficiently in one night, and from it they might advance their works to the river; but they only arrived at the castle an hour before day-break, and found that it was not so important as was supposed. Ormond, as well as the bulk of his army, had watched during the night, expecting an attack from the garrison, and he now retired to his tent to take some repose; but at the same moment Colonel Michael Jones was preparing to sally forth from the city with 4,000 foot and 1,200 horse, to dislodge the party which had got possession of Baginbun. It is intimated by those who seek by all means to free Ormond's character from disgrace, that Preston and the men under his command were not at their posts at this important juncture; but it must be admitted that the marquis showed bad generalship on the occasion; and he was now roused from his slumbers by volleys of musketry, only to find his whole left wing in disorder, and the detachment from Baginbun retreating, with the enemy at their heels. The confusion soon extended to Ormond's left wing; the infantry were deserted by the cavalry and sought refuge in flight; and what Jones only intended as a sortie resulted in a total rout of the royalists,

with the loss, as some accounts say, of 4,000 killed and 2,500 taken prisoners, together with their artillery, baggage money, and provisions. The Ormondists, however, state that the number of slain was only 600, and the prisoners 300 officers and 1,500 private soldiers; and they add, what is very probable, that a great many were killed after quarter had been proclaimed, and some even after they had been brought inside the walls of the city. Some of the royalists retreated to Drogheda, and others to Trim, and a great many of Inchiquin's soldiers went over to the enemy; but Ormond himself repaired to Kilkenny, where he endeavored to collect the shattered remains of his army; and his power was so broken by this overthrow, that he never after ventured to meet the parliamentarians in the field.

After this battle Jones marched to recover possession of Drogheda, but he found that town ably defended by Lord Moore, and learning that Ormond was coming to its relief, he raised the siege and returned to Dublin. Notwithstanding their success at Rathmines, the parliamentarians were, at this time, in very straitened circumstances. The only place which they retained in Ulster was Londonderry, where Sir Charles Coote was so hard pressed by Lord Montgomery of Ards, that he would inevitably have been compelled to surrender had not Owen O'Neill consented to come to his relief. Coote stipulated to give O'Neill £2,000 for the payment of his troops, a quantity of ammunition,



and 2,000 cows, and the aid was cheaply purchased; for as soon as Owen Roe appeared on the 8th of August, the Lord of Ards and his Scots raised the siege. The English parliament feigned great indignation at the treaties made by its officers with the Irish Popish general, and shortly after O'Neill broke off all alliance with that party.

Oliver Cromwell, the extraordinary man who was then beginning to sway the destinies of England, had, by a unanimous vote of the parliament, been made lieutenant-general of the forces in Ireland, so far back as the 28th of March, this year; but the troubles with the levellers, and other causes, had retarded the setting out of his expedition for this country. At length he sailed from Milford Haven on the 13th of August, and landed at Dublin on the 14th, having altered his original plan, which was to land in Munster. He brought with him 9,000 foot, 4,000 horse, several pieces of artillery, an abundant supply of all kinds of military stores, and £20,000 in money. His son-in-law, Commissary-General Ireton, followed, as second in command. The parliamentary force in Dublin now exceeded 16,000 men; and on the 30th of August, Cromwell took the field with a well-provisioned army of 10,000 picked men, and marched to lay siege to Drogheda, then deemed next in importance to Dublin as a military post. Having been invested by parliament with the title of lord-lieutenant, he published after his arrival two proclamations, one

against intemperance, and the other prohibiting his soldiers, under the severest penalties, to plunder the country-people. His admirers plead this prohibition as a proof that he did not intend to exercise cruelty in his Irish campaign; but his only design was to encourage the peasantry to bring provisions for sale to the army on its march, and in this object he was successful. He appointed Sir Theophilus Jones governor of Dublin.

Ormond had garrisoned Drogheda with about 3,000 of his choicest troops, under the command of Sir Arthur Aston, an Englishman, but a Catholic, and a soldier of experience and reputation; and a portion of the garrison also consisted of English royalists or cavaliers. Ormond himself withdrew with a few troops to Trim, and rejoiced that at so late a season Cromwell was about to besiege a place of so much strength, and before which he was likely to be so long detained, as Drogheda. The bold and energetic tactics on which so much of Cromwell's military success depended, disconcerted, however, plans founded on old-fashioned notions. The parliamentary general encamped at the south side of Drogheda, on Monday, September 2d; and some days having been consumed in getting his siege-guns from the ships that conveyed them from Dublin, and in other preparations, he was ready to commence battering the town on that day week. He began by beating down a tower and the steeple of St. Mary's church, where a gun had



been placed that annoyed him. On the following morning (Tuesday, the 10th) his batteries played incessantly, and early in the afternoon two practicable breaches were made; one towards the east, in the church yard wall of St. Mary's, which although the strongest part of the fortifications, Cromwell had selected for attack, as it would afford a safe entrance for his horse, and shelter for them on the inside under the church walls. The other breach was in the south wall of the town. About five o'clock he sent forward his storming parties. Seven hundred men entered the breaches, but earth-works had been thrown up inside, and the garrison defended them with such desperate bravery, that the fierce assailants were driven back through the breaches with considerable loss. Some accounts mention three several assaults; but in his dispatch to the parliament Cromwell says the intrenchments were carried at the second assault. Cannon were planted so as to shoot down some of the Irish horse which were posted behind the works to encourage the foot; and Colonel Wall, whose regiment was defending the breaches, having been killed, his men became discouraged and wavered. It was probably at this moment that Cromwell's officers and men promised quarter to the Irish, but the precise time at which this was done is involved in obscurity. That quarter, however, was offered is unquestionable. Various contemporaries, as Clarendon and Carte, assure us of the fact; and

they add that the promise was kept as long as the garrison resisted; "but," says the latter historian, "when they found all in their power, and feared no hurt that could be done to them, Cromwell being told by Jones that he had now all the flower of the Irish army in his hands, gave orders that no quarter should be given." The besiegers had before this gained a tower in which there was a sally-port, but the passage was so blocked up with the bodies of the dead that it was useless to them. However, being now masters of the two breaches, they introduced their cavalry through that at St. Mary's church, and by the other gained access to the great Tuatha de Danann tumulus called the mill-mount, the sides of which were strongly defended with palisades, behind which the besieged disputed the ground for some time, though they yielded on the promise of quarter. The brave governor, Sir Arthur Aston, with the officers of his staff, Sir Edward Verney, and Colonels Warren, Fleming, and Byrne, retreated into the old mill on the top of the mound, where they were disarmed and slain in cold blood. As this position commanded the town, all further resistance must have been useless; and the besiegers pouring in through the two breaches, crossed the bridge pell-mell with the flying garrison, and were thus in possession of the north side of the town. Drogheda was gained, but the work of slaughter had only commenced. The officers and soldiers of the garrison were the first



to be exterminated. Out of the 3,000 choice troops only about 30 men were saved, and these were reserved by Cromwell for deportation to Barbadoes. He himself says, "Our men were ordered by me to put them all to the sword." The fury of the fanatical conquerors was then let loose against the unarmed townspeople; and every man, woman, and child of Irish extraction that could be found within the devoted city, was most brutally murdered! This savage butchery occupied five whole days. It was on the morning of the 11th that Cromwell's troopers came to the great church of St. Peter's, on the north side of the city. To this sacred edifice upwards of a thousand of the principal inhabitants had fled for protection; but every one of them was put to the sword; and as a palliation of the massacre of these innocent people, Cromwell tells the parliament that "they had the insolence, on the last Lord's day, to thrust out the Protestants (from that church), and to have the Mass said there." All the ecclesiastics were, as a matter of course, put to death; or, as Leland insolently expresses it, Cromwell "ordered his soldiers to plunge their weapons into the helpless wretches!" A number of people had sought refuge in the church steeple, which was constructed of timber, and Cromwell tells us that he ordered fire to be applied. Some were burned, and the rest were slaughtered as they attempted to escape. A multitude of respectable women, comprising all the

principal ladies of the city, concealed themselves in the cripts under the choir of the church, but when the carnage was finished above, the bloodhounds traced them to these dark recesses, and not even to one of these poor fugitives was mercy shown. One of Cromwell's officers, who was engaged in this horrible work—Thomas Wood, brother of Anthony à Wood, the Oxford historian—relates that he found in these vaults "the flower and choicest of the women and ladies belonging to the town, amongst whom a most handsome virgin, arrayed in costly and gorgeous apparel, kneeled down to him with tears and prayers to save her life." He was moved to compassion, and took her out of the church "with the intention to put her over the works to shift for herself;" but while she was even thus protected a soldier plunged his sword in her body and Mr. Wood "seeing her gasping, took away her money, jewels, &c., and flung her over the works." Wood also relates how "when they were to make their way up to the lofts and galleries of the church, and up to the tower where the enemy had fled, each of the assailants would take up a child and use it as a buckler of defence, when they ascended the steps, to keep themselves from being shot or brained." This picture, described as it is by one of the actors in the bloody scene, is full of horror. According to a local tradition, Cromwell's attention was attracted by an infant endeavoring to draw nourishment from the breast of its dead



mother, whose murdered body lay in the street, and his callous heart being moved by the affecting incident, he gave orders to stop the massacre of all who were not found in arms. But tradition appears to be wrong in this case; for it is certain that a promiscuous slaughter was carried on until the departure of the army on the 15th; that is, during five whole days, in which, as we are told by a contemporary writer, four thousand Catholic men, besides a vast multitude of ecclesiastics, and of women, youths, and children, were unmercifully slain.\* Cromwell has his worshippers, and the philosophical disquisitions of Carlyle and Guizot may excite an interest in his character. The question whether he was a canting hypocrite or a fanatical enthusiast is frequently discussed; but let this point be decided as it may, and his panegyrists write as they will, the massacre at Drogheda stamps him with eternal infamy as a monster with a demon's heart.

Cromwell, who estimated his own loss at less than a hundred men, wrote to the parliament to announce his success and the massacre which had been perpetrated, which he impiously attributed to "the Spirit of God," desiring that "God alone should have all the

glory;" and the house, on the receipt of his dispatch on the 2d of October, appointed a "thanksgiving day," and voted a letter of thanks to the lord-lieutenant of Ireland and the army, "in which notice was to be taken that the house did approve of the execution done at Drogheda, as an act both of justice to them (the victims), and mercy to others who may be warned by it."† Trim, Dundalk, Carlingford, Newry, and other places in the north were abandoned by the royalists, or surrendered to Cromwell's officers after little or no resistance. Coleraine was betrayed to Sir Charles Coote, who put the garrison to the sword; Sir George Monroe was driven from Down and Antrim; and the Scots were dispossessed wherever they had settled. Carrickfergus was the only important fortress in Ulster which the royalists now held.

Cromwell, who had returned to Dublin on the 16th of September, left again on the 27th; and marching through Wicklow, took possession of Arklow and several small places on his route, and appeared before Wexford on Monday, the 1st of October. This town, though small, was wealthy and of great commercial importance. It was well fortified, being surrounded by an earth-

\* Bruodin, *Propug. Cath. Verit.*, lib. iv., c. 14, p. 678. For original authorities on the siege and massacre of Drogheda the reader may consult Cromwell's dispatches, as given by Carlyle, or as published with notes in the *Dublin Penny Journal* for 1832; Clarendon's *History of the Civil Wars in Ireland*, pp. 130 and 131; Ludlow's *Memoirs*, vol. i., pp. 300, 303; Carte's *Ormond*, vol. ii., p. 84; Borlase, *Hist. of Irish Reb.*; Bruodin, *ubi supra*; *Life of Anthony à Wood* (quoted by Lingard); *Oam-*

*brensis Eversus, Epist. Dedic.*; and also cap. xxxi., &c., See also the accounts given by Leland and Dr. Lingard, and in O'Connell's *Memoir of Ireland*. Ormond, in his letter to Lord Byron, secretary to Charles II., as given by Carte, says, that "on this occasion Cromwell exceeded himself, and any thing he had ever heard of in breach of faith and bloody inhumanity."

† *Parliamentary History of England*, vol. iii. p. 1334.



en rampart of considerable thickness within the wall, while at a distance of three or four hundred paces outside the works, towards the southeast, stood a strong castle. The inhabitants had until the last moment refused to accept a garrison of royalists from Ormond; but at this time they appear to have been fully prepared for the defence; the troops in the town being under the command of Colonel David Sinnott, a brave and determined officer; and the castle just mentioned under that of Captain James Stafford. On the 3d of October Cromwell summoned the town to surrender, and from that day to the 5th various notes were exchanged between him and Colonel Sinnott, the latter requiring time to consult the mayor and corporation on the terms upon which they would consent to surrender the place. On the latter day Lord Castlehaven threw into the town, at the north side, 1,500 Ulster troops which had been sent by the marquis of Ormond from Ross; and Sinnott now required further time to submit the propositions for surrender to Lord Castlehaven, who was his superior officer, as lord general of the horse. During this time there had been no cessation of hostilities agreed upon, although the civil authorities of the town exhibited their courtesy by sending presents of "sacke and strong waters"

for the use of the parliamentary general. A detachment of the besieging army had seized the castle of Rosslare, at the mouth of the harbor, the garrison abandoning it and taking refuge in a frigate, which was afterwards surrendered at discretion to the enemy. The entrance to the harbor being thus free, Cromwell landed the battering train from his shipping, and lost no time in preparing for the attack. In reply to Sinnott's last note of the 5th, he wrote the following day to revoke the safe conduct which he had given for the agents who were to bring the propositions from the town; but added, "When you shall see cause to treat, you may send for another." With the relief last sent, the garrison amounted to about 3,000 men; and Castlehaven, having retired from the town, Sinnott made up his mind to defend his charge.\* Cromwell having selected the part near the castle for his attack, finished his batteries on Wednesday, the 10th, and began the cannonade on the following morning. By twelve o'clock some breaches were made in the castle defences; and Sinnott, having caused a parley to be beaten, sent to demand a safe conduct for four persons to treat on honorable terms. This was granted; and the four agents sent from the town were, Majors Theobald Dillon and James Byrne, Alderman Nicholas Chee-

\* Clarendon says a reinforcement, under Sir Edmond Butler, entered the town only two hours before Cromwell's soldiers got in; but this cannot be correct, as Castlehaven speaks of Sir Edmond as being in Wexford,

when he went there, and calls him the governor. It is certain, however, that Sinnott had the command of the garrison.



vers, and Captain James Stafford, the last, it will be recollected, being the governor of the castle. The proposed conditions were only what might be expected from men of honor with arms in their hands. The inhabitants asked full religious liberty for themselves, and the garrison demanded that they should march out with colors flying, and with their arms, baggage, &c., and that such of the townspeople as chose might be at liberty to accompany them in safety to Ross. Cromwell calls these propositions "abominable," and the men who dared to send them "impudent;" but while he was preparing "to return a suitable answer," he found means to make terms of another kind. He corrupted Captain Stafford with a bribe, or by some other means. Cromwell says he was "fairly treated;" and the castle being thrown open to his troops, the flag of the parliament was displayed from its summit, and the guns turned against the town. Seeing this stronghold in the hands of the enemy, who, consequently, had the fortifications of the city on that side at their mercy, the besieged were seized with dismay. The besiegers planted their scaling ladders and crossed the walls without the least opposition, and then opened the gates to their own cavalry. The panic which ensued may easily be conceived. The garrison retreated to the market-place, where numbers of the townspeople had also congregated, and here, for fully an hour, they offered what Cromwell calls "a stiff resistance," and the street being

in many places barricaded with cables, the enemy's horse could for some time do little execution. The assailants, however, poured in by thousands, and the horrible massacre of Drogheda was re-enacted, neither man, woman, nor child, who came in their way, having found any mercy. Now, all this time Cromwell held in his hands the conditions for surrender proposed by the governor and citizens, and his own answer written, but never sent; for the agents from the city were still in his camp when the massacre commenced. By the answer which he had prepared he granted life and liberty to the soldiers; life, but not liberty, to the officers, and freedom from pillage to the inhabitants; but while this answer was ready, though not delivered, and Sinnott and the authorities still in ignorance of his decision, he succeeded, as we have seen, by the basest means in gaining possession of the castle, and then would have us believe that he did not order the massacre. He intended, forsooth, to preserve the place, but saw "God would not have it so," and he "thought it not good nor just to restrain off the soldiers from their right of pillage, nor from doing of execution on the enemy." And he concludes his dispatch by telling the parliament "that it had pleased God to give into your hands this other mercy" (Drogheda was the first "mercy" and Wexford the second!) "for which, as for all, we pray God may have all the glory."\* About

\* See Cromwell's Letters, published by Carlyle, and Cary's *Memorials*, ii. p. 180



300 of the panic-stricken inhabitants attempted to make their escape to the opposite side of the harbor, but the over-crowded boats were submerged, and all were drowned. Sir Edmond Butler was shot when endeavoring to save his life by swimming. Cromwell estimates the number who were put to the sword in this massacre at 2,000, while he, "from first to last of the siege, lost not altogether twenty men;" and in recommending the parliament to send over English Protestants to dwell in the town, he assures them that "of the former inhabitants not one in twenty could be found to challenge any property in their own houses."\*

If the Ormondists, as a party, were thoroughly humbled by the defeat at

Rathmines, subsequent events brought home to the Irish Catholics in general the horrible conviction that they were all involved in a common ruin. Owen O'Neill had made up his mind to support Ormond; and the latter, who, says Clarendon, "had a great esteem of his conduct, and knew the army under his command to be better disciplined than any other of the Irish,"† offered Owen any terms which he chose to demand. The negotiations between them were carried on through Daniel O'Neill, a nephew of Owen's; and the reinforcements, escorted by Lord Castlehaven to Wexford, were composed of men whom O'Neill had already supplied to the lord lieutenant.‡ Owen Roe undertook to furnish Ormond with 6,000

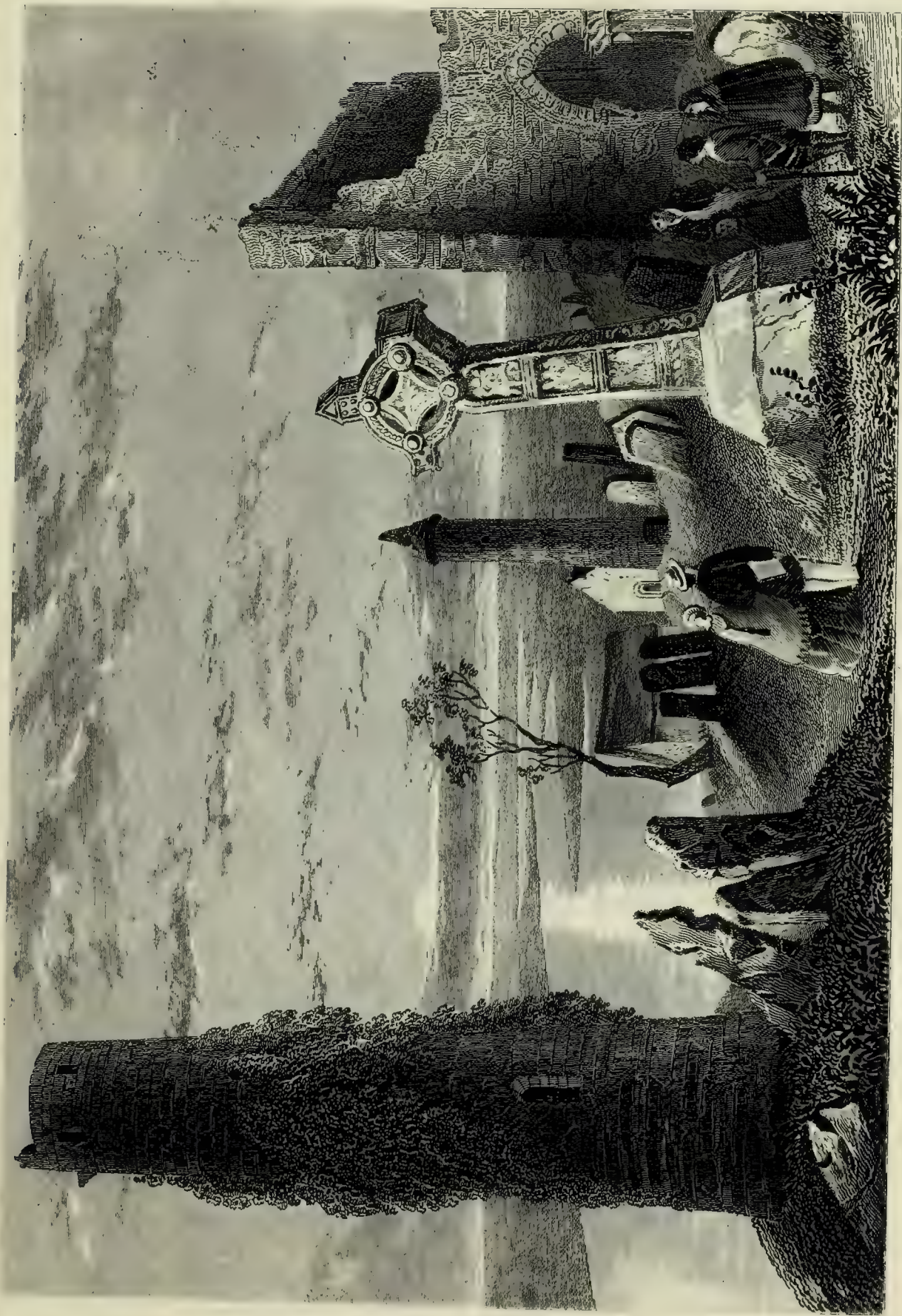
\* Mageoghegan mentions, as an incident of the siege of Wexford, that two hundred women were massacred at the foot of the cross in the public square, and the circumstance has been repeated after him by many writers; but no contemporary authority for it has been quoted, and we may safely conclude that the statement only refers to the general massacre which was perpetrated in the market-place, where a multitude of the townspeople—old men, women, and children—had flocked together, hoping to find protection behind the ranks of the garrison. Dr. Nicholas French, the illustrious and patriotic bishop of Ferns, who was then lying ill of fever in a neighboring village, has left us an important reference to the Wexford massacre, in a letter dated at Antwerp, in 1673, and addressed to the papal nuncio, relative to affairs affecting the venerable prelate personally. In this letter, the Latin original of which, with a translation, was first published in the *Dublin Nation* of October 8th, 1859, Dr. French writes: "On that most calamitous day the city of Wexford, abounding in wealth, ships and merchandize, was carried at the point of the sword, and given up to the infuriated soldiery by Cromwell, that pest of the English government. There, before God's altar, fell many sacred victims, priests of the Lord; some, who were seized outside the precincts of the church, were scourged with whips; some were arrested and bound with chains; some were hanged, and others were cruelly put to death by divers sorts of tor-

ture. The best blood of the citizens was shed, till the very streets were red with it, and there was scarcely a house that was not polluted with carnage and full of wailing. In my own palace, a youth, hardly sixteen years of age—an amiable boy—my gardener and sacristan were cruelly butchered; and they left the chaplain, whom I caused to remain behind me at home, transpierced with six mortal wounds, and weltering in his gore. And these abominations were perpetrated in open day, by impious cut-throats. From that moment I have never seen my city, flock, country, or kindred." The bishop then proceeds to relate his own sufferings for five months after, while hunted in the woods, and obliged to sleep in the open air, without bed or covering, often with scarcely any food, and with never any but of the coarsest kind. From the same source to which we are indebted for Dr. French's letter, we learn the names of the following religious of the order of St. Francis, who were among the victims of the Wexford carnage, viz.: Fathers Richard Synnott, S. T. L., John Esmond, Paulinus Synnott, Raymond Stafford, and Peter Stafford, and the brothers Didacus Cheevers and James Rochford.

† *Vindication of Ormond*, p. 136, ed. 1756.

‡ This appears from Castlehaven's own statement (*Memoirs*, p. 115); but the agreement between Owen Roe and Ormond was not finally signed till the 12th of October, when Owen was on his deathbed. Vide *Carte's Ormond*, ii.





*Commencement*

ON THE 1st OF JANUARY 1841







men, and this promise was faithfully fulfilled, although he did not live to perform it in person. While encamped before Derry, where he remained about ten days after raising the siege on the 8th of August, he was seized with illness, and conveyed in a horse-litter to Ballyhaise, in the county of Cavan, where he ordered his nephew, Lieutenant-General Hugh Duv O'Neill, to lead the promised reinforcements to Ormond. He was then carried to Cloghoughter, a strong castle of the O'Reillys in Lough Oughter, in Cavan, where he died, on the 6th of November.\* To the Irish the death of Owen Roe was an irreparable loss. He was not alone a consummate general, and the most eminent on the Irish side that the war had produced, but merited the entire confidence of the clergy and of the native population. Had he, in addition to his high qualities as a soldier, had that

boldness or audacity which would have broken the trammels that fettered him, and pushed aside the recreant and intriguing partisans who sacrificed the country to their own interests and animosities, he would have served Ireland more effectively.†

The traditionary horror with which the memory of Cromwell is still, after 200 years, regarded by the Irish peasantry, shows how deeply his inhuman policy of conquering by the fame of his cruelties must have impressed the mind of the people. Towns fifty miles distant were, it is said, thus influenced to surrender; but this was not the case generally. After the capture of Wexford, Cromwell sent Ireton to besiege Duncannon, while he himself marched against New Ross, where Ormond had placed Major-General Luke Taaffe in command, with a garrison of 1,500 men. Taaffe had only undertaken the

\* The death of Owen Roe was commonly ascribed to a poisoned pair of russet boots sent to him as a present by one Plunket of Louth, and which he wore at a ball given in Derry by Sir Charles Coote. Plunket, it is said, afterwards boasted of the service which he had rendered to England by dispatching O'Neill. (*Vide* Colonel O'Neill's journal in the *Desiderata Curiosa Hibernica*.) His remains were interred in the old Franciscan monastery of Cavan, of which no vestige now remains. (See *Carte*, ii., 83; and Archdall's *Monast. Hib.*) In the progress of the war the pope's blessing was conveyed to Owen Roe, and at the same time the sword of his illustrious uncle, Hugh O'Neill, which was sent to him from Rome by Father Luke Wadding. References to the castle of Cloghoughter (*Cloch Locha Uachtair*, i. e., the rock or stone fortress of Lough Oughter) will be found in the Four Masters under the dates of 1327, 1369, and 1370. In this castle Bishop Bedell was for some time confined in 1642.

† "Owen Roe," says Mageoghegan, "was experienced in the art of war; he had greatly distinguished

himself in the Spanish service, and principally by his brave defence of Arras, where he commanded in 1640, when that place was besieged by the French army under the three Marshals, de Chattillon, de Chaulnes, and de la Meilleraye. His ideas were clear, his perception accurate, his judgment very sound. He was dexterous in profiting of the advantages which were furnished by the enemy; he left nothing to chance, and his plans were always well formed; he was sober, prudent, and reserved; when occasion required he could disguise his sentiments; he was well acquainted with the intrigues of courts; and, in a word, he possessed all the qualities necessary for a great general." (*Hist. of Ir.*) Warner and Leland describe his character almost in the same words. *Carte* speaks of his "honor, constancy, and good sense, as of his military skill;" and Marshal Schomberg's secretary, Dr. Gorge, says, "Owen Roe Oneale was the best generall that ever the Irish had." (MS. in the S. P. O., London, quoted by Mr. O'Callaghan in notes to the *Macaria Excidium* p. 181.)



charge on the condition that he should be at liberty to surrender the place when he deemed it untenable; and he availed himself of this discretionary power by capitulating as soon as Cromwell's artillery began to thunder on the east bank of the Barrow. He first demanded liberty of conscience for the townspeople, but Cromwell replied that "if he meant liberty to exercise the Mass, he judged it best to use plain dealing, and to let him know that where the parliament of England had power that would not be allowed." The town was surrendered on the 18th of October without this condition, the garrison being allowed to depart with arms and baggage, and 600 men remaining to enter the service of the parliament, while Taaffe marched with the rest to join Ormond at Kilkenny. Ireton was not so successful at Duncannon fort, which was defended with such gallantry by Colonel Wogan that the siege was raised in a few days. Cromwell's forces were greatly reduced in numbers by leaving garrisons in the captured towns, and by a dysentery which was carrying off many of his men. Inchiquin attempted to intercept reinforcements coming to him from Dublin, and had a slight encounter with them on the strand near Wexford, but the parliamentarians were successful. Cromwell constructed over the river at Ross a bridge of boats, the first seen in Ireland; and while he himself lay sick, sent detachments of his troops, which took Inistioge and Carrick. To

the latter town he removed with the remainder of his forces on the 21st and 22d of November.

A little before this date the garrisons which had been left by Inchiquin in Cork, Youghal, Kinsale, Bandon Bridge, and some other southern towns, revolted to Cromwell, chiefly through the management of Lord Broghill, son of the earl of Cork, who soon became one of Cromwell's most active generals in Ireland. This revolt was of the utmost importance to the parliamentary general, who would otherwise, at that inclement season, have been placed in great difficulties for winter-quarters for his men.

On the 24th of November Cromwell appeared before Waterford. Lord Castlehaven had been appointed governor of this town by Ormond, who sent 1,000 men to its relief, but the citizens had no confidence in the wily marquis, and positively refused to admit his troops. The defection of Inchiquin's men fully justified their distrust but they at length consented to receive 500 of the Ulster Catholics, commanded by Farrell, one of Owen Roe's favorite officers. The strong fort of Passage surrendered without firing a shot, so that the citizens of Waterford found themselves in a most disheartening position; but the determination which they exhibited, backed by the appearance of Ormond's force, which lay encamped opposite the city, on the north side of the Suir, was such that Cromwell, who approached from the south,



raised the siege after a few days, and marched to Dungarvan. Here he arrived on the 4th of December, and the town having surrendered at discretion, he proceeded to Youghal. Fresh supplies reached him here by sea from England, and on the 17th he marched with Lord Broghill to Cork where he was joined by Ireton.

Ormond's baleful influence had been everywhere productive of misfortune, and the Catholics were persuaded that he and Inchiquin were leagued together for no good purpose. The citizens of Waterford would not allow any of Ormond's men inside their walls, even for the purpose of passing through the city to attempt the recovery of the fort of Passage. None of the southern towns except Clonmel and Kilkenny would afford winter-quarters to his troops, who were, therefore, allowed to disperse and shift for themselves; and thus perplexed he wrote to the king to ask permission to remove himself and the royal authority from the kingdom. He had sent Daniel O'Neill with 2,000 men to succor the lord of Ards and Sir George Monroe, but the help came too late. On the 13th of December Coote took possession of Carrickfergus for the parliament.

A. D. 1650.—Impatient of a few days inactivity, even in mid-winter, Cromwell set out from Youghal on the 29th of January, and crossing the Blackwater at Mallow he approached the confines of Limerick; and then entering Tipperary, south of the Galtees, marched by

Clogheen and Rochestown to Fethard, taking sundry castles and strong places on his route. He arrived before the last-named town at midnight, in the midst of a terrific tempest, and a Cromwellian writer of the period has left an amusing account of the ludicrous effect produced on the municipal authorities by his summons at such an unseasonable hour and in such a night. He had only a few troops with him, and no materials for a siege; and as he could find no shelter outside the town but the ruins of an old abbey, and a few cabins, he was glad, even at the cost of granting honorable terms, to get a roof over him in the morning. The governor, who boasted that his town was not lost without a storm, wished to treat Oliver to some refreshment, which the latter, it appears, had not the urbanity to accept.\* The authorities of Cashel brought the keys of their town to him; and from Fethard he marched to Callan, in the county of Kilkenny, where he was joined by Reynolds, and where two castles, having offered a brave resistance, were taken, and their garrisons put to the sword. Cromwell was now marching to Kilkenny, where an officer named Tickel had secretly promised to open one of the gates to him; but the treason having been discovered and Tickel executed, Cromwell left a garrison at Callan, and returned to Fethard and Cashel. As spring approached supplies of men, money, and military

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\* See the *Irish Mercury*, news pamphlet of the time.



stores were sent to him in abundance by the parliament; and on the other side Ormond gave up the command of the few troops he retained in Leinster to Castlehaven, and withdrew to Clare and Connaught.

After the reconciliation of O'Neill with Ormond, Heber MacMahon, bishop of Clogher, who was so devotedly attached to the northern chief, became Ormond's firm supporter. At a congregation of twenty bishops, and the proxies of five other prelates, who assembled at Clonmacnoise on the 4th of December, 1649, to consider the deplorable state to which the country had been reduced by war and pestilence, it is asserted that the influence of the heroic bishop of Clogher was very strenuously exerted in favor of the marquis and the royal cause. On this occasion the prelates published a declaration enjoining in the most earnest manner union and amity among both clergy and people, "letting the people know how vain it was for them to expect from the common enemy commanded by Cromwell, by authority from the rebels of England, any assurance of their religion, lives, or fortunes;" and finally beseeching "the gentry and inhabitants, for God's glory and their own safety, to the uttermost of their power to contribute, with patience, to

the support of the war against that enemy."\* The people, however, were weary of the war, and the disaffection towards Ormond continued. A meeting of county representatives was held at Kilkenny to promote union, but the approach of Cromwell obliged them to fly, and they resumed their fruitless deliberations at Ennis. Discord and distrust prevailed in the ranks of the royalists. At Gowran, in the county Kilkenny, the soldiers mutinied and delivered up their officers to Cromwell, who ordered Colonel Hammond and the other principal officers to be shot, and hanged a priest who was found in the town.

Imagination can hardly picture any thing more dismal than the condition of the citizens of Kilkenny when Cromwell and his army appeared before their walls on the 22d of March, 1650. Within raged a frightful pestilence, which had reduced the garrison from 1,200 men to about 400; without stood a foe as inhuman as he was apparently invincible. Heaven and earth seemed leagued against them; so that some troops ordered by Castlehaven to their relief refused to march; saying that they were ready to fight against men, but not against God: alluding to the plague, which threatened certain death within the devoted city.† Yet the

\* Borlase, pp. 236-238.

† For some years about this time the plague and other epidemic diseases raged almost incessantly in various parts of this country. So many as 17,000 persons are said to have been carried off by the pestilence in Dublin alone during 1650-51; and we have details of its ravages

about the same time in Kilkenny, Limerick, Cork, Galway, and other towns. These pestilential visitations were preceded by famine; and, resulting from long sieges and such incidents of war, have been classed as leaguer sicknesses by medical writers. They were followed, a few years later, by the true bubonic or oriental plague



summons of Cromwell to surrender was answered by a stern defiance. The attack was then commenced by cannonading the castle, which was defended by Major James Walsh, Sir Walter Butler being governor of the town. The defence was as brave as it must have been hopeless; but the place was at length yielded on the 28th, and Cromwell hastened to lay siege to Clonmel, where the garrison was commanded by Hugh Duv O'Neill, and where Oliver was destined to encounter the most vigorous resistance that he met with during the whole of his Irish campaign.

News was brought to Cromwell while before Clonmel that the bishop of Ross had collected a large army in the south, and was approaching to raise the siege. Lord Broghill, who was in Cork, received reinforcements from Cromwell, and with an efficient army, composed chiefly of cavalry, hastened with extraordinary expedition to intercept the march of the Irish. A battle was fought near Macroom, in which the Irish were routed, and the bishop of Ross being made prisoner, was offered his life and liberty if he prevailed on the garrison of Carrigadrohid, a strong castle on the river Lee, three miles from Macroom, to surrender. He was brought before the castle for the purpose, but the heroic bishop exhorted

the garrison to defend their post to the last, and was himself immediately hanged in their sight by Lord Broghill's order.\* These events produced great joy in the camp before Clonmel, and preparations were made for a final attack on the beleaguered town on the 9th of May. If, after he had offered terms, a garrison held out for some time ere it surrendered, it was Cromwell's practice to shoot the officers, as he had done at Gowran; but if he considered the resistance to have been too obstinate, he usually put the whole garrison to the sword, as at Drogheda, Wexford, Callan, and elsewhere. The desperation with which he was resisted at Clonmel made him pay dearly for this sanguinary policy. His storming parties were twice hurled back from the breach with terrific slaughter. The shattered houses inside the breach were filled with O'Neill's gallant northerns, who fought with the energy of despair, and were resolved to hold their ground to the last man. But at length night put an end to the fierce struggle, and the garrison having exhausted their ammunition, and all having agreed that the place was no longer tenable, O'Neill marched off his men under cover of the darkness, and withdrew to Waterford, while the townspeople made favorable terms for themselves,

See the authorities on the subject collected by Dr. Wilde in his report of Tables of Deaths, Census of 1851.

\* Carrigadrohid was soon after obtained by a very silly stratagem, the besiegers causing a few team of oxen to draw weighty logs of timber, which the garrison sup-

posed to be cannon, and terms of capitulation were at once agreed to. See Cox; and Smith's *History of Cork*. The date of the battle of Macroom is variously given at the 10th of April and the 10th of May. The former appears to be the correct one.



and in the morning opened their gates to Cromwell, who only then discovered that the garrison had departed. He lost 2,500 of his men before Clonmel, and as he himself expressed it, "had like to bring his noble to a ninepence." He had already received pressing dispatches from the parliament, urging him to return as speedily as possible to England, where a storm was threatening from the north; and having committed the command of the army to Ireton, who had been made lord-president of Munster, he sailed from Youghal on the 29th of May.

In the north Heber MacMahon struggled for some time, with occasional success, against numerous foes; but his army received a total overthrow, on the 21st of June, at the pass of Scarrifhollis, on the river Swilly, near Letterkenay, from the forces of Sir Charles Coote and Colonel Venables. The battle was lost through the indiscretion of MacMahon, who unfortunately led his army where it was exposed to the enemy on both sides, and was com-

pelled to hazard a battle, although the English cavalry were more than twice as numerous as his. The northern army was completely annihilated on this occasion; and two days after Heber MacMahon himself was made prisoner near Omagh, by Major King, and although promised quarter, was shamefully hanged by order of Coote, notwithstanding the service which, in concert with Owen Roe, he had rendered to him at Londonderry less than a year before.\*

The detached Irish garrisons through Leinster and Munster were easily reduced by Hewson, Broghill, and other parliamentary officers; and under color of hunting down the unhappy outlaws, who were driven to lead in the woods the wild life of freebooters, and were called "tories," many acts of ferocity were committed, in which the harmless country-people were the victims. The Cromwellian colonel, Zanchy, distinguished himself in these services. Preston, who had assumed the government of Waterford, surrendered

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\* If ever there were circumstances which could render military strife compatible with the clerical character, they were those presented by the state of Ireland at the troubled period under our notice. Catholics and their religion were threatened with extermination. Their struggle was not aggressive; it was for their faith and their lives; and forbearance, which entailed evils not alone on themselves but on countless generations after them, would have been a crime. Among the Irish ecclesiastics who were thus forced to become the leaders of their people in the battle-field, one of the most distinguished was Heber MacMahon, bishop of Clogher. He is first, strangely enough, introduced to us while a simple priest, during the government of Lord Strafford, giving private information to Sir George Radcliffe of the

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movements among the Irish refugees abroad; and his object then, no doubt, was to avert the anarchy of civil war; but a further knowledge of the dangers of his country induced him to become one of the first associates of Sir Phelim O'Neill and Lord Maguire in the conspiracy of 1641, and he ever after continued a firm and consistent upholder in the council and the field of the thorough Irish and Catholic party, headed by his friend Owen Roe O'Neill. He was lamented by the Ormondists, whose cause he took up warmly when O'Neill's junction with them, and the barbarities of Cromwell, had tended to identify them with the Catholic party. See the notice of him in Clarendon's *History of the Civil Wars in Ireland*, p. 186, &c. ed. 1756.



that city to Ireton on the 10th of August. The fort of Duncannon followed. The city of Limerick, the castle of Athlone, and the whole of Connaught and Clare still, however, remained in the hands of the Catholics.

Ormond finding that the inhabitants of Limerick refused to receive from him a garrison, solicited the intervention of the Catholic bishops, who accordingly met in that city on the 8th of March. Their suggestions were not very palatable to the marquis, who withdrew to Loughrea, where the bishops held an adjourned meeting, and on the 28th of March published a declaration, expressing their conviction that the national loyalty was unshaken, although the people had ground enough for distrust and jealousy, and urging that some settled course should be taken to give them confidence. There was surely nothing in the antecedents of Ormond or Inchiquin which could induce the Irish Catholics to place reliance on them; and it was said that at this very time they were treating with the Cromwellian authorities for the admission of the Protestant party among the royalists to protection. Hugh O'Neill, the gallant defender of Clonmel, was now governor of Limerick, and it was probably at his suggestion that the magistrates invited Ormond to come and settle the garrison; but as soon as the marquis appeared at the gate a popular tumult arose, and he was prevented from entering. He then returned to Connaught, where he found

that Galway had followed the example of Limerick. On the 6th of August, a congregation of the bishops and clergy met at Jamestown, in the county of Leitrim, and on the 12th, deputed the bishop of Dromore and Dr. Charles Kelly with a message to Ormond, recommending him, as the "only remedy for the preservation of the nation and of his majesty's interest therein," to withdraw from the kingdom and to delegate the royal authority to some person in whom the people might have confidence. This was a deadly wound to the pride of the haughty Ormond. He replied, that he would not retire from the country until necessity compelled him; and the bishops published a declaration denouncing "the continuance of his majesty's authority in the marquis of Ormond, for the misgovernment of the subjects, the ill-conduct of the army, and the violation of the peace." In fine, they threatened to present articles of impeachment against him to the king, and published an excommunication against all who would adhere to him, or yield him subsidy or obedience, or who would support Cromwell's government.

That the bishops were not mistaken in the course which they had pursued was soon made evident by the news from Scotland, where Charles II. had landed on the 28th of June, and had not only subscribed the national and solemn covenants, but, to gratify the fierce bigotry of the Scots, had, on the



16th of August, signed a declaration pronouncing the peace with the Irish to be null and void, adding, "that he was convinced in his conscience of the sinfulness and unlawfulness of it, and of allowing them (the Catholics) the liberty of the Popish religion; for which he did, from his heart, desire to be deeply humbled before the Lord." The news of this infamous act of duplicity reached Ireland before the Jamestown excommunication was published, and afforded the amplest justification of the strong measures adopted by the clergy. Ormond, who was confounded by such a premature disclosure of his master's principles, protested that the peace should be upheld, and cast the blame of the royal declaration on Scottish fanaticism. But the sequel will show that Charles was capable of still greater perfidy to his friends. The Catholic noblemen and gentry felt their position embarrassing; but the bishops, who, alone, seemed to understand the dangers to be apprehended, and the characters of the men they had to deal with, remained firm. Ormond summoned a general assembly, which met at Loughrea on the 15th of November, while he stopped at Kilcolgan, about ten miles distant; but the time was wasted in recriminatory messages be-

tween him and the meeting; and, at length, having left power to the marquis of Clanrickard to assume the duties of lord-deputy, provided the assembly engaged to obey him, he embarked at Galway, about the middle of December, accompanied by Lord Inchiquin,\* Colonels Vaughan, Wogan, and Daniel O'Neill, and about twenty other persons of distinction, and after a tempestuous voyage, in which a vessel containing his baggage, servants, and some passengers was lost, arrived the following month at St. Malo, in Brittany. To Castlehaven, who reluctantly remained behind, he intrusted the command of the army, with an injunction to keep up a bustle, as that frivolous nobleman expresses it, to divert a part of the enemy's attention to this country, while King Charles was preparing to cross the Tweed into England. Commissioners were soon after deputed by the parliament to treat with the assembly for a final submission of the nation, on favorable terms; but the extreme loyalists scouted such an arrangement, although the Irish decidedly sacrificed their interests in rejecting it.

A. D. 1651.—The new year found the assembly deeply engaged in the discussion of a project for mortgaging the town of Galway and some other places

\* It is a curious fact that Inchiquin subsequently became a Catholic; and Borlase refers to his change of religion as the only cause of his being refused the presidency of Munster after the restoration, a similar change preventing the appointment of Viscount Dillon, of Costello, as president of Connaught. (*Hist. of the Ir. Reb.* p. 278.) Inchiquin was created earl by Charles II., at Cologne, in 1654; he obtained the rank of lieutenant-

general in the French service; was made French governor of Catalonia; and was captured by an Algerine corsair when engaged on an expedition against Spain. He died in 1673, and by his will left £20 to the Franciscan friars of Ennis, and also a sum "for the performance of the usual duties of the Roman Catholic clergy, and for other pious uses." See Lodge.



to the duke of Lorraine for a sum of money to be advanced for supporting the royal cause in Ireland. The abbot of St. Catherine arrived in Galway about the end of February, as an envoy from the duke; but Clanrickard thought his demands exorbitant, and Sir Nicholas Plunkett and Geoffrey Brown were sent to Flanders to treat with the duke himself. The bishop of Ferns went on the same errand, on the part of the clergy, and Lord Taaffe, who had left Ireland before Ormond, had received instructions for the like purpose, long before this, from the duke of York—the king being in Scotland. The influence of the patriotic bishop of Ferns prevailed, it is said, with the lay agents, who, disregarding the instructions of Clanrickard, signed, in the name of the people and kingdom of Ireland, an agreement with the duke of Lorraine, who was to be invested with royal powers, under the title of Protector of Ireland, he, on his part, undertaking to prosecute the king's enemies, and to restore the kingdom, and the Catholic religion, to their pristine state. For the outlay which all this would require he was to be hereafter reimbursed; and, as a guarantee, was to be placed in possession of Galway, Limerick, Athenry, and Athlone; and also of Waterford and Duncannon when they could be recovered from the enemy. This agreement, which was signed on the 22d of July, 1651, was repudiated by Clanrickard, and became a dead letter, although the duke of Lorraine

had already advanced £20,000 on the strength of the negotiations. The affairs of Charles II. were reduced to a hopeless state after the battle of Worcester (September 3d, 1651). The Irish towns mentioned as security soon fell under the power of parliament, and the duke of Lorraine left Ireland to its sad destiny.

The reduction of Limerick was the next object of importance to Ireton, who began his operations against that city early in 1651. The parliamentarians had as yet no footing on the Clare side of the Shannon, and until that was obtained Limerick could not be effectually invested. Coote made a feint to attack Sligo, and having thus drawn Clanrickard and his forces to that quarter, made a forced march across the Curliou mountains and attacked Athlone on the Connaught side, taking that important fortress before any relief could be rendered to it. The road into Connaught being thus open, and Galway threatened, Clanrickard called Castlehaven to consult with him. In the absence of that general, who guarded the Clare side of the Shannon, Ireton forced the passage of the river at O'Brien's bridge, and Colonel Fennell, who commanded at Killaloe, abandoned his post, through cowardice or treachery, so that Castlehaven's troops were dispersed, and Ireton enabled to invest Limerick on both sides. Lord Muskerry raised a considerable body of men in the south to come to its relief; but Lord Broghill hastened, by



Ireton's orders, to intercept them; and, on the 26th of July, coming up with the advance guard of the Irish near Castleishen, in the county of Cork, drove them back upon their main body. A hard contested fight ensued at Knock-naclashy, where the hastily collected masses of the Irish were routed with great slaughter. Most of the Irish officers were slain, and Colonel Magillacuddy was taken prisoner. In the mean time the siege was carried on with great energy. The castle at the salmon-weir having been attacked, its garrison retreated in boats, and some of them who surrendered on quarter were butchered in cold blood; so that even Ireton, fearing the Irish would be driven to desperation, discouraged this brutality on the part of his officers. The besiegers lost 120 men in the first attempt to land on the King's Island, and 300 more were cut off in a sally of the besieged; soon after, however, a bridge was constructed to the island, and 6,000 troops marched over, and erected a strong fort there. The plague raged within the city, and many persons having attempted to escape, some of them were taken by order of the merciless Ireton to be executed, and others were whipped back to the town. The authority of the governor, Hugh O'Neill, was rendered nugatory by the corporation and magistrates; and some

discontented persons within the city commenced negotiations with the enemy for a capitulation. At length, on the 27th of October, Colonel Fennell, who betrayed the pass of Killaloe, combined with some other officers, and seizing St John's gate and tower, turned the cannon against the city, and received 200 of Ireton's men into the gate that night. The acceptance of Ireton's hard terms was thus made compulsory; and 2,500 Irish soldiers having laid down their arms on the 29th in St. Mary's church, and marched out of the city, some of them dropping dead of the plague on the way, Limerick was delivered into the hands of Ireton, and Sir Hardress Waller appointed governor. By the articles of capitulation twenty-four persons were excepted from quarter. Of these, Terence O'Brien, bishop of Emly, General Purcell, and Father Wolfe, a Franciscan, were found concealed in the pest-house, and were among the first dragged to the scaffold. Purcell showed a faint spirit, and was held up by two soldiers at the place of execution. The bishop, on the contrary, exhibited heroic fortitude. All along he had strenuously exhorted the Irish to hold out against Cromwell's forces, and now addressing Ireton in a solemn tone, he summoned him to appear in a few days to answer for his cruelties and injustice before the tribunal of God.\*

\* Dr. Burke's *Hibernica Dominicana*, p. 568. The bishop was ignominiously hanged and beheaded, and his head spiked on a tower in the centre of the city, on the eve of All Saint's (October 31st), and Ireton was a corpse on

the 25th of November. This dark-minded general was at the bottom of all Cromwell's counsels, and is held accountable for some of his cruelties. He was cold, reserved, absolute, and inexorable. During the siege of Limerick,



The words seemed prophetic, for eight days after Ireton caught the plague, and in less than a month he died "raging and raving of this unfortunate prelate, whose unjust condemnation, he imagined, hurried on his death." Sir Geoffrey Galwey, Alderman Thomas Stritch, Alderman Fanning, and Geoffrey Barron, the latter having only just returned from Brussels, were executed; as was also the traitor Fennell, although sentenced for other causes. O'Dwyer, bishop of Limerick, escaped to Brussels, where he died. The governor, Hugh O'Neill, had, by his former defence of Clonmel, and his recent stand in Limerick, provoked Ireton too much to expect mercy. He was tried, and, at the instigation of the gloomy republican, sentenced to death; but as he had always shown himself a brave soldier and an honorable foe, some of the officers expostulated, and Ireton reluctantly consented to a second trial, when the life of the gallant Hugh was saved by a single vote.\*

A. D. 1652.—On the death of Ireton, Lieutenant-General Edmond Ludlow was made commander-in-chief until the orders of parliament could be received. He marched to the aid of Sir Charles Coote, who was besieging Galway, which town was surrendered on the 12th of May; General Preston, its governor, having some time before made his escape by sea. The few detached

garrisons which the Irish still held were reduced in succession, and the isolated leaders who continued under arms made terms for themselves and their followers without any common concert. Colonel Fitzpatrick was the first to lay down his arms in this way; Colonels O'Dwyer and Turlough O'Neill, the earl of Westmeath, and Lord Enniskillen, acted in a similar manner. The terms generally were for permission to reside under the commonwealth, or to enter the service of a foreign prince in amity with England; but this mercy was not extended to those who took up arms in the first year of the war, or belonged to the first general assembly, or who had committed murder, or taken orders in the Catholic Church. Lord Muskerry surrendered the strong castle of Ross, near Killarney, to Ludlow, on the 27th of June. One of the last chieftains of note who capitulated was Colonel Richard Grace, with whom 1,250 men laid down their arms. Clanrickard sent Castlehaven to Charles II. for his last instructions. That lord did not return, but sent the king's answer to the message, which was to make the best conditions he could for himself; and on the 11th of October, being then surrounded by the enemy at Carrick, Clanrickard accepted a pass from the parliamentary authorities, with liberty to transport himself† and 3,000 of his fol-

some of the Fathers of the Mission sent by their founder, St. Vincent de Paul, were in the city, and their preaching produced extraordinary spiritual fruits.

\* Ludlow's *Memoirs*, vol. i., p. 379.

† Clanrickard did not go to the continent, but retired to an estate which he had at Summerhill, in Kent,



lowers to a foreign country within three months. Thus was the last vestige of royal authority withdrawn from Ireland.

The ruin that now overspread the face of Ireland must have been dark and sorrowful enough, but the measure of her woes was yet to be filled up. War, and famine, and pestilence had done their share, but the rapine and vengeance which assumed the name of law had yet to complete the work of desolation. "The sword of extermination," says an Irish historian, "had passed over the land, and the soldier sat down to banquet on the hereditary possessions of the natives."\* Cromwell and his council had indeed seriously contemplated the utter extirpation of the Irish race; but that fiendish project appeared still too difficult, and even to them too revolting,† and accordingly, by the act for the settlement of Ireland, passed by the English parliament, August 12, 1652, it was decreed that full pardon should be granted to "all husbandmen and others of the inferior sort not possessed of lands or goods exceeding the value of £10;" while persons of property were to be otherwise disposed of according to a certain classification. Those comprehended under the first six heads set forth in the act—and they comprised all the great landed

proprietors and all the Catholic clergy—were excepted from pardon of life or estate; others, who merely held commissions as officers in the royalist army, were to be banished, and forfeit their estates, except the equivalent to one-third, which would be assigned for the support of their wives and children; those who, although opposed to the parliament, might be found worthy of mercy, and who were not included under any of the preceding heads, also forfeited two thirds of their estates, but were to receive an equivalent to the remaining third, wherever the parliament might choose to allot it to them; and, finally, all who were perfectly innocent, that is, who had no share whatever in the war, but yet were not in the actual service of the parliament, or had not manifested their "constant, good affection to it," forfeited one-third of their estates, and were to receive an equivalent to the remainder elsewhere.‡ Thus all the Catholic gentry of Ireland were indiscriminately deprived of their hereditary estates; and such as might be declared by Cromwell's commissioners innocent of the rebellion, and were to receive back any portion of their property, should transplant themselves and their families beyond the Shannon, where allotments of the wasted tracts of Connaught and Clare would be given

where he died in 1657. (*Archdall's Lodge*, i., 136.) He was courteous and humane, but not a man of shining abilities. His sympathies were wholly English; he was a Catholic, but his religion was merged in his loyalty; yet in the early years of the confederation he often expostulated with Ormond on his

unyielding and hostile disposition towards the Catholic party.

\* *Curry's Review of the Civil Wars of Ireland*.

† *Clarendon's Life*, vol. ii., p. 116.

‡ See the Act, published from the original, in *Lingard*, vol. viii., Append. VVV.



to them. The other three provinces were reserved for Protestants; and any of the transplanted Catholics who might be found in them after the 1st of May, 1654, without a passport, might, whether man, woman, or child, be killed, without trial or order of magistrate, by any one who saw or met them. Moreover, those who by this "act of grace" received allotments in Clare or Connaught were obliged to give releases of their titles to their former estates in consideration of what was now assigned to them, to bar themselves and their heirs from laying claim to their old inheritances; and they were sent into wild and uncultivated districts, without cattle to stock the land, or agricultural implements to till it, or houses to shelter them; so that many Irish gentlemen and their families actually perished of cold and hunger. They were not suffered to reside within two miles of the Shannon, or four miles of the sea, or of

Galway, or in any garrison or market town.\*

In the mean time the whole kingdom was surveyed and mapped out by Dr. Petty, and the forfeited estates distributed among the adventurers who had advanced money for carrying on the war under the confiscating acts of February and March, 1642, and in liquidation of the arrears of pay due to Cromwell's soldiery. According to the stipulations on which the money was borrowed, the adventurers were to receive for £200 a thousand acres of good land in Ulster, £300 a thousand acres in Connaught, for £450 a thousand acres in Munster, and for £600 a thousand acres in Leinster; the bogs, woods, and mountains being thrown in gratis as waste or unprofitable land; but we are told by a contemporary writer that the highest value set on the land at the time of the distribution was four shillings per acre, some being only valued at one penny.†

\* See P. Walshe's *Reply to a Person of Quality*, pp. 33, 147, &c; also the government proclamations; tracts on the Irish Transplantation, published in 1654; Thurlow's Papers, &c. Many of the transplanted Irish having erected cabins and creaghts, as the hurdle houses were then called, near Athlone, the military authorities were ordered to banish "all the Irish and other Popish persons" from that neighborhood, so that no such gathering of them should be allowed within five English miles of Athlone.—MS. Orders of Council, Dublin Castle.

† Morrice's *Life of the Earl of Orrery*, vol. i., p. 39. Lord Antrim's estate of 107,611 acres was allotted to Sir John Clotworthy, afterwards Lord Massareene, and a few others whose adventures and pay did not exceed £7,000 (*Carte's Ormond*, vol. ii., p. 278). From Sir William Petty's *Political Anatomy of Ireland*, and the official sources consulted by Mr. Bichenoup, we glean the following data relating to the Cromwellian Confiscation:—The surface of Ireland was estimated at 10,500,000

plantation acres, of which 3,000,000 were occupied by water, bogs, and coarse or unprofitable land. Of the remaining 7,500,000 acres, 5,200,000 belonged to Catholics and sequestered Protestants before 1641, 300,000 to the Church, and 2,000,000 to Protestants planted by Elizabeth and James I. The Cromwellian government confiscated 5,000,000 acres, which they disposed of as follows:—to officers and soldiers who served before Cromwell's arrival in 1649, 400,000 acres, in Wicklow, Longford, Leitrim, and Donegal; to soldiers who served since 1649, 1,410,000 acres; to the adventurers who advanced money under the acts of 1642, about 800,000 acres; to certain individuals who were favorites of Cromwell, 100,000 acres; retained by government, but let on profitable leases to Protestants in the counties of Dublin, Louth, Cavan, and Kildare, about 800,000 acres besides the house property in walled towns and cities, to the transplanted Irish in Connaught and Clare 700,000 acres; to which Petty adds (writing, however,



The Irish soldiers who accepted banishment, on laying down their arms, numbered about 34,000, who left the country under different leaders, and entered the service of France, Spain, Austria, or Venice; and their faithful attachment to the fortunes of Charles II. obtained for that unhappy prince, when abandoned by almost all besides, honor and support in foreign courts.\* But as the wives and families of these exiles were, for the most part, left behind, and were, besides a great many others, reduced to a state of destitution, the government adopted the heartless expedient of shipping them off in great numbers to the pestilential settlements of the West Indies.† Sir William Petty states that 6,000 boys and girls were thus transported. But the total number of Irish sent to perish in the tobacco islands, as they were called, was estimated in some Irish accounts at 100,000. Force was necessary to col-

lect them, but the government in England was, nevertheless, assured by their Irish agents that they could have any number of Irish boys or young women that they required.‡

For the punishment of "rebels and malignants," the regicide government established a new tribunal, which they called a high court of justice, in which the ordinary forms of law were laid aside, and every thing contrived to confound and awe the accused person, and bring home the guilt laid to his charge. "From the iniquitous and bloody sentences frequently pronounced in these courts," says Dr. Curry, "they were commonly called Cromwell's slaughter-houses." The first was held in Kilkenny, on the 4th of October, 1652, the president being one Justice Donnellan, with whom were joined Cook, who had acted as solicitor to the regicides on the trial of the late king, and the commissary-general, Reynolds.

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in 1672, long after the Restoration) "innocent Papists, 1,200,000 acres. This was called the Down Survey, or Down Admeasurement of Ireland; and, as an example of the complete desolation of the country at the time it was made, we are told that no one was left of the old inhabitants in Tipperary who could point out the bounds of the estates, so that an order from government was necessary to bring back from Connaught five or six families to accompany the surveyors and show them the boundaries.—Privy Council Book, A 5.

\* "The importance," says Mr. O'Callaghan, "then attached by the French government to the Irish regiments in its service was so great, that, even after Cardinal Mazarin's treaty of alliance with Cromwell against Spain, by which the Stuart family were to quit the French dominions, various efforts were made by the cardinal and Marshal Turenne to induce the duke of York (afterwards James II.) not to leave the French for the Spanish service. Nay, Cromwell's permission was asked and obtained for the duke to remain in the service

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of France, on account of the loss it would be to the combined forces of England and France, and the gain to Spain, that the Irish regiments should join the latter, as it was known they would, when the duke and his royal brother (Charles II.) should be both under the protection of that power."—*Macaria's Excidium*, p. 185.

† Bruodin, *Propug.* See Lingard, vol. viii., p. 175, note 3.

‡ Henry Cromwell, writing from Ireland to Secretary Thurloe, says:—"I think it might be of like advantage to your affairs there, and ours here, if you should think fit to send 1,500, or 2,000 young boys, of 12 or 14 years of age, to the place afore-mentioned. We could spare them, and they would be of use to you; and who knows but it may be the means to make them Englishmen—I mean rather Christians?" Thurloe answers—"The committee of the council have voted 1,000 girls and as many youths, to be taken up for that purpose."—*Thurloe*, iv., pp. 40, 73.



These judges made the circuit of Waterford, Cork, and other towns; and in February, 1653, the first court, presided over by Lord Lowther, was held in Dublin for the special purpose of trying "all massacres and murders done or committed since the 1st day of October, 1641." The confederate Catholics had, in their declarations at Trim and Oxford, and on other occasions, prayed that an inquiry might be made into the murders alleged to have been perpetrated on both sides during the troubles, and that justice might be vindicated without respect to creed or party; but these courts confined their inquiries to the accused Catholics, and the result of their labors affords a convincing proof of the falsehood of the statements made against the Irish Catholics at that period. Some of the lying historians of the time had asserted that a hundred thousand Protestants had been murdered in cold blood; yet with all the forged and corrupt evidence that could be procured, and the cry of blood that was raised, Cromwell's high courts of justice were only able to convict about two hundred persons in all Ireland for those alleged murders;

while out of the whole province of Ulster, where the pretended massacres were said chiefly to have taken place, only one person was convicted, namely, Sir Phelim O'Neill, who nevertheless was repeatedly, while in prison, and before the passing of his sentence, and finally on the steps of the scaffold, offered his life and liberty on the sole condition of admitting that the counterfeit document which he produced in October, 1641, was a genuine commission from the unfortunate Charles I.\*

The parliamentary commissioners in Dublin published a proclamation, putting in force in Ireland the 27th of Elizabeth; and by this and subsequent edicts any Catholic priest found in Ireland, after twenty days, was guilty of high treason, and liable to be hanged, drawn, and quartered; any person harboring such clergymen was liable to the penalty of death and loss of goods and chattels; and any person knowing the place of concealment of a priest, and not disclosing it to the authorities, might be publicly whipped, and further punished with amputation of the ears. Any person absent from the parish church on a Sunday was liable to a fine

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\* *Vide supra*, p. 479, note. Also Carte's *Orm.*, vol. ii., p. 181. Carte relates the fact of Colonel Hewson having, in the name of Ludlow, made this offer to Sir Phelim on the ladder, on the authority of Dr. Sheridan, afterwards Protestant bishop of Kilmore, who was present; and dean Ker is also quoted by Nalson (*Histor. Collet.*), as an eye-witness. In the opinion of some, the heroic sense of honor displayed by Sir Phelim, and his whole conduct at the melancholy close of his career, redeemed many of his past faults. Among the other persons executed were Viscount Mayo, and Colonels O'Toole and

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Bagnal. The mother of Colonel Fitzpatrick was burnt. Lords Muskerry and Clanmalier, and MacCarthy Reagh, were acquitted, probably through the interest of friends. Looking to the number of persons convicted under all the circumstances by the high court of justice, O'Connell has said:—"To a thinking mind there is no quantity of written or verbal authority that would so coerce a conviction of the innocence of the Irish Catholic party as the result of the investigation of this sanguinary and energetic court."—*Memoir of Ireland*, p. 323.



of thirty pence; magistrates might take away the children of Catholics, and send them to England for education; and might tender the oath of abjuration to all persons of the age of twenty-one years, who, on refusal, were liable to imprisonment during pleasure, and the forfeiture of two-thirds of their real and personal estates.\* The same price of five pounds was set on the head of a priest and on that of a wolf, and the production of either head was a sufficient claim for the reward. The military being distributed in small parties over the country, and their vigilance kept alive by sectarian rancor and the promise of reward, it must have been difficult for a priest to escape detection; but many of them, nevertheless, braved the danger for their poor scattered flocks; and residing in caverns in the mountains, or in lonely hovels in the bogs, "they issued forth at night to carry the consolations of religion to the huts of their oppressed and suffering countrymen."† Well might an Irish

writer who witnessed these things exclaim: "Neither the Israelites were more cruelly persecuted by Pharaoh, nor the innocent infants by Herod, nor the Christians by Nero, or any of the other pagan tyrants, than were the Roman Catholics of Ireland at that fatal juncture by those savage commissioners."‡

Some may say that it would be more patriotic to bury the woes and persecutions of that dark period in oblivion; but besides the wrong which any such omission would cause to the integrity of history, we must answer with Dr. Curry, "that British chronicles have rendered silence impossible." That was precisely the period when England displayed her utmost malice in heaping calumnies on her down-trodden victim. Like an ungenerous enemy, not satisfied with success, she added "insult to her guilt, meanness to her cruelty." "Every thing that malice and bigotry could conceive, that craft or falsehood could invent, or that ignorance and national

\* *Vide* Lingard, vol. viii., p. 178, and the authorities there quoted. At the same time the nuns were ordered to marry or to leave Ireland.

† *Ibid.* Dr. Lingard refers to MS. letters in his possession, and to Bruodin 696. In Morison's *Threnodia* we are told how the Rev. Bernard Fitzpatrick, of the illustrious house of Ossory, was dragged from one of those caves and beheaded: and Ludlow relates in his *Memoirs* (vol. i., p. 422, ed. Vevay, 1698) how, when marching from Dundalk to Castleblaney, probably near the close of 1652, he discovered a few of the Irish in a cave, and how his party spent two days in endeavoring to smother them by smoke. It appears that the poor fugitives preserved themselves from suffocation, during this operation, by holding their faces close to the surface of some running water in the cavern, and that one of their party was armed with a pistol, with which he shot the foremost of the troopers who were entering the mouth of the

cave after the first day's smoking. Ludlow caused the trial to be repeated, and the crevices through which the smoke escaped having been closed, "another smother was made." The next time the soldiers entered with helmets and breast-plates, but they found the only armed man dead, inside the entrance, where he was suffocated at his post; while the other fugitives still preserved life at the little brook. Fifteen were put to the sword within the cave, and four dragged out alive, but Ludlow does not mention whether he hanged these then or not; but one, at least, of the original number was a Catholic priest, for the soldiers found a crucifix, chalice, and priest's robes in the cavern.

‡ *Morrissoni Threnodia Hiberno-Catholica*, p. 14. "All these things," says O'Connell, "appear like a hideous dream. They would be utterly incredible only that they are quite certain." (*Memoir of Ireland*, p. 315.) See also *Hib. Dom.*, p. 706; Clarendon's *Rebellion*, iii 434.



antipathy could believe, was attributed to the Irish name and nation, and repeated in the drunkenness of success, and with all the cowardice of security.”\* And as the most illustrious of Irish statesmen has observed, these iniquitous calumnies against the Irish were calculated to gain other advantages for the English, namely:—to make the massacres and other crimes committed by the latter appear in the light of retaliation; to serve as an excuse for seizing the estates of the Irish by the Cromwellian party; and as a further excuse for the restored Stuarts to leave these estates in the hands of the usurpers.†

As to the succession of events connected with government, while Ireland lay in this state of galling bondage, they affected but little the interests of this country. We may therefore dispose of them briefly. After the death of Ireton, Lambert was appointed lord deputy, but through the intrigue of Cromwell’s daughter, the widow of Ireton, who had married Colonel Charles Fleetwood, the appointment was set aside before Lambert came to Ireland, Cromwell having for that purpose suffered his own commission of lord-lieutenant to expire, which involved the retirement of his deputy. Fleetwood was then made commander-in-chief in Ireland, joined in the civil administration with four commissioners—Ludlow, Corbett, Jones and Weaver. These governed

the country according to certain instructions, one of which was, “to endeavor the promulgation of the gospel and the power of true religion and holiness;” and another, to allow no Papist or delinquent to hold any place of trust, to practice as barrister or solicitor, or to keep school for the education of youth.‡ The act proclaiming the “rebellion” in Ireland to be at an end was passed on the 26th of September, 1653. On the 16th of December, that year, Cromwell assumed the supreme authority under the title of lord protector, and his usurpation was supported in Ireland by Fleetwood and the army, although the stern republican, Ludlow, threw up his commissionership in disgust. Henry Cromwell, the usurper’s second son, who was appointed to the government of Ireland in 1655, was naturally mild and just, and his administration would have materially altered the state of this country had he been suffered to follow the dictates of his own humane disposition. He is believed to have averted the infliction of fresh grievances; but he administered most of the cruel laws as he found them; and the practice of kidnapping the Irish youth for transportation to the West Indies was in full vigor under him; while, at the same time, his father was inviting in vain the settlers of New England and the Vaudois of Piedmont to replace the extirpated population of Ireland.§ After

\* Curry’s *Review of the Civil Wars in Ireland*. Dedication.

† See O’Connell’s *Memoir of Ireland*, pp. 303 and 304.

‡ Parliamentary journals.

§ Hutchinson’s *History of Massachusetts*, 190. Thurloe, ii., 459.



the death of Oliver (September 3, 1658), the weak shoulders of his son, Richard, did not long sustain the burden of the usurped power bequeathed to him; and on his retirement to his ancestral obscurity the cabals of the long parliament prepared an easy way for the restoration of royalty. Not a little of this drama was enacted in Ireland, where Broghill, lord president of Munster, and Coote, lord president of Connaught, both observing the turn in the tide, vied with each other in offering their support to Charles II. Both were renegades, both distinguished for their savage cruelties against the Irish; but in duplicity and utter want of principle the balance was on the side of Broghill, the son of the unprincipled earl of Cork. The race between them

on this occasion, and their subsequent attempts to depreciate each other with the king, were ludicrous; but Broghill triumphed in the end, as he produced a letter of Coote's in which the latter admitted that the suggestion for supporting the king first came from him. It was the farce after the tragedy; and both these inveterate enemies were by the worthless Charles Stuart richly rewarded, Broghill being created earl of Orrery and Coote earl of Mountrath: at the same time "the estates of the Irish who had fought for the king and followed his fortunes in exile, were confirmed to drummers and sergeants who had conducted his father to the scaffold."†

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† Higgons, *Remarks on Burnet*, p 102.



## CHAPTER XL.

## REIGN OF CHARLES II.

Hopes of the Irish Catholics at the Restoration—Their grievous disappointment.—An Irish parliament convoked after twenty years.—Discussions on the Act of Settlement in Ireland and England—The Act passed.—Establishment of the Court of Claims.—Partial success of the Irish Catholics—Consequent indignation and alarm of the Protestants.—Rumored conspiracies.—Blood's plot.—The Act of explanation—Provisions of the Act grossly unjust to Catholics—The Irish parliament desire to make them more so.—The Irish remonstrance.—Synod of the clergy in Dublin.—English prohibitory laws against the importation of Irish cattle.—General disaffection.—Alarming rumors.—Oppression of the Catholics.—Recall of Ormond.—Lord Berkley's administration—Catholic Petition of Grievances.—Colonel Richard Talbot.—Commission of Inquiry—Great alarm produced by it among the Protestants and New Interest.—Recall of Lord Berkley and appointment of Lord Essex.—Violent address of the English parliament—Increased oppression of the Catholics.—Restoration of Ormond.—The Popish Plot.—Arrest of Archbishop Talbot.—Proclamations against the Catholics.—Puritan attempts to raise a rebellion in Ireland.—Arrest of Archbishop Plunkett.—Frightful demoralization and perjury—Memoir of Dr. Plunket (*note*).—His martyrdom.—Turn in the tide of persecution—Irish writers of the seventeenth century.—State of the Irish.—Death of Charles II.

(FROM A. D. 1660 TO A. D. 1685.)

THAT the Irish should have regarded the overthrow of the regicide government and the restoration of the king as an assurance of their own restoration to their homes and estates was only natural. It was a consequence which every principle of justice demanded; and although serious obstacles were to be overcome, they had a right to expect that the king, for whom they had bled and sacrificed so much, would have taken some trouble in their behalf. Many of these plundered and expatriated people, inspired by this confidence, returned and claimed their own without waiting for the tedious process of an unfriendly law to reinstate them;\* but never were the hopes of their injured race doomed to be more cruelly blasted. Acting on the mean and ungenerous policy of his family, Charles immolated his devoted friends to his own and his father's enemies; and the whole history of his reign, as far as Ireland is concerned, is made up of instances of the most scandalous injustice inflicted on the Irish Catholics, of persecutions against their religion, and of triumphs yielded to their unprincipled and inveterate foes.

Coote, now earl of Mountrath, and Broghill, now earl of Orrery—men who had slaughtered more Irish in cold blood during the war than any others,

\* In England the old proprietors generally expelled the Cromwellian intruders without much ceremony; but any attempts at a like mode of proceeding in Ire-

land were immediately put down by a royal proclamation.—See Carte's *Orm.*, vol. ii., p. 398.



if we except Cromwell's massacres at Drogheda and Wexford—were appointed lords justices after the restoration, and to none but the determined enemies of the Catholics was any power intrusted. The first Irish parliament held for twenty years met on the 8th of May, 1661. The house of commons comprised two hundred and sixty members, who, with the exception of sixty-four, were all burgesses, and must, therefore, have been of the favored race, the towns having been filled with Cromwellians. In the upper house there were twenty-one Catholic and seventy-two Protestant peers; but such was the jealousy, in both houses, of the admission of any Catholics, that the commons, who had chosen Sir Audley Mervin as their speaker, tried to exclude them by requiring the oath of supremacy from all the members; while Bramhall, archbishop of Armagh, who was elected speaker of the lords, proposed with a like object that all the peers should receive the sacrament at his hands. This parliament voted the large sum of £30,000 to the now duke of Ormond,\* who was appointed lord-lieutenant in October this year, but did not come to Ireland until the fol-

\* Ormond gained enormously by the war. Dr. French says the duke's estates were so encumbered as not to have produced more than £7,000 a year before the war, although worth £40,000, but that a few years after the restoration they produced him £80,000 a-year. (*Unkind Deserter*, chap. xii.) The earl of Essex, says Ormond, received over £300,000 in this kingdom, besides all his great places and employments. (*State Lett.*, 213—214.)

lowing July; and the session was taken up with discussions on the Bill of Settlement, which was warmly opposed by the Irish Catholics through their counsel, but was passed by the Irish parliament on the 15th of September, and transmitted to England, where it underwent a second discussion before the king and council. Here, again, its injustice was ably argued by Irish agents, but all opposition to it was overruled; the claims of the dispossessed Irish royalists were treated as unreasonable; their counsel was considered imprudent and extravagant in pressing their demands. The effeminate monarch becoming weary of the debates, Sir Nicholas Plunkett, the agent of the Irish Catholics, was at length excluded from his majesty's presence by an order of council, and this monstrous act of robbery—confirming as it did the most enormous of all the spoliations inflicted on Ireland by its English masters—was finally passed into law.† A court of claims was established under the act to try the qualifications of “nocent” and “innocent;” and notwithstanding all the hostility of the law and of government, several Catholics succeeded in making good

† In his speech to the parliament after his restoration Charles told them “that he expected (in relation to the Irish) they would have a care of his honor, and of the promise he had made them;” this promise had been explicitly renewed by Ormond for the king before he left Breda; but it was thus the royal engagements to the Irish were generally kept. It is unnecessary to say that the articles of 1648 (as they were called, though signed by Ormond in 1649, new style) were wholly set aside.



their titles to a restitution of their property.\* This gave rise to violent indignation and alarm among the Protestants. That any door should have been left open to the Catholics for the recovery of their estates was a thing not to be tolerated, and the duke of Ormond consequently refused to extend the time for investigating the claims, although comparatively a few only of them had been disposed of. Neither did the admission of a claim always imply the restoration of an estate, for the Cromwellian or new interest was not always disturbed, and the recovery of a right often amounted to no more than what might be deemed an equivalent, which depended on the amount of "reprisals," as they were called, that government might have in hands to allot for the purpose. The regicide judges, and others who had imbued their hands in the late king's blood, were deprived of their estates by the Act of Settlement; but these lands, which were chiefly situated in the county of Tipperary, were given to the duke of York, and were therefore not available for reprisals.

A great outcry was now raised against the Irish Catholics. The vile calumnies about 1641 were revived and maliciously circulated, and every report

against the Irish was received with avidity in England. The device of Popish plots and conspiracies was resorted to, and the public mind kept in a state of ferment by the most unfounded rumors of intended Popish risings and French invasions. It so happened that the only real plot was a Presbyterian one, got up by some Puritan ministers, a few military officers, and some members of the house of commons. One Thomas Blood, a person who subsequently became notorious for his exploits in England, conspired with some others to seize the castle of Dublin on the 21st of May, 1663; but the mad project was discovered before the attempt was made, and four of the conspirators were executed. The atrocious system of falsehood against the Catholics was, nevertheless, successful, and a motion for excluding Catholics from the general pardon and indemnity was passed in the English parliament. Ormond, moreover, who had repaired to England for the purpose, procured the passing of an Act of Explanation to satisfy the Protestants, and on his return prepared to organize a Protestant militia.

In all the discussions on the Bills of Settlement and Explanation the Catholics, although the most aggrieved, were

\* It is stated in Cox's *Hibernia Anglicana* that of the claims tried in the first three months 168 were adjudged innocent and only 19 nocent; and that in the subsequent sittings of the court 630 additional claims were decided, we are not told in what proportion of innocent and nocent, but only "to the great loss and dissatisfaction of the Protestants." (See Letter in Cox, continuing the history from 1653 to 1689.) Some three thousand

claims were left unheard for want of time, and Ormond, as stated above, refused to extend the sittings of the court for that purpose. Those Catholics who were named in the Bill of Settlement as objects of the royal favor (about 500 in number) were called "nominees;" those who served abroad under the king's standard were distinguished as "ensign-men;" and the adventurers and Cromwellian soldiers styled themselves "the new interest"



the most moderate in their demands; and a suggestion having been made on their part that they would be content if the soldiers and adventurers resigned one-third of the lands which they enjoyed immediately before the restoration, the proposal was accepted, and made the ground-work of the Act of Explanation. By this act, however, it was provided that the Protestants were in the first place, and especially, to be settled; that any ambiguity which arose should be explained in their favor; and "that no Papist, who, by the qualifications of the former act, had not been adjudged innocent, should at any future time be reputed innocent, or entitled to claim any lands or settlements. Thus," continues Leland, whose words we quote, "every remaining hope of those numerous claimants whose causes

had not been heard, was entirely cut off."\* Yet, strange to say, this act, unjust as it was to the Catholics, did not go far enough to satisfy the Irish house of commons, which was composed chiefly of adventurers and soldiers, and whose speaker, Mervin, had all along distinguished himself by his furious hostility to the Catholic interest. Ormond found it necessary to exercise some rigor towards the refractory members. Seven of them were expelled for complicity in Blood's plot, and others were known to deserve the same punishment. They were also threatened obscurely with a dissolution, and the act was at length passed on the 15th of December, 1665.†

Hoping to remove the pretences for persecution against them, some of the Catholic nobility and gentry had signed

\* Leland, *History of Ireland*, vol. iii., p. 440. More than 3,000 Catholic claimants were thus condemned to the forfeiture of their estates, without any hearing at all; or, as Leland expresses it, "without the justice granted to the vilest criminals—that of a fair and equal trial." See Carte's *Orm.*, vol. ii., pp. 304, 314. Chief-justice Nugent, afterwards Lord Riverston, in a letter dated Dublin, June 23, 1686, and preserved in the state paper office, London, says: "There are 5,000 in this kingdom who were never outlawed, and out of theyre estates, yet cannot now by law be restored." See *Macaria's Excidium*, notes and illustrations, p. 192. The Act of Explanation gave the duke of Ormond liberty to name twenty Catholics for the restoration of their estates, and we may be sure that those who were too national in their sentiments were not included in his grace's list. The duke had given the strongest opposition to the claims of the earl of Antrim, whom he hated perhaps more than any other man in Ireland; but the earl was warmly backed by the king, and by other powerful friends and after repeated petitions and investigations, was ultimately restored to his estates by the Act of Explanation. Carte, *Orm.*, vol. ii., p. 277, and Irish Council Books.

† One of the motives for the clamors raised by the

Protestants in the discussion referred to above was the constant discovery of abuses in the Cromwellian distribution of the lands. Sir William Domville, the attorney-general, in overhauling the details of this distribution, discovered, among many other irregularities, that there were "great abuses in the manner of setting out the adventurers' satisfaction, in which the proceedings were very clandestine and confused. For they had whole baronies set to them in gross, and then they employed surveyors of their own to make their admeasurements. Thus they admeasured what proportions they thought fit to mete out to themselves; and what lands they were pleased to call unprofitable, they had returned as such, let them be never so good and profitable. In the county of Tipperary alone he had found by books in the surveyor's office above 50,000 acres returned as unprofitable, and in the moiety of the ten counties, wherein their satisfaction was set out, he had found 245,207 acres so returned by the adventurers as unprofitable." Carte's *Orm.*, vol. ii., p. 301. Moreover, Domville found that the soldiers had returned 665,670 acres as unprofitable, and it was not without reason they now feared to have the accuracy of their returns inquired into. These soldiers, says Carte, "were for the most part Anabaptists, Independents, and Levellers." *Orm.*, vol. ii.



a declaration of loyalty for presentation to the king. Several noblemen assembled for the purpose at the house of the marquis of Clanrickard in Dublin; among others, Lords Castlehaven, Clancarthy, Carlingford, Fingal, and Inchiquin, and there was no doubt with such names at the the head of the list a great many subscribers to the address might be obtained throughout Ireland. This address or declaration is celebrated as the Irish Remonstrance. It was prepared by Peter Walsh, a Franciscan friar, who had been a most zealous partisan of Ormond in the confederation, and enjoyed the private friendship and confidence of that determined enemy of the Catholics. He was a restless and factious man, impatient of spiritual authority, and it was well known that any document from his hands could hardly be unexceptionable. The remonstrance contained, in fact, along with the strongest protestations of loyalty, expressions derogatory to the authority of the pope, and therefore offensive to true Catholic feeling; but it suited Ormond's purpose precisely on that account; and on the pretence that it was yet only a private address, possessing no official character, Ormond desired that it might be signed by all

the Catholic clergy of the kingdom. A national congregation of the Irish bishops and clergy for the consideration of the matter was held in Dublin on the 11th of June, 1666. The meeting took place by the connivance of Ormond, who had privately obtained the sanction of the king; and the primate, Edmond O'Reilly, who had been in exile since 1657, when he was arrested in London at the instance of the aforesaid Peter Walsh, and sent out of the kingdom, received permission to come to Ireland, and presided at the meeting.\* Promises were held out by Ormond that whoever signed the remonstrance would be more favorably considered in their claims, and enjoy other privileges. The discussions on the subject were carried on with great caution; but, to the eternal honor of the Irish clergy, the insulting instrument was rejected, and another remonstrance adopted, to which no objection whatever could be raised, if only an expression of the most devoted loyalty were required. On the 16th of June this Catholic remonstrance was delivered by two of the bishops to Ormond, with a prayer that it might be presented to his majesty; but the duke rejected petition and remonstrance,

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\* Before the primate's return at this time there were but three Catholic prelates in Ireland, two of whom, namely, Dr. John Burke, archbishop of Tuam, and Dr. Owen M'Sweeny, bishop of Kilmore, were too aged and infirm to perform any of their public functions. The third was Dr. Patrick Plunket, bishop of Ardagh. It appears from Dr. French's *Elenchus Episcoporum*, quoted in the *Hibernia Dominicana*, that of the twenty-

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six Irish prelates who were resident in their respective sees in 1649, nine had died at home, ten had died in exile, three had suffered martyrdom, and four were still living in 1667; Dr. Nicholas French himself, bishop of Ferns, and Dr. Andrew Lynch, bishop of Kilfenora, still in banishment; and Dr. Burke of Tuam, and Dr. Patrick Plunket, just mentioned. Dr. O'Reilly, the primate, had only been consecrated in 1657.



sent Peter Walsh to order the synod to dissolve immediately, and subjected the Catholic bishops and clergy to a more rigid persecution than before. The primate was seized on the 27th of September, and carried prisoner to London, whence he was sent into banishment until his death, which took place at Louvain in 1669.\*

The propensity of English statesmen to treat Ireland as an alien country, and to legislate in a spirit hostile to her interests, was such that even the Cromwellian settlers had scarcely fixed themselves in this country when they felt the galling pressure of this national injustice. Prohibitory laws relating to Irish commerce had long been usual in England. The Irish-wool trade had been restricted within the narrowest limits; but at this time the prohibition against the importation of Irish cattle into England was the grievance that pressed most heavily on Irish commercial interests. A law on this subject was passed for a limited period in 1663, but the question was agitated from year to year; and when in October, 1666,

the lord-lieutenant, seconded by the Irish gentry, proposed to send over 15,000 bullocks as a contribution for the sufferers by the great fire of London, their kindness was maliciously interpreted; and the English commons, displaying what Leland calls "a violent and almost unaccountable rage of oppression," voted a bill making the prohibition permanent. In the preamble to the bill the importation of Irish cattle was termed a "nuisance," which description the lords modified by substituting the words "detriment and mischief." Lord Ashley, a member of the cabal ministry,† proposed that it should be declared a felony and præmunire. The measure gave rise to violent debates in both houses. The duke of Buckingham asserted that "none could oppose the bill but such as had Irish estates or Irish understandings;" and Lord Ossory, son of the duke of Ormond, resented this insult by a challenge, which Buckingham declined to accept; and Ossory was sent to the Tower. At another part of the debate, when Ashley in-

\* There can be no doubt that Ormond's object in encouraging the synod of 1666 was to sow discord among the Catholic clergy. Peter Talbot, archbishop of Dublin, shows in his castigation of Walsh (*The Friar Disciplined*, p. 92) that he was well aware such was the case. In fact the duke himself frankly acknowledged, some years later, "that his aim in permitting that meeting was to work a division among the Romish clergy" (Carte's *Ormond*, ii., Append.); and soon after the synod was dispersed, Lord Orrery, writing to Ormond, says: "I humbly offer to your grace whether this may not be a fit season to make that schism, which you have been sowing among the Popish clergy, publicly break out, so

as to set them at open difference, as we may reap some practicable advantage thereby." (*Orm. State Letters*, vol. ii.) But Ormond's arts did not succeed, for we are told by Walsh himself that although there were then in Ireland 1,100 secular priests and 750 regulars, yet that of these 1,850 clergy only 69 signed his remonstrance, these being chiefly friars of his own order, over whom he had great influence.

† The name of "cabal" was given to the ministry of Charles II.—Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale—the initials of their names composing that word.



weighed against the Irish contribution for the sufferers, Ossory protested that "such virulence became none but one of Cromwell's counsellors," and several noble lords on both sides were on the point of drawing their swords; but the commons insisting on their favorite expression being retained, Charles requested the lords to yield the point, and the bill received the royal assent with the word "nuissance" restored in the preamble.

At home disaffection prevailed among all parties. The landed interest was ruined by the prohibitory laws just referred to. The army complained that their pay was in arrears; and some soldiers having mutinied and seized Carrickfergus castle, a considerable military force was required to reduce them; ten of their number being executed. The Irish Puritans carried on a secret correspondence with their friends in England, so that government was perpetually alarmed with rumors of new plots. The Irish Catholics, infinitely more aggrieved than any other party, were objects of suspicion to all; and although they had engaged in no conspiracy, anonymous accusations were daily made against them. They were charged with

inviting the French to invade Ireland; and Ormond, who affected to believe these malicious rumors, made them an excuse for ruling the unhappy Catholics with a rod of iron. He could not forgive the Irish clergy for refusing to sign the remonstrance, and was resolved, as he said, to keep them up to the letter of that document, "or to a sense equivalent." He distributed 20,000 stand of arms to his Protestant militia, and in July, 1667, reviewed the Leinster corps in the Curragh of Kildare. The appearance of an English squadron about the same time off Kinsale threw the country into a high state of excitement, as it was supposed to be the expected French fleet; but the king, provoked by these repeated alarms, and by the many complaints which reached him, removed Ormond, who had gone to England in 1668, and the following year appointed Lord Robarts, of Truro, as lord-lieutenant. This man remained but a few months, and was succeeded in May, 1670, by John Lord Berkley, a nobleman of moderate principles and upright intentions.\*

Colonel Richard Talbot, who possessed great influence at court, and was subsequently created duke of Tirconnell

\* The moderation of Lord Berkley inspired the Irish Catholics with the deepest gratitude, and a convocation of the clergy was held in Dublin in 1670 to give expression to their feelings in an address to his excellency. On this occasion the two most illustrious men in the Irish church of that day were present, namely, Oliver Plunkett, archbishop of Armagh, and Peter Talbot, archbishop of Dublin, both of whom had been elevated to the archiepiscopal dignity in 1669. These two eminent men differed considerably in their disposition. Dr. Plunkett, more calm and forgiving, objected to the se-

verity exercised by Dr. Talbot against the remonstrant clergy, or those who had signed Walsh's remonstrance; and at the same time entertained so strict a sense of his own duty to sustain the rights of his high position as primate, that he refused to sign the address unless his name were placed first, while Dr. Talbot insisted on the claim long before set up to the primatial dignity for his diocese. The dispute forms an interesting topic in Irish church history, and gave occasion to very learned treatises on the subject from both these prelates.



by James II., went to England in 1671 to lay before the king and council a petition from the Irish Catholic gentry who had been plundered of their estates.\* Colonel Talbot had for several years past acted as the advocate of his injured fellow-countrymen with the king, and on this occasion he was so successful as to induce his majesty to appoint a committee of inquiry, notwithstanding the opposition given to the petition by Ormond. The report of the committee was unfavorable; but a commission was issued, which was superseded in January, 1673, by one of a more comprehensive character, to inquire concerning the acts of settlement and explanation, the manner in which these acts were executed, the disposal of the forfeited estates, the state of his majesty's revenue in Ireland, &c. The appointment of this commission gave occasion to a violent outcry among the Puritans and the new interest in Ireland. Any thing that threatened to disturb the Act of Settlement, and to drag before the public view all the atrocious injustice and secret dishonesty connected with that most appalling spoliation, was a sufficient cause of dismay. The toleration and justice ex-

tended by Lord Berkley to the Catholics also excited alarm.† The cry of "Popery" was raised. The "mystery of iniquity," it was said, had begun to appear. Yielding to this storm, the king recalled Lord Berkley in May, 1672, and appointed in his stead Lord Essex, with instructions to take a different course. On the 9th of March, 1673, the English house of commons presented a most violent address to his majesty, calling upon him to expel by proclamation all who exercised spiritual jurisdiction under the pope in Ireland; to prohibit Irish Papists from inhabiting any part of that kingdom, unless duly licensed; and to encourage by all means the English planters, and the Protestant interest there. The result was that the weak king hastened to recall his commission of inquiry, and did all he could to appease the awakened zeal of his Protestant subjects.

Ormond was restored to favor, and Essex having been recalled, the duke was sent to Ireland as lord-lieutenant in August, 1677. The following year the diabolical fabrication known as the Popish Plot made its appearance. England was at that time drunk with fanaticism. The outcry against Popery had

\* Among the plundered Irish gentry of that time we find our great antiquary, Roderick O'Flaherty, who was most assuredly innocent, thus mildly complaining in his *Ogygia*:—"The Lord hath wonderfully recalled the royal heir to his kingdom, with the applause of all good men, and without dust and blood; but he hath not found me worthy to be restored to the kingdom of my cottage (sed me non dignum invenit, cui tugurii mei regnum restituat). Against thee alone, O Lord, I have sinned; may the name of the Lord be blessed forever." *Ogygia*,

p. 180. And elsewhere he says:—"I live a banished man within the bounds of my native soil; a spectator of others enriched by my birthright; an object of condoling to my relations and friends, and a condoler of their miseries." *Ogygia Vind.*, p. 153.

† It was charged against Lord Berkley that Popery was tolerated, and that Archbishop Talbot celebrated High Mass publicly in Dublin during his administration; and also that he allowed some Papists to hold the commission of the peace.



driven the people mad, and the contrivance of the infamous Titus Oates and his flagitious associates was a fitting climax to the national frenzy. —The duke of Ormond was at Kilkenny when he received the first notice of the plot, October 3, 1678; but although he treated the matter in his official capacity as one of awful magnitude, and adopted all the cruel measures towards the Catholics that might satisfy the fanatics, still his private correspondence proves that he placed no faith in the plot, but regarded it on the contrary with contempt; observing that no such thing existed in Ireland, where the Catholics were so much more numerous than in England.\* On the 7th of October he received a further communication from the secretary of state, announcing that the plot did extend to Ireland, and that Peter Talbot was concerned in it; although it was known that that prelate was then in a dying state, having only a few months before obtained private permission to return to Ireland that he might breathe his last in his own country. Ormond, however, on the 8th of October issued a warrant for his apprehension, and the venerable archbishop was taken from his sick-bed, at Cartown, near Maynooth, the house of his brother, Colonel Richard Talbot, and carried in a chair to Dublin, where he was kept a close prisoner in the castle, until death removed him from his lingering martyrdom two years after.

† See his correspondence in the second volume of Carte.

Proclamations against the unoffending Catholics now appeared in quick succession. One on the 16th of October commanded “all titular archbishops, bishops, vicars-general, and other dignitaries of the Church of Rome, and also all Jesuits, and other regular priests, to depart by the 20th of November; and that all Popish societies, convents, seminaries, and Popish schools, should dissolve.” The masters of outward-bound ships were required to take on board all the Popish clergy who should present themselves for transportation. A proclamation of the 20th of November forbade Papists to come into the castle of Dublin or any other fort or citadel; and ordered that the markets of Drogheda, Wexford, Cork, Limerick, Waterford, Youghal, and Galway should be held without the walls, to prevent the recourse of Papists to the interior of the towns. The same day a reward was offered of £10 for every commissioned officer, £5 for every trooper, and 4s. for every foot-soldier who could be discovered to have gone to Mass since he took the oath of supremacy and allegiance. On the 2d of December orders were issued for a strict search after the titular bishops and regular clergy who had not transported themselves. To increase the alarm and quicken the vigilance of government, anonymous letters about Popish conspiracies were dropped in the streets. The Protestant militia was revived and disciplined. In March, 1680, a proclamation issued, ordering that the neares'



relations of tories should be seized and imprisoned until such tories were killed or taken;\* and that parish priests should be apprehended and transported, upon any robbery or murder being committed in their respective parishes, unless the criminals were killed, taken, or discovered within fourteen days. A reward of £10 was promised at the same time for taking a Jesuit or titular bishop; and soon after the lord-lieutenant and council ordered the removal of the Popish inhabitants from Galway, Limerick, Waterford, Clonmel, Kilkenny, and Drogheda, "except some few trading merchants, artificers, and others necessary for the said towns."† Thus did the rulers of Ireland vainly hope to extirpate the Catholic religion from the land of Patrick, Bridget, and Co-

lumbkille; and designing impostors try to urge the Irish to resistance, and afford an excuse for another confiscation.‡

Colonel Talbot was arrested, as well as his brother, the archbishop, but was suffered to go into exile; and an order also came over to seize Lord Mountgarret, then an octogenarian, and in his dotage; but all this time no testimony came from Ireland to support the plot, to the great disappointment of Lord Shaftesbury and the other patrons of Oates.§ This was not to be endured, and accordingly all possible methods were resorted to, says Carte, "to provoke and exasperate the people of that kingdom." New measures of coercion were devised; "it was proposed to introduce the test act and all the English

\* Dr. O'Connor (*Bib. Stowensis*, ii. 460) derives the name "tory" from the Irish word *toirighim*, to pursue for prey. Many of these robber outlaws were by birth Irish gentlemen, who had been unjustly stripped of their estates, and who levied contributions in their own wild way on the Cromwellian settlers who occupied their ancient patrimonies. The most celebrated of them was Redmond O'Hanlon, the hero of many a traditional tale. About this time the name of tory came into use in England, where it was applied to the court party by the Puritans, or popular party, who were designated whigs.

† See in *Cox* the continuation of the reign of Charles II., where the substance of all these proclamations will be found; also *Carte*, vol. ii., pp. 480, &c. To what the exclusion of Catholics from the principal towns would then amount, we may gather from the statement of Lord Orrery, who in a letter to the duke of Ormond, of February 26, 1662, says "it was high time to purge the town of the Papists, when in most of them there were three Papists to one Protestant." About the same time the Catholics in the rural districts were to the Protestants in the ratio of fifteen to one. Sir William Petty, writing in 1672, estimates the total population of Ireland at 1,100,000, of whom 800,000 were Irish, 200,000 English, and 100,000 Scotch. All the Irish, he says,

were Papists; all the Scotch, Presbyterians; and of the English, one-half Protestant, and the other half Independents, Anabaptists, Quakers, and other dissenters. There were thus, according to him, eight Papists to one Church of England Protestant; but it is quite clear that owing to the remoteness of the districts in which many of the Irish dwelt, he had no means of learning their actual numbers, which were unquestionably much greater than he states. See Petty's *Political Anatomy of Ireland*, p. 8, ed. 1719.

‡ "There were," says Carte (vol. ii., p. 482), "too many Protestants in Ireland who wanted another rebellion, that they might increase their estates by new forfeitures."

§ "It was a terrible slur," says Carte, "upon the credit of the Popish plot in England, that after it had made such a horrible noise and frightened people out of their senses in a nation where there was scarce one Papist to an hundred Protestants, there should not, for above a year together, appear so much as one witness from Ireland to give information of any conspiracy of the like nature in that kingdom, where there were fifteen Papists to one Protestant, as that charged upon the Papists of England, whose weakness would naturally make them apply for assistance from their more powerful brethren in Ireland." Vol. ii., p. 495.



penal laws into Ireland; and that a proclamation should be forthwith issued for encouraging all persons that could make any further discoveries of the horrid Popish plot to come in and declare the same."\* For more than a year after the proclamation banishing the Catholic prelates out of Ireland, Archbishop Plunkett continued to reside in his diocese. He was so good a man, and so useful as a promoter of peace and order, that Ormond was most unwilling to have him apprehended; but he was at length seized in his humble retreat, a few miles from Drogheda, on the 6th of December, 1679, and committed to prison, solely for his religion and for exercising the functions of a Catholic prelate.† The arrest of the primate gave a new turn to things in Ireland. Hetherington, Shaftesbury's agent, came over to concoct evidence of a plot, and a number of the most abandoned characters—cow-stealers, rapparees, and jail-breakers—were soon found ready for the purpose. These vile miscreants vied with each other in swearing away

the lives of innocent men; and several of them came forward to make the most outrageous charges of treason against the venerable archbishop. Foremost among these infamous witnesses were two degraded priests and as many apostate friars. In those turbulent times, when there was so much to disorganize society and encourage vice, it is not extraordinary that men should have been found capable of any degradation; and these wretched ecclesiastics were persons who, after fruitless efforts to reform them, had been subjected to canonical censures; the two seculars having been excommunicated by the primate, and the friars declared apostates by their superior. As the evidence of these men would obtain no credit in Ireland, the primate was taken to London, where the incredible, inconsistent, and indeed impossible statements of the false witnesses were received as gospel truth by the judges, jury, and people of England, and Dr. Plunkett was immolated at the shrine of English fanaticism.‡

\* Carte, vol. ii., p. 494.

† See on this point the admirable life of Dr. Plunkett, published in *Duffy's Catholic Magazine*, vol. ii., p. 144.

‡ Dr. Oliver Plunkett belonged to a branch of the ancient family of the earls of Fingal, and was born at Loughcrew, in Meath. He went to Rome when a young man, in February, 1647, with Father Scarampi, and studied in the Irish college founded by Cardinal Ludovisus, and which was then administered by Jesuits. About eight years after he became professor of divinity in the Propaganda, and so continued for twelve years; and on the death of Edmond O'Reilly, archbishop of Armagh, in 1669, he was nominated to the primacy of Ireland by Pope Clement IX. It was then a perilous as well as an exalted dignity; but in August he hastened to his afflicted country, where he arrived about the end

of October the same year, and an immediate but fruitless search was made for him by order of the government. Lord Robarts, who was soon after recalled, was then lord-lieutenant; but during the administrations of Lords Berkley and Essex, Dr. Plunkett continued to exercise his functions without molestation. He was indefatigable in his apostolic labors, holding numerous ordinations, and exerting himself with prudence and assiduity to correct abuses among clergy and laity. He was an ardent lover of his country and of her venerable antiquities, and composed an Irish poem about Tara, which is mentioned by O'Reilly, in his *Irish Writers*. In the persecution which followed the outbreak of the pretended Popish plot, he removed from his usual residence at Ballybarrack, near Dundalk, to a small house at a place called Castletownbellew, a few miles from



It has been truly said by a great Protestant statesman that "the Popish

plot must always be considered an indelible disgrace upon the English na-

Drogheda, where he was arrested. At his trial he stated that he had lived "in a little thatched house, wherein was only a little room for a library, which was not seven feet high; that he had never more than one servant, and that he was scarcely ever able to support even one." As to his income, it never exceeded "three score pounds per annum." It was six months after his confinement in Newgate that the charge of treason was trumped up against him, and when it was then investigated before the Irish council it was scouted as utterly absurd. A reward of £500 was, it is said, offered for Hetherington, the infamous concocter of the perjuries, but he had fled to his employer, Shaftesbury; and when the primate came to be arraigned at the Dundalk assizes, although every man, both on the grand and petty jury, was a Protestant, not one of the miscreants who had made depositions against him would come forward. No one was more active, says Carte, in procuring those witnesses than Jones, the Protestant bishop of Meath, "who had been scout-master-general to Oliver Cromwell's army" (*Orm.*, ii. 498); and it was at his suggestion that Shaftesbury got the primate's trial removed from Dundalk, where he would, assuredly, have been acquitted, to London, where any thing sworn against a Popish bishop could not be too monstrous for the popular credulity. The Irish government was required to assist the witnesses for the plot, of one of whom, James Geoghan, who was sent to beat up the country for swearers, Ormond writes that "at length, his violences, excesses, debaucheries, and, in effect, his plain robberies, committed on Irish and English, Protestants and Papists, were so manifest, as raised a great disturbance in all places," and it became necessary to put him in jail (see letter in *Carte*, ii. 514); yet such was the general character of the degraded men produced as witnesses against the holy archbishop—profligates and apostates, to whom a free pardon was offered as an inducement to add perjury and murder to their other crimes. Dr. Plunkett was removed to London about the close of October, 1680, and was so rigorously confined in Newgate, that no friend could have access to him. Here he spent his time in almost continual prayer, and his keepers were surprised to see him always look so cheerful and resigned. When brought up for trial, he obtained five weeks to procure evidence from Ireland; but in those days of slow travelling, when weeks were sometimes lost in waiting for a passage from Holyhead to Dublin, the time was insufficient; and when the trial at length came on, on the 8th of June, 1681, the primate's witnesses had not arrived, and certain records which he desired to obtain from Ireland to show the character of the witnesses brought against

him, would not be given to his agents without an order from the court; but a single day longer would not be granted to him. He was browbeaten by a bench of partisan judges; six of the most eminent lawyers in England were arrayed against him; and he stood alone, without one to speak a word in his defence, or procure for him fair play; for as the law then stood, he was not allowed the benefit of counsel. A host of abandoned wretches, who, says the great Charles Fox, would have been unworthy of credit even in the most trivial matter, made charges against him that were not only incredible but absolutely impossible (*Fox's Historical Works*, p. 40). In vain did he pray for time, and declare:—"If I had been in Ireland, I would have put myself on my trial to-morrow, without any witnesses, before any Protestant jury that knew them and me." He, who was so poor and meek, and had such a horror of mixing himself up in any temporal concern, was convicted of plotting to raise an army of 70,000 men; of collecting some enormous fund for that purpose among the clergy; of practising to bring over 40,000 French troops; and of inspecting the harbors round the coast of Ireland, and selecting Carlingford as the place for the debarkation of the invading army! On the 15th, when brought up to receive sentence, the brutal chief-justice, addressing him, said: "Look you, Mr. Plunkett, you have been indicted of a very great and heinous crime. . . . The bottom of your treason was your setting up your false religion . . . a religion that is ten times worse than all the heathenish superstitions." The earl of Essex went to the king to apply for a pardon, and told his majesty "the witnesses must needs be perjured, as what they swore could not possibly be true;" but his majesty answered in a passion:—"Why did you not declare this, then, at the trial? I dare pardon nobody. . . . His blood be upon your head and not upon mine" (*Contin. of Baker's Chronicle*, p. 710, and *Echard's Hist. of Eng.*, iii. 631). The address which the holy primate read at Tyburn was an able and beautiful vindication. On the 1st of July he was hanged and quartered; his heart and bowels were thrown into the fire, but his body was obtained from the king and interred in the churchyard of St. Giles-in-the-Fields, except the head, and the arms to the elbows, which were inclosed in two tin cases. In 1683, when the quarters of his body were exhumed by his friend, Father Corker, they were found entire, and all his relics were translated to Lambspring, in Germany; but Hugh MacMahon, one of his successors in the primacy, having obtained the head from cardinal Howard, brought it to Ireland, and subsequently deposited it in the convent which he founded, in 1722, for Dominican nuns, at Drogheda, in which the first prioress



tion ;”\* and if the lessons which history teaches are to have any effect, such a blot ought assuredly to humble national pride. It is a remarkable fact that Dr. Plunkett was not only the last victim of that atrocious imposture, but that the tide of persecution ebbed immediately upon his death. He was executed at Tyburn on the 1st of July, 1681, and the very next day Shaftesbury, the patron of the gang of perjurers and the chief promoter of the plot, was himself dragged to the tower for high treason ; nor was it long after when some retribution overtook the infamous Titus Oates, who was whipped by the common hangman and pilloried for his perjuries.† The severity of the penal laws was relaxed in Ireland. Ormond, whose growing moderation had drawn upon him the violent attacks

of Shaftesbury and the Whigs, now more openly befriended the Irish Catholics. Whether influenced by some remorse for the past, or revolution in his own sentiments, or change which he observed in the feelings of the king, it is certain that he became liberal at the close of his long career. Charles II., who was received into the Catholic church a few hours before his death, expired on the 6th of February, 1685 and was succeeded by his brother James, duke of York, who had for several years past openly professed the Catholic faith, and suffered for it many persecutions and even banishment from England. Thus did a new vista of hope dawn upon the Irish.

The seventeenth century, towards the close of which we now approach, though brimful of calamity to Ireland,

was Catherine Plunkett, a relative, it is presumed, of the holy primate ; and in this house, known as the Sienna convent, the precious relic is enshrined in a small ebony temple decorated with silver. An authentic portrait of the illustrious martyr, taken after his condemnation, has been engraved, and published by Mr. Duffy. (See the excellent and learned memoir of Oliver Plunkett by Rev. Dr. Crolly ; also the notices of him in the *Theologia Tripartita* of his contemporary and friend, Arsdekin ; the *Hib. Dominicana* ; Harris's Additions to Ware's *Irish Writers* ; the Thorpe Collection of Pamphlets ; the State Trials ; Mr. Thomas Darcy M'Gee's *Irish Writers*, &c.) All subsequent Protestant writers have admitted that he was unjustly executed. Bishop Burnet, who was certainly no friend to Catholics, writes :—“ Lord Essex told me that this Plunkett was a wise and sober man, who was always in a different interest from the two Talbots ;” and he adds, that the foreman of the grand jury who had investigated his case in Ireland, and “ who was a zealous Protestant,” told him the witnesses “ contradicted one another so evidently, that they would not find the bill” (Burnet's *Hist. of his own Times*, vol. i., p. 502-3). “ Of his innocence,” says Fox, “ no doubt could be entertained” (*Hist.*

*Works*, p. 40). “ He was,” says Dr. Crolly, “ the last victim of the Popish plot, and the last martyr who was directly put to death for the Catholic religion in these countries.” It will interest Irish antiquaries to know that Florence MacMoyer, one of the witnesses against Dr. Plunkett, was the hereditary keeper of the celebrated Book of Armagh, and that being reduced to beggary at the close of his life, he pawned, for £5, that celebrated relic of antiquity, which thus came into the possession of an ancestor of Lord Brownlow. It is now in the possession of Trinity College, and is about to be published by the Rev. Dr. Reeves, to whom Primate Beresford has most liberally given £600 to aid in the publication.

\* Charles J. Fox's *Historical Works*, p. 33.

† “ Titus Oates,” says Grainger, “ was restrained by no principle, human or divine, and, like Judas, would have done any thing for thirty shillings. He was one of the most accomplished villains that we read of in history.” (*Biographical Hist. of Eng.*, vol. iv., p. 201.) Oates obtained for his perjuries a pension of £1,200 a-year, of which he was deprived by King James, but William III. granted a pardon to the miscreant, and conferred on him a pension of £400 a-year.



was illuminated by innumerable lights of Irish history and literature. Its first quarter witnessed the labors of Philip O'Sullivan Beare, Stephen White, Peter Lombard, and Thomas Messingham; the Four Masters (Michael, Conary, and Cucogry O'Clery, and Ferfeasa O'Mulconry) were compiling their celebrated Annals of Ireland from 1632 to 1636; Geoffrey Keating, who has been called the Irish Herodotus, died about the middle of the century; Archbishop Ussher, that wonderful compound of great learning and intolerant bigotry, and the honest and learned Sir James Ware, flourished at the same time; the eminent Irish scholar and antiquary, Duaid MacFirbis, was Ware's Irish amanuensis; Father John Colgan, the greatest of our hagiographers, published his invaluable *Acta Sanctorum Hiberniæ*, at Louvain, in 1645; and during the same century flourished Patrick Fleming, Hugh Ward, David Roth,

Luke Wadding, Dominic O'Daly, Thomas Carve, Anthony Bruodin, Nicholas French, Oliver Plunkett, Richard Ardekin, Archdeacon Lynch (Gratianus Lucius), and the learned author of the *Ogygia*, Roderick O'Flaherty. The list might be much extended, and to the preceding, who, with two or three exceptions, were ecclesiastics residing abroad, might be added a long array of other Irishmen who confined their labors in the foreign monasteries and colleges exclusively to sacred subjects.

At the same time the Irish at home preserved their traditions and some of their ancient records in their woods and mountains, where their priests found hiding-places from persecution, and where we can fancy that the wild strains of the native music, devoted to the utterance of so much sorrow, became more exquisitely plaintive in their character.



## CHAPTER XLI.

## REIGN OF JAMES II.

**Tamper of parties in Ireland at the Accession of James II.—Hopes of the Catholics and alarm of the Protestants.**

—Clarendon lord-lieutenant—Refusal to repeal the Acts of Settlement.—Colonel Richard Talbot created earl of Tircconnell, and appointed to the command of the army in Ireland—Succeeds Clarendon as lord-lieutenant. Numerous Catholic appointments.—Alarming rumors—Increased disaffection of the Protestants.—Birth of the Prince of Wales.—William Prince of Orange invited to England—The League of Augsburg—William's dissimulation—His arrival at Torbay.—James deserted by his English subjects and obliged to fly to France.—Disloyal Association of the Protestants of Ulster—The Protestants in general refuse to give up their arms.—The Rapparees.—Irish troops sent to England, and the consequence.—Closing the gates of Derry.—The Irish alone faithful to King James—He lands at Kinsale and marches to Dublin.—Siege of Derry—The town relieved and the siege raised—Conduct of the Enniskilleners.—James's parliament in Dublin—Act of Attainder.—Large levies of the Irish.—Landing of Schomberg—He encamps at Dundalk and declines battle with James.—Battle of Cavan.—William lands at Carrickfergus—Marches to the Boyne.—Disposition of the hostile forces.—The Battle of the Boyne—Orderly retreat of the Irish.—Flight of King James—He escapes to France.—William marches to Dublin.—Waterford and Duncannon reduced.—Gallant defence of Athlone by the Irish.—Retreat of the Williamite army under Douglass.—William besieges Limerick—Noble defence of the garrison—The English ammunition and artillery blown up by Sarsfield—The city stormed—Memorable heroism of the besieged—William raises the siege and returns to England.—Arrival of St. Ruth.—Loss of Athlone.—Battle of Aughrim and death of St. Ruth.—Siege and surrender of Galway.—Second siege of Limerick—Honorable capitulation.—The Irish army embark for France.

(FROM A. D. 1685 TO A. D. 1691.)

UNBOUNDED was the joy of the Irish Catholics on the accession of James II., and in a like proportion was the depression produced among the Protestants by that event. For the feelings of both parties, at a time when so many elements of discord were rife, due allowance should now be made. On the one side we see men who had so long groaned under oppression and ruin suddenly raised to the hope of restored fortunes and religious liberty; on the other, a dominant party enriched with the spoils of their antagonists, but now dreading the loss of power and of estates so dubiously acquired, and what was worse than all, the extension of favor towards a creed to which they entertained a fanatical aversion. The old English had become almost identified in sympathies and interest with the Irish, and between both and the new interest, as the Cromwellian planters were styled, there existed all the jealousy and antipathy which could spring from antagonism in religion and race. From the beginning James's acts relating to Ireland tended to strengthen the corresponding hopes and fears of the two parties. Colonel Richard Talbot, whose imprudent zeal and rash and impetuous disposition were often



injurious to the cause which he wished to serve, was raised to the peerage with the title of earl of Tirconnell, and appointed commander-in-chief of the forces in Ireland, with an authority independent of that of the lord-lieutenant. He proceeded to reorganize the army by the introduction of Catholic officers, and hastened with unconciliating abruptness to disarm the Protestant militia. The appointment early in 1686 of the earl of Clarendon as lord-lieutenant, and Sir Charles Porter as lord-chancellor, might have reassured the Protestants had not their disaffection been too deeply rooted, and their fears too keenly alarmed. Tirconnell endeavored to procure a repeal of the Acts of Settlement and Explanation, but his proposal was scouted by the English council, who declared that the king would not sacrifice his English Catholic subjects to the interests of the Irish; and Clarendon, in his speech on assuming the sword of office, tried to remove all doubts on this subject by stating that "he had the king's commands to declare on all occasions that his majesty had no intention of altering those acts."

In February, 1687, Tirconnell was sworn lord-lieutenant, and contributed

materially by his administration of affairs to increase the discontent and alarm of the Protestants. In each court two Catholic judges were appointed, the third being a Protestant; Catholics were made high sheriffs and privy councillors; commissions of the peace were granted to a number of Catholic magistrates; a great many Catholic officers obtained commissions in the army; and quo-warrantos were issued to all the corporations, which had become nests of Puritan exclusiveness and corruption, fresh charters being granted which admitted Catholics into the corporate bodies. These measures might have been taken by another with less offence to Protestant prejudice; but there was still nothing in them that was not consistent with a fair balance of religious toleration. Catholicity might with justice have been made the state church in Ireland, as Presbyterianism was in Scotland; but the acts of James's government in Ireland did not go to that extent, and there is no reason why we should disbelieve his own assurance that he never intended to overturn the Protestant establishment in these countries.\*

Bickerings and mutual provocations between the parties were incessant.

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\* Mr. Lesley thus puts the argument on this subject:—"Suppose, say they, it were true, which Dr. King asserts, as it is most false, that King James, while he was in Ireland, did endeavor totally to overthrow the Church established by law there, and set up that which was most agreeable to the inclinations of the major number of the people in that kingdom, who are Roman Catholics, the Jacobites ask, if this were so, whether it be not fully vindicated in the fourth instruction of those which King William sent to his commis-

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sioners in Scotland, dated at Copt Hall, May 31, 1689, in these words:—"You are to pass an act establishing that church government which is most agreeable to the inclinations of the people." By which rule, they say that it was as just to set up Popery in Ireland as Presbytery in Scotland." (*Preface to his Answer to Archbishop King.*) Many of the Catholic appointments mentioned above were made by Clarendon, and before Tirconnell became lord-lieutenant.



The Protestants complained that the Catholics sued them for old debts, and that they instituted prosecutions for fictitious treasons; but the most fertile source of irritation arose from the constant rumors on both sides of apprehended massacres. In some places the Catholic peasantry deserted their dwellings for several nights successively, through fear of an attack by the Protestants; and on the other hand a panic seized the Protestants in Dublin and elsewhere; congregations armed themselves against imaginary "Popish massacres," and placed sentinels outside the church gates during service; and many of the Protestant merchants and traders deserted the country for England and Scotland.\*

It may be doubted whether James could, by any amount of moderation, and the most cautious policy, have averted the revolution which deprived him of his kingdom. The temper of

England was such that a Catholic sovereign would not have been endured, had he even confined his religion to his closet and enforced the penal laws of his predecessors. James is accused of great indiscretion in exercising so freely the power of dispensing from religious tests, in having Mass celebrated openly in the palace, and in the favor shown to Catholics by his Irish government; but the arguments drawn from those acts only prove a foregone conclusion. The event which, more than any other, expedited the impending blow, was the birth of the prince of Wales in June, 1688.† Up to that time the only impediment in the line of a Protestant succession was the king's own life, and as he was in the fifty-second year of his age at his accession, it was possible that his removal, in the natural order of things, might have been waited for; but the birth of a Catholic heir to the crown determined

\* The work of Dr. William King, afterwards successor of Dr. Marsh as archbishop of Dublin—"The State of the Protestants of Ireland under the late King James's Government"—is the great text-book of Protestant writers on this period of our history; but it was ably refuted by Charles Lesley, a contemporary Protestant divine; and it may be questioned whether there be any other authority on Irish history less reliable for facts or more envenomed by prejudice, if we except Sir John Temple's *History of the Irish Rebellion*. Nevertheless, taking all Dr. King's enumeration of Protestant grievances for granted, they form a marked contrast to the smallest portion of those inflicted on the Catholics in the preceding reigns. "In all the time the Protestants of Dublin were in King James's power," observes Mr. Lesley, "he did not hang one of them, though some of them deserved it by the law then, as Dr. King could witness."

† James's two daughters by his first wife, the daughter of Chancellor Hyde, were educated Protestants,

and their uncle, Charles II., took care to provide for them Protestant husbands; Mary, the elder, being married to her first cousin, William, prince of Orange and Nassau, and stadtholder of the united provinces of Holland; and Anne, the younger, to George, prince of Denmark. His first wife having died in 1671, James married in 1673 Mary Beatrice, the daughter of the duke of Modena. She was then but fifteen years of age, and was as remarkable for her piety and virtue as for her singular beauty. Their four first children died in infancy, and as an interval of some years then elapsed, and James was growing old, those who expected that he would not leave any male issue, were grievously disappointed at the birth of the young prince. The most unfounded statements were then put forth, to the effect that the child was supposititious, although there were forty-two witnesses of the birth, most of them belonging to the Protestant nobility. The prince was baptized James Francis Edward, and in after years was called the "Pretender."



his enemies to take a different course, which, however, had long before been contemplated, namely, an immediate invitation from England to William Prince of Orange.

Of the circumstances which promoted William's designs on the crown of England, not the least important was the confederation of European princes, known as the League of Augsburg. In this league were united the emperor and all the Germanic princes, the king of Spain, and even the pope. The object which they professed in common was to resist and limit the enormous power of Louis XIV., but the Protestant members of the league were still more strongly actuated by a desire to avenge the revocation of the edict of Nantes. The prince of Orange organized the league, and he soon turned it adroitly to his own private account, employing for that purpose an amount of meanness and deception quite unworthy of his position. It was known that the king of England was little better than the vassal of Louis; such, at all events, the late king, Charles II., had effectually made himself; and William, in preparing an expedition for England, pretended that his only objects were to reconcile James with his disaffected subjects, and then to induce him to join the league against France. The prince's letter to the emperor on the subject displays a most reckless disregard for truth, and the money received

from the pope for the purposes of the league was unscrupulously converted by William to the dethronement of the Catholic king of England and the establishment of a Protestant succession. Of a piece with these artifices to overreach the Catholic powers was the pretence which William held forth to the people of England, that he was coming to investigate the birth of the prince, which he affected to consider surreptitious, but about which no question was afterwards raised.\*

The prince of Orange arrived in Torbay, in Devonshire, on the 5th of November, 1688, with a Dutch fleet of 52 men-of-war, 25 frigates, 25 fire-ships, and about 400 transports, which conveyed a land army of nearly 15,000 men. James had an army amply sufficient to oppose him had his officers been faithful, but the great bulk of these were known to be disaffected, and numbers of them went over at once to William. In a little while the king had no force upon which he could rely to bring into the field; and having sent the queen and infant prince privately to France, in the beginning of December, and escaped himself from the Dutch guards, by whom he was held a prisoner at Rochester, he embarked along with his illegitimate son, the duke of Berwick, in a small vessel, on the 23d of December, and landing at Ambleteuse, on the French coast, early on Christmas morning, old style,

\* *Dalrymple's Memoirs*, append. to vol. ii.; *Memoir of King James II.*, vol. ii.; *Jesse's Memoirs of the Court*

*of England from the Revolution to the Death of George II.*, vol. i., pp. 46, 47



claimed the protection and hospitality of Louis XIV.

Ireland was at this time in a most disorganized state. Government was not strong enough to suppress popular manifestations on either side. The Protestants of the north had formed themselves into an armed association with clearly disloyal views, and organized a system of local authority of their own. In other parts of the country, the Protestants had refused to give up their arms; several of them collecting into strong bawns and castles which they garrisoned, and others proceeding in armed bands to join their brethren in Ulster. On the other hand, many of the Catholics armed themselves in an irregular manner, and they were unjustly held responsible for the conduct of the bands of marauders, called rapparees,\* who traversed the country, plundering villages, and carrying off whole herds of cattle. Tirconnell had sent the king a reinforcement of 3,000 troops, but the appearance of Irish soldiers in England was made an excuse for the most absurd alarm; and although they were immediately disarmed, the monstrous falsehood was

circulated that they designed to massacre the people of England, and the most extravagant consternation was thereby produced in London.† Nor was the sending of these troops the only blunder which Tirconnell committed in the matter. He had withdrawn the garrison from Londonderry to make up the complement of men; and when the earl of Antrim's regiment was sent, in a few weeks, to repair this mistake, the young men of Derry resolutely closed their gates against the royal troops. This was done on the 7th of December, 1688, before affairs in England had taken a decided turn against the king; and the Protestants of Ulster having already assumed a position hostile to James, are admitted to have been the first of his subjects who rose in arms against him. No portion of Irish history is more familiar to the public than that at which we have now arrived, and it will suffice to state briefly the order of events.

In England the flight of James was pronounced to have been an abdication, and William was thereupon invited to fill the throne.‡ Scotland followed the example of England, and Ireland alone

\* The rapparees are said to have been so called from the rapary or half pike, which was their principal weapon, besides the *sgian* or long knife. Many of the peasantry who were guiltless of any social crime were, in the sequel, mercilessly slaughtered as rapparees by the Williamites.

† These troops were sent to Hungary to fight for William's ally, the emperor, but never returned to Ireland.

‡ If James had abdicated, which he certainly did not do, still his son, the prince of Wales, would have been the legitimate heir to the crown. If he had no son, his

eldest daughter Mary would have inherited; and it was the intention of the majority in the convention assembled to dispose of the matter, that she should be proclaimed queen, with her husband William as regent, but the latter declared that he would never consent to be the subject of his wife, and the convention, therefore, decided that William and Mary should reign as king and queen, but that William should govern in the name of both. The mother of the prince of Orange was Mary, eldest daughter of Charles I., and sister of James II., who was, therefore, the uncle as well as the father-in-law of William. James's other daughter



remained faithful to the king: the Irish considering themselves quite as well entitled, on every ground, to retain James for their sovereign as the English and Scotch were to call a foreigner to the throne.

Tirconnell issued commissions to several of the Catholic nobility and gentry to raise troops for the king's service; and the people responding readily to the call, above fifty regiments of foot and several troops of horse and dragoons were soon raised; but in proportion to the abundance of men was the scarcity of means to equip and maintain them. The country had been impoverished and the Catholics reduced to ruin by the recent wars and confiscations; there was a miserable supply of arms and ammunition; few of the officers were skilled in military affairs; and there was not sufficient time to train and discipline new levies.† The Protestants, on the other hand, were well supplied with arms; and all that was most valuable of their movable property had been transferred by them to England or Scotland, or to the quarters of their friends in Ulster. Enniskillen, as well as Derry, had refused to admit a garrison of James's forces; and although the latter town was induced by Lord Mountjoy, a Protestant who still adhered to King James, to receive

six companies of his regiment, half Protestants and half Catholics, under Lieutenant-Colonel Lundy, the Catholics were soon sent about their business, and on the 20th February, 1689, the prince of Orange was proclaimed king within the walls of Derry. The whole of Ulster, except Charlemont and Carrickfergus, was now in the hands of the Williamites. Tirconnell sent Lieutenant-general Richard Hamilton, with about 2,500 men, against them, and for this step he is blamed by Protestant writers as having precipitated hostilities and caused the first shedding of blood; but the truth is, the Ulster Protestants had already declared war against their legitimate sovereign. Lieutenant-general Hamilton came up with some of the Williamite forces at Dromore, on the 14th March, and having routed them, marched against Coleraine, where the Protestants mustered so numerous, and were so strongly intrenched, that he durst not venture an attack.

Hoping to encourage his friends by his presence among them, and resolved to strike a blow for the recovery of his throne, James landed at Kinsale on the 12th of March, 1689, bringing with him some Irish troops from France, and about a hundred French officers, with a supply of money. Proceeding to Cork, he was there met by the viceroy, Tir-

Anne, deserted him and joined her husband, George, prince of Denmark, in William's camp.

\* Abbé Mageoghegan's *Hist. of Ireland*. Tirconnell found in the government stores only 20,000 arms to distribute among the new levies; but most of them were

so old and unserviceable, that not above one thousand fire-arms were found to be of any use. Neither had they artillery or ammunition, and there was no money — *King James's Memoirs*, vol. ii., p. 327.



connell, whom he then created duke, and from whom he received an account of affairs that must have been discouraging enough. The Protestants of Bandon had shortly before imitated the example of their brethren in Derry, but they were soon compelled to submit, and a deputation from them now sued for pardon at the king's feet, and were fortunate enough to escape any other punishment than a fine of £1,000. James hastened to Dublin, where he arrived on the 24th, and was received with great demonstrations of joy. He ordered a parliament to be summoned, and issued proclamations commanding all those who had abandoned the country and gone to England or Scotland to return under the penalty of being treated as traitors, and calling upon all to aid him against the usurper of his throne; also for the suppression of robbery; and ordering Catholics who were not in the army not to carry arms outside their houses; and for the raising of money, &c.

Believing that his presence before Derry would bring back that town to its allegiance, James proceeded thither contrary to the advice of Tirconnell;

and appeared with his army before the town on the 9th of April, attended by the duke of Berwick and General De Rosen, a French officer who came with James to act as second in command to Tirconnell. The actual presence of James was not believed until a deputation from the town authorities came to the camp, and negotiations for a surrender were then set on foot; but the military ardor of the townspeople being aroused, and De Rosen having marched his troops nearer to the walls than the preliminaries of the treaty stipulated, the royal army was received with a shower of cannon and musket balls, and an officer standing near the king was killed. Thus the negotiations were broken off, and James, having ordered Lieutenant-general Hamilton to besiege the town, returned with De Rosen to Dublin.

The investment which ensued partook more of the nature of a blockade than a siege. The beleaguering army was imperfectly supplied with cannon, and had but two mortars, one of which was large, but became unserviceable in the progress of the siege.\* The men were wretchedly equipped, and it

\* The duke of Berwick, who was present, states in his memoirs that the besiegers had only six guns; and a contemporary Irish authority says there were "eight pieces of cannon in all, of which two were eighteen-pounders, and the rest petty guns." The authority to which we here refer is that known as the Plunkett MS., a contemporary History of the Civil Wars in Ireland, preserved in the library of the earl of Fingal, at Kileen castle, and recently brought under public notice by Dr. Wilde, who communicated an analysis of its contents, with copious extracts, to the Royal Irish Academy. The title of the work is, "A light to the blind, whereby

they may see the dethronement of James II., king of England; with a brief Narrative of the Wars in Ireland and of the Wars of the emperor and the king of France for the crown of Spain; anno 1711." It is in two vols 4to., and its author, who, according to the tradition in Lord Fingal's family, was one Nicholas Plunkett, was an ardent Jacobite. It was borrowed by Sir James Mackintosh, who made extracts, which were also employed by the late Lord Macaulay, who quotes it as "Light to the Blind," in his *History of England*; and we are indebted to the analysis and extracts made by Dr. Wilde for much valuable information used in the following pages.



was on the whole absurd to attempt, with such inadequate means, the reduction of a town strongly fortified, well supplied with artillery and ammunition, and defended by a garrison amply numerous and animated by the most determined resolution. The besiegers having no heavy guns to breach the walls, directed their few cannon against the houses which were exposed to their range; but it was obvious from the beginning that they could only hope to reduce the place by starvation, and such being the case, General Hamilton sacrificed his duty to his humanity by allowing a large number of the useless population to depart, and thus enabling the besieged to protract the defence. A Major Baker was chosen governor of the town, Lundy, who had urged the garrison to capitulate to King James, having been obliged to make his escape in disguise at the commencement of the siege; and the Reverend George Walker, a Protestant clergyman, who had raised a regiment of his own, and who, alternately in the pulpit and on the ramparts, fired their energy by his addresses, was made assistant governor, but obtained the chief command on the death of Baker. The garrison, which amounted in the beginning to nearly 7,500 men, including officers, was organized into eight regiments, to each of which was confided a bastion; according to Walker's account they had twenty-two cannons, of which two were planted on the flat roof of the church, and the others on

the walls and bastions; and many of the townspeople soon proved expert gunners. At the same time a numerous, resolute, and merciless force of the Enniskilleners was in the field in another quarter, and gave such occupation to the royal arms as to prevent the sending of reinforcements to the besiegers; and, taking all the circumstances into consideration, the successful defence of Londonderry does not seem to be a matter for much surprise. In some encounters which took place before the walls extraordinary bravery was displayed on both sides. A sortie was made by the garrison with 5,000 men on the 24th of April, and another in the beginning of May, in both of which the Irish suffered considerable loss; the French lieutenant-generals, Pusignan and Momont, Major-General Taaffe, son of the earl of Carlingford, and Captain Maurice Fitzgerald being among the slain. Two vigorous attacks were made by the besiegers on the strong intrenchments with which the garrison had enclosed their outpost on Windmill hill; but the reckless valor displayed by the assailants, who rushed to the enemy's breastwork, only resulted in a useless sacrifice of life on their own side, for the besieged suffered few casualties behind their works.

At the commencement of the hostilities Culmore fort, at the narrow entrance to the river Foyle, capitulated to the Irish, who constructed two other small forts on the banks, and drew a boom across the river, thus preventing



the passage of shipping to convey provisions to the town. On the 13th of June, a fleet of thirty ships from England arrived in Lough Foyle with supplies of men and provisions; but Major-general Kirke, the officer in command, failing in his first attempt to enter the river, anchored in the lough, and contented himself by sending messages to the town with the assurance that relief was at hand; while in the mean time famine and disease had begun their ravages among the besieged. Uneasy at Hamilton's want of success before Derry, King James sent De Rosen, marshal-general of Ireland, with some reinforcements, to take the management of the siege into his hands. De Rosen complained, in his letters to the king, of the utter want of all the necessaries of war in which he found the army, and of the total neglect of his majesty's commands which he witnessed. Above all, there was a fatal deficiency of heavy artillery, and he saw that the only resource still was to starve the garrison into submission. To hasten this result he resorted to the cruel expedient of collecting all the Protestants whom he could find in the neighboring country, to the number of three or four hundred, and driving them to the gates of the town. He calculated that the garrison would surrender rather than see their relatives

and friends perish under the walls, while, if they admitted them into the town, their provisions would be the more speedily consumed, and the same result rendered inevitable. These poor people, who were chiefly those whom General Hamilton had allowed to escape from the town, lay all night before the gates; but the next day the besieged erected a gallows on the ramparts and sent notice to De Rosen that they would forthwith hang their prisoners, some of whom were men of rank, unless the people before the gates were allowed to return immediately into the country. The threat had the desired effect, and De Rosen's barbarous plan, which disgusted the Irish, and was strongly disapproved of by James, only served to exasperate the besieged still more, and to enable them to send off with the others a great many feeble persons who were a burden on their resources in the town.\*

While Kirke's squadron lay at anchor in Lough Foyle, it is presumed that the effect of English gold was tried successfully on the officers commanding the river forts; for, on the 30th of July, three ships laden with provisions passed the forts and boom nearly unscathed, although some shots were fired at them; and when the garrison was reduced to the last straits by famine, and should inevitably have capitulated within forty-

\* Neither King James nor the Irish were responsible for De Rosen's cruel proceeding (Plunkett MS.; also Lesley's *Answer to King*; and Graham's *Derriana*, p. 169) nor does it follow that that general would have

carried out his barbarous menace; and Plowden very justly reminds those writers who dwell upon it, of the bloody and treacherous massacre of Glencoe, the warrant for which bore King William's own sign-manual.



eight hours, the town was relieved. The abortive siege, the failure of which secured Ireland to William of Orange, was now raised, and the royal army finally decamped on the 5th of August.\*

We now return to James, who, as already stated, hastened back to Dublin on giving orders for the investment of Derry. On the 7th of May he opened his parliament in person, wearing on the occasion a crown newly manufactured for him in Dublin.† This Irish parliament declared itself independent of the parliament of England, and passed the first act made in these realms for liberty of conscience. To the Catholic clergy it granted the right to receive the tithes payable by the members of their own communion; and after a violent opposition from the Protestant members, it repealed the Act of Settlement, and passed an Act of Attainder against those who had taken up arms

against King James, or who, having gone to England or Scotland, or to the Protestant quarters in Ulster, had refused to comply with the king's proclamation calling on them to return to their homes and their allegiance. To form a just appreciation of these latter measures a slight retrospect is necessary.

Had the Irish, in the war of 1649, succeeded in vanquishing their regicide enemy, their triumph would have been universally celebrated, and no one would have questioned the justness of their cause; but being unfortunate in the contest, they were subjected to a frightful and merciless spoliation, which the annals of no other country can parallel, and which no law could justify. We have seen how, by the sole right of the strong hand, the Irish Catholic nobility and gentry were deprived of their estates; how their wide ancestral domains were divided among rude soldiers

\* The Reverend Colonel Walker, in his diary, admits that the garrison was diminished by 3,000 men during the siege, and that 7,000 persons in all died of disease in the town in that time. The Reverend John Mackenzie, a Presbyterian clergyman, who was present, and has also left an account of the siege, shows that no reliance can be placed on Walker's facts or figures, and states that "it was thought 10,000 had died during the siege, besides those that died soon after; and the report of a committee of the House of Commons in 1705 makes the number of those who perished on the Protestant side by sword or famine in that siege, 12,000. Walker gives a tariff of the prices paid during the latter days of the siege for horses' flesh and other carrion. The Irish admitted a loss on their own side of 2,000 (Plunkett MS.), but Walker's estimate of 8,000 is a gross exaggeration. The duke of Berwick says the Irish blockading force before Derry did not exceed 5,000 or 6,000 men; and according to Mageoghegan it amounted at no time to more than 10,000. The regimented force within the city was, by Walker's account, between 7,300 and 7,400; but the entire armed force within the walls, including the non-

regimented men, was over 10,000. (See the authorities collected by Mr. O'Callaghan in his invaluable notes and illustrations to the *Macariæ Excidium*, or *Destruction of Cypress*, pp. 318-322, a work of profound and elaborate research, and which must be the indispensable text-book of future historians of the Williamite wars in Ireland.) Governor Walker had advised a capitulation, and the negotiations for the purpose had been on foot some days before the relief arrived. The discrepancies in the dates of these events are singular. Thus various accounts give the 28th, 30th, and 31st as the date of the relief of Derry, and the 1st or 5th of August as that of the siege being raised.

† Plunkett MS. This parliament, which sat in the King's Inns, was attended by 46 peers and 228 commoners. Among the former were the Protestant bishops of Meath, Ossory, Limerick, and Cork and Ross, two others (the primate and bishop of Waterford) acting by proxy; but no Catholic prelates were summoned. The parliament was prorogued on the 18th of July, having sat about ten weeks.



and unprincipled adventurers; how the very fact of being Irish in race and Catholic in religion was a crime involving expulsion from home and country; how the English parliament of Charles II., and an Irish parliament, composed chiefly of the Cromwellian plunderers themselves, ratified the atrocious spoliation; and, finally, how the sittings of the Court of Claims were suspended when it was found, after a few cases had been heard, that a door was opened to the Catholic Irish to obtain even a modicum of justice, although more than 3,000 claims still remained to be investigated. Twenty-six years elapsed, and King James's Irish parliament, representing the true feelings of the nation, seized the very first opportunity which presented to repeal the infamous act of robbery. As to the Act of Attainder, passed on the same occasion, its results, so far as the question of property was concerned, would have been nearly identical with those of the Act of Settlement, the persons who would be affected by both being nearly the same; but as neither of these acts came into operation, their grievances are speculative. The reader will balance the original injustice against the projected measure of reprisal; and when he finds English historians lavishing their eloquent vituperations on the latter, while

they either ignore the former or dispose of it with a word of contemptuous pity, his reliance on the statements of men so shamefully blinded by prejudice may well be shaken.\*

James was utterly averse to these measures of the Irish parliament. He considered that the commons were accelerating his destruction. Their legislation, it is true, was precipitate and reckless, and it would have been better had they waited till they held a surer footing. The Act of Attainder even curtailed the royal prerogative, by depriving the king of the power to pardon the persons' attainted; and it is doubtful whether James would have given his consent to that, or to the repeal of the Act of Settlement, but for the influence of the French ambassador, Avaux. James's great want was money. The sum which he had brought from France went but a short way; and his difficulties compelled him to resort to the most desperate and arbitrary expedients. Old guns and bells were melted down and converted into coin, which was made current by proclamations imposing the severest penalties on those who would refuse to accept it in exchange for commodities. Some of this coin was subsequently called in and restamped for a higher value. At length even pewter was employed for

\* On this particular subject no writer has been more unjust than the late Lord Macaulay; nor has any English historian ever treated this country more unfairly or ungenerously than that eloquent writer has generally done in his historical works. He revived the exploded calumnies and fanatical bigotry of a past age, and not

only did he seize every opportunity to sully the character of the Irish, and to insult their religious and national feelings, but in innumerable instances he went out of his way to do so. Unfortunately, the talents of the writer only aggravate the error or dishonesty of the historian.



the coinage, and money degenerated into mere tokens representing a fictitious value, which, however, James's government pledged itself to make good at a future day. In the end, the loss by this base coinage fell almost exclusively on the Catholics; but that Protestants should have been at any time compelled to receive it has been a subject of unmeasured declamation against James.\*

The same day that Londonderry was relieved, an Irish army, under Lieutenant-general Justin MacCarthy, Lord Mountcashel, was defeated by the Enniskilleners at Newtown-Butler. This overthrow, it is said, was mainly caused by an unlucky mistake of the word of command. At the onset the Irish dragoons, who were already dispirited by a repulse which they had received that morning near Lisnaskea, were easily thrown into confusion by a supposed order to retreat, and the ill-disciplined foot seeing themselves, as they believed, deserted by their cavalry, were panic-stricken. The Enniskilleners were commanded by Colonel Wolseley, an Eng-

lish officer; they were well armed, were experienced marksmen, and already inured to war. Their watchword was "No Popery;" they determined to give no quarter; and during the evening, and the whole night, and a great part of the next day they continued with the most inveterate fury to slaughter the unarmed fugitives whom they hunted down in the bogs and woods with a savage ferocity that has made even the Williamite historians blush. Five hundred of the flying Jacobites plunged into Lough Erne, to escape the carnage, and perished all but one man. Lord Mountcashel, who sought death in vain, was carried prisoner to Enniskillen, whence he made his escape on the 17th of December, before he had recovered from his numerous wounds; and such was the consternation which the disaster produced, that Brigadier Sarsfield, who commanded a detachment at Sligo, was obliged to retire to Athlone, and leave the northern frontier of Connaught open to the Enniskilleners.†

These reverses were followed by the

\* The use of a base coinage for Ireland was a favorite resource with many of James's predecessors on the English throne. Henry VIII. made a severe law to prevent the introduction into England of any of the base money which he coined for Ireland; and Elizabeth's Irish coin, at the close of her reign, was so bad that the shilling was only valued at two pence by the goldsmiths. (*Nicholson's Irish Hist. Library*, p. 79, fol.) The mixed metal used by James II. in his Irish mint was valued by the workmen at no more than four pence per pound, so that the actual value of the metal which was coined into more than a million and a half of this base money, was only about £6,500 sterling. Still, the scheme of James was not worse, at least in its design, than that of the assignats or paper currency of more modern provisional

governments. In the proclamation of 3d William and Mary, dated Feb. 34, 1690-91, declaring James's mixed-metal coin to be no longer current, it is expressly stated that the Irish then had in their possession "the whole or the far greater part of the said coin." (See *Simon's Essay on Irish Coins*, pp. 56-64, and *Append.*, p. 111.)

† The author of the Plunkett MS. asserts that the rout at Newtown-Butler arose, as stated above, from a mistake in the command. Lord Mountcashel fearing that his right flank would be turned by the enemy, gave the order "right face" to the dragoons; but this was unfortunately repeated by the subordinate officers as "right about face," which made the other troops suppose that these were retreating, and a general panic ensued. The Williamite historian, Story, relates the



arrival of the duke of Schomberg, who landed at Bangor, in Down, on the 13th of August, 1689, with an army composed of Dutch, French Huguenots, and new English levies. On the 17th he marched to Belfast, and on the 27th, after a siege of eight days, Carrickfergus was surrendered to him on honorable terms by its Jacobite governor, Colonel Charles MacCarthy More, whose garrison consisted only of his own regiment and of nine companies of the regiment of Colonel Cormac O'Neill, and who was reduced to his last barrel of powder before he yielded. On the 7th of September Schomberg marched to Dundalk, near which he strongly intrenched himself; but the situation was most unhealthy, and his army soon began to suffer so fearfully from dysentery, and the effects of a wet season, that he dared not give battle to King James, who had arrived from Dublin, and who in vain challenged the Williamite general from his lines, two or three miles distant. The Enniskilleners and Dutch in Schomberg's army suffered comparatively little, but the English were reduced to a fourth of their original number, and it has been estimated that 10,000 men or fully one-half of the entire Williamite force perished of sickness, scarcity, and the bad-

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circumstance in the same way; and Colonel Anthony Hamilton and Captain Lavallin having been subsequently tried by a court-martial for the blunder in Dublin, the latter officer was shot. Colonel Hamilton was a brother of the general who commanded before Derry, and in later years became famous in the French court as a brilliant poet, novelist, and wit. The father of these

ness of the season in that fatal encampment. James has been censured for neglecting to attack Schomberg's camp at such a juncture, and for abandoning his position too soon; for he retired to winter-quarters in November, and thus permitted the enemy to remove from a camp where the mortality which prevailed must soon have destroyed them even without fighting. Neither energy nor wisdom was, however, to be expected from that ill-fated king, who unfortunately retained in his own hands the chief command of his army, and whose natural vacillation was increased by the conflicting counsels of his generals. Thus terminated the campaign of 1689.

Stimulated by his recent losses, and by complaints of his inaction, and well supplied by sea from England with every necessary, Schomberg was able to take the field early in the eventful year 1690: while, on the other hand, James's army was in want of every thing, and could not be mustered or put in marching order till the season was far advanced. James's orders were neglected; he had scarcely any magazines along his frontier; and so destitute was his army of fodder, that they should wait till the grass grew to enable their horses to render any service even

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Hamiltons was son of the earl of Abercorn, and their mother a sister of the first duke of Ormond, who used to say that all his relatives were Roman Catholics. Lord Mountcashel was tried by a court of honor in France, and acquitted of any breach of parole in his escape from Enniskillen.



for draught. He was strongly urged by the French officers to withdraw into Connaught and act on the defensive, with the Shannon for his frontier, until he could receive succor from France; but to this course he was resolutely opposed, and he was supported in his views by Tirconnell. His hopes of aid from France must have been very slender. His friend and ally, Louis XIV., required all his resources to employ against his own numerous enemies. Louvois, the French minister of war, was bitterly opposed to James, and always argued that it was more the interest of France to attack William on the Flemish frontier than in Ireland; and although Seignelay, the minister of marine, was James's friend, the service which he could render was not sufficient. The French officers did not relish their duties under James, and were constantly sending to their court desponding accounts, often but too true, and which supported the views of Lou-

vois. Neither Avaux nor the energetic and aspiring De Rosen, who was a Livonian by birth, would show the fallen monarch even common respect, and both of them were, at James's desire, recalled to France. In March this year six battalions, or 6,000 men, arrived from France under the command of Count de Lauzun, who was also to act in the capacity of ambassador; but these French troops were rather an exchange than a reinforcement, for James sent by the same conveyance to France as many of his best-equipped and best-trained soldiers, forming the division of Lord Mountcashel, whom Tirconnell disliked, and therefore caused to be removed. The French brought twelve field-pieces and some arms and clothing for the Irish, but Louvois took care that the clothing and arms should be of the worst description.\*

In February, 1690, the Jacobites suffered some loss in an affair at Cavan;† and soon after the fort of Charlemont

\* On these matters, as well as on the events related in this chapter generally, we may refer the reader to the authorities collected by Mr. O'Callaghan in his elaborate annotations to the *Macariae Excidium*, and to the researches of the same laborious investigator in the second edition of his *Green Book*.

† The battle of Cavan, which has been but slightly noticed by other historians, is minutely described in the Plunkett MS. After relating how Marshal Schomberg had sent Brigadier Wolseley with a detachment of Enniskilleners and English to Cavan, to extend his quarters in that direction, and how King James, being informed of this movement, dispatched Brigadier Nugent with 800 men from Westmeath and Longford, and the duke of Berwick with a like quota from the county of Dublin, the author continues: "Both the royal corps for the most part arrived at the open town of Cavan on the 10th of February. They were all foot except a troop or two of horse. Brigadier Wolseley came to

the place on the 11th, in the morning, with 700 foot and 300 horse and dragoons. The duke of Berwick being alarmed and not well prepared, drew his men out of the town to an open ground, by which he gave an advantage to the enemy, who, seeing their position, placed their foot between the hedges of the avenues of the town, and took the defensive. The king's forces being divided into two wings, assaulted the rebels within their fences. The charge being given and maintained smartly, a party of the Irish horse broke another of the enemy's; but the left wing of the royalists being so overcome with fighting that they were forced to retire into a fort that was near them, the right, fighting at the like disadvantage, retreated also thither, by which the rebels gained the field. Of the royal party there were about 200 killed, amongst whom was Brigadier Nugent, much regretted for his bravery. So were Adjutant Geoghegan and Captain Stritch, and a few other officers. There were ten officers made



was invested by a strong detachment of Schomberg's army. Teige O'Regan, the veteran governor of Charlemont, defended the place with obstinate bravery, and only thought of capitulating when reduced to the last extremity by starvation. At length, on the 14th of May, the fort was surrendered on honorable terms, the garrison, consisting of 800 men, being allowed to march out with arms and baggage, and with them about 200 women and children. As an instance of the distress to which they were reduced, we are told by Story that only a few fragments of decayed food were found in the fort, and that some of the men as they marched out were chewing pieces of dry hide with the hair on. The Eniskilliners treated the Irish soldiers and their families with great brutality as they passed along, but Schomberg humanely directed that a loaf of bread should be given to each man at Armagh.

It was well known for some time that William intended to conduct the Irish campaign of 1690 in person, and the spirits of his army and adherents in this country were consequently raised to a high pitch. He embarked near Chester, on the 11th of June, and landed at Carrickfergus on the afternoon of the 14th, attended by Prince George of Denmark, the duke of Wurtemberg,

the prince of Hesse-Darmstadt, the duke of Ormond, the earls of Oxford, Portland, Scarborough, and Manchester, Lord Douglas, the Count de Solmes, Major-general Mackay, and other persons of distinction. He immediately took horse, and at the Whitehouse, half-way between Carrickfergus and Belfast, was met by Schomberg, whose carriage he entered, and thus drove to Belfast, where he was received with loud shouts of "God bless the Protestant king." Notice of his arrival was soon transmitted through the country by bonfires, and the discharge of cannon at the different Williamite quarters. His army, combined with that of Schomberg, amounted, according to the most probable estimate, to between forty and fifty thousand men, and was composed of a strange medley of nations, English, Scotch, Irish Protestants, French Huguenots, Dutch, Swedes, Danes, and Brandenburgishers or Prussians, with smaller recruitments from Switzerland and Norway; more than half were foreigners, and on these William placed his chief reliance, the fidelity of the English in a struggle against their old king being somewhat doubtful. All, however, were well trained, and most of them veteran troops, and all were armed and equipped in the best possible manner. They were sup-

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prisoners, of whom were Captain Netterville, Captain Daniel O'Neill, Captain O'Brien, and Captain George M'Gee. Of the enemy there were slain, Trahem, Captain Armstrong, Captain Mayo, and near fifty private men, and about sixty wounded. Brigadier Wolseley returned

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to his own quarters, having first burnt the town of Cavan, not being able to keep it because the castle was in possession of the Irish." See Dr. Wilde's Extract from "Light to the Blind," in Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy.



plied with every thing requisite for war, and more especially with a numerous train of artillery.

On the 16th of June, James left Dublin to march against his adversary with an army of about 20,000 men, imperfectly disciplined, and scantily supplied with even the most necessary requirements for a campaign. He had many brave officers; his French division was composed of first-rate troops, well equipped and appointed; the Irish horse were admirable; but the dragoons were not so well trained; the Irish infantry consisted for the most part of raw levies, scarcely half armed; and for artillery he was only able to take with him the twelve field-pieces which he had recently received from France.\*

James advanced to Dundalk, while William was encamped a few miles beyond Newry; and, in order to ascertain the strength of the enemy, the former dispatched, on the 22d of June, Colonel Dempsey, with 60 horse, and Lieutenant-colonel Fitzgerald, with a few companies of grenadiers, to lie in wait for one of William's reconnoitring parties. This duty was so well performed that a Williamite detachment of between 200 and 300 foot and dragoons were routed with great loss at the half-way bridge between Dundalk and Newry. An English officer, who

was made prisoner, represented William's army as 50,000 strong; and, although this was supposed by James to have been a gross exaggeration intended to have the effect of inducing him to fly, it is probable that it was not very remote from the truth. This slight success cheered the Irish, but their spirits were damped on the following morning, when James commenced his retrograde movement and retired to Ardee. The army retreated by easy marches, and on the 28th commenced recrossing the Boyne, on the right bank of which river James resolved to make a stand. Irish historians are loud in their condemnation of James's tactics. His irresolution, they argue, destroyed the confidence of his men; his retreat from Dundalk made them feel all the discouragement of defeat; and then, they say, he should not have hazarded a battle against such superior forces, or on a line so defenceless as that of the Boyne. From James's memoirs, however, it appears that his original design was to protract the campaign as much as possible, and that when he determined to fight at the Boyne it was because he would have been obliged to abandon all Leinster to the enemy had he left the passage of that river open.

On the 30th of June the hostile forces first confronted each other on

\* Lord Macaulay, who quotes from the dispatches of Avaux several passages describing the condition of the Irish army, says: "Almost all the Irish gentlemen who had any military experience held commissions in the cavalry; and by the exertions of these officers some regiments had been raised and disciplined, which Avaux

pronounced equal to any that he had ever seen. It was, therefore," he admits, "evident that the inefficiency of the foot and of the dragoons was to be ascribed to the vices, not of the Irish character, but of the Irish administration."—*Hist. of Eng.*, vol. v., p. 42.



the opposite banks of the Boyne. The Jacobite army was encamped on the declivity of the hill of Donore, with its right wing towards Drogheda and its left extending up the river. As there are no considerable inequalities in the surface, the whole of James's lines must have been visible from the heights on the opposite side of the river, and to a great extent exposed to the fire of the enemy's artillery. James's centre was at the small hamlet of Oldbridge, close to the bank, where he caused some intrenchments to be hastily thrown up to defend the principal fords, of which there are four near this point, a fifth being a little lower down the stream, and two or three others a few miles higher up in the direction of Slane. There are two islands in the river near Oldbridge which facilitate the passage; and at that season, which was remarkable for drought, and at the time of low-water, the Boyne was fordable throughout a great part of its course. The king himself took up his position at a small ruined church on the top of the hill of Donore, where a tuft of ash-trees now forms a conspicuous landmark.

On the northern side of the Boyne the high land of the interior terminates in a steep and lofty bank, which almost

overhangs the river for several miles, but recedes opposite the angle which the stream forms at Oldbridge, so as to leave a small plain between the heights and the water; the line of hills being also at this point intersected by three deep ravines, one of which is now known as King William's glen. Thus the Williamite army, approaching from the north, was completely screened from view until it appeared on the brow of the hill, or debouched through the ravines into the plain: the character of the country being therefore highly favorable to William, who planted batteries along the heights and kept up an incessant fire from his artillery on the Irish lines during the afternoon of the 30th.\*

The precise numerical strength of the two armies is a matter of some controversy, but all agree in admitting a vast superiority in numbers, equipment, and artillery on the side of the Williamites. The duke of Berwick, who was one of James's commanders, and whose statements are generally found to be accurate and free from exaggeration, tells us that his father's army amounted to 23,000 men, while that of William was at least 45,000, and this account is perhaps as near the exact truth as we can hope to arrive.† The

\* See second edition of *Wilde's Boyne and Blackwater*, for the best topographical description of the battle-field, as well as for an excellent and connected account of the battle.

† Story, the Williamite historian, admits that William had 36,000 men that day in the field, but adds

that the world reckoned the number at least one-third greater, that is 48,000. Now, weighing all the circumstances, there is good reason to believe that "the world" was nearer to the truth than Story. Mr. O'Callaghan has shown from foreign Williamite contemporary authorities that William's army at the Boyne consisted of 62



disparity of numbers was, however, one of the least disadvantages under which the Jacobite army labored. They were, as we have seen, ill provided with any of the necessities of war; many of them were raw levies; they could have no confidence in their imbecile commander; and their only artillery consisted of the twelve French field-guns: whilst against them was marshalled a numerous and veteran army, abundantly supplied with every thing; commanded by one of the greatest generals of the age, with a host of experienced officers under him, among whom the veteran Schomberg was perhaps his equal in military skill; and with a train of artillery comprising more than fifty field-pieces and some mortars.

An incident occurred in the course of the afternoon of the 30th which was near determining the issue of the contest. William rode close to the river-side to reconnoitre, and the group of officers attending him having attracted the attention of Tirconnell, the duke of Berwick, and some other Jacobite officers who were riding on the opposite bank, the latter, or King James himself, as the royal memoirs intimate,

ordered two guns to be brought to bear upon the distinguished party. At the second shot a six-pound ball grazed William's right shoulder, carrying away a portion of the skin; and the effect having been observed from the Irish side the rumor spread that William was mortally wounded. To remove the alarm which was produced among his own men he rode that evening through every part of his camp, and seemed to make light of the occurrence; but in the mean time, the news that he had been hit by a cannon-ball, and, as it was supposed, fatally, was transmitted to Dublin and thence to France, and so became known throughout Europe some time before the account of the battle was received, the effect being such as might have been expected according as it reached friends or foes.

With an unaccountable infatuation James appeared resolved to destroy any hope of success which his army might still have cherished. One moment he determined on a general retreat, and for that purpose ordered the camp to be raised; but the next, he altered his plan, and having sent off the baggage and six of his twelve field

squadrons of horse and dragoons, and 52 battalions of infantry; and he has concluded from his laborious researches among military papers in Trinity College, the State Paper Office, and the British Museum, that whatever may have been the actual number of William's troops in the field, his army on this occasion amounted by the regimental roll to 51,000, including officers. The author of the Plunkett MS., who, however, has fallen into several errors in his account of the battle of the Boyne, agrees very nearly with Story, for he makes the forces of the prince of Orange consist of 36,000 effective

men, forming 2 troops of guards, 23 regiments of horse, 5 of dragoons, and 46 of foot; while according to him, James had but 8 regiments of horse, 2 troops of guards, 7 of dragoons, and 50 regiments of foot, besides 6 regiments of French, the whole amounting to 26,000 men. (Compare Dr. Wilde's extracts from Plunkett MS. as before quoted, with the copious authorities collected by Mr. O'Callaghan from James's Memoirs, the Memoirs of the duke of Berwick, Story's History, and various Williamite sources, in his Annotations to *Macaræ Exordium*; also second edition of the *Green Book*.)



pieces to Dublin, he apparently made up his mind to risk a battle. The removal of the baggage was a good preparation for an orderly retreat, but it was a plain intimation to the army that a retreat was contemplated; and the loss of the artillery was a fatal diminution of strength. The king indeed thought of nothing but the means to keep the way open in his rear; and all his anxiety was that the enemy should not, by a flank movement, cut off his retreat to the south, where some say he had already privately directed preparations for his flight to France. Still, with such apprehensions for his personal safety, it is strange how difficult it was to persuade him to take any precautions for the defence of the fords up the river; for late on the eve of the battle he could only be induced to send Sir Niall O'Neill, with his regiment of dragoons, to defend the pass of Rossnaree, about four miles from the Irish camp towards Slane.

The morning of Tuesday, July 1st (old style), 1690, dawned bright and unclouded on the hostile camps. The first movement observed in the Williamite army was the march, at sunrise, of a division of 10,000 picked men, under the command of Lieutenant-general Douglass, Count Schomberg (the marshal's son), and Lord Portland, the last commanding the infantry, along the heights in the direction of Slane. James's Irish officers had prepared him for this movement the night before, and he now saw his fatal error in reject-

ing their advice to provide against it. He hastily ordered the whole of his left wing, which included Lauzun's French division, with part of his centre, and his six remaining field-pieces, to march with all possible expedition to oppose the flanking division; but it was too late to obstruct their passage. The enemy had made all their preparations the night before, and had got the start. The Williamite cavalry forced the passage of the river at Rossnaree, which was gallantly defended by Sir Niall O'Neill, who was mortally wounded, and lost seventy of his men. Portland's infantry and the artillery crossed at Slane, where the bridge had been broken, but the river was fordable.\* James accompanied, or rather followed, Lauzun and the left wing, and professed to expect that the brunt of the fighting would be in that quarter, where, however, no action did take place; for the two hostile corps found themselves separated within half-cannon range by a ravine and a bog, which neither attempted to pass, and thus they did not come into actual collision during the day. Their subsequent movements we shall presently notice.

About ten o'clock, William having learned that his manœuvre on the right had succeeded, already felt assured of the victory.† It was the time of low-water, and the hour for attempting the fords of Oldbridge had arrived. A

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\* Plunkett MS.

† 'Had the Irish,' observes a military authority, "even thrown their opponents back into the river, still



tremendous fire from all his batteries was opened on the whole line of the Irish, who had not a single gun to reply, but who nevertheless steadily awaited the attack. William had directed his men to wear green boughs in their caps; while James, in compliment to his Bourbon ally, had decorated his with strips of white paper. Marshal Schomberg had opposed William's plan of battle in the council of war, but his views were deemed old-fashioned and were overruled, and he was the man commanded by William to direct the passage of the centre at Oldbridge. The Dutch blue guards, described as some of the most effective infantry in the world, were the first, marching ten abreast, to enter the stream, under Count de Solmes, at the highest ford, opposite Oldbridge. So shallow was the water here that the drummers only required to raise the drums to their knees. The Londonderry and Enniskillen horse next, plunged in, and at their left the French Huguenots entered, under Caillemot, brother of the Marquis de Ruvigny. The English infantry came next under Sir John Hanmer and the Count Nassau; lower down were the Danes; and at the fifth ford, which was considerably nearer to Drogheda, and at which the water was deeper than at any of the former, William himself crossed with the cavalry of his left wing. Thus was the Boyne, for nearly a mile of its course, filled

with thousands of armed men, struggling to gain the opposite bank, in the face of a foe their equals in gallantry, but greatly inferior in numbers, discipline, and arms.

The duke of Berwick, whose words we translate, tells us that the king, his father, having marched in the direction of Slane "with the greater part of the army," "left to guard the passage of Oldbridge eight battalions of infantry, under Lieutenant-general Hamilton, and the right wing of the cavalry, under his (the duke of Berwick's) orders." "Schomberg," he continues, "who remained opposite us, attacked and took Oldbridge in spite of the resistance of the regiment which was stationed there, and which lost 150 men killed on the spot; whereupon Hamilton went down with the seven other battalions to expel the enemy. Two battalions of the (Irish) guards scattered them; but their cavalry having managed to pass at another ford, and proceeding to fall upon our infantry, I brought up our cavalry, and thus enabled our battalions to retire; but we had then to commence a combat very unequal, both in the number of the squadrons, and in the nature of the ground, which was very much broken, and where the enemy had slipped in their infantry. Nevertheless, we charged again and again ten different times, and at length, the enemy, confounded by our boldness, halted, and we reformed

William's advancing on their flank, which was uncovered, could not be remedied. The attack by Slane was

the grand manœuvre." Lieutenant-general Keating's *Defence of Ireland*, chap. v., p. 19.



before them, and marched at a slow pace to rejoin the king.”\* This is the honest narrative of a soldier who was in the thick of the fight. The few Irish foot left to defend the fords were, in point of numbers, utterly inadequate; and it is admitted that very few of them had muskets, their principal arm being the pike. At the onset they saw themselves unsupported, and had already suffered severely before the horse came to sustain them; so that, under the circumstances, it does not detract from their character as brave men that they should have given way. Tirconnell, who held the chief command, in the absence of James, behaved like a gallant soldier; but it would have required more consummate generalship than he possessed to retrieve the fortune of the day against such fearful odds. The Irish cavalry fought with desperate valor, the only exceptions being Clare’s and Dungan’s dragoons; and the latter regiment having lost their gallant young commander by a cannon-shot at the commencement of the action, their discouragement was perhaps excusable. It was also unfortu-

nate for the Irish that Sarsfield’s horse accompanied the king that morning as his body-guard, and were thus prevented from taking any part in the conflict. By one of the charges of the Irish cavalry the Danish brigade was driven back into the river. The Huguenot regiments were so hotly received that they also were compelled to recoil, and their commander, Caillemot, was mortally wounded. Old Schomberg, who watched the struggle from the northern bank, now plunged into the river with the impetuosity of a young man, although he was then in his eighty-second summer. He refused to buckle on his cuirass, although pressed to do so by his staff, and hastened to rally the wavering Huguenots at Oldbridge; but at that moment a troop of the Irish horse-guards dashed furiously into the thick of the enemy, and although most of their own number were cut down, it was found when they retired that the gray-headed marshal was no more. He received two sabre wounds on the head, and a carbine bullet in the neck.† About the same time Dr. Walker, to whom Wil-

\* *Memoires du Maréchal de Berwick*, i., 70. From this passage of the duke’s memoirs it will be observed that King James, as already stated above, had accompanied Lauzun and the left wing, and consequently that he could not have been a spectator of the battle from the top of Donore, according to the commonly received notion. The same also appears from Lauzun’s dispatch of the 26th of July, from Limerick, and from James’s own memoirs, vol. ii., p. 395, &c. James, therefore, witnessed none of the fighting at the Boyne, and the common error on the subject originated probably in the Williamite accounts.

† There are various accounts of the death of Schomberg. King James asserts that he was killed at Oldbridge “by Sir Charles Take or O’Toule, an exempt of the guards;” but the Williamite report was that he was shot by a trooper of his own guard who deserted the year before (*Captain Parker’s Memoirs*). Berwick says it was the blue ribbon which he wore that made him a special object in the *melée*. Story says he was “fourscore and two” when he was killed, and that his loss “was more considerable than all that were lost on both sides.” His remains were taken to Dublin, embalmed, and deposited in St. Patrick’s Cathedral until



liam had just given the See of Londonderry, was shot dead in the ford while urging forward the Ulster Protestants; and when William heard of his death, he gruffly asked, "What brought him there?" Where there were gallant officers enough to lead the men, he thought the churchman was out of his place. The battle raged with terrific fury; the tide had begun to flow, and the passage of the river was becoming more difficult; but the Irish horse of one wing had to resist, unsupported, the advance of the whole horse and foot of William's left and centre, and mere human valor was not equal to the task. Richard Hamilton, who behaved like a hero all that day, was wounded and taken prisoner. William, who did not cross the river until late in the action, came up, and leaving his English cavalry, placed himself at the head of the Enniskilleners, saying that they should be his body-guard that day, although one of them, in the excitement of the moment, mistook him for an enemy, and was on the point of killing him. A little later in the day those same Enniskilleners were put to flight rather ignominiously, by the Irish horse at Platten, and were only rallied by William himself. At length the retreat of the Irish became general; but the cavalry retired in admirable order, and covered the broken masses of the infantry. Long before this an

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they should, at a future time, be removed to Westminster Abbey. But they have since remained in their first resting-place.

aid-de-camp brought news to James that the enemy had made good their passage at Oldbridge, whereupon the luckless king ordered Lauzun to march on a parallel direction with that of Douglas and young Schomberg towards Duleek, which place he reached before the flying throng of the Irish foot. Tirconnell came up next; and now the French infantry for the first time rendered good service by their admirable discipline, preserving their own order and co-operating with the Irish cavalry in covering the retreat. Berwick's horse was the last to cross the narrow pass of Duleek with the Williamites close in their rear; but beyond the defile the Irish rallied and once more presented a front to the enemy. Five of the six field-pieces which James had taken with him in the morning towards Slane were still available, the sixth having been bogged on the way; and the Williamite pursuers reined up their steeds, although at this time William was rejoined by young Schomberg and Douglas with the right wing. Again the retreat was resumed in good order, and William's horse pursued, keeping still a respectable distance; and at the deep defile of Naul the last stand was made. It was now nine o'clock; the fighting had lasted since ten in the forenoon; the Irish and French at bay showed a grim and determined front; and the foe, wearied with the day's work, gladly received orders to return to Duleek.

Thus was the Boyne lost and won.



Let no partisan feelings prevent the reader from doing justice to the heroic men on either side. We have given a calm narrative of facts; and we consider that we are justified in concluding from them, that however important in its results—the least of which, as far as Ireland was concerned, was the setting of a dynasty aside—there seldom has been a victory which gave less right to the victors to exult over the vanquished; or a defeat in which the vanquished had less cause to feel the blush of dishonor. As to the loss on both sides, the duke of Berwick states that of the Irish to have been about 1,000 men in all, including, of course, those who were left wounded on the field, and the few stragglers killed in the retreat. Of the Williamite loss it is strange that there was no official report; but Story, who was present in the English camp, admits a loss of 400 slain, which would make, according to the usual proportion, at least 1,200 killed and wounded; and Captain Parker, one of William's officers in the battle, says they had above 500 killed and as many wounded. Thus, at the lowest calculation, the Williamite loss was about equal to that of the Irish, which can only be accounted for by considering the orderly style of the retreat, and the want of energy displayed in the pursuit, which Berwick attributed to the death of Schomberg. Story complains of the "incompleteness of the victory," and says that only

one or two Irish standards were captured. Lauzun's French lost but six men that day; and on William's side it is confessed that the battle was won by the foreign mercenaries, and by the northern Anglo-Irish, while the English troops had very little share in the honors of the day.

James, first in the retreat, arrived in Dublin with some horse early in the evening; and bodies of the Irish infantry coming in, in the course of the night, confirmed the news of the defeat. Next morning the French reached the metropolis, and the Irish cavalry arrived in such excellent order, with martial music, that it was for a moment doubted whether they had lost the battle. On a rumor that the enemy was approaching, the Irish army was again drawn out on the north side of the city to oppose them, but, in truth, William's army did not enter Dublin until late in the evening of the following day, Thursday, July 3d. To dispose, in the first place, of the fugitive king, we have to mention that having called together a hasty meeting of the civil and military authorities at the castle, being either so dull as not to have perceived the effect of his own blunders, or so ungenerous as to try to palliate them at the expense of others, he delivered a short address, in which he cast the blame of his defeat on his Irish soldiers.\* He also showed some concern lest the discontented soldiery should

\* There is a well-known anecdote related of Lady Tirconnell, who having, it is said, met James on his arrival

at the castle, and hearing him reflect sarcastically on the fleetness of the runaway Irish, observed, that his



pillage and burn Dublin; but, on the contrary, we are not told of any act of insubordination or violence which these men committed. At five o'clock on Wednesday morning he set out, and leaving two troops of horse which he had taken with him, to defend the bridge at Bray, as long as they could, should the enemy come up, he continued his journey with a few followers, through the Wicklow mountains. At the house of a Mr. Hackett, near Arklow, he bated his horses for about two hours, and then pursued his way to Duncannon, where, after travelling all night, he arrived at sunrise. Here he embarked on board a small French vessel, which took him by the following morning to Kinsale, whence he sailed with a French squadron, which had been provided for his service by the queen, and which landed him at Brest on the 20th of July, he himself being the first bearer of the news of his misfortune.\*

The news of the king's flight disheartened the Irish soldiers, but Tirconnell, to whom James had intrusted

the chief command, gave orders that they should immediately march to Limerick, each colonel to take his men by the route which he thought best. A great many of the Catholic citizens left Dublin at the same time, together with their families; and in the evening of Wednesday, the 2d of July, Simon Luttrell, the Jacobite governor, evacuated the city with the militia. William entered Dublin on Sunday, when he was received with every demonstration of joy by the Protestant inhabitants, many of whom had been confined as objects of suspicion by James; and he proceeded to St. Patrick's cathedral, where he heard a sermon from Dr. King. He returned to his camp at Finglas for dinner, preferring the small portable wooden house, which he used in campaigning, to the state apartments in Dublin castle.

The day after the passage of the Boyne, Drogheda submitted to William's forces. On the 16th, Kilkenny having been evacuated by a small Irish garrison which held it, opened its gates to a detachment sent under the duke of

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majesty had, at least, the advantage over them in that respect.

\* *King James's Memoirs*, ii., 397-406. The coast was at this time clear from English ships; the combined English and Dutch fleets having been beaten off Beachy-Head, on the 30th of June, by the French Admiral Tourville. It is not true that James, before leaving Dublin, gave orders that each person should shift for himself, or that the army should make the best conditions it could and disperse, although his conduct might seem to imply such orders. After his arrival at St. Germain he importuned the French king for fresh succor to send to Ireland, or for an expedition to be sent into England,

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but Louis saw how useless it was to make any further sacrifice for James, who tells us, that finding he could obtain no succor, he was then obliged to send an order to Tirconnell to come away himself if he chose, and to bring with him as many as were willing to accompany him, or otherwise to make conditions for their remaining in Ireland, if they so preferred. *Memoirs*, ii., p. 413. James blames Tirconnell for having advised his hasty flight from Ireland, but admits that the duke's only motive was his solicitude for his (James's) personal safety, and for the queen's peace of mind. Vide notes to *Macariae Excidium*.



Ormond, with whom William dined on the 19th at his castle in that city; Duncannon was surrendered; and on the 25th of July, Waterford capitulated, its garrison of 1,600 men marching out with arms and baggage for Limerick, towards which city William next directed his course. The Irish having now made the Shannon their line of defence, Lieutenant-general Douglas was sent by William, on the 9th of July, with an army of about 12,000 men, twelve cannons, and two mortars, to lay siege to Athlone, of which Colonel Richard Grace was governor. Douglas appeared before the fortress on the 17th, and after seven days vainly spent before its walls, having nearly exhausted his supply of gunpowder, and heard that Sarsfield was coming up with the Irish horse from Limerick, he raised the siege and withdrew to Mullingar. Thence he proceeded to join William near Limerick, ravaging the country as he passed, and slaying many defenceless people whom he assumed to be rapparees;\* but the expedition cost William on the whole a loss of over 400 men.

The garrisons of Waterford and

other places having been collected into Limerick, there were now in that city, according to the duke of Berwick, about 20,000 foot-soldiers, only one-half of whom, however, were armed; and the Irish cavalry, amounting to about 3,500 men, encamped five miles from the city, on the Clare side of the river. M. Boisseleau, a French officer, was governor: but Lauzun having surveyed the fortifications, pronounced the place to be untenable, swearing that it might be taken with roasted apples, and ordered the entire French division to march to Galway, there to await an opportunity to embark for France. It was supposed that this disgraceful desertion, which took place as William's army was approaching the city, would have the effect of preventing further resistance on the part of the Irish; but its only result was to leave to the Irish foot-soldiers, so unjustly censured for their conduct at Oldbridge, the undivided honor of the subsequent memorable defence of Limerick.†

William's forces when mustered at Cahirconlish, about seven miles south-east of Limerick, on the 7th of August, after the junction of Kirke and Doug-

\* Mr. Lesley tells us that "those who were then called rapparees, and executed as such, were for the most part poor, harmless country people; that they were daily killed in vast numbers, up and down the fields; or taken out of their beds and shot immediately; which many of the Protestants did loudly attest" (*Answer to King*). And in Story's list of those who died in this war, it is said that there were "of rapparees killed by the army or militia, 1,928; of rapparees killed and hanged by the soldiers without any ceremony, 122." *Vide* Sir John Dalrymple's *Memoirs*, &c., part i., p. 176

† To view in its true light the conduct of the French in Ireland, during this war, one must bear in mind that they were the allies not of the Irish but of the dethroned king of England, whose cause they deemed hopeless, and for whose interests they could have felt little sympathy. It is therefore unjust to their chivalrous nation, to assert that either on this occasion, or at any time in the course of this war, they betrayed the Irish, in whose national cause they had not been called on to act. The case would have been different, and so, also, we may presume, would have been the conduct of the French



las, amounted to 38,000 effective men.\* On the 9th the whole army approached Limerick and encamped at Singland, in the southeastern suburbs. Next day they occupied the post called Iretton's fort; planted a few field-pieces on Gallow's-green to annoy the town, and sent a summons to the governor, who consulted with Tirconnell, Sarsfield, and other officers, as there was some doubt what course should be pursued. The answer, however, was worthy of brave men. It was addressed to William's secretary from a sense of politeness, as the governor could not give William himself the title of king; and was to the effect that he hoped to merit the good opinion of the prince of Orange better by a vigorous defence than by a shameful surrender of the fortress with which he had been intrusted by his master, King James.

At this time William had only his field artillery, but his heavy battering train, consisting of six twenty-four-pounders and two eighteen-pounders, together with a great quantity of ammunition and provisions, tin boats to convey troops on the Shannon, and other necessaries for the siege, was

coming from Dublin, under a convoy, and was immediately expected in the camp. This important intelligence was conveyed by a French gunner who deserted to the city the day after William appeared before the walls, and it was soon turned to good account. Whether solely at his own suggestion, according to the generally received opinion, or acting on the orders of Tirconnell, as Berwick relates, Brigadier-general Sarsfield flew to the horse-camp, obtained a party of 500 picked men, and with them disappeared that night in the direction of Killaloe. The next day (Monday, the 11th) he halted unobserved at Silvermines, on the northern slope of the Keeper mountain, waiting for information through his scouts from the plain below. In the mean time, one Manus O'Brien, whom Story describes as "a substantial country gentleman," came to the English camp, and told how Sarsfield had left the night before, on what was believed to be some desperate enterprise; but his statement attracted at first little attention. At length it came to the ears of William, who then gave O'Brien an interview, and who, although he did

troops, had they been sent to aid the Irish as a nation against England; but the cause of James was already lost. As to Lauzun, his proper sphere was a court, with its intrigues, not a camp, with its hardships. He was no general. King James plainly intimates in his memoirs, that Lauzun wished Limerick to fall, in order that his own conduct might be excused. He desired to get back to Versailles at any hazard, and had so inspired his officers and men with his own sentiments, that there was among them a general cry to be recalled to France. They complained that they could get in Ireland no

bread, without which they could not live, although the Irish managed to dispense with it very well. The opinions of Louvois on that war and his hostility to the unhappy James were also well understood; and to countenance them, some of the officers wrote home that all the French in Ireland were doomed men if not recalled immediately. Yet to letters dictated by such obvious prejudices Lord Macaulay has unfairly referred in his history as a testimony against the Irish.

\* Griffith's *Villars Hibernicum*, a Williamite authority.



not seem to think much of the matter, nevertheless ordered out 500 horse to meet the artillery. Again Sarsfield's good fortune prevailed, and the party of Williamite cavalry, which was commanded by Sir John Lanier, was not ready to march until two o'clock in the morning. The artillery convoy, on their route from Cashel, had halted that night at the small ruined castle of Ballyneety, near the borders of Tipperary.\* Being now only a few miles in the rear of William's camp, while the Irish enemy were closely besieged in Limerick, they felt secure, and the men having turned their horses out to graze retired to rest, leaving only a few sentinels on guard. Meanwhile Sarsfield, led by faithful guides, had been pursuing devious and difficult paths throughout the night, and it was near morning when his approach aroused the sleeping convoy. The English bugles sounded to horse, but the conflict which ensued was very brief. Every man who resisted was cut down to the number of about sixty, and the rest, all but one, took to flight. The heavy cannons destined to batter down the walls of Limerick were then charged with powder, and their mouths being fixed in the earth, they were fired, and burst; the boats were broken; the wagons and other articles which could not easily be carried off were collected

into a heap and burned; and the magazine of gunpowder being fired by train, exploded with a terrific sound which shook the earth to a distance of miles around. Sir John Lanier's party saw the flash, and heard the rumbling noise, about an hour after they had left the camp. They rightly guessed the cause, and only arrived in time to find that every thing was reduced to ashes, and that their efforts to intercept the intrepid Sarsfield and his gallant band were in vain.

The success of this hazardous enterprise animated the besieged with fresh resolution; while in the camp of the enemy it produced mingled rage and consternation. William, nevertheless, determined to press the siege with the utmost vigor, and sent to Waterford for more heavy artillery. Two of the great guns, found dismounted among the debris which Sarsfield had left at Ballyneety, proved to be still available; and the walls of Limerick were so weak, that even field-pieces were sufficient to make an impression on them. One of William's first proceedings before Limerick was to send Generals Ginkell and Kirke, with about 5,000 horse and foot, to effect the passage of the Shannon. This was performed by the aid of pontoons near St. Thomas's Island, north of the city, without any opposition. Tirconnell, who was old and feeble, and

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\* The site of this castle is marked on the ordnance map, about three and a-half miles south of the Pallas station of the Limerick and Waterford Railway, and between two and three miles nearly west of the Oola

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station on the same line. Though it is about fifteen statute miles from Limerick, the outposts of William's army were, probably, not much more than seven miles distant.



had no hope in the defence of Limerick, had joined Lauzun in Galway, and withdrawn the Irish horse to a remote distance; and Sarsfield had set out on his own famous expedition. It was feared that Limerick would be invested on both sides, but Ginkell's and Kirke's division recrossed the Shannon that night, the demonstration being apparently intended only against the Irish cavalry; and Berwick ordered the destruction of the corn on the north side, that the enemy might not have the inducement to come again to that quarter for forage. On the 13th, Brigadier Stuart was sent by William to take Castleconnell, which was surrendered after a slight resistance by its governor, Captain Barnwall, and the garrison of 120 men made prisoners of war.

The trenches before Limerick were opened on the 17th of August, and the approaches were pushed forward with all possible energy. The high towers from which the besieged could fire into the trenches were battered down, and two redoubts and a small fort were taken, though not without considerable loss on the part of the besiegers. On the 20th a vigorous sortie was made, which somewhat retarded the enemy's works; but by the 24th all the Williamite batteries were completed, and a fire from 36 pieces of cannon was opened upon the walls and town; some of the guns pouring red-hot shot, and a battery of four mortars throwing a shower of shells among the houses; yet not the least effect was produced upon

the resolution either of the citizens or the garrison. At length, on Wednesday, the 27th, the trenches having been carried within a few feet of the palisades, and a breach of 36 feet wide having been made in the wall near John's Gate, William commanded the assault to take place. Ten thousand men were ordered to support the storming party; and at half-past three in the afternoon, at a given signal, 500 grenadiers leaped from the trenches, fired their pieces, threw their grenades, and in a few moments had mounted the breach. The Irish were not unprepared, although at that moment the attack was not expected. The governor, Boisseleau, had caused an intrenchment to be made inside the breach, and behind this he had planted a few pieces of cannon, a cross-fire from which told with murderous effect upon the assailants, after they had filled the space between the breach and the intrenchment. For one instant they halted, but the next they pushed forward, and many of them actually entered the town. The advantage, however, was momentary, and cost the intruders dearly. The Irish rallied, and, at the point of the sword and pike, drove the storming party back over the breach, where a most terrific conflict now ensued. Few there were, indeed, of the first assailants who were not *hors de combat*, but thousands of their comrades were in possession of the counterscarp, and ready to supply their place; they were under the eyes of King William himself, who was looking on from



Cromwell's battery; and they fought hard to regain the advantage which they had just lost. On the other hand, the Irish soldiers behaved with the most desperate intrepidity; they were animated by the townspeople; and the very women, says the Williamite chaplain, Story, rushed boldly into the breach, and stood nearer to the enemy than to their own men, hurling stones and broken bottles into the face of the former. For nearly three hours was this deadly struggle maintained, and during that time never was breach more fiercely assailed or more nobly defended. The Brandenburg regiment, which showed great determination, had gained the Black Battery, but at that moment a mine was sprung by the Irish, or, as Story would have it, "the powder happened to take fire," and the Brandenburgers were blown up, "men, faggots, stones, and what not, flying in the air with a most terrible noise." The duke of Berwick, in his memoirs, adds another important incident. He says Brigadier Talbot, who was then in one of the outworks, called the horn-work, with 500 men, ran along the wall on the outside, and charging the enemy in the rear routed them, and then entered the town through the breach. It was

probably against Talbot's party that Colonel Cutts was engaged when sent, according to Story, by the duke of Wurtemberg, towards "the spur at the south gate." "From half an hour after three till after seven," continues the Williamite historian, "there was one continued fire of both great and small shot, without any intermission, inso-much that the smoke that went from the town reached in one continued cloud to the top of a mountain" (the Keeper hill) "at least six miles off. When our men drew off, some were brought up dead, and some without a leg, others wanted arms, and some were blind with powder; especially a great many of the poor Brandenburgers looked like furies with the misfortune of gunpowder . . . The king stood nigh Cromwell's fort all the time, and the business being over, he went to his camp very much concerned, as indeed was the whole army; for you might have seen a mixture of anger and sorrow in everybody's countenance." Well indeed might William have been "concerned," for he lost over 2,000 men in killed and wounded that day.\*

Various reasons are assigned by the Williamites for the discontinuance of the siege. The ammunition, they say,

\*The account in the *London Gazette* makes William's loss, on the 27th of August alone, 455 killed, and 1,293 wounded, or 1,748 in all, without including the Brandenburgers, who, according to the Williamite accounts, had 400 *hors de combat* at the Black Battery, which would give a total of 2,148. The author of the Plunkett MS. says the besieged had not above a hundred men killed, but the report which makes the total

Irish loss in that glorious affair 400, is more to be relied on. Mr. O'Callaghan (*Macariae Excid.*, p. 378, and *Green Book*, p. 117) cites a MS. Jacobite account of the siege, in his possession, which makes the loss of the enemy from the beginning to the end of the siege 5,000 men, and that of the Irish during the same period 1,062 soldiers and 97 officers killed and wounded. The Limerick historian, O'Halloran and following him, Dalrym



was running low; the ground was swampy, and the season rainy; but we are told with more probability by Jacobite authorities that the Ulster Protestants objected to a second assault, as its failure would have caused a general rising of the Catholics, and the risk would have been therefore too great; and they add that William showed excessive bad humor at the council of war. On Sunday, the 31st of August, the besieging army marched off rather precipitately, fearing a pursuit; which, however, the garrison had no means to attempt, as their cavalry were not at hand. William went by Clonmel to Waterford, and at Duncannon took shipping on the 5th of September for England, leaving the command of the army to Count de Solmes, who was succeeded soon after by De Ginkell, and intrusting the civil government to Lord Sidney, Sir Charles Porter, and Mr. Coningsby as lords justices.

As soon as the siege of Limerick was raised, a French squadron arrived at Galway, and took off Lauzun and his division, and with him departed the duke of Tirconnell, who went to represent to James the actual state of affairs in Ireland, having committed to the duke of Berwick, who was then only twenty years of age, the chief command, with a council of regency and a council

of war to assist him. Scarcely, indeed, had the enemy disappeared from before the walls of Limerick, when the jealousies that had long existed among the Irish leaders broke out into open and most fatal dissension. Tirconnell had become exceedingly unpopular. His overbearing manner was never calculated to gain friends; the partiality of which he was accused in the exercise of his patronage was sure to create many enemies; his incapacity as a general, aggravated as it was by the dulness and feebleness of age, provoked the contempt of his military colleagues; his friendship for Lauzun, of whom the army had such good cause to complain, was injurious to his popularity; his Anglo-Irish sympathies displeased the native Irish, who were now the most important element in the Jacobite party, and whose views were becoming daily more national; all these circumstances lowered him in the estimation of the people, and strengthened the faction which was formed against him among the leaders. Subsequent events, however, enable us to appreciate at its just value this opposition to Tirconnell; and while we admit his faults, it is enough for us to know that the chief organizer of the cabal against him was the traitor, Henry Luttrell; and that English writers who have shown the

ple, relate that the victorious Irish having pursued the English into the camp, assisted them to extinguish a fire that had broken out in the English hospital; but this probably refers to the period of the raising of the siege, three days after, when, according to Mageo-

ghegan, the enemy on departing set their hospital on fire. O'Halloran, *Introduct. to Hist. of Ireland*, vol. i., chap. v., p. 407, ed. 1819; *Dalrymple*, vol. iii., p. 42; Abbé Mageoghegan, *Hist. of Ireland*, p. 594. Duffy's ed.



bitterest enmity to the Irish, have been also unanimous in endeavoring to depreciate Tirconnell's character. One or two unprincipled enemies found it easy to kindle the flame of popular displeasure against such a man; and in the chivalrous Sarsfield, whose unsophisticated mind was readily imposed on, they found an influential ally. As to the charges against Tirconnell of holding secret correspondence with the Williamite authorities, and intending to betray the Irish interests, they are the unsupported assertions of enemies, and we are assured by the most diligent investigator of this portion of our history that he has never been able to discover any authentic confirmation of them.\*

An expedition, conducted by the duke of Berwick and Sarsfield, marched on the 14th of September to attack the castle of Birr, but retired on the 19th before a greatly superior force under the command of Generals Douglas, Kirke, and Sir John Lanier. If it served no other purpose, the expedition had at least the effect of occupying and dividing the Williamite army, which would otherwise have been concentra-

ted against Cork; before which town the celebrated John Churchill, then earl, and afterwards duke, of Marlborough,† appeared on the 22d of September with an army of 15,000 men, composed chiefly of the duke of Wurtemberg's division and of 8,000 fresh troops, which he himself had brought from England. Marlborough urged the siege with vigor, and his great military genius was more keenly stimulated by a claim which the duke of Wurtemberg had the presumption to set up to the chief command. The garrison was numerous, but was badly supplied with the munitions of war; and the town being unfit to stand a siege, the governor, Lieutenant-colonel M'Eligot, was blamed for not evacuating it and retiring to Kerry, as he had been directed by the Jacobite authorities in Limerick to do. On the 27th the walls were breached, and the following day an assault was ordered. The grenadiers of the storming party were led by the duke of Grafton, who had been vice-admiral of England under James, and who was mortally wounded by a ball in advancing to the breach, and died a few days after in Cork. At the last moment the

\* See the authorities adduced on this subject by Mr. O'Callaghan in his annotations to the *Macariae Excidium*. It is evident that the confidence of King James and the duke of Berwick in Tirconnell never suffered any diminution, although they survived him long enough to witness the results of his conduct, and to hear all the charges against him. Hallam's statement about Tirconnell's alleged plans to separate Ireland and make himself king, is supported by some curious evidence, and appears to be such a wild project as the ambitious Richard Talbot might at some time for a

moment have entertained. See Hallam's *Constitutional History of England*, vol. iii., p. 530, ed. 1829.

† The duke of Marlborough was uncle to the duke of Berwick, whose mother, Arabella Churchill, Marlborough's sister, was mistress of James II. when duke of York. The duke of Marlborough was the bosom friend of James II., and is taxed with base ingratitude for turning immediately to William's side. Henry Fitzroy, duke of Grafton, mentioned a little further on, was an illegitimate son of Charles II., and was therefore the nephew of James against whom he fought.



governor beat a parley, and the garrison, to the number of between 4,000 and 5,000 men, became prisoners of war. Their ammunition had been reduced to two small barrels of powder, so that further resistance was impossible; and to the disgrace of the English military authorities, the conditions on which these brave men surrendered were most shamefully violated.\*

From Cork, Marlborough marched the very same day to Kinsale, which the garrison set on fire at his approach, retiring into the old and new forts, which they were determined to defend. The English extinguished the fire, and Marlborough applied all his energies to the siege of the forts, which he found stronger than he expected; the season being already so far advanced that he feared the consequences of a protracted resistance. The old fort was stormed on the 3d of October, and its garrison killed or taken prisoners. The new fort was valiantly defended by Sir Ed-

ward Scott, who, in reply to the enemy's summons to surrender, said "it would be time enough to capitulate a month hence." He hoped to be relieved by the Duke of Berwick, who, after mustering seven or eight thousand men at Kilmallock for that purpose, feared to make the attempt, the besieging army being too powerful. On the 15th the garrison, numbering 1,200 men, capitulated, and were allowed to march out with their arms and baggage for Limerick. The winter passed off without any other military operations of importance, except simultaneous attempts by the Williamite army to cross the Shannon at Lanesborough, Jamestown, and Banagher, all which were successfully resisted by Sarsfield and Berwick, who were most accurately informed, through their spies, of all the movements of the enemy. The raparees gave the Williamites a good deal of annoyance during the winter, and some treasonable projects for the

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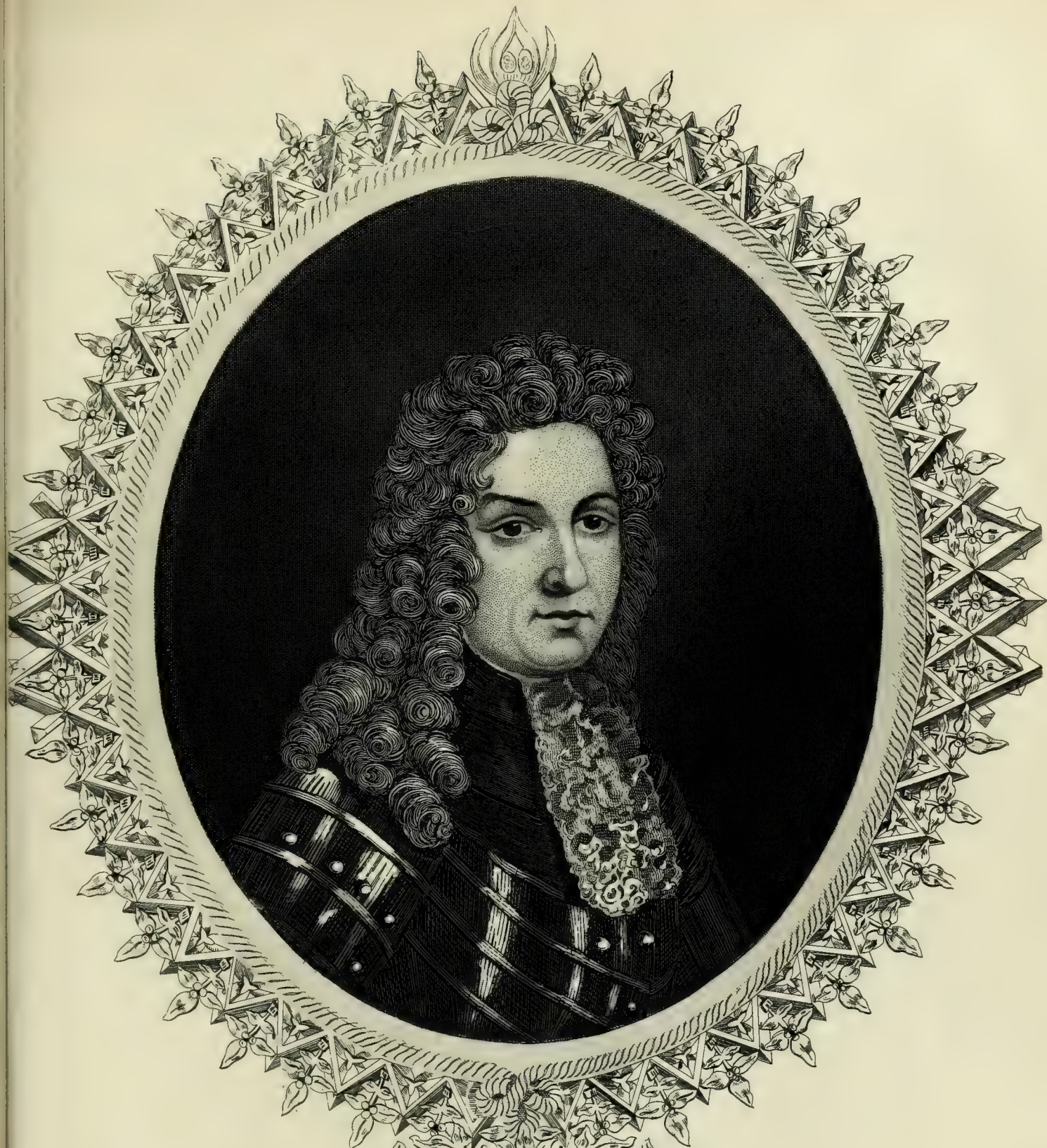
\* The Rev. Charles Leslie informs us that General MacCarthy narrowly escaped being murdered after the surrender, and could get no satisfaction on his complaint to the English general; and he goes on to state "that the garrison, after laying down their arms, were stripped and marched to a marshy wet ground, where they were kept with guards four or five days, and not being sustained were forced through hunger to eat dead horses that lay about them, and several of them dyed for want. That when they were removed thence they were so crowded in jails, houses, and churches that they could not all lye down at once, and had nothing but the bare floor to lye on, where, for want of sustenance, and lying in their own excrements, with dead carcases lying whole weeks in the same place with them caused such infection that they dyed in great numbers daily. And that the Roman Catholic inhabitants, tho' promised safety and protection, had their

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goods seized, and themselves stripped and turned out of town soon after." (Leslie's *Answer to King*, p. 162).

King James's memoirs confirm those statements, while Williamite authorities would attribute the sufferings of the Irish prisoners to the destitution and disease which even the Williamite garrison endured; but the monstrous barbarities practised towards both the prisoners and the inhabitants remain unexplained. It is a remarkable fact, exemplified in all the wars in this country since the Anglo-Norman invasion, that the English were notorious for not keeping faith with the Irish in treaties and capitulations, so that it became a settled principle with the Irish to place no reliance even on the most solemn promises of their English foes. To this circumstance may be attributed many a protracted struggle, where resistance was kept up long after all hope must have been extinguished.

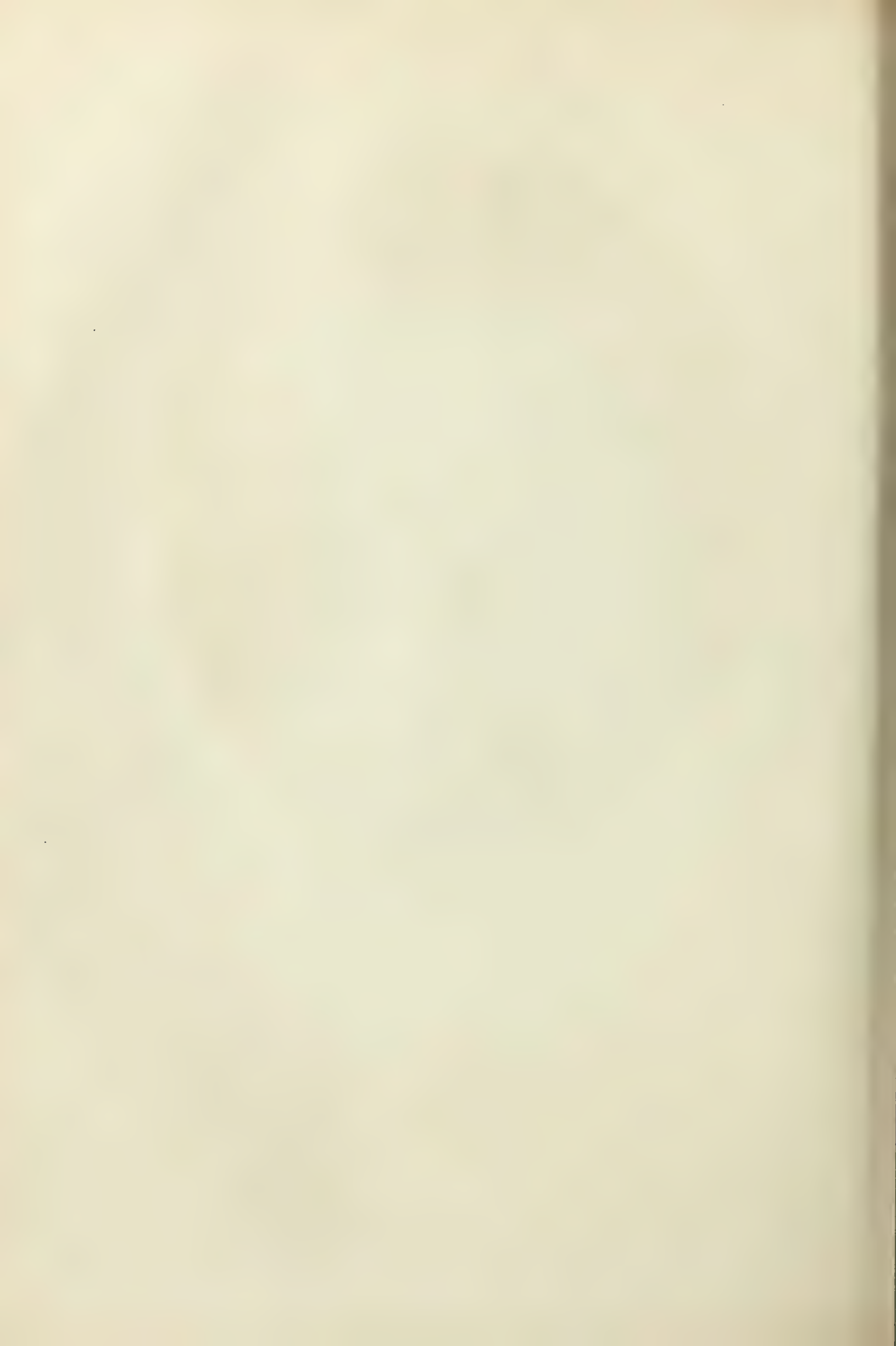




1690

Killeshin near Limerick







delivery of Galway to the enemy, and for the passage of the Shannon, were timely discovered by Sarsfield.

A meeting of those opposed to Tirconnell having been held in Limerick, an attempt was made to induce the duke of Berwick to alter the form of government left by Tirconnell, as being unconstitutional, and to accept a council composed of two representatives from each of the provinces; but Berwick resolutely refused to yield to this request; consenting, however, that four agents should be sent to France to express the opinions of the leaders and explain the state of the army. Two of these agents were Brigadier Henry Luttrell and Colonel Purcell, whom Berwick expressly selected, that they might be detained in France as persons whom he deemed turbulent and dangerous; and he sent Brigadier Maxwell as his private emissary to explain his wishes on the subject to his father, King James. On the voyage, Henry Luttrell and Purcell suspecting the object of Maxwell's journey proposed to throw him overboard, but were prevented by the bishop of Cork and the elder Luttrell, who were the other two deputies; and at St. Germain James was made sensible of the danger which his cause in Ireland would incur should any of the agents be forcibly detained.\*

The representations of Tirconnell at

Versailles and St. Germain were ultimately successful, notwithstanding the impeachments against him, and he received most encouraging promises; but unhappily the orders of Louis were not carried out by his ministers and their subordinates; and Tirconnell returned to Ireland about the middle of January, 1691, with a very inadequate supply of money, and some provisions, but no men. He appears to have received but 28,000 louis d'or, of which he left 10,000 at Brest to purchase provisions; but notwithstanding the smallness of the sum which he brought, he ventured, on his arrival, to cry down the copper money, a proceeding which revived public confidence and greatly improved trade. He also brought from King James a patent creating Sarsfield earl of Lucan, viscount of Tully, and baron of Rosberry.† The duke of Berwick left Ireland the following month for France.

On the 8th of May, 1691, a French fleet arrived in the Shannon, bringing a large quantity of provisions, clothing, arms, and ammunition for the Irish troops, but neither men nor money. In this fleet came Lieutenant-general St. Ruth, a French officer of great bravery, ability, energy, and experience, who was sent to take the chief command of the Irish army; and with him were two other French officers of rank, Major-generals d'Usson and de Tessé;

\* *Memoires du Maréchal de Berwick*, tom. i. pp. 88, 90; *Memoirs of K. James II.*, vol. ii., pp. 422, &c. "Events proved," says Mr. O'Callaghan, "how just was the duke of Tirconnell's aversion to Henry Luttrell, a

bad man, the father of a bad man, and the grandfather of a bad man."—*Macaria Excid.*, p. 397, note.

† Patrick Sarsfield, whose memory is so justly and proudly cherished by his countrymen, was descended



but it will be observed that James's army in Ireland was at this time exclusively composed of Irish soldiers. Tirconnell was still viceroy, but with private instructions from James not to interfere in any way with St. Ruth in the management of military affairs. Hitherto the Irish army had been in a most wretched state; the men were clothed in rags; the officers were scarcely better off; food was so scarce that the use of horse-flesh was frequently resorted to; and the ordinary pay of the Irish foot-soldier, when money could be procured for the purpose, was only one penny per day! Let us compare this state of the Irish army with that of the magnificent force which Baron de Ginkell was then organizing in Leinster, preparatory to a campaign, in

which all the resources of England were to be employed to bring the war in Ireland to a close. "The greater part of the English force," says Macaulay, "was collected before the close of May, in the neighborhood of Mullingar. Ginkell commanded in chief. He had under him the two best officers—after Marlborough—of which our island (England) could then boast, Talmash and Mackay. The marquis of Ruvigny, the hereditary chief of the refugees, and elder brother of that brave Caillemot who had fallen at Boyne, had joined the army with the rank of major-general. The lord justice Coningsby, though not by profession a soldier, came down from Dublin to animate the zeal of the troops. The appearance of the camp showed that

paternally from an ancient and respectable Anglo-Norman family of the Pale, and maternally from a most ancient and illustrious Irish stock; his father being Patrick Sarsfield, Esq., of Lucan, in the county of Dublin; and his mother, Ann, the daughter of the brave and high-minded patriot of 1641, Colonel Roger O'More. His elder and only brother, William, dying without male issue, he inherited the estate of Lucan, producing an income of about £2,000 a year. He commenced his military career early; serving first as an ensign in France, in the regiment of Monmouth, and then as lieutenant of the Guards in England. He went with King James to France in December, 1688, and returned with him to Ireland, in 1689, when he was made a privy councillor, a colonel of horse and a brigadier. We have seen above some of the important duties in which he was subsequently engaged, and shall find him employed in the same active manner up to the close of this war. Subsequent to the first siege of Limerick, he was made major-general. After the treaty of Limerick, in October, 1691, we shall see him sacrificing his fine estate and rejecting offers of advancement in the Williamite army, to accompany the Irish army to France, where he was appointed by James to the command of his second troop of Irish horse-guards. In July, 1692, he distinguished himself at the battle of Steenkirk, in

which the allies under William III. were defeated by the French under the Marshal de Luxembourg. He was created *maréchal-de-camp* or major-general in the service of France by Louis XIV., and in that rank was killed in July, 1693, in the great battle of Landen, in which the allies under William III. were again overthrown by Luxembourg. "His character," says Mr. O'Callaghan, "may be comprehended in the words, simplicity, disinterestedness, honor, loyalty, and bravery." (*History of the Irish Brigades in the service of France*, vol. i., p. 135.) He married the lady Honora de Burgo, second daughter of William, seventh earl of Clanrickard; by whom he left one son, who served under the duke of Berwick (who married Sarsfield's widow), and died in Spain without issue. Sarsfield's brother, William, who had married Mary, a daughter of Charles II. and sister of the duke of Monmouth, left a daughter, Charlotte, who was married to Agmondesham Vesey; and their daughter, Anne, was married to Sir John Bingham of Mayo, whose son, Sir Charles, was created earl of Lucan by George III., in 1776. (*Archdall's Lodge*, vol. vii., p. 107.) In stature Sarsfield was exceedingly tall. There is a French portrait of him, engraved after a picture painted by "My lady Bingham," who was no doubt the above-named Anne, grand-niece of the illustrious Irish soldier



the money voted by the English parliament had not been spared. The uniforms were new; the ranks were one blaze of scarlet, and the train of artillery was such as had never before been seen in Ireland.”\*

Such was the army which, on the 7th of June, commenced the campaign of 1691, with the siege of Ballymore Castle, in Westmeath, the most advanced outpost of the Irish in that direction. The castle, which stands on the verge of Lough Seudy, was defenceless towards the lake, and as the besiegers not only battered it with their artillery on the land side, but approached it on that of the water by boats, the governor, Colonel Ulick Burke, deemed it right to surrender on the following day having, as Story says, only “two small Turkish pieces, mounted upon old cart-wheels,” to reply to the battering train of the enemy. Ginkell remained until the 18th at Ballymore, repairing and strengthening the works; and having been joined by the duke of Wurtemberg and Count Nassau, with 7,000 foreign mercenaries, he then marched against Athlone. The English town, or Leinster side of Athlone, was never of much military strength. Ginkell, with an army then about 18,000 strong, appeared before it on the 19th of June, and soon effected such a breach in its slender wall, that he was able to

assault it the following day with 4,000 men; and the small Irish garrison posted at that side of the river, having lost 200 of their number, retreated by the bridge, which they held in the face of the enemy until they had broken down two arches on the Connaught side. The Shannon, at this place, is wide and rapid, but was fordable a little below the bridge, at a point not then known to the English, and breastworks were thrown up along the river at the Connaught side. Late on the 20th, St. Ruth was informed of the fall of the English town, and advancing with the Irish army, which he had just got into marching order, and which amounted, according to the most probable account, to 15,000 horse and foot, he encamped two or three miles from the Irish town of Athlone.† The English raised their works, on the Leinster side of the river, to a great height, and by the aid of fifty battering cannon and ten mortars, from which they kept up an incessant fire, night and day, they were soon able to beat down the face of the castle which lay next to them, and to level the works of the Irish along the water side. Besides shells, they threw from their mortars implements of destruction, called “carcasses,” which were filled with combustible materials, and which set the thatched houses on fire; and both houses and every thing in the shape of

\* Lord Macaulay's *History of England*, vol. vi., p. 82.

† *Macaræ Excidium*, p. 118. Mr. O'Callaghan says the best estimate he has been able to form of the largest force St. Ruth had about Athlone, during the

siege, including the garrison and the troops encamped with himself, some miles to the rear of the place, is from 22,000 to 23,000 infantry and cavalry. *Ibid.* p. 421.



masonry were so levelled on the Connaught side, that the Irish soldiers had no breastwork from behind which they could fire; and the besiegers, according to their own account, could stand with impunity on the river-side and look over.\* The town was, in fact, reduced to a mass of rubbish, through which it was impossible for two men to walk abreast in any part; and we are told by the Williamite, Story, that the besiegers threw into it 12,000 cannon bullets, 600 bombs, and many tons of stones shot from the mortars, and that the siege cost them "nigh 50 tons of powder." The Irish, who had only a few field-pieces, nevertheless prevented the English from constructing a bridge of boats. The besiegers then endeavored to throw planks over the broken arches of the bridge, and they had nearly succeeded in this design, when eight or ten intrepid Irishmen undertook to pull down the planks and beams again, and performed their task under the terrible fire of the enemy—most of them, of course, being killed in that fearful duty. "The 26th," says the Williamite historian just cited, "was spent in firing, from seven batteries, upon the enemy's works, and a great many were killed in endeavoring to repair them. About 30 wagons laden with powder came to the camp; and that night we possess ourselves of all the bridge, except one arch at the fur-

ther end, on the Connaught side, which was broke down, and we repair another broken arch in our possession; and all night our guns and mortars play most furiously . . . . We labor hard to gain the bridge: but what we got here was inch by inch, as it were, the enemy sticking very close to it, though great numbers of them were slain by our guns." Well might the French generals, who witnessed this heroism of the Irish soldiers, acknowledge that "they never saw more resolution and firmness in any men of any nation; nay, blamed the men for their forwardness, and cried them up for brave fellows, as intrepid as lions."†

It was the general opinion in both armies, that the attempt to pass the Shannon at Athlone would not succeed but Ginkell was resolved to persevere. He made a final attempt to cross the bridge by means of a close gallery, which, however, the Irish contrived to set on fire, and he was once more foiled. At length it was suggested that owing to the dryness of the season the river might be fordable, and three Danes, who were sent on that dangerous duty, succeeded in finding the ford already referred to, which would admit twenty men to march abreast, and where for the greater part of the way the water would not then reach above the knee, nor at the deepest part above the middle. But for this discovery the siege would

\* *Memoirs of Captain Parker, and Rawdon Papers*, quoted in *Annotations to Macaria's Excid.*, pp 422, 423.

† Letter of Colonel Felix O'Niell to the countess of Antrim, in the *Rawdon Papers*, p. 346.



have been raised, and St. Ruth still believed the enemy would not attempt the ford.

While every energy of the besieging army was thus directed with precision by the will of one commander, there was no one in the Irish camp whose authority was implicitly obeyed, and fatal jealousies and divisions prevailed. Tirconnell intermeddled with military matters to the great annoyance of St. Ruth, and with neither St. Ruth nor Tirconnell was Sarsfield in favor. To prepare against an assault, however desperate he believed such an attempt would be, St. Ruth ordered the ramparts on the western or Connaught side of the town to be levelled, that a whole battalion might enter abreast to relieve the garrison when the assault took place; but d'Usson, who had been made governor, first opposed the plan, and then neglected to have the orders executed when St. Ruth insisted on the demolition. On the other hand, d'Usson wished to have the defences on the river-side intrusted to a particular corps of picked men; but St. Ruth required that each battalion should take the duty in turn, in order that all might be accustomed to the enemy's fire. At the critical moment to which we have now come, it happened that this important post was intrusted to two regiments composed mostly of recruits, and that the officer in command was Major-general or Colonel Thomas Maxwell, a Scotchman, the same who had been sent on a private embassy to France

by Berwick, and who was therefore a partisan of Tirconnell and was unpopular in the army. Maxwell, as we are told by one party, observed certain preparations among the besiegers and demanded a re-enforcement of troops, but was answered that if he were afraid, another general officer would be sent in his place: while by the other, or St. Ruth party, it is stated that Maxwell refused to supply his men with ammunition, and asked them, when they demanded some, if they wanted to shoot larks; and they also insinuate that he had an understanding with the enemy to betray his post. The Williamite historians say that at this juncture two Irish officers swam over the river and assured Ginkell that "now was his time; that the Irish were mighty secure; and that three (rightly two) of the most indifferent Irish regiments were only then upon guard, the rest being secure in their camp."\* At length all was prepared for the assault. Two thousand chosen men were set apart. Ginkell distributed a gratuity of guineas among them. The command was given to Major-general Mackay, assisted by Major-general Tettau, the prince of Hesse, and Brigadier la Meloniere; the grenadiers were commanded by Colonel Gustavus Hamilton, and with these latter Major-general Talmash went as a volunteer. The signal was the tolling of the church-bell a few minutes past six o'clock, P. M., on the

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\* *Harris's Life of William III; Story, &c*



30th of June. The detachment of grenadiers first took the ford, and they were supported by six battalions of foot. The bastion which commanded the ford on the Irish side had been already breached, and during the passage of the river an incessant fire was kept up from all the English batteries, and from the musketry in the trenches. Taken by surprise, the Irish soldiers who guarded the opposite side could do little more than discharge their muskets once and fly. They believed themselves to have been betrayed. Maxwell was made prisoner by the English; and the fording party having laid planks over the broken arches as soon as they gained the other side, the besiegers poured in their columns across the bridge. The garrison fled in disorder. D'Usson had been a cannon-shot from the town at the time of the attack, and in hastening to the gate he was overturned and severely hurt by the flying multitude. Thus in half an hour the besiegers were masters of the mass of rubbish and ruins which then occupied the site of the Irish town of Athlone; and the surprise had been so complete, that the Williamites, according to their own account, lost in the assault only forty-six men killed and wounded.\* The means of defence which the Irish possessed during this memorable siege may be judged from the fact that the enemy found in the

works when taken only six brass field-pieces and two mortars!

St. Ruth, who was not aware of the attack until all was over, sent some regiments of infantry from the camp to succor the town, but they saw their own ramparts manned with English soldiers. He then moved his army to Ballinasloe, twelve miles off, and encamped with the river Suck between him and the enemy. A council of war was held, and it was resolved that they should there give battle; but St. Ruth, who was anxious to come to an engagement, to blot out the disgrace of Athlone, subsequently removed the camp to Aughrim, a place about three miles distant on the road to Galway, and which he preferred to the banks of the Suck. As to Tirconnell, the outcry against him having become louder and more general, he left the camp immediately after the surprise of Athlone, and repaired to Limerick.

The choice of ground which St. Ruth made on this occasion evinced the skill of the general. The Irish army encamped along the ridge of the high land called Kilcommadan Hill, which runs nearly northwest and southeast, then bounded towards Ballinasloe by a morass, through which flowed a small stream, and which was practicable for foot but not for cavalry. On the right flank was the tolerably open pass of Urraghree; and the Irish left rested on the then insignificant village of Aughrim, where there was another pass, or rather causeway, through the bog but

\* Leslie says the English killed a hundred men in cold blood in the castle of Athlone and in an outwork, after they had become masters of the place



so narrow in one part that only two horsemen could ride abreast, while it was moreover commanded by the ruinous castle of the O'Kelly's, in which St. Ruth posted Colonel Walter Burke with 200 men. The infantry were disposed in the centre in two lines; the front line having formed several breast-works of hedges which ran along the bottom of the slope, near the verge of the morass. In the right wing the principal portion of the Irish horse were placed, to defend the important pass of Urraghree; in the left wing there were also some horse and dragoons, but St. Ruth appeared to think that the enemy would not attempt the narrow causeway at that side. Some of the cavalry were posted behind the second line of the foot in the centre, as a reserve.

The advanced guards of the Williamites came in sight of the Irish on the 11th of July; and the following morning, which was Sunday, while the Irish army was assisting at Mass, the whole force of the enemy drew up in line of battle on the high ground to the east, beyond the morass. As nearly as the strength of the two armies can be estimated, that of the Irish was about 15,000, horse and foot, and that of the Williamites from 20,000 to 25,000; the latter having besides a numerous artillery, while the Irish had but nine field-pieces.\*

The morning having been hazy, it was past eleven o'clock before Ginkell could obtain a clear view of the Irish position, and commence his own operations. He then saw that he had no ordinary difficulties to encounter; but knowing his own great superiority in artillery, he hoped by the aid of that arm alone to dislodge the Irish centre from their advantageous ground, and as quickly as his guns could be brought into position opened fire upon the enemy. He also directed some cavalry movements on his left at the pass of Urraghree, but with strict orders that the Irish should not be followed beyond the pass, lest any fighting there should force on a general engagement, for which he had not then made up his mind. His orders on this point, however, were not punctually obeyed; the dragoons sent on that duty having suffered themselves to be lured forward by the Irish horse where a number of musketeers were placed in ambush, and the consequence being some hot skirmishing, which brought larger bodies of the Williamite cavalry into action, and thus led to some sharp fighting, that continued from about two to three o'clock, when the Williamites retired from the pass. Still, it appeared very improbable that a general action would take place that evening. Ginkell held a council of war, and the prevalent opinion seemed to be that the attack

\* Story says that Ginkell's army at Aughrim was not more than 17,000, horse and foot, while the Irish, according to him, had 20,000 foot and 5,000 horse. Bish-

op Burnett rates the Irish army at 28,000, and the English at 20,000; while Captain Parker, who served under Ginkell, and was present at the battle, says the



should be deferred until an early hour next morning. The uncertainty which prevailed on this point may be conceived from the fact, that the deliberations were kept up until half-past four o'clock, when the final decision of the council was for an immediate battle. At five o'clock the fighting was renewed at Urraghree, and for an hour and a half there was considerable firing in that quarter; several attempts to force the pass having been made in the interval, and the Irish cavalry continuing to maintain their ground gallantly, although against double their own numbers. Up to this time there was no action between the centres of the two armies, or the wings which confronted each other near the pass of Aughrim, with the exception of the cannonade which was kept up on both sides, and in which the Williamites had, as has been observed, the advantage of a much more numerous artillery. Indeed, it

was plain to the enemy that St. Ruth could not turn his admirable position to its full advantage, owing to the great deficiency of his field-train.

At length, at half-past six, Ginkell, having previously caused the morass, in front of the Irish centre, to be sound-ed, ordered his infantry to advance on the point where the fences at the Irish side projected most, and where the morass was, consequently, narrowest. This, it appears, was in the Irish right centre, or in the direction of Urraghree. The four regiments of Colonels Erle, Herbert, Creighton, and Brewer were the first to wade through the mud and water, and to advance against the nearest of the hedges, where they were received with a smart fire by the Irish, who then retired behind their next line of hedges, to which the assailants, in their turn, approached. The Williamite infantry were thus gradually drawn from one line of fences to another, up

two armies were nearly equal, but elsewhere tells us that the English at Mullingar mustered 23,000, and their loss in the interval was said to be trifling. King James's *Memoirs* state that in the retreat from Athlone the desertion from the Connaught regiments was so great that the foot were reduced from 17,000 to about 11,000; and Colonel O'Kelly, author of the *Macaria Excidium*, reckons the Irish infantry at Aughrim as only 10,000, and the horse and dragoons as 4,000. It is stated in *Light to the Blind*, that the English had double the number of cavalry, though the Irish had some advantage in the infantry; but there can be no doubt that this statement, as far as regards the infantry, is erroneous; and it is indeed obvious that the author of that MS., in many instances, takes his data as to numbers from the Williamite authorities, without sufficiently testing their accuracy. O'Halloran, who must have often conversed with persons who had a distinct personal recollection of the war, and whose account agrees with that traditionally received by the Irish to

this day, makes the numbers of Irish and English 15,000 and 25,000 respectively. Mr. O'Callaghan, who has devoted a great deal of research to the subject, shows that the Williamite army consisted of 27 regiments of infantry, 19 regiments of horse, and 2 regiments and 14 troops of dragoons; and that if all these regiments had been complete, the numbers would have been, infantry, 24,495; horse, 6,837; dragoons, 2,607; total, 32,939. The Williamite writers admit a loss of less than 600 men between the muster of the army at Mullingar and the eve of the battle of Aughrim; and hence it is clear that the numerical strength of the army at Aughrim must have been considerably greater than what the Williamite historians assert. As to the artillery on both sides, the disparity was also very great. Ginkell had four batteries, and we know that two of these mounted six guns each, whence we might conclude that there were 24 guns in all; while it is admitted that St. Ruth had no more than nine field-pieces.—See *Macaria Excid.*, p. 442, note 233.



the slope from the morass, to a greater distance, than was contemplated in the plan of attack, according to which they were to hold their ground near the morass until they could be supported by re-enforcements of infantry in the rear, and by cavalry on the flanks. The Irish retired by such short distances, that the Williamites, "disdaining to suffer their lodging so near," as their own historians express it, pursued what they considered to have been an advantage, until they found themselves face to face with the main line of the Irish, who now charged them in front; while, by passages cut especially for such a purpose through the lines of hedges by St. Ruth, the Irish cavalry poured down with irresistible force and attacked them in the flanks. The effect was instantaneous. In vain did Colonel Erle endeavor to encourage his men by crying out, that "there was no way to come off but to be brave." They were thrown into total disorder, and fled back towards the morass, the Irish cavalry cutting them down in the rear, and the infantry pouring in a deadly fire, until they were driven beyond the quagmire, which separated the two

armies. Colonels Erle and Herbert were made prisoners; but the former, after being twice taken and retaken and receiving some wounds, was finally rescued. Whilst this was going forward towards the Irish right, several other Williamite regiments crossed the bog nearer to Aughrim, and were in like manner repulsed; but not having ventured among the Irish hedges, their loss was not so considerable, although they were pursued so far in their retreat that the Irish, says Story, "got almost in a line with some of our great guns;" or in other words, had advanced into the English battle-ground. It was no wonder that at this moment St. Ruth should have exclaimed with national enthusiasm, "The day is ours, my boys! *le jour est à nous, mes enfans!*" He witnessed the triumph of his own generalship, and the heroic bravery of his Irish troops, and at that time he had every reason to feel sure of a victory.\*

The manœuvres of the Dutch general, on the other side, evinced consummate ability, and the peril of his present position obliged him to make desperate efforts to retrieve it. His army being

\* With reference to this part of the day's conflict, King James's Memoirs assert "that never was assault made with greater fury or sustained with greater obstinacy, especially by the foot, who not only maintained their posts and defended the hedges with great valor, but repulsed the enemy several times, particularly in the centre, and took some prisoners of distinction; inso-much that they looked upon the victory as in a manner certain, and St. Ruth was in a transport of joy to see the foot, of whom he had so mean an opinion, behave themselves so well, and perform actions worthy of a better fate."—(*Memoirs of K. James II.*, ii., 457.) The

Abbé Mageoghegan says, "The royal (Jacobite) foot performed prodigies of valor. They repulsed the enemy's infantry three times up to their very cannon; and it is said that at the third time General St. Ruth was so well pleased that he threw his hat into the air to express his joy."—(*Hist. of Ireland*, p. 595.) It is expressly stated, in *Light to the Blind*, that the Irish not only drove the enemy back to their lines beyond the morass, but completely broke their centre, and occupied a portion of the enemy's ground; and this statement appears to be amply borne out by other accounts English as well as Irish.



much more numerous than that of the Irish, he could afford to extend his left wing considerably beyond their right; and this causing a fear that he intended to flank them at that side, St. Ruth ordered the second line of his left to march to the right, the officer who received the instructions taking with him also a battalion from the centre, which left a weak point not unobserved by the enemy. St. Ruth had a fatal confidence in the natural strength of his left, owing to the great extent of bog and the extreme narrowness of the causeway near Aughrim Castle. The Williamite commander perceived this confidence and resolved to take advantage of it. Hence his movement at the opposite extremity of his line, which was a mere feint, the troops which he sent to his left not firing a shot during the day, while some of the best regiments of the Irish were drawn away to watch them. The point of weakening the Irish left having been thus gained, the object of doing so soon became apparent. A movement of the Williamite cavalry to the causeway at Aughrim was observed. Some horsemen were seen crossing the narrow part of the causeway with great difficulty, being scarcely able to ride two abreast. St. Ruth still believed that pass impregnable, as indeed it would have been but for the mischances which we have yet to mention; and he is reported to have exclaimed, when he saw the enemy's cavalry scrambling over it, "They are brave fellows, 'tis a pity they should be so exposed." They were not, however, so exposed to destruction as he then imagined. Artillery had come to their aid, and as the men crossed they began to form into squadrons on the firm ground near the old castle. What were the garrison of the castle doing at this time? and what the reserve of cavalry beyond the castle to the extreme left? As to the former, an unlucky circumstance rendered their efforts nugatory. It was found, on examining the ammunition with which they had been supplied, that while the men were armed with French firelocks the balls that had been served to them were cast for English muskets, of which the calibre was larger, and that they were consequently useless.\* In this emergency the men cut the small globular buttons from their jackets and used them for bullets, but their fire was ineffective, however briskly it was sustained, and few of the enemy's horse crossing the causeway were hit. This was but one of the mischances connected with the unhappy left of St. Ruth's position. We have seen how an Irish officer, when ordered with reserves to the right wing, removed a battalion from the left centre.† This error was immediately followed by the crossing

\* Such is the version given in *Light to the Blind*, and it is more probable than that of Mageoghegan, who says the garrison of the old castle were supplied by mistake with cannon instead of musket balls.

† "Through this mistake—which, from the connection of cavalry as well as infantry with the movement," says Mr. O'Callaghan, "I suppose to have been made between Brigadier Henry Luttrell, who was a Colonel,



of the morass at that weakened point by three Williamite regiments, who employed hurdles to facilitate their passage, and who, meeting with a comparatively feeble resistance at the front line of fences, succeeded in making a lodgment in a cornfield on the Irish side. Nearly contemporary with this success of the enemy was the passage of the morass by Kirke's and Hamilton's regiments of foot, which were enabled to drive in the Irish outposts at the old castle, and to place obstructions in the way of the reserved Irish cavalry, whose charge from behind the castle on the extreme left was thus foiled; and these movements of infantry, it should be observed, preceded the passage of the causeway by the English cavalry.

It was still easy to remedy the mishaps which thus threatened to mar the success of the Irish, and St. Ruth, for that purpose, left his position in front of the camp, near the top of Kilcomadan hill, and placing himself at the head of a brigade of horse, hastened down the slope. He paused at one of his batteries to order a gunner to direct his fire to a particular point, and then resuming his place with the cavalry, rode towards the hostile squadrons

which were forming near Aughrim; observing, says King James, to those about him: "They are beaten; let us beat them to the purpose." But the words were scarcely spoken when he was hit by a cannon-ball, which carried off his head—and all was lost! Yet why should all be lost, if victory just before had been so certain? It appears to be the destiny of Ireland that her leaders cannot agree; and on this fatal occasion it happened that a coolness existed between Sarsfield, the second in command, and St. Ruth. Their disagreement dated from the surprise of Athlone; and owing to it, the only man who could have supplied the place of the French general was left with some of the choicest cavalry as a reserve in the rear of the camp, with positive instructions not to move until he received further orders. Sarsfield conceived that under the circumstances he was bound to the strictest obedience, and St. Ruth, on the other hand, communicated his plan of battle to no one; so that when he fell there was no one left who understood the disposition of the forces, and no one to issue any orders. One of his attendants threw a cloak over the body, which was then removed to the rear of the camp;\* but it was im-

of horse, and some subordinate infantry officer in this transfer of troops, and to be the foundation of the national tradition about the "treachery of the general of the Irish horse, that enabled the English to cross the bog"—three battalions of the enemy were enabled to slip over the skirt of the morass and the rivulet, into a cornfield on the Irish side, and establish themselves there until they could be assisted."—*Green Book*, p. 211, second ed.

\* What finally became of the body of St. Ruth has been a matter of doubt. English writers say that it was cast into a neighboring bog, or left stripped on the field with the nameless dead; but the author of *Light to the Blind* informs us that it was removed by the attendants to Loughrea, and there privately buried. A bush marks the spot where tradition says he fell, and at some distance in the field is a place traditionally



possible to conceal his death long. The cavalry who saw him fall halted, and soon left the field. The Irish horse to the rear of Aughrim Castle were the next to relinquish their ground. No attempt was made to resist the Williamite cavalry in crossing the narrow causeway. Their numbers were increased and their infantry strengthened. The disorder in the Irish lines was observed from the hostile camp, and a general attack on all points was commanded. Still, the Irish centre and right wing maintained their ground obstinately, and the fight was renewed with as much vigor as ever. The Irish infantry were so hotly engaged that they were not aware either of the death of St. Ruth, or of the flight of the cavalry, until they themselves were almost surrounded. At the same time Dr. Alexius Stafford, the chaplain of King James's Irish foot-guards, was killed; and the death of this pious and heroic priest had as disheartening an effect on the infantry as that of the general had on the horse.\* A panic and confused

flight were the result. The cavalry of the right wing, who were the first in action that day, were the last to quit their ground. Sarsfield, with the reserve horse of the centre, had to retire with the rest without striking one blow, "although," says the Williamite Captain Parker, "he had the greatest and best part of their cavalry with him." St. Ruth fell about sunset,† and about nine, after three hours' hard fighting, the last of the Irish army had left the field. The cavalry retreated along the high road to Loughrea: the infantry, who mostly flung away their arms, fled to a large red bog on their left, where great numbers of them were massacred unarmed and in cold blood; but a thick misty rain coming on, and the night setting in, the pursuit was soon relinquished. After the battle the castle of Aughrim was taken, and the greater part of its brave garrison put to the sword; Colonel Walter Burke, with twelve of his officers and forty of his soldiers, only being made prisoners.

called St. Ruth's Flag. The shot by which he was killed was fired from one of the guns sent to aid the English cavalry in crossing the causeway at Aughrim; and tradition tells us that it was aimed by the advice of an Irishman who knew the personal appearance of St. Ruth, and who desired to be revenged for the loss of a few sheep taken by the Irish soldiers.

\* This distinguished clergyman was dean of Christ Church, master in chancery, member of parliament, and preacher to the king's inns. Mr. Duhigg, the historian of the king's inns, says: "His voluntary services and heroic death exact even from a firm opponent of his political and religious creed a ready belief of Stafford's personal virtue and humanity;" and the same Protestant writer, referring to Dr. Stafford's conduct at Aughrim, observes: "There the genius of his country

triumphed over professional habits; a peaceful preacher became a warlike chief; the awful ceremonies of religion were dispensed to a submissive flock, and their courage strengthened by an animating harangue. Then, with the crucifix in hand, Stafford passed through the line of battle, and pressed into the foremost ranks, loudly calling on his fellow-soldiers to secure the blessings of religion and property by steadiness and attention to discipline on that critical day. Success crowned his manly efforts until death interrupted his glorious career; then, indeed, the infantry was panic struck."—*History of the King's Inns*, pp. 233, 238, 239.

† The 12th of July, old style, on which the battle was fought, corresponded with the 22d of July, new style, on which day sunset at Aughrim would be about ten minutes past eight.



Of the loss on both sides in this sanguinary battle the accounts are, of course, conflicting. The English official returns make that on the Williamite side, 73 officers and 600 soldiers killed, and 111 officers and 906 soldiers wounded; or the total of killed and wounded, 1,690. But there is good reason to think that these numbers are too low; while we may set down as gross exaggerations the English and Anglo-Irish statements, which represent the number of Irish killed as 7,000 or 8,000. The slaughter of the Irish was, no doubt, very great, as in general no quarter was given by the victors, and as the wounded would appear to have been either massacred or left to perish on the field;

but we believe that the estimate in King James's Memoirs, which may be regarded as the official authority on the Irish side, and according to which "the Irish lost nearly 4,000, nor was that of the English much inferior," is not far from the truth.\* The Irish prisoners taken were only 526 of all ranks: and all the Irish tents, baggage, and artillery; a vast quantity of the small-arms. 32 pair of colors, and 11 standards, fell into the hands of the conquerors. The bodies of the Irish were, with few exceptions, left unburied, and became a prey to the dogs and to the fowls of the air; and for many years after, their bones were to be seen bleaching in the winter's wind.†

\* It is remarkable that Captain Parker, who fought in the Williamite ranks at Aughrim, agrees very nearly with King James's estimate, for, in his memoirs, he says, the loss of the Irish was near 4,000 killed; and adds, "We had above 3,000 killed and wounded." Other accounts, also from Williamite sources, would confirm Captain Parker's estimate of the Irish loss. Story, however, who makes that loss at least 7,000, says: "There could not be many fewer; for looking among the dead three days after, when all our own and some of theirs were buried, I reckoned in some small inclosures, 150; in others, 120, &c., lying most of them in the ditches where they were shot;" and describing the appearance of so many stripped bodies of the dead, he adds: "The rest from the top of the hill, where their camp had been, looked like a great flock of sheep, scattered up and down the country, for about four miles round." "The English," says Dalrymple, "disgraced all the glories of the day, by giving no quarter;" and Dr. Leslie, who wrote a year after the battle, mentions how "above 2,000 of the Irish, who threw down their arms and asked quarter, were killed in cold blood, after the English were absolutely masters of the field;" and how "several who had quarter given them, were after killed in cold blood, in which number were the Lord Galway and Colonel Charles Moore." It was indeed well known that Lord Galway, who was a son of the earl of Clanrickard, and then only twenty-two years of age, was murdered by some of the Huguenots after the battle was over; while,

as an excuse for all this brutal ferocity, we are told, forsooth, that the Irish had orders to give no quarter if they were victorious, and that Colonel Herbert was killed by the Irish while a prisoner. Of the former statement we may assert, that it is a groundless fabrication; and of the latter, that Colonel Herbert, who was made prisoner along with Colonel Erle, was probably slain to prevent his being rescued, as that officer had been. Besides St. Ruth and dean Alexius Stafford, we find among the killed on the Irish side, Lord Galway (Burke), Lord Kilmallock (a Sarsfield); Brigadiers William Mansfield Barker, H. M. G. O'Neill, and O'Connell; Colonels Charles Moore, James Talbot, Arthur O'Mahony, Walter Nugent, Felix O'Neil, Ulick Burke, and Constantine Maguire; Lieutenant-colonel Morgan; Majors Purcell, O'Donnell, and David Burke, Sir John Everard, &c. Among the prisoners were Lords Duleek, (Bellow), Slane (Flemming), Boffin (Burke), and Kenmare (Brown); Major-generals Dorrington and John Hamilton; Brigadier Tuite; Colonels Walter Burke, Gordon O'Neill (son of Sir Phelim), Butler of Kilcash, O'Connell, O'Madden, &c.

† "Their bones," says O'Halloran, writing some fifty years after, "yet lie scattered over the plains of Aughrim; but let that justice be done to their memories which a brave and generous enemy never refuses." (*Introduct., &c., 2d Append., vol. i., p. 533, ed. 1819.*) "It must, in justice," says Harris, "be confessed that the Irish fought this sharp battle with great resolution



Some of the Irish soldiers repaired to Galway, but the greater number, including all the cavalry, proceeded to Limerick. On Sunday, July 19th, a week after the action at Aughrim, Ginkell appeared before Galway, which had a garrison of about 2,300 men, with d'Usson, who had gone there after the loss of Athlone, as governor. The old fort, on a rising ground near the town, which in Cromwell's time had given so much trouble to the townspeople, being now in a ruinous state, was not occupied by the garrison, and the enemy were thus able to approach in safety within a hundred yards of the town wall.

Here it is necessary to introduce to the reader a remarkable man, whom we have not yet mentioned, as his name was not especially connected with any of the events we have been relating, although he had for some time before

this occupied a prominent place among the Irish leaders. This was Balldearg O'Donnell, a lineal descendant of the ancient chiefs of Tirconnell, and who had come to Ireland from Spain, shortly after the battle of the Boyne; persuaded himself, or in order to persuade others, that he was the O'Donnell with a "red mark" (balldearg), who, according to an ancient prophecy, was to lead the Irish to victory against their oppressors. It is a peculiar feature in Irish history, that such "prophecies" were always apt to gain credit with the people; but it must be added, that the English in Ireland showed equal credulity on the subject, whenever the vaticinations promised success to themselves, as we have seen in the case of Sir John de Courcy, and as was instanced in much more recent times in prophecies relating to the battles of Kinsale and Knocknaclashy. Accordingly, the ad-

which demonstrates that the many defeats before this time sustained by them cannot be imputed to a national cowardice, but to a defect in military discipline and use of arms, or to want of skill and experience in their commanders. And now, had not St. Ruth been taken off, it would have been hard to say what the consequences of this day would have been" (*Life of William III.*, p. 327.) On which passage Mr. O'Callaghan remarks, that "a no less important cause than any above specified by Harris contributed to the reverses of the Irish, viz., their great inferiority in pay, appointments, small arms, artillery, and effective numbers, to the English, Scotch, Anglo-Irish, Dutch, Danish, German, Huguenot, &c., troops of the line opposed to them, as well as the very effective local Williamite militia, or yeomanry, in which Harris's own father, Hopton Harris, served." (*Macariae Excid.*, note 242, p. 460.) To the second edition of Mr. O'Callaghan's *Green Book* we may refer the reader for the most ample, minute, and accurate details of the affair of Aughrim; but no account of the disastrous battle—or, as the peasantry of the West of Ire-

land call it, the "breach (*briseadh*) of Aughrim"—would be complete with the omission of the affecting incident thus related by Story: "There is," observes the Williamite historian, "a true and remarkable story of a grey-hound (*rectè*, an Irish wolf-dog), belonging to an Irish officer. The gentleman was killed and stripped in the battle, whose body the dog remained by night and day; and though he fed upon other corpses with the rest of the dogs, yet he would not allow them, or any thing else, to touch that of his master. When all the corpses were consumed, the other dogs departed; but this used to go in the night to the adjacent villages for food, and presently to return again to the place where his master's bones were only then left; and thus he continued till January following, when one of Colonel Foulke's soldiers being quartered nigh hand, and going that way by chance, the dog, fearing he came to disturb his master's bones, flew upon the soldier, who being surprised at the suddenness of the thing, unslung his piece, then upon his back, and killed the poor dog." (*Continuation of Hist.*, &c., p. 147.)



vent of Baldearg O'Donnell excited great enthusiasm among the humbler classes; men flocked in thousands to his standard; he set up as a sort of independent commander, and soon had enrolled under him an irregular force of eight regiments, which he supported by levying oppressive contributions wherever he went. The duke of Tirconnell, who entertained a strong dislike for him, deprived him of three regiments of his best men, under the pretence of incorporating them with the regular army, and made no provision for the support of Baldearg's remaining battalions. The popularity of the adventurer diminished when it was seen how little he was likely to achieve; and during the battle of Aughrim he was in the vicinity of Tuam, with about a thousand men, which number soon after dwindled down to six hundred. With these, after burning and pillaging Tuam, he marched to Cong, in the county of Mayo.

The inhabitants of Galway placed their chief reliance on the promised aid of Baldearg, whose arrival was expected by the way of Iar-Connaught; but when General Mackay, with a large division of the besiegers, crossed the river some distance above the town, on the 20th, and the place was thus invested at both sides, all hope of succor from Baldearg being abandoned, a

parley to settle the terms of a capitulation was called for the same day. Ginkell being desirous to hasten the conclusion of the war, agreed to favorable conditions, and the capitulation having been signed on the 21st, the Irish garrison evacuated the town on the 26th, and marched to Limerick, taking with them six pieces of cannon, which the English lent them horses to draw. Baldearg O'Donnell now entered into negotiations with Ginkell on his own account, through the medium of a friend named Richards. He asked to be allowed to enter the service of William, and was actually receiving pay from Ginkell, when he pretended to aid the Irish garrison of Sligo, then besieged by Col. Michelburne. Sir Teige O'Regan, who so bravely defended Charlemont against Schomberg, was governor of Sligo, and having capitulated on the 14th of September, marched with his garrison of 600 men to Limerick; and Baldearg entered into William's service in Flanders, with all those of his men whom he could induce to follow him, and received during the remainder of his life a pension of £500 a year; a similar amount being also granted by the Williamite government to Colonel Henry Luttrell, who by less open means earned a traitor's wages.\*

The duke of Tirconnell sent a messenger to James after the battle of

\* Dr. O'Donovan, in his pedigree of the O'Donnells (*Appendix to the Four Masters*, vol. vi., p. 2380), states that Manus, son of Caffar Oge, son of Caffar, the brother of Rory O'Donnell, first earl of Tirconnell and of the

famous Hugh Roe, was styled earl of Tirconnell, on the continent, and "was indubitably the very man called Baldearg O'Donnell, who came from Spain to command the Irish in the war of James II.;" and in a note



Aughrim to announce that all was lost, and that unless immediate succor arrived, there was no resource for the king's adherents in Ireland but to make the best terms they could and submit. At

he adds: "He disclaimed the king's authority, and made demonstrations of maintaining the cause of the native Irish as distinct from King James's; and restoring them to the dominion of their native country; but being thwarted in every way by Tirconnell (Talbot), he turned over the standard of King William III., and retired to Flanders, where he was consigned to poverty and oblivion; but of his ultimate fate, nothing has yet been discovered." Colonel Charles O'Kelly, the author of the *Macariæ Ercidium*, attempts to defend the conduct of Baldearg, with whom he was intimately acquainted. Mr. O'Callaghan, in his notes and illustrations to the *Macariæ Ercidium* (p. 469), quotes official MSS. for the pensions of £500 each, granted, as above stated, to O'Donnell and Henry Luttrell.

Since the preceding pages went to press, documents of an authentic and most important character, placing the conduct of this much-maligned Irish warrior in an entirely new light, have come into the possession of the learned editor of the *Four Masters*, through whose extreme kindness the author is enabled, before this volume passes from his hands, to make the *amende* to the memory of a brave and patriotic chief. The historical facts mentioned in the text about O'Donnell are mainly correct; the calumnies against him related chiefly to his motives; and the obscurity in which his history has been hitherto involved has been, in a great measure, caused by those very calumnies, which were sufficient to induce even such a man as Mr. Hardiman, the historian of Galway, to think it not worth while to follow up his inquiries about him. The person popularly known as Baldearg O'Donnell was not Manus (as stated in the note, p. 615, on the authority of the Appendix to the *Four Masters*, p. 2380), but Hugh, son of John, son of Hugh Boy, son of Calvaugh (whose pedigree is correctly given by Dr. O'Donovan, in p. 2398 of the aforesaid Appendix, and has also been ascertained by Professor Curry from independent sources). He was born in Donegal, and his boyhood was spent in Ireland. Repairing to Spain, where so many of his family had risen to distinction, he entered the army there, and rose to the rank of brigadier, but he never abandoned his allegiance to the House of Stuart; and on the accession of James II., he waited on the English ambassador in Flanders, to offer his services, should they be required by that monarch. When the Irish took up arms in defence of James, and of their own national and religious rights, Spain being then at war with Louis XIV.,

the same time he made what preparations he could to put Limerick in a posture of defence. He caused some additions to be made to the outworks, established a military station outside

the ally of James, O'Donnell could not obtain permission to leave the Spanish service for that of an enemy's ally; and, forfeiting his high position in his adopted country, he hired a small vessel to convey him to Cork, whence he went to Kinsale, and saw James in his flight to France after the Boyne. Subsequently, he obtained a commission to raise what men he could in James's service, and soon succeeded in enrolling 10,000 men, who were embodied into thirteen regiments of foot and two of horse; but from the first he was thwarted by Richard Talbot, who had obtained from James the title of earl of Tirconnell—the hereditary title of O'Donnell, and that by which he was acknowledged in Spain—and this was the true cause of all O'Donnell's misfortunes in Ireland. He was sent, after the first siege of Limerick, to the upper Shannon to defend the passes into Connaught, and to protect the *keerriaghts*—that is, those Irish who, having lost all besides, retained their cattle, with which they moved about in the old nomadic style. After the surprise of Athlone, O'Donnell could be no longer useful on the Shannon, and retired more westerly, but still had the *keerriaghts* under his protection. Tirconnell deprived him of his best armed men, and failed in his promises to obtain supplies of arms or clothing for the remainder; as to pay, it was out of the question; and O'Donnell was not raised beyond the rank of brigadier, although promised a higher grade. After Aughrim, where O'Donnell's other duties did not allow him to be present, the authorities in Galway declined his offer to garrison that town, but called on him to do so when it was too late, and when the enemy was before their walls. O'Donnell, with a small party, proceeded from Cong across the lake, and advanced to the hills close to Galway on the west, but found the place invested on both sides, so that it was impossible for him to enter the town. The war was then virtually over; and a few days later, O'Donnell received a letter from Ginkell, who regarded him as a Spanish officer, and therefore offered him most favorable terms. These terms, however, O'Donnell did not then accept, but he stipulated for the safety of the poor people, who had been committed to his protection. When the last struggle was over in Limerick, O'Donnell could not join the ranks of his countrymen going to France—a country then at war with Spain, to which he was bound by every tie of fealty and gratitude. He accepted a commission under William III., to command two regiments of his followers who still adhered to him but



the walls, collected stores of provisions, and exacted a promise from the leading men not to entertain any project of submission before they received an answer to the message which had been dispatched to France; but on St. Lawrence's-day, the 10th of August, he was seized by a fit of apoplexy, at the house of M. d'Usson, and expired on the 14th, the same day that Ginkell had begun to move his army towards Limerick from his camp at Cahirconlish. Tirconnell could have rendered little further assistance personally, but his loss at that moment produced a void which was painfully felt. It was rumored that his death was caused by a poisoned cup of ratafia, but that it was the result of natural disease is much more probable. His remains were interred the following night in St. Mary's cathedral, but no inscription or other mark indicates the place. That he was a faithful and zealous supporter of King James cannot be denied; and Williamite writers admit that he displayed "dexterity and zeal" in the cause which he had espoused. The duke of Berwick

assures us that "he was a man of much worth, although not of a military genius; that his firmness preserved Ireland after the invasion of the prince of Orange; and that he nobly rejected every offer that had been made to him to submit."\* By the authority of a provisional appointment made by King James, Alexander Fitton (the Jacobite lord chancellor), Francis Plowden (commissioner of the revenue), and Sir Richard Nagle (James's secretary of state and attorney-general), assumed the office of lords justices, but their duties were only nominal, as the management of the army, which then comprised every thing, was committed to the charge of M. d'Usson.

At this time, Ginkell carried on private negotiations with Colonel Henry Luttrell within the city, and through the means of the factions which were fomented there, hoped to obtain a surrender without a formal siege.† He dreaded the effects of a protracted defence at that season, when the autumnal rains were so soon to be expected, and was prepared to grant any condi-

it was that he might serve in Flanders, which was then Spanish ground; and when he found that he would be sent into Hungary to fight under the emperor, he proceeded to Piedmont, and thence to Spain, where he was honorably received, and raised to the rank of major-general. Wholly destitute of fortune, it is not surprising that he should accept pay from William, which was in lieu of that to which he was entitled as a general officer in the Spanish army. In fact, there was no act of Balldearg O'Donnell's which was not worthy of a brave, honorable, and disinterested man, and a true Irishman, and all the calumnies against him may be attributed to the jealousy of Richard Talbot and the hostility of the Anglo-Irish interest. The im-

pression left by these so prejudiced the public mind against him, that the statements of his friend, Colonel O'Kelly, in the *Macaria Excidium*, in his favor, have hitherto been treated as valueless. His *sobriquet* of Balldearg (of the red-mark) was so popular, that he was never called in contemporary writings by his real name of Hugh.

\* *Memoires du maréchal de Berwick*, tome i., 103.

† The perfidy of Henry Luttrell was discovered on this occasion by Sarsfield, and he was tried by court-martial and found guilty; but through the influence of his numerous friends, he was only committed to the castle of Limerick until the decision of King James could be known, and was of course liberated at the



tions that, under the circumstances, might be demanded. Still, he neglected no means to render his attack successful. His army was strengthened by large re-enforcements of Protestant militia, who were stationed at Killaloe and other distant outposts: an English fleet under Captain Cole ascended the Shannon, and a most formidable train of battering artillery was provided. Ginkell's army took up nearly the same ground which William occupied the year before. The besieged, who, says King James, had at that time thirty-five battalions tolerably armed, relinquished their outposts on the Limerick side, and quartered their cavalry on the Clare side, towards which the city was still open; and on the 25th of August the besiegers were regularly posted, having received all their heavy guns and 800 barrels of powder two days before. Sixty cannon, none of them less than twelve-pounders, say the Williamite authorities, and no fewer than nineteen mortars, were planted against the city. On the 30th, the bombardment commenced, and the city was soon

capitulation. To follow this notorious traitor to his ultimate fate, we may mention, that on the night of November 1st, 1717, he was murdered in Stafford-street, in the city of Dublin, while returning in a sedan-chair to his town residence in that street, from Lucas's coffee-house, which stood on the site of the present Royal Exchange on Cork-hill; and that being a man grossly immoral in his private character, it may be doubted whether his political or social delinquencies were the cause of his murder; but no clue to the assassin ever could be discovered. Several of his descendants were, according to the authorities quoted by Mr. O'Callaghan, in the first volume of his *History of the Irish Brigades*, notorious for depravity; but his male posterity became

in flames in several quarters, so that a great number of the inhabitants took their bedclothes with them, and formed a camp in the King's Island; and many of the principal citizens, including a great number of ladies and the Jacobite lords justices, established another camp about two miles from the town on the Clare side. On the evening of the 9th of September, the garrison made a sally in which they lost several men; and on the 10th, a breach forty yards wide was effected in the wall of the English Town, behind the Dominican abbey; but a deep channel of the river separating the breach from the besiegers, no attempt to storm it was made. Still, nothing of consequence towards the reduction of the city was considered to have been achieved, until the night of the 15th of September, when, owing to the unpardonable negligence, if not the foul treachery, of Brigadier Clifford, who was posted with a strong body of dragoons to prevent such an attempt, the besiegers were enabled, without the least interruption, to throw a pontoon bridge over the Shannon to-

extinct by the death of his grandson, John Luttrell Olmuis, third baron of Irnham and earl of Carhampton, who survived until 1829, when he died in his 88th year. In the work of Mr. O'Callaghan just cited, the reader will find many curious particulars about Henry Luttrell and his descendants. Luttrell's-town, the noble and picturesque demesne of the family, on the banks of the Liffey, near Lucan, was sold in the beginning of the present century by Henry Lawes Luttrell, elder brother of John Luttrell Olmuis, and second earl of Carhampton; and the name has been changed by the present popular proprietor, Luke White, Esq., to that of Woodlands.



wards Annabeg; and so, on the morning of the 16th, to send over a large detachment of horse and foot to the Clare side and cut off the communication between the city and the Irish horse-camp. The Irish cavalry, under Major-general Sheldon, retired to Six-mile Bridge; and the lords justices and gentry fled in great consternation to the city, and might indeed have been all intercepted and taken had not the enemy used great caution in their movements; Ginkell fearing an ambuscade, or an attack from the Irish while his army was thus divided: and thus, with the exception of constructing his bridge, and obliging the Irish horse to repair for forage to a distance, he effected nothing on this occasion.

On the 22d, Ginkell, having lulled the garrison into a false security, by appearing to make preparations to raise the siege, again crossed the Shannon with a large portion of his army, and proceeded to invest the town at the Clare side. The three regiments of Kirke, Tiffin, and Lord George Hamilton, with all the grenadiers, were ordered to advance and attack the works at the Clare end of Thomond Bridge, which were bravely defended by Colonel Lacy with about 700 men; but the number of the enemy being overwhelming, the Irish troops were obliged to give way and retreat over the bridge. Unfortunately, the town-major, who was a Frenchman, fearing that the enemy would enter pell-mell with the Irish, raised the drawbridge. He apprehend-

ed, no doubt, nothing more than the surrender of these men as prisoners of war; but the result was very different. The English gave no quarter, and, according to their own account, 600 of the Irish were slaughtered on the bridge, which was covered with piles of dead bodies, while about 130 were made prisoners. Several of the Irish jumped over, and perished in the river; and the English admit that they themselves lost between 200 and 300 killed and wounded in the affair.

This miserable scene of carnage was the last blood shed in the war. The next day, Wednesday, the 23d, a parley was demanded on the part of the garrison, and a cessation of arms took place. Even the gallant Sarsfield was among the first to recommend a capitulation. Why should they persevere longer in the hopeless struggle? The long looked-for succor from France had not come, nor any intelligence as to when it might be expected; and by all it was admitted that the solemn promise made to Tirconnell ceased, under the circumstances, to be obligatory. On the morning of the 24th, a three-days' truce was agreed to. On the 26th, the negotiations were opened, hostages were exchanged, and Sarsfield and Major-general Wauchop dined with Ginkell in the camp. A friendly intercourse commenced between the two armies, after the cessation of hostilities; but it was not until the 3d of October that the military and civil articles of capitulation were signed and exchanged.



the former, about the departure of the Irish troops, being signed by the generals of both armies; and the latter, relating to the privileges conceded to the Irish, signed by the English general and lords justices.\* The same evening, the Williamite army got possession of the Irish outworks, and of St. John's gate; and the following day four regiments marched into the Irish Town; the English Town being left for the Irish quarters, until arrangements could be made for the embarkation of the

Irish army for France. Thus was the war brought at length to a conclusion, and William and Mary left in the undisputed possession of their throne. A few days after the capitulation was signed, a French fleet of 18 ships of the line and 20 ships of burden, conveying 3,000 soldiers, 200 officers, 10,000 stand of arms, with ammunition and provisions, arrived in the Shannon; but it was then too late. A few days earlier, it would have saved Limerick, and might have turned the scale of fortune in the war.

\* **THE TREATY OF LIMERICK.**—The *Civil Articles* of this treaty will be ever memorable for the disgraceful and perfidious violation of them, which attaches so foul a stain to the English government of Ireland. By the first of these articles, it was stipulated and agreed, "that the Roman Catholics of Ireland shall enjoy such privileges, in the exercise of their religion, as they did enjoy in the reign of King Charles II.; and that their majesties, as soon as their affairs will permit them to summon a parliament in Ireland, will endeavour to procure the said Roman Catholics such further security in that particular, as may preserve them from any further disturbance on account of their religion." The second article secured to Catholics all their estates and properties, such as they were rightfully entitled to in the reign of Charles II., as also the free exercise of their respective callings and professions. Irish merchants, then absent in foreign countries, and certain Irish officers, absent in France on the affairs of the army, were to have the benefit of these articles. By the fifth article, a general pardon was granted for all attainders, outlawries, treasons, premunires, felonies, &c., incurred or committed since the beginning of the reign of James II. All private suits at law, for trespasses committed during the war, were prohibited. Arrests and executions for debts or damages were not to be made for the space of eight months. But above all, it was provided by the ninth article, that the oath to be administered to such Roman Catholics as submitted to the government of William and Mary, was to be the Oath of Allegiance, 'and no other;' that is, they were not to be required to take such oaths as the oath of supremacy, &c. These civil articles, which were thirteen in number, were signed by the lords justices, Sir Charles Porter and Thomas Coningsby, and by the commander-in-chief,

baron de Ginkell; and were subsequently duly ratified by William and Mary, and on the 24th of the following February enrolled in the Court of Chancery. How they were fulfilled by the English government will be seen in the next chapter. The *Military Articles*, which were twenty-nine in number, related chiefly to the arrangements for the transport of the Irish troops, with their baggage, &c., to France. The first of these articles was, "that all persons, without any exceptions, of what quality or condition soever, that are willing to leave the kingdom of Ireland, shall have free liberty to go to any country beyond the seas (England and Scotland excepted), where they think fit, with their families, household stuff, plate, and jewels." The second article stipulated, that all officers and soldiers of every grade in any of the garrisons then in the hands of the Irish, or encamped in the counties of Cork, Clare, and Kerry, "as also those called rapparees, or volunteers," should "have free leave to embark themselves wherever the ships are that are appointed to transport them, and to come in whole bodies, or in parties, companies or otherwise." If the officers or soldiers were plundered by the way, government was to make good their losses. The government was to provide 50 ships of 200 tons burden each, and if necessary 20 ships more, for transports, besides two men-of-war to convey the principal officers; and finally, the garrison of Limerick might march out "with arms, baggage, drums beating, match lighted, colors flying, six brass guns, two mortar-pieces, and half the ammunition then in the place, &c." The articles of Limerick have been frequently republished, and will be found in full in Mageoghegan's *History of Ireland*; Leland; Curry's *Review of the Civil Wars*; Ferras's *History of Limerick*; Taaffe's *History*, &c.



In conformity with the articles of capitulation, the Irish infantry were, a few days after, marshalled on the Clare side of the Shannon, that the men might have an opportunity to declare their choice between departing for France, and remaining under the English government at home. The result was, that an Ulster battalion, and a few men in most of the regiments, adopted the latter alternative; about 1,000 men entering the Williamite service, and 2,000 accepting passes to return home; while 11,000, together with all the cavalry, volunteered for France. A body of 4,500 men, under Sarsfield, sailed from Cork and landed at Brest, on the 3d of December; 4,736 men, besides officers, embarked at Limerick, with d'Usson and Tessé, on board the French squadron already mentioned; 3,000 men followed in English ships under Major-general Wauchop; two companies of the Royal Irish Guards sailed next; "and," says the Abbé Mageoghegan, "according to the report of the commissaries, the whole of the Irish troops, including the officers, who followed King James to France, amounted to 19,059 men."\* As each corps of the gallant

exiles arrived at the ports of Brittany. King James himself went down to meet them. They were kindly received by the French king, and enrolled in his service; and all Irish Catholics going to France were granted the privileges of French citizenship, without the formality of naturalization, a right which was subsequently confirmed to them by Louis XV. Many of the exiles were accompanied by their families, but a great many of the women and children were also left behind, and reduced to a state of utter destitution. The wild wailing at the parting scenes in Limerick and Cork, and on the shores of Kerry, smote the hearts even of their enemies. Several of the expatriated Irish gentry rose high in the courts and camps of the continent, and became the founders of families of distinguished rank in France, Spain, and Austria; whereas, had they remained at home, they could only, as Irish Catholics, have participated in the degradation of their race and country.

Thus was this unequal struggle brought to a close. Before it commenced, the Irish had been already reduced by many years of plunder and

\* "To those," observes Mr. O'Callaghan, "are to be added the brigade of Mountcashel, of 5,270 men, sent to France by James in the beginning of 1690, making 24,430, which, with others who went over at different times, not specified, would, according to King James's *Memoirs*, and a letter of Chevalier Charles Wogan, nephew of the duke of Tirconnell, amount in all to about 30,000 men." (*Hist. of the Irish Brigades*, vol. i., p. 61.) The several regiments were remodelled, their number being reduced, and the force of each increased; they were constantly recruited from Ireland, and the

men generously offered to serve for the pay of French soldiers, although entitled to a higher amount as strangers, in order that the obligation of King James to the French government might be less onerous. For an account of the distinguished services of the Irish brigades, and other particulars relative to them, the reader is referred to Mr. O'Callaghan's *History of the Irish Brigades in the Service of France*; Mr. O'Connor's *History of the Irish Brigade*, or, as it is frequently called, *Military History of the Irish*; Mr. Dalton's *King James's Irish Army List*. &c.



oppression, to a state that might well have seemed one of utter helplessness. They were left almost unaided; for it so happened that their French allies did not fight one battle for them. And yet, after three hard-fought campaigns, it was only the combined forces of England, her foreign allies, and her Protestant colonists of Ireland, that prevailed against them. The war cost William, according to Story, about £6,636,742, an approximate calculation rather under the truth than otherwise. During the year 1690 and 1691, William's army in Ireland amounted to between 35,000 and 36,000 regular troops, besides the well-armed and well-

trained Protestant militia, who did garrison duty; and so desirous was his government to terminate the contest, that the lords justices had a proclamation printed offering much more favorable terms than those actually agreed to; but finding on their arrival at the camp that negotiations for a capitulation were on foot, the document was suppressed, and is therefore known as the "secret proclamation."\* General Ginell was, as a reward for his services, created earl of Athlone and baron of Aughrim, and obtained a grant of all the forfeited estates of William Dungan, earl of Limerick, in eight counties of Ireland.

\* Harris's *Memoir of Cox*, in *Ware's Irish Writers*, and Leland's *History of Ireland*. The articles of the Secret Proclamation are not precisely known, but they are presumed to have been nearly the same as those which were offered, by William to Tirconnell, a little before the battle of Aughrim, and which, as we learn

from a letter of the Chevalier Charles Wogan to Dean Swift, were: To the Irish Catholics the free exercise of their religion; half the churches of the kingdom; half the employments, civil and military, if they pleased; and the moiety of their ancient properties. The Irish mistrusted these concessions, and rejected them.



## CHAPTER XLII.

## FROM THE TREATY OF LIMERICK TO THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

State of Ireland after the departure of the brigades.—The articles of Limerick violated.—The Catholics reduced to a deplorable condition.—Disposal of the forfeited estates.—William III. and his parliament at issue.—Enactment of penal laws in Ireland.—Moylneux's "case stated."—Destruction of the Irish woollen manufacture.—Death of William.—Intolerance of the Protestant colonists.—Penal laws of Queen Anne's reign.—The sacramental test.—Attempts to extirpate the Catholics.—The Palatines (note).—Accession of George I.—Rebellion in Scotland in 1715.—Profound tranquillity in Ireland.—Rigorous execution of the penal laws.—Contests between the English and Irish parliaments.—The latter deprived of its independence.—Bill for more effectually preventing the growth of Popery.—Rise of the patriots in the Irish parliament.—Dean Swift.—Woods' half-pence—Extraordinary excitement.—Frightful state of public morals.—Cardinal Wiseman on the fidelity of the Irish (note).—Accession of George II.—An address from the Catholics treated with contempt.—Primate Boulter.—Charter schools established to proselytize the Catholic children.—Converted Papists suspected.—Distress and emigration.—Fresh rigors against the Catholics.—Proposed massacre.—The great Scottish rebellion of 1745.—Lord Chesterfield in Ireland.—Disputes in the Irish parliament about the surplus revenue.—The patriots weakened by the corrupting policy of the Government.—First movements of the Catholics.—First Catholic committee.—Discountenanced by the clergy and aristocracy.—Thurot's expedition.—Accession of George III.—The Whiteboys.—The Hearts-of-Oak and Hearts-of-Steel Boys.—Efforts of the patriots against the pension list.—Execution of Father Sheehy.—Lord Townsend's administration.—The Octennial Bill.—The Irish parliament struggles for independence.—Outbreak of the American war, and attempts to conciliate Ireland.—Refusal to receive foreign troops.—The volunteers.—Great distress and popular discontent.—Mr. Grattan's resolution of independence.—Conduct and resolution of the volunteers.—The Dungannon resolutions.—Legislative independence of Ireland voted.—New measures of Catholic relief.—Influence of the volunteers.

[FROM A. D. 1691 TO A. D. 1782.]

WITH Sarsfield and his companions in arms departed the bone and sinew of Ireland. Then, indeed, might it be said that the heart of Ireland was broken. Those left behind were a helpless and dispirited, and hence a timid and unresisting, people; and it was easy to foresee that when they thus ceased to be formidable, they had little to hope for from the good faith of the victors. Two months had not elapsed from the signing of the treaty of Limerick, when, in open violation of the articles, "the justices of the peace, sheriffs, and other magistrates," says Harris, "presuming on their power in the country, did, in an illegal manner, dispossess several of their majesties' (Catholic) subjects, not only of their goods and chattels, but of their lands and tenements, to the great reproach of their majesties' government:"\* and the lords justices, who were compelled to issue a proclamation against the outrageous proceedings of their subordinates, state in their letter of November

\* Harris's *Life of King William*, p. 357.



19th, 1691, that they "had received complaints from all parts of Ireland of the ill-treatment of the Irish who had submitted, had their majesties' protection, or were included in articles; and that they (the Irish) were so extremely terrified with apprehensions of the continuance of that usage, that some thousands of them who had quitted the Irish army and went home with the resolution not to go to France, were then come back again and pressed earnestly to go thither, rather than stay in Ireland, where, contrary to the public faith as well as law and justice, they were robbed of their substance and abused in their persons." The Protestants exclaimed vehemently against the terms made with the Catholics as being too liberal; it was proclaimed from their pulpits that the peace ought not to be observed; they were disappointed in their hopes of obtaining all the estates of the Papists, and would

not yield a shred of the liberty which they claimed for themselves to those over whom foreign arms had enabled them to prevail. In fine, they were not content to conquer, but should enslave their late foes, and trample them under foot; and the more these foes were humbled in the dust, the more insolent and inexorable did the ungenerous victors become. The intolerant demands of the Protestant faction were soon to be fully gratified. The general disarming of the Irish Catholics was one of the first steps for that purpose; the disposal of the forfeited estates was proceeded with; Catholics were excluded from the Irish parliament by an act of the English legislature; the way was prepared for the whole nefarious code of penal laws; and the native population was reduced to a state so abject that oppression might be carried to any extent against them with impunity.\*

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\* Describing the results of the war of 1691, the great Edmund Burke says: "The ruin of the native Irish, and in a great measure, too, of the first races of the English, was completely accomplished. The new interest was settled with as solid a stability as any thing in human affairs can look for. All the penal laws of that unparalleled code of oppression, which were made after the last event, were manifestly the effects of national hatred and scorn towards a conquered people, whom the victors delighted to trample upon, and were not at all afraid to provoke. They were not the effects of their fears but of their security. They who carried on this system looked to the irresistible force of Great Britain for their support in their acts of power. They were quite certain that no complaints of the natives would be heard on this side of the water (in England) with any other sentiments than those of contempt and indignation. Their cries served only to augment their torture. . . . Indeed, at that time in England the double name

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of the complainants, Irish and Papists—it would be hard to say singly which was the most odious—shut up the hearts of every one against them." (*Letter to Sir Hercules Langrishe*, p. 44.) Sir Richard Cox, the anti-Irish author of the *Hibernia Anglicana*, in a letter of October 24th, 1705 (preserved in the *Southwell papers*), says the youth and gentry of the Irish were "destroyed in the rebellion or gone to France; those who are left, destitute of horses, arms, money, capacity, and courage. Five out of six of the Irish are poor insignificant slaves, fit for nothing but to hew wood and draw water." Swift was in the habit of saying that the Irish Papists were "altogether as inconsiderable as the women and children." (See *Letter on the Sacramental Test*, written in 1708: the *Drapier's Letters*, &c.) And Lord Macaulay, who loved to dwell on any expression implying contempt for the Irish, endeavored to make this language stronger. "The Protestant masters of Ireland," he writes, "while ostentatiously professing the political doctrines of Locke



We learn from official sources that the number of Irish outlawed by King William's English parliament for their fidelity to King James II., whom they regarded as their legitimate sovereign, was 3,921, and that the Irish forfeited estates amounted to 1,060,792 acres, of the annual value, at that time, of £211,623. The sale of this property introduced into Ireland a fresh set of adventurers, being the third migration of new settlers to displace the old race since the reign of Elizabeth.\* The Catholics of the native and early Anglo-Irish races still, indeed, constituted the great bulk of the population, but they were not recognized as having a political existence; and although the Protestant colonists raised disputes among themselves, and formed an "English" and an "Irish" party of their own, they were unanimous on the point of denying all civil rights to the Catholic Irish. The question of the

independence of the Irish parliament began, immediately after the war, to excite a lively interest. In the parliament which met in Dublin on the 5th of October, 1692, the feeling on this subject ran so high that a bill sent from England for imposing certain duties, was rejected by the commons without any ground for the rejection being assigned, save that "the said bill had not its rise in this house." This vote was passed the 28th of October; and on the 3d November, Lord Sydney, the lord lieutenant, went, unexpectedly, and prorogued the parliament, pronouncing at the same time a severe rebuke, and ordering the clerk to enter his protest against the vote of the commons on the journals of the House of Lords, in vindication of the prerogative of the crown. In the English parliament a discussion took place on Irish affairs, and an address to the king was voted, complaining of great abuses and mis-

and Sidney, held that a people who spoke the Celtic tongue and heard Mass could have no concern in those doctrines. Molyneux questioned the supremacy of the English legislature. Swift assailed with the keenest ridicule and invective every part of the system of government. Lucas disquieted the administration of Lord Harrington. Boyle overthrew the administration of the Duke of Dorset. But neither Molyneux nor Swift, neither Lucas nor Boyle, ever thought of appealing to the native population. *They would as soon have thought of appealing to the swine.*" (*Hist. of Eng.*, vol. vi., p. 119.)

\* Lord Chancellor Clare, in his celebrated speech on the Union, referring to this Williamite confiscation, says: "It is a very curious and important speculation to look back to the forfeitures of Ireland, incurred in the last century. The superficial contents of the island are calculated at 11,042,682 acres" (that is, of arable land, according to the survey of Ireland then received). "In the reign of James I. the whole of the province of

Ulster was confiscated, containing 2,836,837 acres; set up by the court of claims at the restoration, 7,800,000; forfeitures of 1688, 1,060,792; total, 10,697,629 acres. So that the whole of your island has been confiscated, with the exception of the estates of five or six families of English blood, . . . . . and no inconsiderable portion of the island has been confiscated twice, or perhaps thrice, in the course of a century. The situation, therefore, of the Irish nation at the revolution stands unparalleled in the history of the habitable world. . . . . The whole power and property of the country have been conferred by successive monarchs of England upon an English colony, composed of three sets of English adventurers, who poured into this country at the termination of three successive rebellions. Confiscation is their common title; and from their first settlement they have been hemmed in on every side by the old inhabitants of the island, brooding over their discontent in sullen indignation."



management in the affairs of Ireland, such as the recruiting of the king's troops with Papists, "to the endangering and discouraging of the good and loyal Protestant subjects in that kingdom;" the granting protection to the Irish Papists, "whereby Protestants are hindered from their legal remedies, and the course of law stopt;" the letting of the forfeited estates at under rates; the enormous embezzlements of the forfeited estates and goods. But above all, the parliament complained of an addition which they said was made to the articles of Limerick after the town was surrendered, "to the very great encouragement of the Irish Papists," which addition, as well as the articles themselves, they prayed might be laid before the house;\* and they also besought his majesty that no grant might be made of the forfeited estates in Ireland until an opportunity was afforded of settling the matter in parliament. William was annoyed at this interference of the English commons. As to the Irish forfeitures, he had already bestowed most of them as rewards for the services of his friends; and he was indignant at the attempt

to set aside the treaty of Limerick, to which he admitted that "his word and honor were engaged, which he never would forfeit." His only answer to the address was, therefore, conveyed in these few words: "I shall always have great consideration of what comes from the House of Commons; and I shall take great care that what is amiss shall be remedied."

It is generally admitted that William III. was not personally responsible for the penal laws against Catholics enacted in his reign. He was not inclined to persecute any man for his religion; and he was too good a soldier to wish to trample on a brave but unfortunate foe whom he had vanquished in the field. In politics, the principles of the Tories were more congenial to him than those of the Whigs. The Whigs of that day were indeed nearly identical in spirit with the Orangemen of later times, and differed in many respects from the great constitutional party of that name in modern times professing principles friendly to popular liberty and toleration; but intolerant and violent as they were, it was the Whigs of that day who had placed William

\* In the second article, which secured the possession of their estates to the residents of Limerick and of the other garrisons then in the occupation of the Irish, and to the Irish officers and soldiers then in the counties of Limerick, Clare, Kerry, Cork, and Mayo, the words, "And all such as are under their protection in the said counties," were accidentally omitted in the copy of the article which was signed, although contained in the original draft that had been settled between the parties. Sarsfield insisted that the mistake should be rectified,

and Ginkell accordingly added the omitted words to the treaty after the Irish town of Limerick had been put in his possession. The French fleet were just then coming up the Shannon, and it was admitted that it would have been very imprudent, under the circumstances, for the Dutch general to hesitate. The words in question were duly ratified and confirmed by William and Mary at the same time with the substantive articles; and yet to them the English House of Commons raised the disgraceful objection mentioned above.



on the throne of England, and to their imperious legislation even he was obliged to yield his will. In 1693 Lord Sydney was recalled from the government of Ireland, which was then vested in Lord Capel, Sir Cyril Wyche, and Mr. Duncombe, as lords justices; but while the two latter wished to distribute justice with an equal hand, Lord Capel took every opportunity to infringe the articles of Limerick, and curtail the rights of the Irish. Wyche and Duncombe, for their impartiality, were stigmatized as Tories and Jacobites, and Lord Capel soon obtained the sole government as lord deputy. In 1695 he summoned a parliament which sat for several sessions, and which enacted, without opposition, numerous penal statutes against the Catholics. Among them were laws "for restraining foreign education;" "for the better securing the government by disarming the Papists;" "for banishing all Papists exercising any ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and all regulars of the Popish clergy out of the kingdom;"\* "to prevent Protestants intermarrying with Pa-

pists," and "to prevent Papists being solicitors." These laws were in direct contravention of the treaty of Limerick; but this parliament went a step further, and passed an act, which they had the effrontery to call "an act for the confirmation of the articles made at the surrender of the city of Limerick;" but which, in reality, omitted the first article, and curtailed the others to such an extent that the Catholics justly regarded it as a virtual frustration of the rights which the treaty was intended to secure to them. A petition was presented from Robert Cusack, Esq., and Captains Francis Segrave and Maurice Eustace, praying on the part of themselves and their fellow Catholics that they might be heard by counsel on the measure before it passed into law but the House of Commons unanimously resolved that the said petition should be rejected. In the upper house a protest against the nefarious measure was signed by seven lay peers, and to their honor be it said, by as many Protestant bishops.†

While the parliament of the Protest-

\* "According to Captain South's account," says Newenham, "there were in Ireland in the year 1698, 495 regular, and 872 secular, clergy of the Church of Rome. According, to the same account, the number of regulars shipped for foreign parts, by act of parliament, was 424--viz., from Dublin, 153; from Galway, 170; from Cork, 75; and from Waterford, 26." (*View of the Natural and Political Circumstances of Ireland*, p. 196.)

† By the laws referred to in the text it was enacted that all Popish archbishops, bishops, vicars-general, deans, jesuits, monks, friars, &c., and all Papists exercising any ecclesiastical jurisdiction, should depart the kingdom before the first of May, 1698; those who neglected to obey that order were to be imprisoned until

they were transported beyond the seas; and if any returned from such transportation they would be guilty of high treason, and should suffer accordingly—that is, be executed. From the 29th December, 1697, any Popish archbishop, &c., coming into this kingdom from beyond the seas, was to be imprisoned for twelve months, and then transported; and if returning after such transportation, to be guilty of high treason, and punished accordingly. Any person after the 1st of May, 1698, concealing or entertaining any such Popish archbishops, bishops, &c., should for the first offence forfeit £20; for the second, double that sum; and for the third, should forfeit during life all his lands and tenements, and also all his goods and chattels, one moiety to the king, and



ant colony in Ireland was thus indulging the prejudices of an intolerant faction, by enacting laws against the unoffending and helpless Catholics, it was engaged on another side in a vital conflict for its own independence against the English legislature. The rights which the English parliament had vindicated for itself by the revolution, it sternly denied to the sister institution in Ireland; but it was as sternly encountered by a power of its own creation. That Protestant ascendancy, in fact, which English policy had so long labored to establish and foster in Ireland now presented a stubborn obstacle to the maintenance of English supremacy. In 1698, Mr. Molyneux, one of the members for the university of Dublin, published his famous book, entitled, "The case of Ireland's being bound by acts of parliament in England stated." In it he reviewed the history of the Pale from the Anglo-Norman invasion; and from the whole connection of the two kingdoms, drew strong inferences in support of their reciprocal legislative

the other moiety, if it did not exceed £100, to the informer—the surplussage over £100 to go to the king. A resolution of the Irish parliament of December 1st, 1697, recommended the revival of the law of 2d Eliz., chap. 2, which obliged every person to attend the Protestant service on Sundays, under a penalty of 12d. for each neglect. The law restraining foreign education, after the prohibition of Catholic education at home, enacted that "if any subjects of Ireland should go, or send, any child or other person to be educated in any Popish university, college, or school, or in any private family beyond the seas; or if such child should, by any Popish person, be instructed in the Popish religion, or if any subjects of Ireland should send money, &c., towards the maintenance of such child or other person, already sent or to be sent, every such offender should be forever disabled

independence. The English House of Commons resolved unanimously "that the book published by Mr. Molyneux was of dangerous tendency to the crown and people of England, by denying the authority of the king and parliament of England to bind the kingdom and people of Ireland, and the subordination and dependence that Ireland had and ought to have upon England, as being united and annexed to the imperial crown of England." They also condemned in the strongest terms the practice of the Irish parliament to re-enact laws made in England expressly to bind Ireland; and went in a body to present an address to the king, praying his majesty "to take all necessary care that the laws which directed and restrained the parliament of Ireland should not be evaded." Thus did the English Parliament try to carry the matter with a high hand, while the Irish Parliament could do little more than protest against the usurpation of its constitutional rights.

England had long been jealous of

to sue, or prosecute any action, &c., in law or in equity; to be guardian, administrator, &c., to any person, or to be capable of any legacy or deed of gift; and besides, should forfeit all their estates, both real and personal during their lives." "It is really shameful," observes Dr. Curry (*Hist. Review*, p. 530), "to see what mean, malicious, and frivolous complaints against Papists were received under the notion of grievances by that parliament. Thus, 'a petition' of one Edward Sprag and others, in behalf of themselves and other Protestant porters in and about the city of Dublin, complaining that one Darby Ryan, a Papist, had employed porters of his own persuasion, having been received and read, was referred to the committee of grievances, that they should report thereon to the house.'"—(*Com. Jour*, vol ii., p 699.)



the woollen manufactures of Ireland; and on the principle that Irish interests ought to be subordinate to those of England, it was resolved that that important branch of Irish industry and commerce should be destroyed. Some attempts for that purpose had been made so long ago as Strafford's time; but, notwithstanding these, the trade flourished; and now, as on that occasion, it was proposed to encourage the linen trade as a substitute, linen not being a staple commodity in England; although, in this, too, at a later period, Irish rivalry excited English jealousy. In June, 1698, addresses on the subject from the English Houses of Lords and Commons were presented to William III., who, in reply, said, "I shall do all that in me lies to discourage the woollen manufacture in Ireland, and to encourage the linen trade there; and to promote the trade of England;" and he sent instructions accordingly to his lords justices in Ireland. The Irish parliament manifested, on the occasion, a base subserviency, which proved that their recent contests were for the privileges of their order, not for the interests of the country. In the session of 1689, they passed a law imposing on the exportation of Irish woollen goods, duties which amounted to a prohibition; and, in the same year, a law was passed in England restraining the exportation

of Irish woollen manufactures, including frieze, to any country except England and Wales. The Irish wool-trade was carried on exclusively by the Protestant colonists, and it was said that 40,000 persons were reduced to poverty by its destruction.\*

Seven commissioners were sent by the English parliament to inquire into the disposal of the forfeited estates in Ireland, and four out of the seven, in opposition to court influence, presented to the House of Commons, in December, 1699, a report which caused extreme annoyance to the king, who had made grants according to his own views. One of his grants, not included in the private forfeitures already mentioned, consisted of 95,649 acres of the personal estates of James II., worth, per annum, £25,995, which William had given to his favorite, Mrs. Elizabeth Villiers, created countess of Orkney. The inquiry elicited several unpleasant exposures, and gave rise to warm debates in the English parliament. The House of Commons voted that, "the advising and passing of the said grants was highly reflecting upon the king's honor;" and, in the beginning of 1700, passed an act for resuming the granted estates as public property. These proceedings embittered the latter days of William III., who broke his collar-bone by a fall

\* Arthur Young, in his *Tour in Ireland*, points out how futile was the hope that England would give that encouragement to the Irish linen-trade which was promised as a compensation for the loss of the woollen manufacture. He shows how, in direct breach of the com-

pact, the 23d George II. laid a tax on sail-cloth made of Irish hemp; how bounties were given to English linens to the exclusion of the Irish, and how certain Irish linen fabrics were not admitted into England.—*Tour*, part ii., p. 107, 4to ed.



from his horse, on the 26th of February, 1702, and died on the 8th of March following, in the fifty-second year of his age. He was never popular in England, and his inability to control the English parliament, in the instance just mentioned, or in the dismissal of his Dutch guards from England, relieves his memory, to some extent, from the odium of other acts of the legislature during his reign. He survived only a short time the dethroned king, James II., who died at St. Germain, September 16th, 1701; and he was deeply chagrined to find that, immediately upon that event, the "Pretender" was acknowledged king of England, as James III., by the courts of France and Spain.

For the reign of William's successor, Anne, was reserved the distinction of bringing the execrable penal code to full maturity. At this time nothing whatever was done on the part of the Irish Catholics to provoke aggression: no offences were alleged against them: they kept aloof from the party agitation of the day, and had subsided into a

state of utter prostration and debility. Still, in the midst of a vast Catholic population, the Protestant colonists did not feel their ascendancy secure. The power of England at their back, the wealth of the country in their hands, and the well-forged chains which bound the Catholics to the earth were not sufficient. They imagined that in the persecution of the Catholics lay their own safety. In 1703 the duke of Ormond came to Ireland as lord-lieutenant, and on his arrival the House of Commons waited on him in a body, with a bill "for preventing the further growth of Popery," praying him, says Burnett, with more than ordinary vehemence to intercede so effectually for them that it might be sent back under the great seal of England. This he undertook to do; and we learn from the same authority that he fulfilled his promise punctually.\* Several members appear to have disapproved of the bill, but not one had the honor or manliness to raise his voice against it; those who were ashamed of the measure merely resigning their seats, to which

\* James, the second and last duke of Ormond, who on this occasion assured the parliament that he would be always most ready to do every thing in his power to prevent the growth of Popery, was grandson of James, the first or "great" duke, who, as representative in Ireland of Charles I., and then of Charles II., during the civil wars of the Commonwealth, had exhibited such bitter enmity to the confederate Catholics. Thomas, earl of Ossory, son of the first duke and father of the second, did not live to inherit his ancestral honors, and his noble qualities rendered his death (in 1680) a deplorable loss to his country. It is a remarkable fact that while from the earliest times members of the noble

family of Ormond were foremost in the popular ranks, the head of the house almost invariably sided with the English party against his country. The second duke, who, as mentioned above, promoted the penal enactments against the Catholics, and was one of the first who joined the prince of Orange against James II., subsequently took the part of the Pretender against George I., and shortly after the death of Queen Anne was attainted of high treason, and deprived of all his estates and titles. He died, in 1745, an exile in the south of France, where he had subsisted on a pension from the kings of France and Spain, but it would appear that he always continued a consistent Protestant.



less scrupulous men were elected. Yet, even the silent protest of such resignations, as they became more frequent, would not be tolerated by the tyrant majority; and it was made a standing order that no new writs would be issued to replace such reluctant members. In England, the Tory advisers of Anne deemed the atrocious measure harsh and uncalled for; yet they had not the courage to stem the tide of anti-popish persecution. To evade their responsibility, they resorted to a mean subterfuge. They added to the bill, the clause known as the "Sacramental Test," which excluded from every public trust all who refused to receive the Sacrament according to the rites of the Established Church, and which, therefore, militated against Presbyterians and other Protestant dissenters, as well as against Catholics; and they hoped by that means to have the bill rejected by the Irish parliament, in which the dissenters had great influence. The artifice, however, did not succeed. The dissenters were at first alarmed, but on being assured that the clause would never be put in force against themselves, and that it was only the Papists who were aimed at, they withdrew their opposition. Some of the Catholic nobility and gentry petitioned to be heard by counsel against the bill, and Sir Theobald Butler, Sir Stephen Rice, and

Counsellor Malone, were accordingly allowed to appear against it at the bar of the Houses of Lords and Commons, but all their appeals to the laws or treaties, or to the justice or humanity of the legislature, were in vain. The petitioners were told in mockery that if they were deprived of the benefits of the articles of Limerick it would be their own fault, since by conforming to the established religion, they would be entitled to these and many other advantages; that therefore they ought not to blame any but themselves; that the passing of that bill into a law was needful for the security of the kingdom at that juncture; and, in short, that there was nothing in the treaty of Limerick which hindered them to pass it!\*"The bill," says Mr. O'Connor, "passed without a dissentient voice; without the opposition or protest of a single individual to proclaim that there was one man of righteousness in that polluted assembly to save it from the reproach of universal depravity."† On the 4th of March, 1704, it received the royal assent; and on the 17th, the Commons resolved unanimously, that all magistrates and others who neglected to put the laws in execution against the Papists betrayed the public liberty. In June, 1705, they resolved that the saying or hearing of Mass by any one who had not taken the oath of abjuration

\* The admirable and unanswerable arguments of the Catholic counsel against the bill have been preserved in the appendix to Curry's *Review*; and will also be found

in the appendix to Plowden's *Historical Review* and in Taaffe's *History*.

† O'Connor's *History of the Irish Catholics*, p 169



was illegal, and that any judges or magistrates who neglected to inquire into and discover such wicked practices were enemies to the queen's government; and in order to remove the repugnance which people naturally feel for the infamous trade of informers and priest-hunters, it was unanimously resolved that the prosecuting and informing against Papists was an honorable service to the State. But these brutal laws were not yet stringent enough, and to consolidate the system, an act was passed, in 1709, to explain and amend the act for preventing the further

growth of Popery, so that the code was now, as Burke describes it, "a machine of wise and elaborate contrivance, and as well fitted for the oppression, impoverishment, and degradation of a people, and the debasement in them of human nature itself, as ever proceeded from the perverted ingenuity of man." \*

During the whole of Anne's reign the penal laws were enforced with rigorous severity, yet the persecuted Catholics of Ireland could be charged with no act of disloyalty. In England, and among the Irish Protestants, the dis-

\* *Letter to Sir Hercules Langrishe.* We may say with Mr. Lawless, that "it is painful to recall the mind to the contemplation of these laws, which were conceived by the malignant genius of monopoly; that for the interests of mankind, it would, perhaps, be better to bury these examples of public infamy, the very mention of which must more or less contribute to the degradation of public morals; but that the duties of the historian silence the voice of the philanthropist" (*Lawless's Hist. of Ireland*, vol. ii., p. 316); but as a still stronger reason for dwelling on the loathsome details, we may add, that under the withering influence of these laws successive generations of Irish Catholics grew up and passed away; that their effects on the moral and material interests of the nation remained long after the barbarous laws themselves were effaced from the statute-book, and that there are many circumstances in the social state of Ireland at this moment which must be explained by a reference to the penal code. For these reasons we subjoin the following enumeration of the Irish penal laws of Queen Anne's reign, as given by Laaffe (*Hist. of Ireland*, vol. iii., pp. 567, &c.): "If the eldest or any other son became a Protestant, the father, if possessing an estate by descent or purchase, was rendered incapable of disposing any part of it, even in legacies or portions. If a child pretended to be a Protestant, the guardianship of it was taken from the father and vested in the next Protestant relation. If children became Protestants, the parents were compelled to discover the amount of their property, that the Court of Chancery might at pleasure allot portions for the rebellious children. If a wife became a Protestant during the lifetime of her husband, she should have such provision

as the lord chancellor thought fit to adjudge. If no Protestant heir, the estate was to be divided among the children, &c., share and share alike. (This amounted to the abolition of primogeniture for Catholics.)—The heirs of a Protestant possessor, if Papists, disinherited and the estate transferred to the next Protestant relation.—Papists rendered incapable of purchasing lands, or rents or profits from lands, or taking leases for any term over thirty-one years; and if the profit on the farm exceeded one-third of the rent, the possessor might be ousted, and the property vested in the Protestant discoverer.—Papists rendered incapable of annuities.—Deprived of votes at elections.—Incapacitated from serving on grand-juries.—Expelled from Limerick and Galway.—Limited to two apprentices, except in the linen-trade.—Twenty pounds penalty or two months' imprisonment for not acknowledging when and where Mass was celebrated; who and what persons were present; when or where a priest or schoolmaster resided.—Popish clergy to be registered, and to officiate only in the parish in which they are registered.—£50 reward for discovering a popish archbishop, bishop, vicar-general, or any person exercising foreign ecclesiastical jurisdiction.—£20 reward for a regular or secular clergyman not registered.—£10 reward for a Popish schoolmaster or usher.—These rewards to be levied exclusively on Papists.—Advowsons of Papists vested in her majesty.—£30 per annum settled upon priests becoming Protestants." By another law the Catholics were prevented from purchasing any part of the forfeited estates, but allowed to dwell on them as laborers or cottiers, provided their tenement did not exceed in value the rent of thirty shillings a year.





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**BLARNEY CASTLE,**  
CO. CORK







sensions of Whigs and Tories daily increased in virulence; violent ruptures took place between the English Houses of Lords and Commons; in Ireland, the dissenters complained loudly of the grievances inflicted on them by the high church party; and all the attempts made by the profligate earl of Wharton and other viceroys to unite all sects of Protestants against the "common enemy," as the Catholics were termed, proved ineffectual. The English parliament enacted several laws to bind Ireland, and yet no protest was now made against them by the degenerate Irish parliament, which seemed content with the liberty to make laws against the Catholics. It appeared to be a settled principle, that the Catholics were to be harassed even to extermination.\* "The last consummation," says an elo-

quent writer, "was now perfected. The land was reduced to a waste, yet fear and discord still reigned; solitude was everywhere, but peace was not yet established. Emigrations became numerous and frequent; all who could fly, fled. They left behind a government a prey to every vice, and a country a victim to every wrong. The facility of acquiring property by the violation of the natural duties of social life was too powerful a temptation: dishonesty, treachery, and extravagance prevailed. The rewards of conformity cast at large the seeds of mutual distrust in the hearts of child and of parent. Hypocrisy and dissimulation were applauded and recompensed by the laws themselves. A nursery for young tyrants was formed in the very bosom of the legislature; habitual oppression and

\* In 1709 some of the extirpated Catholics were replaced by colonies of Protestants from different parts of Germany, but known by the general name of Palatines. Many thousands of these Germans came to England, and Dr Curry says, that 841 families were brought over to Ireland (Lodge makes the number 500 families, averaging six persons each, vol vi., p. 24), and that the sum of £24,850 was appointed for their maintenance out of the public revenue; but parliament soon grew tired of the burden, for in 1711 the Lords, in addressing the queen, thanked her that by her care she had anticipated their own endeavors to free the nation from the load of debt "which the bringing over numbers of useless and indigent Palatines had brought upon them." Burnett tells us, that the English Commons voted that those who had encouraged and brought over the Palatines were enemies to the nation (vol. ii., p. 338). In Ireland their chief patron was Sir Thomas Southwell, afterwards baron of Castlematress, and ancestor of Viscount Southwell. Their principal colony was fixed at Courtmatress near Rathkeale, and colonies were subsequently planted at Adare, Castle Oliver, and other places in the county of Limerick, and also at some localities in Kerry. The Palatines got farms on leases for three

lives at two-thirds of the rent at which land would be let to Irish tenants. They were also encouraged in various other ways; and these advantages, with their skilful husbandry, and habits of industry, frugality, and cleanliness, raised them considerably in the scale of comfort above their Irish neighbors. When Arthur Young visited Ireland in 1776, he found that the Palatines retained to a great extent their German customs and manners. Even at the present day, they may be said to form distinct communities, although their ancient national peculiarities have been long laid aside. They are industrious and inoffensive; live in friendly relations with their Catholic neighbors; and although they still adhere to some form of Protestantism (chiefly dissent), they have intermarried in numerous instances with Catholics. After mentioning how the Palatines "had houses built for them, plots of land assigned to each at a rent of favor, were assisted in stock, and all of them with leases for lives from the head landlord," Arthur Young adds. "The poor Irish are rarely treated in this manner; when they are, they work much greater improvements than (are) common among those Germans." Such was the impartial statement of a contemporary English traveller. *Tour, &c.*, part ii., p. 18



habitual subserviency degraded and debased the upper classes. The lower, without rights, without land, with scarcely a home, with nothing which truly gives country to man, basely crept over their native soil, defrauded of its blessings, 'the patient victims of its wrongs—the insensible spectators of its ruin,' and left behind them, between the cradle and the grave, no other trace of their existence than the memorial of calamities under which they bent, and of crimes which were assiduously taught them by their governors." \*

It was well known that Queen Anne was opposed to the succession of the house of Hanover, and the chief aim of her Tory ministers during the latter years of her life was to prepare the way to bring in her brother, the Pretender, at her death. Neither the queen, however, nor her ministers, had resolution enough for so important a movement. All the energy was to be found on the side of the Whigs; and Anne had the mortification to see her brother attainted by the English parliament, and a proclamation issued offering £50,000 reward for his appre-

hension; and to find that, contrary to her express wishes, the successor chosen for her by the Whigs was invited into England during her lifetime. These provocations hastened her death, which took place on the 1st of August, 1714; and a few hours after her demise George Augustus, duke of Cambridge, and son of the elector of Hanover, was proclaimed king as George I.†

The year 1715 was memorable for the rebellion in Scotland in favor of the Pretender; but in Ireland there was no sympathetic movement, and this country continued so tranquil that government was able to remove six regiments of foot to assist in suppressing the insurrection in North Britain. The Irish parliament evinced its loyalty by setting a price of £50,000 on the head of the Pretender, and attainting the duke of Ormond, who had joined the standard of that unfortunate prince. Still, the Irish Catholics were as much distrusted and persecuted as ever, and, in official language, were habitually designated "the common enemy." The lords justices, in their address to the Commons this year, recommended that all distinctions should be put an end to

\* *Hist. Sketch of the Catholic Association*, by Thomas Wyse, Esq., vol. i., p. 24. Lord Chesterfield, describing the state of this country a few years later, says: "All the causes that ever destroyed any country conspire in this point to ruin Ireland." *Miscell. Works*, vol. iii., p. 34.

† George I. was the eldest son of Ernest Augustus, bishop of Osnaburg, elector of Hanover and duke of Brunswick-Lunenbourg. His hereditary claim to the throne of England he derived through his mother, So-

phia, who was the fifth daughter of Frederick V., elector-palatine, and king of Bohemia, and of the princess Elizabeth, daughter of James I. of England. He was in his 55th year when he ascended the throne. The Pretender, or James III., as he was styled on the continent, would have been acceptable enough to the people of England as Anne's successor, were it not for his religion; but the attempts which his sister made shortly before her death to induce him to abandon Catholicity were ineffectual.



in this realm, save that of Protestant and Papist; and the magistrates, sheriffs, mayors, and others in authority, received instructions from government to execute with strictness the laws against Catholics. Rewards were offered for the discovery of any Papist that should presume to enlist in the king's service, "that he might be turned out and punished with the utmost severity of the law;" and about the same time the Commons resolved, that any one instituting a prosecution, under the law as it then stood, against dissenters for entering the army or militia, "was an enemy to the Protestant interest and a friend to the Pretender;" this distinction being made between Catholics and dissenters at the very moment that the Presbyterians of Scotland were in arms for the son of James II., while the Irish Catholics presented an aspect of lethargic tranquillity. The lords justices granted orders for apprehending most of the Catholic nobility and landholders, as persons suspected of disaffection; but after a painful imprisonment they were all discharged, without even the shadow of a case being set up against them.\*

A contest, which excited a lively interest, now arose between the English and Irish Houses of Lords on a question of appellate jurisdiction. A case of

property between Hester Sherlock and Maurice Annesley having been decided for the respondent by the court of exchequer in Ireland in 1719, the judgment was reversed on appeal by the Irish House of Peers. Annesley, the respondent, then brought the cause before the House of Peers in England, which affirmed the judgment of the Irish court of exchequer. The Irish peers denied the legality of the appeal to England, alleging that an appeal to the king in his Irish parliament was definitive in any cause in Ireland, and they obtained the opinion of the Irish judges to that effect. The case became more complicated by the infliction of a fine on Alexander Burrowes, sheriff of Kildare, for refusing to comply with the orders of the court of exchequer and of the English peers, by putting Annesley in possession of the estate; while on the other hand the Irish peers removed the fine, and voted that the sheriff had behaved with integrity and courage in the matter. All the reason of the case appeared to be on the side of the Irish peers, but their English masters soon made them sensible of their error, by enacting—"That whereas attempts have been lately made to shake off the subjection of Ireland unto, and dependence upon, the imperial crown of this realm; and whereas the

\* Describing the rigor with which the penal laws were at this time enforced, Plowden says it was "a rigid persecution against Catholics for the mere exercise of their religion; their priests were dragged from their concealment, many of them were taken from the altars whilst

performing divine service, exposed in their vestments to the derision of the soldiery, then committed to jail, and afterwards banished the kingdom." *History of Ireland*, vol. ii., p. 72.



lords of Ireland, in order thereto, have of late, against law, assumed to themselves a power and jurisdiction to examine and amend the judgments and decrees of the courts of justice in Ireland; therefore, &c., it is declared and enacted, &c., that the said kingdom of Ireland hath been, is, and of right ought to be, subordinate unto, and dependent upon, the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inseparably united and annexed thereunto; and that the king's majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords spiritual and temporal, and Commons of Great Britain in parliament assembled, had, hath, and of right ought to have, full power and authority to make laws and statutes of sufficient force and validity to bind the people of the kingdom of Ireland. And it is further enacted and declared, that the House of Lords of Ireland have not, nor of right ought to have, any jurisdiction to judge of, affirm, or reverse any judgment, &c., made in any court within the said kingdom," &c.

Thus was the Irish parliament degraded to the rank of a provincial as-

sembly, and Ireland reduced to a state of "a mere grovelling colony, regulated by the avarice or fears of a stranger;\*" and in this state did they continue until the glorious epoch of 1782. But the humiliation of the Irish legislature did not blunt its appetite for oppressing the Catholics. In 1719, an act was passed to exempt the Protestant dissenters from certain penalties to which they were liable in common with the Catholics; and, as if it were necessary that this simple justice to the dissenter should be relieved by a fresh exhibition of malignity to the Papist, a bill was brought in 1723 for still more effectually preventing the further growth of Popery. The bill, however, contained a clause of so savage a nature against the Catholic clergy, that the whole brutal measure was suppressed in England, and thus fell to the ground.

Towards the close of this reign we begin to hear of "patriots" as a new party in Ireland, different from Whigs and Tories,† and standing rather in contradistinction to the English party, by whom they were usually styled the "disaffected." Their leader was the

\* *Hist. of Catholic Association*, i., p. 28. The Irish Protestant, observes Mr. Wyse, "had succeeded in excluding the Catholics from all power, and for a moment held triumphant and exclusive possession of the conquest; but he was merely a *locum tenens* for a more powerful conqueror, a jackal for the lion, an Irish steward for an English master; and the time soon came round when he was obliged to render up reluctantly, but immediately, even this oppressive trust. The exclusive system was turned against him; he had made the executive entirely *Protestant*; the Whigs of George I. made it almost entirely *English*. His victory paved

the way for another far easier, and far more important. Popery fell, but Ireland fell with it."—*Ibid.*, p. 27

† Some hold that the Whigs and Tories were, from the beginning, respectively identical in principle with the parties which now bear those names, and that the only difference was one of circumstances, which caused men to act at one time very differently from what they would at another time, although actuated all the while by the same principles. At all events, the Whigs and Tories of the period of which we now treat begin to assume a closer resemblance than they previously had to the more modern parties.



celebrated Dr. Jonathan Swift, dean of St. Patrick's, who in religion belonged to the Tory or high-church party, and in politics adhered to the Whigs; but who practically separated himself from both, and employed his great powers as a writer to uphold the interests of Ireland against the hostile influence of the British cabinet. Swift had already exerted himself as an advocate of Irish manufactures against English monopoly; but a circumstance now occurred which called into action with memorable effect all his wonderful energy. In 1793, one William Wood, a scheming Englishman, obtained from George I., through the influence of the duchess of Kendal, the king's mistress, a patent for supplying Ireland with a coinage of copper half-pence and farthings to the amount of £108,000. It must be remembered that this was an age of frauds on a gigantic scale. France had been just before brought to the brink of ruin by the Mississippi scheme, and England was still suffering from the disaster of the South Sea bubble. Some such calamity was anticipated in Ireland from Wood's patent, and the cry of alarm was universally raised against it. Swift took up the subject in his celebrated "Drapier's Letters," in which, assuming the character of a Dublin draper, he attacked the job in a style of argument and ridicule that produced an amazing effect upon the minds of the people.

Every class, from the highest to the lowest throughout Ireland, was inspired with horror for Wood's half-pence. The incomparable "drapier" told them that Wood had employed so base an alloy for his half-pence, that the whole mass which would be forced upon the country in lieu of £108,000, would not be worth £8,000; that twenty-four of those half-pence would be scarcely worth more than one penny; that the price of commodities should be raised in proportion as the value of the coin was depressed, so that a penny-worth could not be sold for less than at least twenty of the half-pence; that there was nothing to prevent Wood from imposing upon Ireland any quantity of his base copper that he chose, so that at length all the gold and silver coin might be withdrawn from the country; in which case a lady could not go out shopping without taking a wagon-load of the vile half-pence along with her; and a gentleman of moderate property would require scores of horses to draw home his half-year's rent, and extensive cellars in which to stow it away! As to the position in which a banker would be placed when Ireland had no coin but Wood's half-pence, it was not to be thought of. "In fact," says the drapier, "if Mr. Wood's project should take, it would ruin even our beggars;\* for, when I give a beggar a half-penny it will quench his

\* It is alleged that Wood's copper had been assayed at the mint and found to be of the required value, and

that consequently all the dean's arguments were illusory.



thirst, or go a good way to fill his belly ; but the twelfth part of a half-penny will do him no more service than if I should give him three pins out of my sleeve." In the midst of the ferment about Wood's patent, Dr. Hugh Boulter, an Englishman, was made archbishop of Armagh, and sent over here to manage the English interest, as it was called—that is, to keep every thing in Ireland subservient to English views and interests. For nearly twenty years he continued to fill that post, and during the interval the functions of the viceroy were little more than nominal, every thing being done by the counsel and management of Primate Boulter. Within a fortnight after his arrival in Ireland he wrote to the duke of Newcastle that things were in a very bad state here, "the people so poisoned with apprehension of Wood's half-pence, that he did not see there could be any hopes of justice against any person for seditious writings if he did but mix something about Wood in them." It was well known that Swift was the author of the Drapier's Letters, yet the government could obtain no evidence against him, although a reward of £300 was offered for the discovery of the writer, and Swift's secret was known to several. The printer, Harding, was taken up and prosecuted ; but the first grand-jury ignored the bill against him ; and when Chief-justice Whitshed, the corrupt tool of government, caused another grand-jury to be sworn, they went further than the former jury, by

passing a vote of thanks to the writer of the Drapier's Letters and presenting Wood's scheme as a fraud on the public. At length, in 1725, the obnoxious patent was withdrawn ; Wood receiving an indemnity of £3,000 a year for twelve years ; and the popularity of Dean Swift rose to a height which had no precedent in Ireland at that time.

No other event of importance marked the reign of George I., who died at Os-naburg, in Germany, on the 10th of June, 1727, in the sixty-eighth year of his age and the thirteenth of his reign. From the time he ascended the throne he had suffered himself to be governed implicitly by the Whigs ; and under him all the faults of English misrule in Ireland were carried to the extreme. It was an age of political and social turpitude. For a long time past a flood of immorality had been inundating England, and the few attempts then made to stem the torrent of crime there only indicated the vastness of the evil. Religion had long since disappeared, and honor followed. Corruption and venality in public men, and avarice, prodigality, and shame-faced profligacy in private life, were the characteristic vices. The dominant faction in Ireland had not escaped the contagion ; but the Irish Catholics were humbled and oppressed too low to come within its sphere. The chastening rod of affliction was heavy upon them, and the fidelity with which they clung to their religion during those evil days, and



under all the humiliations and temporal grievances which it brought upon them, is assuredly one of the most wonderful things related in their checkered history.\*

On the accession of George II., the Catholics ventured to prepare an address to the new monarch expressing their loyalty, and pledging themselves to a continuance of their peaceful demeanor. The address was presented by Lord Delvin to the lords justices (one of whom was Primate Boulter), with a prayer that it might be transmitted to the king; but it was received with silent contempt, and was never forwarded to England. Hitherto Catholics might vote at elections, on taking the oaths of allegiance and abjura-

tion; but in 1727 a bill was brought into the Irish parliament which deprived them of this last vestige of constitutional rights. It was simply entitled, "A bill for further regulating the election of members of parliament," and no intimation was given that any new penal enactment was intended; but without any notice or debate, or any cause being assigned, a clause was introduced which enacted, "that no Papist, though not convict, should be entitled or admitted to vote at the election of any member to serve in parliament, or of any magistrate for any city or town corporate."† This was effected through the management of Primate Boulter, who in the next place busied himself in the establishment of Protest-

\* Perhaps the following beautiful words of Cardinal Wiseman, describing the steadfastness of the Irish in the Catholic faith, are not more applicable to any period than to that at which we have now arrived. In his sermon at the consecration of the new church at Ballinasloe, his eminence said: "Throw on one side wealth, nobility, and worldly position; the influence of superior education of the highest class; literature, science, and whatever belongs to those who command, according to this world. Cast into the other scale poverty and misery, the absence almost for ages of the power of culture; the dependence totally for all that is necessary in this life, for daily food itself, upon those who belong to the other class. See these two bodies acting for centuries reciprocally upon one another. Suppose it to be a matter of mere human opinion, human principle, science, or of that knowledge of every sort that distinguishes them, and judge if it is possible, that for hundreds of years that which is so much greater, more powerful, and more wise in the eyes of the world, ought not to have crumbled and crushed under itself that which was absolutely subject to it, and lying under its feet, and reduced it into a homogeneous mass; and breaking down the barriers of opinion that separated the two, have made them in this become but one." And describing how soon such an effect was produced in England, where "a few years of superiority in one class,

which monopolized all earthly advantages, wore away the patient resistance of those who would not otherwise have altered their faith, until at length districts which once were most fervent and most zealously Catholic hardly heard that name amongst them, and scarcely a trace was left in the feelings and traditions of the people of the former existence of the Catholic church amongst them;" he asked what has caused this distinction, and answers, "I cannot see but this difference, that it pleased God, by one of those dispensations which we must not endeavor to penetrate, to allow religion there to take, perhaps, a nobler and more magnificent hold upon the surface of the land, demonstrating itself by more splendid edifices, by more noble endowments of universities, colleges, and hospitals; while here He makes its roots strike deep into the very soil, and so take possession of the soil that it was impossible to ever uproot it."—Card Wiseman's *Tour in Ireland*, pp. 22, 23, 24.—Dublin J. Duffy.

† The disfranchisement of Catholics is included by Taaffe among the disabilities enacted in the reign of Anne. We may here add, that in order to preclude Catholics from a knowledge of proceedings in parliament, it was made a standing order of the Irish House of Commons, in 1713, "that the sergeant-at-arms should take into custody all Papists that were or should presume to come into the galleries."



ant charter schools, of which he may be said to have been the founder. "The great number of Papists in this kingdom," he wrote to the bishop of London, "and the obstinacy with which they adhere to their own religion, occasions our trying what may be done with their children to bring them over to our Church."\* So well was the secret of proselytism even then understood. An intense anxiety was felt at this time to exclude from the legal profession not only Catholics but even converts from Catholicity. "We must be all undone here," says Primate Boulter, "if that profession gets into the hands of converts, where it is already got, and where it every day gets more and more." A convert should test his sincerity by five years' perseverance in Protestantism before he could be admitted a barrister; and in 1728, a stringent act was passed to prevent Papists from practising as solicitors.

While this latter measure was pending, some Catholics set a subscription on foot to oppose it in parliament; and one Hennessy, a suspended priest, gave information to government that

the subscription was for the Pretender, that large sums were collected, and that certain Catholic bishops were the organizers of the scheme. It happened that only £5 were collected, but the House of Commons caused a commission of inquiry to issue, which magnified and distorted the facts. The matter, however, went no further.

For some years great distress had prevailed, and the depression of trade and general discontent which resulted, drove vast numbers to emigrate; but the emigration was chiefly confined to the northern Protestants, and this increased the disproportion of Catholics and Protestants and was a fresh source of alarm.

More stringent measures were taken to disarm the Catholics, so that even a Protestant in the employment of a Catholic was not allowed to have arms. In 1733, the duke of Dorset, then lord-lieutenant, caused a bill to be laid before the Irish parliament to relieve the dissenters from the test act, and recommended a firm union among all Protestants, as having one common interest and the same common enemy—namely, the Catholics; but

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\* *Boulter's Letters*, vol. ii., p. 10. In the same letter, which is dated May 5, 1730, he writes: "I can assure you, the Papists are here so numerous that it highly concerns us in point of interest, as well as out of concern for the salvation of those poor creatures, who are our fellow-subjects, to try all possible means to bring them and theirs over to the knowledge of the true religion. And one of the most likely methods we can think of is, if possible, instructing and converting the young generation; for, instead of converting those who are adult, we are daily losing several of our meaner

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people who go off to Popery." (*Ibid.*, pp. 11, 12.) Two days after he wrote to the same effect to the duke of Newcastle, asking a charter for a Protestant school corporation "to take the management of schools for instructing the Popish youth," and the charter was accordingly granted. Boulter estimated that there were "five Papists to one Protestant," and "near 3,000 Popish priests of all sorts" in Ireland: and the Protestant bishop, Berkeley, writing in 1744, makes the numbers in Munster eight Papists to one Protestant.



the measure was opposed by Dean Swift and the patriots, and was withdrawn.\*

Rumors of an intended French invasion, in 1744, gave rise to a fresh ebullition of rage against the Catholics; a search was made in private houses for the priests, and the chapels were closed. In England, the Catholics were expelled from London; but in Ireland, where they were too numerous for expulsion, the idea of getting rid of them by a massacre seems to have been very generally entertained. This diabolical project was even suggested by a nobleman in the privy council; and a conspiracy to carry it into execution was actually formed in Ulster, the pretence being that the Catholics intended to

murder the Protestants.† Nevertheless when the Scottish rebellion broke out, in 1745, there was no corresponding movement in Ireland. The army of Prince Charles Edward on that occasion was, indeed, composed to a great extent of Irishmen, or men of Irish extraction, but these had been already in the service of France;‡ and in Ireland a tranquillity prevailed which, under such dire provocation, could only have been the result of the deepest depression. The danger which might arise from Ireland at such a juncture was, however, formidable, and the earl of Chesterfield was sent over as lord-lieutenant, to calm public feeling by a policy of conciliation. He treated the Catholics with lenity, allowed them to keep their

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\* The frequent distress alluded to in the text arose from a complication of causes. Agricultural improvement was discouraged among the Catholics by the penal laws, which prevented a Catholic from obtaining a long lease, and also exposed him to be deprived of his farm if it could be shown that the rent was less than two-thirds of the full improved value of the land. Agriculture was still further paralyzed by a resolution of the Irish House of Commons in 1735, which was allowed to pass as law, and which, by abolishing agistment tithes on barren cattle, relieved the owners of pasture lands, and threw the great burden of the tithes on tillage. Potatoes had long since become almost the exclusive food of the Irish peasantry; and the entire potatoe crop of 1739 having been destroyed by a severe frost in November (it being at that time the custom to leave potatoes in the ground until Christmas), a frightful famine ensued in 1740 and 1741, and it was estimated that 400,000 persons died of starvation in those fatal years. See Professor Curry's letter in a tract on this famine, published in 1846; also Dr. Wilde's *Reports on Deaths*, Census Papers.

† Dr. Curry, who tells us that the atrocious suggestion of the privy councillor "was quickly overruled by that honorable assembly," adds, "yet so entirely were some of the lower northern dissenters possessed by this pre-

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vailing rancor against Catholics, that in the same year, and for the same declared purpose of prevention, a conspiracy was actually formed by some of the inhabitants of Lurgan, to rise in the night-time and destroy all their neighbors of that denomination in their beds." This inhuman design, he says, was known and attested by several inhabitants of Lurgan, and an account of it was transmitted to Dublin by a respectable linen merchant of that city then at Lurgan. It was also frustrated "by an information of the honest Protestant publican in whose house the conspirators had met to settle the execution of their scheme, sworn before the Rev. Mr. Ford, a justice of the peace in that district, who received it with horror, and with difficulty put a stop to the intended massacre."—*Curry's State of the Catholics of Ireland*; see also *Plowden*, and *Wright's Hist. of Ireland*, vol. ii., p. 339.

‡ So extensively was the secret recruiting for foreign service carried on in Ireland, notwithstanding the rigid laws on the subject, that we are told by the Abbé Mageoghegan, on the authority of French official documents that more than 450,000 Irishmen died in the service of France between the years 1691 and 1745; and Mr. Newenham, in his inquiry into the population of Ireland, thinks that "we are not sufficiently warranted in considering this statement an exaggeration."



chapels open, and even encouraged their assemblages, at the same time that he employed secret agents to attend all their places of resort, and through them learned that no designs were entertained by the Catholics against the government. He also employed skilful writers to disseminate his views through the medium of pretended popular pamphlets; and, on the whole, the policy which he was sent to carry out was cowardly and insincere, only meant to deceive with false hopes in a moment of danger. So tranquil was Ireland, that he was able to send four battalions to assist the duke of Cumberland against Charles Edward in Scotland; but by the battle of Culloden, April 16th, 1746, the insurrection in Scotland was crushed; and there being no longer any need of a soothing policy for Ireland, Lord Chesterfield was recalled on the 25th of the same month, and the government intrusted to Archbishop Hoadley, successor to Boulter, Lord Chancellor Newport, and Mr. Boyle, the then popular speaker of the House of Commons, as lords justices.

In 1747, George Stone succeeded Hoadley as primate, and like Boulter became the manager of the English interest, and the virtual head of the Irish government. He was a proud, arrogant, unprincipled, and unscrupulous man, and is accused of having resorted to means the most demoralizing to corrupt the Irish gentry for the maintenance of English ascendancy.

In 1749 disputes arose in the Irish parliament about the appropriation of the surplus revenue, and the question of privilege was revived. A bill was introduced in the Commons to apply the unappropriated surplus to the liquidation of the national debt. The court party alleged that such an appropriation could not be made without the previous consent of the crown, while the patriots insisted that no such consent was necessary. The subject gave rise to warm and protracted discussions. In 1751 and 1753, the dispute was renewed with increased violence; the duke of Dorset, who had been a second time appointed lord-lieutenant, told the parliament that the king gave his "consent and recommendation" to the application of the surplus towards the reduction of the national debt; but the formula offended the Commons, who regarded it as an infringement of their privileges and passed the bill without any reference to it. The English ministry were enraged, and sent back the bill from England, with words interpolated in the preamble to express the king's recommendation and consent. From year to year the dispute was renewed, and the patriots continued visibly to gain ground. The earl of Kildare presented to the king in person a bold address, complaining of the arrogance and the illegal and corrupt interference of Primate Stone and the lord-lieutenant's son, Lord George Sackville, in public affairs. This manly proceeding was, itself, an important triumph.



and popular excitement ran so high that the viceroy left the country in dismay; but in the end corruption prevailed. By an ingenious complication of intrigues the patriot party was disorganized. Henry Boyle, the speaker, was created earl of Shannon, and his clamorous but hollow patriotism moreover silenced by a pension. Mr. Ponsonby, son of the earl of Besborough, a man of inordinate ambition, was elected speaker; Prime Sergeant Anthony Malone, another leading patriot was, a little later, gratified with the chancellorship of the exchequer; and although a few men of integrity remained unpurchased, the ranks of the patriots were so broken as to be no longer formidable. Lord Hartington, who soon after became duke of Devonshire, was sent over to replace the duke of Dorset, and helped to carry out these arrangements; but when, in 1756, he was about to return to England, instead of counselling, as usual, a union of Protestants against the "common enemy," he recommended harmony among all his majesty's subjects. Lord Chancellor Jocelyn, and the earls of Kildare and Besborough, were then appointed lords justices; and although it was soon found, as usually happens,

that the patriots did not act up to the same principles in office which they advocated out of it, still a change had come over the spirit of the times; a brighter day was dawning; bigotry was on the wane, and liberal principles began to be appreciated. To this period are to be traced the first aspirations after religious liberty which the oppressed Irish Catholics ventured to breathe—the first humble germs of the great Catholic movement which in after years was to assume such gigantic proportions.

It was in 1746 that Dr. John Curry a Catholic physician, practising in Dublin, and distinguished for his professional ability and humanity, conceived the idea of vindicating his country from the withering calumnies which national and sectarian hatred and rage for spoliation had invented and propagated, and which credulity and hostile prejudice had too readily accepted. Some valuable historical tracts were the first results of his learned and patriotic studies, and these were matured a few years later into the famous "Historical and Critical Review of the Civil Wars of Ireland," which has been so often quoted in these pages.\* Dr. Curry for some time stood alone, but his writings

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\* Charles O'Connor has left us a brief memoir of his friend, Dr. Curry, prefixed to the second edition of the Review of the Civil Wars. He was descended from an ancient Irish family of Cavan—the O'Corras—who were deprived of their property in the usurpation of Cromwell; and maternally he was related to Dean Swift. His grandfather commanded a troop of horse under James II., and fell at Aughrim. Dr. Curry studied

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at Paris, and obtained his diploma of physician at Rheims. His first historical tract was a dialogue on the Rebellion of 1641, which appeared anonymously in 1747, and drew forth a voluminous reply from Walter Harris, the editor of Ware's Works. Dr. Curry's rejoinder, also anonymous, was his "Historical Memoirs of the Irish Rebellion," a small book, first printed in 1759, and which would be invaluable if we had not th-



attracted the attention of Charles O'Connor, of Belanagar, the eminent Irish antiquary and friend of Dr. Johnson, and both were soon drawn together by a community of sympathies on behalf of their suffering co-religionists. To these two men was added a third friend of the cause—Mr. Wyse, a Catholic gentleman of Waterford, who entered with zeal into their views; and in the communings and correspondence of the three were to be found the first pulsations of returning life in the Catholic body of Ireland. Their first step was to address a circular to the Catholic clergy and aristocracy, inviting co-operation; but this effort failed. The Catholic aristocracy shrunk from public notice. They had suffered too much in past times, and had too much to fear from the future; they were too timid, too apathetic, and too proud. The Catholic clergy were equally shrinking and equally timid; they feared the slightest public movement; “they trembled at the possibility of plunging still more deeply and inextricably into persecution the suffering Church of Ireland;” the priest-hunter was still abroad and eager for his prey; but the habitual solitude and exclusion in which they had so long sheltered themselves, as

much as the apprehension of danger made the Irish clergy dislike notoriety, and so they disapproved of any movement.\* There was still another body to be appealed to, not at all numerous, but with more energy, hope, and enterprise than the others—namely, the Catholic merchants and commercial men; and to these our three regenerators next had recourse. In September, 1757, John Russell, duke of Bedford, was appointed lord-lieutenant. He professed liberal sentiments, and the occasion was thought a favorable one for an address from the Catholics; but, with the fate of Lord Delvin’s address before their eyes, any fresh attempt of the kind was deemed worse than useless by many, and the gentry and clergy rejected the proposal. An address, nevertheless, was prepared by Charles O’Connor, and proposed by him at a meeting of citizens held in the Globe Tavern, Essex-street. Four hundred respectable names, chiefly of men in the commercial classes, were soon attached to it; and it was presented to Mr. Ponsonby, the speaker of the House of Commons, “the depression and degradation of the body being at that time such that they dared not venture to wait upon the lord-lieutenant or to

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larger and more important production, *The Review*, etc., the first edition of which was printed in 1775. Dr. Curry died in 1780. He was devoted heart and soul to the interests of the Catholic Church and of his country.

\* *Wyse’s Hist. Catholic Association*, vol. i., ch. ii. In addition to the above-mentioned motives, in which we have followed Mr. Wyse, it is probable that there was another equally strong—namely, an unwillingness to

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trust a few self-appointed men where so much was at stake, and where the interests of religion were involved. The schismatical conduct of the English Catholic Committee, many years after, showed how dangerous it was to confide the management of such affairs to any body of laymen; but, for the Irish committee, it must be said that they never laid themselves open to any charge of that nature.



present the address in person." A long interval passed before any answer was received; and those who had opposed the address began to congratulate themselves on their own superior judgment. Dr. Curry and his friends had projected an association for the management of Catholic affairs, and had formed a committee, in which they were aided by a few of the Dublin merchants, but the clergy and aristocracy cautiously held aloof. At length the address appeared in the Gazette, with a gracious reply, in which the Catholics were told that "the zeal and attachment which they professed could never be more seasonably manifested than in the present conjuncture; and that as long as they conducted themselves with duty and affection they could not fail to receive his majesty's protection." These were the first words addressed in kindness to the Catholics of Ireland by the representatives of English power since the unfortunate James II. lost his throne.\*

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\* "Addresses," says Mr. Wyse, "now poured in from all sides; but so debased by the most servile adulation of the reigning powers, and by ungrateful vituperation of the French, from whom, from the treaty of Limerick up to that hour, they were indebted for every benefit,—the exile for his home—the scholar for his education—their ancient and decayed aristocracy for commissions in the army for their younger sons,—that their freer descendants blush in reading the disgraceful record, and turn aside in disgust for the melancholy evidence of the corrupting and enduring influences of a long-continued state of slavery."—*Hist. Cath. Association*, vol. i., p. 64. And Mr. O'Connor, in a letter to Dr. Curry, of Dec., 1759, referring to these addresses, says: "Some of those gentlemen scold those unfortunate ancestors whom you have so well defended; others again scold the French nation, who, from them at least, have deserved better

In 1759, Dublin was disturbed by violent tumults, in consequence of a proposal for a union between England and Ireland on the plan of that between England and Scotland. The people were enraged at a project which would deprive them of their nationality and parliament, and subject them to the burden of English taxation. A Protestant mob broke into the House of Lords, insulted the peers, seated an old woman on the throne, and searched for the journals with a view to committing them to the flames. The excitement was chiefly promoted by the speeches and writings of Dr. Charles Lucas, who had been obliged to fly the country some years before on account of his manly assertion of popular rights against the abuses of the government and of the corporation. Still, Lucas was not a friend of the Catholics, for justice to that proscribed class as yet formed no part of the political creed or patriots. He had assailed them in his writings;† and although some members

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quarters—France, the asylum of our poor fugitives, lay and clerical, for seventy years past!" And again he adds: "Some declare themselves so happy as to require a revolution in their private oppressed state as little as they do a revolution in government!" Such had been the prostrating effect of the penal laws upon the minds and spirit, as well as upon the natural condition of the people.

† Lucas abused the Catholics in his "Barber's Letters," and, patriot as he was, late writers have justly pronounced him "an uncompromising bigot." He died in 1771, 58 years of age, having during the latter period of his life been reduced to a state of extreme infirmity by the gout. His remains were honored with a public funeral, and his statue in white marble, by the Irish sculptor, Edward Smyth, was placed in the Royal Exchange.



of the House of Commons attempted to throw upon the Catholics the odium of the riots, the government knew the charge to be unfounded, and hence the friendly reply to the Catholic address just mentioned.\*

During the latter part of the year great alarm was produced by rumors of an intended invasion from France. Armaments were preparing at Havre and Vannes for a descent on some indefinite part of the coast. A powerful fleet under Admiral Conflans lay at Brest to convoy the expedition, and another squadron under the celebrated Thurot was to sail from Dunkirk to engage the attention of the enemy elsewhere. At this time, however, England had her Rodney and her Hawke. The latter admiral defeated the Brest fleet on the 20th of November, in an action off Quiberon; the expedition from Normandy did not sail at all, and the Dunkirk squadron, which consisted of only five frigates, having sailed on the 3d of October, and proceeded towards the North, was driven by storms to seek shelter in ports of Norway and Sweden. On these inhospitable coasts, and among the western isles of Scotland, Thurot passed the winter. One of his ships had returned to France, another disappeared and was never heard of,

and with the remaining three he appeared off Carrickfergus on the 21st of February, 1760. Thurot was of Irish descent, his real name being O'Farrell. His life had been a continued series of the strangest adventures. He possessed a gallant and enterprising spirit, and his generosity was equal to his daring. His small force had been thinned by the hardships of the northern winter, and famine and fatigue had reduced his surviving men to a deplorable state. His ships, too, were in a shattered condition; and at Islay the disheartening news of the defeat of Conflans had, for the first time, reached him. Still, the necessity of obtaining provisions, as well as his innate love of glory, induced him to make some attempt to carry out his original plan of an invasion, and he disembarked on the strand near Carrickfergus. He had then only about 600 soldiers, but, with the addition of some seamen, mustered nearly 1,000 men. The town was garrisoned by four companies of the 62d regiment, under Colonel Jennings, without cannon, and with a scanty supply of ammunition. The French approached, and, after some firing from the walls, the garrison, together with the mayor and some of the armed townsmen, retired into the castle, which was in a

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\* Various circumstances about this time tended to retard the progress of Catholic interests. Thus, in 1758 a hostile feeling was excited in Dublin by the prosecution of Mr. Saul, a Catholic merchant of that city, whose crime was that he afforded shelter to a young Catholic lady named O'Toole, who was importuned by some of

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her family to abandon her religion. Mr. Saul was told from the bench "that the laws did not presume a Papist to exist in the kingdom, nor could they breathe without the connivance of government." He and his family were obliged to seek an asylum in France.



dilapidated state, but which they continued to defend with musketry until their powder was nearly exhausted; several of the assailants, with their commanding officer, the Marquis d'Estrées, being killed in an attack upon the gate. The besieged then surrendered themselves prisoners of war, on condition that the town should be spared; but contributions of provisions were levied both on Carrickfergus and Belfast, the French threatening to march on the latter town if the supplies demanded were not sent. At length, on the 26th, the invaders took their departure; and two days after they encountered off the Isle of Man three English frigates, which had sailed from Kinsale in search of them, under Captain Elliott. A sharp action ensued. The French vessels were in a crippled state; but Thurot fought his ship until the hold was nearly filled with water and the deck covered with the slain. At length he was killed, and the three French frigates soon after struck, and were taken into Ramsey; but even his enemies lamented the

fate of the chivalrous and undaunted Thurot.\*

George II. died suddenly at Kensington on the 25th of October, 1760, and was succeeded by his grandson, George III. The following year the disturbances of the Whiteboys became rife in the south of Ireland. They commenced in Tipperary, and were occasioned by the tyranny and rapacity of landlords, who, having set their lands far above the value, on the condition of allowing the tenants certain commonages to lighten the burden, subsequently inclosed these commons, and thus rendered it impossible for the unfortunate tenants to subsist. The people collected at night and demolished the fences, from which circumstance they were first called "Levellers;" their name of Whiteboys being given from the shirts which they wore outside their clothes at their nightly gatherings. Another cause of their discontent was the cruel exactions of the tithemongers—"harpies," says a contemporary writer, "who squeezed out the very vitals of the people; and by process, citation,

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\* Thurot's grandfather was a Captain Farrell or O'Ferrall, who was attached to the court of James II. at St. Germain, where he married Mademoiselle Thurot, the niece of a member of the parliament of Paris. The lady's family were indignant at the match; but Captain O'Farrell died soon after the marriage, and in less than a year his wife followed him to the grave, leaving an infant son, who, being educated by her friends, assumed their name. When this son grew up he resided at Boulogne, and was the father of the famous sea-captain, who left France when a boy, and passed many years in London and also some time in Dublin, where he was reduced so low that he became the valet of a Lord B—. At that time smuggling was not regarded

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as the disreputable pursuit which more recent ideas have made it. Many a large fortune, of which the possessors did not blush at the source, was realized by it and to the adventurous life of a smuggler various circumstances conspired to commit young Thurot. He commanded sundry vessels engaged in that traffic between France and the coasts of England and Scotland, and his enterprising spirit obtained for him at Boulogne the title of the King of the Smugglers. In the war he commanded a privateer, and from this he was taken into the French navy, in which he soon became distinguished for his naval skill and bravery.—See a memoir of him written by his friend, the Rev. John F. Purand also the *Annual Register* for 1760.



and sequestration, dragged from them the little which the landlord had left them.”\* “At last,” says Young, “the Whiteboys set up to be the general redressors of grievances; punished all obnoxious individuals who advanced the value of lands, or hired farms over their heads; and having taken the administration of justice into their own hands, were not very exact in the distribution of it. . . . The barbarities they committed were shocking. One of their usual punishments, and by no means the most severe, was taking people out of their beds, carrying them naked in winter, on horseback, for some distance, and burying them up to their chin in a hole filled with briars, not forgetting to cut off one of their ears.”† These outrages were chiefly confined to the counties of Waterford, Cork, and Tipperary. In 1762 a government commission reported that the rioters were persons of different religious persuasions, and that none of them showed any disaffection to the government, a report which was confirmed by the judges on the Munster circuit. A special commission was sent down to try a number of the offenders; and Sir Richard Aston, chief-justice of

the common pleas, became so popular for the impartiality which he displayed on the occasion, that the country-people lined the roads as he passed to give expression to their gratitude. Father Nicholas Sheehy, the parish priest of Clogheen, drew upon himself the animosity of the landlords by the zeal he evinced in advocating the cause of his poor parishioners. In 1765 a proclamation was issued offering a reward of £300 for his arrest as a person guilty of high treason, and, although he might easily have escaped to France, he felt so conscious of his innocence, that he wrote to the Secretary of State, offering to surrender and save the government the money, provided he was tried in Dublin instead of Clonmel. His offer was accepted, and after a minute investigation of the charges against him he was acquitted; the only witnesses produced by his accusers being a woman of abandoned character, a man charged with horse-stealing, and a vagrant boy, all three being taken from the Clonmel jail and suborned to prosecute him. His enemies, anticipating such a result, had trumped up a charge of murder against him, and had him carried back to Clonmel; where, on the sole evidence

\* *Enquiry into the causes of the outrages committed by the Levellers.* Arthur Young, who travelled in Ireland while these disturbances prevailed there, describes their causes in nearly similar terms, and he adds: “Acts were passed for their punishment, which seemed calculated for the meridian of Barbary; by one, they were to be hanged under certain circumstances, without the common formalities of a trial, which, though repealed the following session, marks the spirit of punishment; while

others remain yet the law of the land, that would, if executed, tend more to raise than quell an insurrection. From all which it is evident that the gentry of Ireland never thought of a radical cure, from overlooking the real cause of the disease, which, in fact, lay in themselves, and not in the wretches they doomed to the gallows.”—*Tour*, part ii., p. 30, ed. 1780.

† *Tour*, p. 76.



of the same vile witnesses, whose testimony failed in Dublin, he was convicted, and three days after, on the 15th of March, 1766, was hanged and quartered at Clonmel.\*

Associations similar to those of the Whiteboys were formed among the Protestant peasantry of the North, under the names of "Hearts-of-oak boys" and "Hearts-of-steel boys." The former of these banded themselves, in the first instance, for the abolition of a custom of compulsory road-making, known as the six days' labor, which the gentry had converted most unjustly to their own advantage; but the oppressive tithe system, and the exorbitant rents charged for bogs, became, in the next place, subjects of complaint, and like the southern malcontents, the Hearts-of-oak boys made themselves general reformers of agrarian abuses. They committed numerous acts of violence in the years 1762 and 1763; but the grievances of which they complained were taken into consideration by parliament, and in some measure redressed; while those under which the southern peasantry groaned were left untouched. For the unhappy Whiteboys, there was no remedy but the gibbet. The Hearts-of-steel boys did

not make their appearance till 1769, and for a few years they gave the government considerable trouble. They associated to resist the rack-renting practices of the middlemen, and the severe measures employed to put down their disturbances led to an extensive emigration to America.

Returning to the proceedings in the Irish parliament, we find that in 1762 a bill was passed without a division, to enable Catholics to lend money on the security of real property, but was suppressed in England. The following year the attempt was renewed in the Irish House of Commons, by Mr. Mason, but defeated by a majority of 138 to 53; the Protestant party alleging that the bill had been inadvertently passed on the last day of the preceding session, and that such a measure, if adopted, would soon make Papists masters of a great part of the landed interest of the country.

The patriots were at this time engaged in vehement attacks upon the pension list, which had grown into a monstrous source of abuse. The English privy council assumed the right of granting any pensions they chose out of the Irish revenue. In 1763 the pensions on the Irish civil establishment,

\* Father Sheehy died protesting his innocence, and there is no doubt that his execution was as foul a murder as ever was perpetrated under the cover of law. The principal managers of the prosecution were the Rev. John Hewetson, a Protestant clergyman, and Sir Thomas Maude; who, with the earl of Carrick and Mr. John Bagwell, distinguished themselves by their activity against the Whiteboys. Father Sheehy's grave, in the church-

yard of Clogheen, continues to this day to be visited with veneration by the peasantry. See all the facts of this iniquitous case, and of the subsequent persecution, minutely investigated by Dr. Madden in the historical introduction to his *Lives and Times of the United Irishmen*; also Curry's *Candid Inquiry, &c.*, and his *State of the Catholics of Ireland*.



and therefore not including the military and certain special pensions, amounted to £72,000, which exceeded the civil list by £42,000. The revenue of the country was diminishing and the burdens increasing. At the commencement of that year the Irish debt was £521,162, and at the close it had risen to £650,000.\* The subject gave rise to violent heats in parliament; but a juggling and evasive policy, which had become familiar to the Irish government, prevailed, and the efforts of the patriots were foiled. The corrupting influence of the court party was constantly employed to thin the ranks of the patriots, who, finding that the pensions went on multiplying, and that all their agitation on that point was abortive, took up the more general question of parliamentary reform. Hitherto the duration of parliament in Ireland depended solely on the will of the king, and might be prolonged during an entire reign, as happened in that of George II. In England the duration was limited by the septennial act of George I.; and in 1765 the Irish Commons passed the heads of a similar bill for Ireland; but the measure was suppressed in England, and in reply to an address to the king, a very ungracious answer was returned. Lord Townshend was appointed lord-lieutenant in 1767, and came over determined

to break up a system of corruption, which, although of its own creation, the Irish government then found to be an insupportable tyranny. A certain number of parliamentary leaders were at that time known as undertakers, whom it was necessary for government to keep in its pay, at a large cost, and who "undertook," as the phrase went, upon certain terms, to carry the "king's business" through parliament. These leaders were made the channels for all places, pensions, and other court favors,—a privilege which was indispensable to enable them to fulfil their compact; and in order to crush the system, it was resolved to make the stream of favor flow directly from the government. A great commotion in political circles was the consequence: yet, nothing more had been done than to substitute one system of political profligacy for another; and by trafficking in corruption more in detail, the government soon found that it had only subjected itself to a more oppressive incubus. Lord Townshend's convivial habits and lavish distribution of favors made him for some time popular; but there were not wanting able and honest men to expose the debasing influence of his policy, and his popularity was soon turned into contempt and detestation.† In 1767 another septennial bill was passed and transmitted to England, where it was transformed into

\* The Irish income and expenditure, as calculated in 1763, stood thus: the military expenditure for two years, £980,956; the civil ditto, £242,956; extraordinary and contingent expenses, £300,000: total expenditure for

two years, £1,523,212; total revenue for that period, £1,209,864; excess of expenditure to be added to national debt, £314,248.

† Witty and powerful invectives against Lord Town



an octennial one. By this alteration it was hoped to secure its rejection; but the Irish parliament, on the contrary, accepted it as an instalment of reform, and it was regarded as a triumph by Charles Lucas and his friends, after so many years of agitation on the subject. A new parliament was now to be elected, and in order to secure a strong majority for the government, Lord Townshend scattered bribes profusely, and employed every species of corruption. In all his bargains, however, he was obliged to leave as an open question the right of the Irish parliament to originate its own money-bills; and upon this important point he came to a collision with the parliament, which met on the 17th of October, 1769. The English privy council sent over a money-bill, which the Irish House of Commons rejected, "because it had not its origin in that house." Following the precedent of Lord Sydney in 1692, Lord Townshend went to the House of Lords on the 26th of December, caused the Commons to be summoned to the bar, animadverted in strong terms on their proceedings, and having ordered the clerk to enter his protest on the journals of the house, in vindication of the royal prerogative, prorogued parliament, which was not again permitted to meet until the 26th of February, 1771. The excitement produced by

this proceeding surpassed any thing of the kind since the affair of Wood's half-pence.

Meantime fatal dissensions prevailed in the Catholic body, and retarded its progress. The committee had prepared an address to George III. on his accession. It was signed by 600 persons; but the clergy and nobility would not give their concurrence, and some of them met at Trim and adopted a separate address. The committee next ventured to lay before the throne a "remonstrance" or statement of their grievances, and rose considerably in importance; some of the Catholic nobility beginning to co-operate with them. A division, however, sprung up, in which Lord Trimbleston, a man of overbearing and dictatorial manners, separated himself, and was followed by others; while Lord or Count Taaffe, a nobleman of quite an opposite character, continued to identify himself with the committee. At length this first Catholic association, having gradually melted away, expired in 1763. Lord Townshend's parliament, on reassembling in 1771, passed an act to enable a Catholic to take a long lease of fifty acres of bog, to which, if the bog were too deep for a foundation, half an acre of arable land might be added for a house; but this holding should not be within a mile of any city or town, and

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shend were published during his administration in the *Freeman's Journal*, and were subsequently collected in a volume, entitled "*Baratariana*." Their principal writers were, Sir Hercules Langrishe, Flood, Parker,

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Bushe, and Henry Grattan, the last named being then a young man. The viceroy was supported in another clever series of papers called "*The Bachelor*."



if half the bog were not reclaimed in twenty-one years, the lease was forfeited. This paltry concession shows what little progress Catholic interests had made in the interval; and the viceroy thought it necessary to counterbalance it by an act to add £10 a year to the pension of £30 offered to any "Popish priest duly converted to the Protestant religion." The pitiful temptation to proselytism was styled "Townshend's golden drops" by the wits of the day.

Lord Townshend was succeeded in the Irish government, in 1772, by the earl of Harcourt, whose administration commenced under more favorable auspices. In 1773 a bill was introduced to lay a tax of two shillings in the pound on the income of Irish absentee landlords who would not reside in Ireland at least six months in each year. The measure was exceedingly popular, and the government, supporting it as an open question, rose greatly in public favor; but the violent opposition of the great land-owners, many of whom resided altogether in England, prevailed, and the bill was rejected.

In 1775 hostilities commenced between England and her revolted American colonies, and the English parliament discussed the propriety of relieving Ireland from some of her commercial disabilities. The concessions made were trifling, but they serve to illustrate the rule so well established in Irish history,

that the season of England's weakness and alarm has ever been that of redress and hope for Ireland. We shall see it further illustrated as we proceed. On the 23d of November, the same year, a message from the lord-lieutenant informed the Irish parliament that the situation of affairs in his majesty's American dominions rendered it necessary to demand a draft of 4,000 men from the Irish establishment,—these troops, however, not to be a charge on the Irish revenue during their absence from the kingdom; and an equal number of foreign Protestant troops to be sent to replace them. The Commons readily assented to the removal of the 4,000 men as required, on the promised condition that the country should at the same time be relieved from their pay; but the second proposition was respectfully declined, the house resolving that the loyal people of Ireland would be able so to exert themselves as to make the aid of foreign soldiers unnecessary. This resolution was carried by a large majority. It surprised and perplexed the ministry, and was in fact the first foreshadowing of the volunteer system; while, on the other hand, the viceroy's engagement to free Ireland from the charge of the troops to be withdrawn from that kingdom, elicited an indignant vote of censure from the English parliament, and was repudiated by the minister.\*

\* It was in the same memorable year (1775) that Henry Grattan first entered parliament, as member for

the borough of Charlemont, and that Daniel O'Connell was born.



To prevent a supply of provisions from reaching the Americans from Ireland, an embargo was laid on the exportation of Irish commodities. This proceeding had a disastrous effect. The agriculturists were quite ruined; the tenantry were unable to pay their rents; the manufacturers were thrown upon public charity for support; the revenue fell away; and, the infamous pension list being still continued, the Irish debt rose to £994,890. Resolutions and addresses describing the condition of the country were moved in the Irish parliament by the patriots, but to no purpose. In England the American war was unpopular, but in Ireland it was still more so. Sympathy for the revolted colonies was publicly expressed, to the intense alarm of the government. In 1775 the thanks of the city of Dublin were voted in the common council to Lord Effingham for having thrown up his commission rather than draw his sword against his fellow-subjects of America; and this feeling continued to gain ground. The analogy between Ireland and America was obvious. In the English House of Commons, Mr. Rigby, arguing in support of the sordid policy of his country, asserted that the parliament of Great Britain had clearly as much right to tax Ireland as to tax America. Never was there a more rash or ill-timed comparison. It could not fail to suggest that, where the cases were so similar, a similar mode of redressing grievances might be resorted to.

In 1777, Lord Harcourt was recalled, and the earl of Buckinghamshire being sent over as lord-lieutenant, announced to the Irish parliament the alliance between France and the Americans, at the same time making an appeal for support to his majesty's faithful people of Ireland. The Commons immediately voted a sum of £300,000, to be raised by a tontine; but this was an absurd stretch of generosity, which the patriots opposed in vain; and a message from the viceroy soon after admitted the inability of the country to raise the money. In October this year, General Burgoyne and his army of 6,000 men surrendered to the American general, Gage. The news produced consternation, and Lord North expressed an earnest wish that the penal laws against the Irish Catholics might be relaxed; but bigotry was still predominant in the Irish parliament, and no attempt of that nature had any chance of success. In January, 1778, the independence of the American States was acknowledged by France, and many weeks did not elapse until a bill for the partial relief of the Catholics unanimously passed the English parliament. With this inroad upon bigotry for a precedent, Mr. Gardiner introduced a similar bill in the Irish House of Commons, on the 25th of May the same year. The measure had the approbation of government, and the general support of the patriots, yet it was only after a severe contest and eight divisions that it was carried by the small majority of nine votes.



In the House of Lords two-thirds of the members voted for it.\*

It was near the close of 1779 when the Irish parliament was again called together, and in the mean time distress and discontent had increased to an alarming extent. Appeals to the imbecile and bankrupt government received no reply; the people were thrown upon their own resources; agitation for free trade and in favor of Irish manufactures became general; and the volunteering system had been set on foot, and already made considerable progress. The secretary of state sent information to Belfast that two or three privateers in company might be expected in that vicinity; and the people were at the same time informed that government had no troops available for their defence, except some sixty horse and a couple of companies of invalids. They were in fact told that government could not protect them. A vivid recollection of Thurot's visit to their neighborhood, some nineteen years before, was still preserved at Belfast, and the attempt made at that time to raise an armed force to repel the invaders was also remembered. The example of 1760 was followed in 1779,

\* This act—18th Geo. III., ch. 60—repealed so much of the 11th and 12th Wm. III., ch. 4, as affected the inheritance or purchase of property by Catholics; a Catholic who took the oath of allegiance framed four years before might take or dispose of a lease for 999 years; the unnatural right given to a child on embracing the Protestant religion to demand a maintenance and alter the succession was abolished; and the clauses authorizing the prosecution of priests and Jesuits, and the imprisonment of Popish schoolmasters, were repealed.

and to the men of Belfast, therefore, is to be attributed the glory of having originated the volunteers.† So rapidly did the movement spread, that in the month of May the number of volunteer companies had begun to attract the attention of government; and in September the number of men enrolled in the counties of Down and Antrim, and in and near Coleraine, amounted to 3,925. Hardy states that in the first year 42,000 volunteers were enrolled.‡

Parliament having met on the 12th of October, Mr. Grattan moved an amendment to the address, depicting vividly in a preamble the distressed state of the country, and concluding with a resolution, that the only resource for their expiring commerce was to open a free export trade, and to allow his majesty's Irish subjects to enjoy their natural birthright. Several of the ministerial members, and among others, Mr. Flood, who then held a place under government, supported the amendment; but Mr. Grattan's preamble was got rid of, and another amendment, less galling to government, proposed by Mr. Hussey Burgh, prime sergeant, and unanimously adopted,—namely, “that it is not by temporary expedients, but

† A volunteer corps had been organized in Kilkenny, against the Whiteboys, in 1770; they were called the Kilkenny Rangers; other armed parties had also been raised before this period in various localities; but the great national volunteer movement, strictly speaking, dates from the arming at Belfast in the beginning of 1779, its primary object being to repel foreign invasion.

‡ Life of Charlemont



by a free trade alone, that this nation is now to be saved from impending ruin." When the speaker carried the resolution from the parliament house to the castle, he passed between ranks of the Dublin volunteers, drawn up in arms under their commander, the duke of Leinster,\* amid the enthusiastic acclamations of a vast assemblage of people; and the House of Lords passed a vote of thanks to the national army for their array on the occasion. On the 13th of November, Lord North introduced in the English parliament three propositions for the relief of Irish commerce. The first permitted a free exportation of Irish wool and woollen manufactures; the second made a similar concession for Irish glass manufactures; and the third granted freedom of trade with the British plantations, on certain conditions, of which the basis was an equality of taxes and customs. Bills embodying the two former propositions were immediately passed, but the third was deferred for a short time. These measures had little effect in calming the agitation in Ireland; the ideas of the people expanded with their success, and they now looked for nothing short of their full constitutional rights, and the liberation of their country from the supremacy of the English parliament. On the 19th of April, 1780, Mr. Grattan moved, "that no power on earth, save that of the

king, lords, and commons of Ireland, had a right to make laws for Ireland." His speech on the occasion was a magnificent exertion of his eloquence. He said: "I will not be answered by a public lie in the shape of an amendment; neither, speaking for the subject's freedom, am I to hear of faction. I wish for nothing but to breathe in this our land, in common with my fellow-subjects, the air of liberty. I have no ambition, unless it be the ambition to break your chain and contemplate your glory. I never will be satisfied, as long as the meanest cottager in Ireland has a link of the British chain clanking to his rags. He may be naked, he shall not be in irons; and I do see the time is at hand, the spirit has gone forth, the declaration is planted, and though great men should apostatize, yet the cause will live; and though the public speaker should die, yet the immortal fire shall outlast the organ which conveyed it, and the breath of liberty, like the word of the holy man, will not die with the prophet, but survive him." At the suggestion, however, of Mr. Flood, after an interesting debate, which lasted until six o'clock in the morning, the question was not brought to a division, and the resolution thus did not appear on the journals of the house. This result gave rise to much dissatisfaction, which was greatly increased by the tendency of various acts of the British parlia-

\* This nobleman was William Robert, the second duke. His father was James, the twentieth earl of Kil-

dare, who was created marquis of Kildare in 1761, and duke of Leinster in 1766.



ment to irritate the Irish nation. Thus the annual mutiny bill sent over from the Irish parliament was returned, altered into a permanent one; and by the influence of government it was adopted in its altered form.

Meantime, the spirit of volunteering had rapidly gained ground. The numbers enrolled were stated to amount this year to over 40,000 men, unpaid, self-clothed, self-organized, and called into existence by no other authority than the voice of the people, and the necessity of the country. The affrighted government was induced to deliver to them 16,000 stand of arms, and they had also begun to raise a considerable artillery force. They selected their own officers. They rose into existence free from any pledge, and totally unshackled by any government control. They were assiduous in acquiring a knowledge of military discipline, and were materially aided in that object by numbers of their countrymen who had returned invalided from the American war. In proportion as the apprehension of a foreign invasion became dissipated, they turned their attention to their political rights: each corps expressed its opinions in resolutions, which were published in the journals; and efforts were successfully made to unite all the volunteer corps in Ireland by a combined organization; the earl of Charlemont being chosen commander-in-chief.

The session of 1780 closed on the 2d of September, and the earl of Buckinghamshire having displeased the ministry by the weakness of his administration, was recalled, the earl of Carlisle being sent to replace him. The new viceroy found the nation profoundly agitated by the two great questions of free trade and legislative independence. During the summer of 1781 reviews of the volunteer corps were held in various parts of the country, and had a most exciting effect. The organization of the volunteer movement made immense progress; and when Lord Carlisle met the Irish parliament on the 9th of October, it was plain from the conciliatory tone of his address, that he durst not hazard a stronger policy than his predecessor. He omitted, however, all mention of the volunteers, whom government wished to check and disarm without daring to make the attempt. On the motion of Mr. O'Neil, in the House of Commons, a vote was unanimously passed, thanking the volunteers "for their exertions and continuance, and for their loyal and spirited declarations on the late expected invasion."\* The debates in the Irish House of Commons at this period were constantly of the deepest interest. Government had, indeed, secured a corrupt majority, with which it was able to carry almost every measure that it desired; but on the popular side, there was an array of brilliant

\* The resolution was proposed by Mr. John O'Neill, of Shane's castle; it was opposed by Mr. Fitzgibbon,

afterwards Lord Clare; but the government having been obliged to acquiesce, it was carried without a division.



talent, which swayed public opinion, and which no government could at all times safely resist. Grattan's fervid and thrilling eloquence was always devoted to the interests of his country. His popularity was unbounded.\* Flood had sacrificed place to principle, and his now unrestrained adhesion added greatly to the strength of the opposition.† At length news arrived that Lord Cornwallis's army had surrendered to the French in America. It was a day of humiliation and dismay for England; but with that generous sympathy which England's misfortunes have seldom failed to elicit from Irishmen, the Irish House of Commons, on the motion of Mr. Yelverton, voted an address of loyalty and attachment to the king, and readily granted the supplies which were demanded. Still, some of the patriots abstained from these votes, lest they should be understood as an expression of opinion against the Americans. On the 7th of December, Mr. Grattan informed the house, that their

debt at that time, including annuities, amounted to £2,667,600, an enormous sum, accumulated in a few years by patronage and corruption. On the 11th, Mr. Flood moved for an inquiry into the operation of Poyning's law, but the motion was negatived by a division of 139 to 67, the usual majority of the government.

Events which constitute a memorable and glorious era in Irish history were now at hand. On the 28th of December, 1781, the officers of the southern battalion of the first Ulster regiment of volunteers, commanded by Lord Charlemont, met together at Armagh; and, having declared that they beheld with the utmost concern the little attention paid to the constitutional rights of Ireland by the majority of their representatives in parliament, they invited every volunteer association throughout Ulster to send delegates to deliberate on the alarming situation of public affairs, and fixed Friday, February 15th, 1782, for the assembly of delegates, to

\* "The address and the language of this extraordinary man were perfectly original; from his first essay in parliament, a strong sensation had been excited by the point and eccentricity of his powerful eloquence; nor was it long until those transcendent talents, which afterwards distinguished this celebrated personage, were perceived rising above ordinary capacities, and, as a charm, communicating to his countrymen that energy, that patriotism, and that perseverance, for which he himself became so eminently distinguished; his action, his tone, his elocution in public speaking, bore no resemblance to that of any other person; the flights of genius, the arrangements of composition, and the solid strength of connected reasoning, were singularly blended in his fiery, yet deliberative language; he thought in logic, and he spoke in antithesis; his irony and his satire, rapid and epigrammatic, bore down all opposition,

and left him no rival in the broad field of eloquent invective; his ungraceful action, however, and the hesitating tardiness of his first sentences, conveyed no favorable impression to those who listened only to his exordium; but the progress of his brilliant and manly eloquence, soon absorbed every idea but that of admiration at the overpowering extent of his intellectual faculties." Such was Sir Jonah Barrington's estimate of Henry Grattan's eloquence.—See *Rise and Fall of the Irish Nation*, pp. 88, 89.

† Mr. Flood held office during the administrations of Lords Harcourt and Buckinghamshire; but in 1780 he resigned, on the ground that the line of policy which he had undertaken to support was not adopted by government. He was subsequently able to boast that while in office he had never shrunk from his duty to his country.



take place at Dungannon. The proceedings of the Irish volunteers had hitherto derived weight as well from their moderation as from their firmness and numbers; they combined, in an eminent degree, the character of citizens and of soldiers; temperate and peaceable, as well as armed and disciplined, there was something singularly imposing and dignified in their aspect; and it was impossible not to recognize in their organization great prudence and patriotism, as well as vast military power. The invitation of the Ulster regiment was responded to by 143 volunteer corps of the northern province, and government durst not interfere to prevent the meeting. The delegates assembled at Dungannon on the appointed day; most of them were men of large properties and of acknowledged patriotism; they felt the weighty import of their proceedings, which would pledge the country to a course that might involve a hostile collision with Great Britain. The place of meeting was the church, a circumstance which enhanced the solemnity of the occasion; Colonel William Irvine was appointed chairman, and twenty-one resolutions were adopted. These were in substance as follows:

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\* The address of thanks of the convention to the parliamentary minority was couched in the following spirited words: "We thank you for your noble and spirited, though hitherto ineffectual efforts, in defence of the great constitutional and commercial rights of your country. Go on! the almost unanimous voice of the people is with you, and in a free country the voice of the people must prevail. We know our duty to our sovereign, and are loyal. We know our duty to our-

That whereas it has been asserted that volunteers, as such, could not with propriety debate or publish their opinions on political subjects, or on the conduct of parliament or public men: Resolved, that a citizen, by learning the use of arms, does not abandon any of his civil rights. Resolved, that the claim of any body of men other than the king, lords, and commons of Ireland, to make laws to bind this kingdom, is unconstitutional, illegal, and a grievance; that the powers exercised by the privy councils of both kingdoms, under color or pretence of the law of Poynings, are unconstitutional and a grievance; that the ports of Ireland are by right open to all foreign countries not at war with the king; that a mutiny bill, not limited in point of duration from session to session, is unconstitutional; that the independence of the judges is equally essential to the impartial administration of justice in Ireland as in England; that it was their decided and unalterable determination to seek a redress of these grievances; that the minority in parliament who had supported their constitutional rights were entitled to thanks;\* that four members from each county of Ulster should be appointed a committee,

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selves, and are resolved to be free. We seek for our rights, and no more than our rights; and in so just a pursuit we should doubt the being of a Providence if we doubted of success." The last of the resolutions adopted at Dungannon was suggested by Mr. Grattan to Mr. Dobbs, just before the latter gentleman left Dublin to attend the convention. It was passed with two dissentient votes.



till the next general meeting, to act for the volunteer corps there represented, and to communicate with other volunteer associations; that they held the right of private judgment in matters of religion to be equally sacred in others as in themselves, and, therefore, as men and as Irishmen, as Christians and as Protestants, they rejoiced in the relaxation of the penal laws against their Roman Catholic fellow-subjects.

Such was the famous convention of Dungannon. Its resolutions were adopted by all the volunteer corps of Ireland, and served as the basis of parliamentary proceedings in both countries.\* In a word, a revolution without precedent in any other country had been achieved. On the very day on which these memorable resolutions were passed, Mr. Gardiner (afterwards Lord Mountjoy) introduced his measure for the relief of the Catholics. Some delay was caused

by obstacles thrown in the way by Mr. Fitzgibbon; but the government having left it an open question, Mr. Gardiner's principal propositions were adopted.†

On the fall of Lord North's ministry Lord Carlisle retired from his post, and was succeeded by the duke of Portland, who was sworn into office as lord lieutenant on the 14th of April, 1782. Mr. Fox communicated to the British parliament a royal message, recommending to their immediate consideration the adjustment of the questions which produced so serious an agitation in Ireland. The new viceroy met the Irish parliament on the 16th of April; and on that day Mr. Grattan moved an amendment to the address, pointing out the principal causes of the discontent in Ireland, and declaring that to remove those causes the 6th Geo. I., ch. 5, which asserted the dependency of the Irish parliament on that of England,

\* These resolutions of Dungannon were, to a great extent, only the solemn assertion of principles already set forth in resolutions of volunteer corps, discussed in parliament, and sanctioned by public opinion. Thus, on the 9th of June, 1780, the Dublin volunteers, with their general, the duke of Leinster, in the chair, resolved unanimously, "That the king, lords, and commons of Ireland only are competent to make laws binding the subjects of this realm; and that *we will not obey*, or give operation to any laws, save only those enacted by the king, lords, and commons of Ireland, whose rights and privileges, jointly and severally, we are determined to support *with our lives and fortunes*." The effective men of the volunteer corps which sent delegates to Dungannon, or which subsequently acceded to the Dungannon resolutions, were, according to the abstract given in the appendix to *Grattan's Miscellaneous Works*: In Ulster, 34,152; in Munster, 18,056; in Connaught, 14,336; in Leinster, 22,283; total, 88,827; which, with the addition of twenty-two corps which had acceded but made no returns, and that were estimated at about 12,000 men, made a grand total for all Ireland of 100,000 men. The

artillery belonging to the volunteer corps of the several provinces, were: In Ulster, 32 pieces; in Munster, 32; in Connaught, 20; in Leinster, 38; total, 130 pieces.

† Mr. Gardiner separated his measure into three different bills. The first enabled Catholics to take, hold, and dispose of lands and other hereditaments in the same manner as Protestants, with the exception of advowsons, manors, and parliamentary boroughs; it also repealed the statutes against the hearing or celebrating mass; against a Catholic having a horse worth £5 or upwards; and that which empowered grand-juries to levy from Catholics the amount of any losses sustained through privateers, robbers, &c., and which excluded them from dwelling in the city of Limerick, &c. The second bill was entitled, "An Act to enable Persons professing the Popish Religion to teach Schools in this Kingdom, and for regulating the Education of Papists, and also to repeal Parts of certain Laws relative to the Guardianship of their Children." These two bills were passed into law; but the third, which authorized intermarriage between Catholics and Protestants, was negatived by a majority of eight.



should be repealed; the appellate jurisdiction of the lords of Ireland should be restored; the unconstitutional powers of the privy council should be abolished; and the perpetual mutiny bill repealed. The motion, which was an echo of the leading resolutions of Dungannon, was unanimously agreed to.\*

On the 17th of May, 1782, the alarming state of Ireland was brought under the consideration of the British senate, by the earl of Shelburne in the peers, and by Mr. Fox in the Commons; and resolutions were adopted declaring it to be the opinion of parliament that the 6th Geo. I., entitled, "An Act for the better securing the Dependency of Ireland upon the Crown of Great Britain," ought to be repealed;† and "that it was indispensable to the interests and happiness of both kingdoms that the connection between them should be established by mutual consent upon a solid and permanent footing," for which purpose an address should be presented to his majesty, praying that measures conducive to that important end should be taken. These resolutions passed the lower house unanimously, and in the peers the only dissentient voice was that of Lord Loughborough.

\* This memorable address, or declaration of rights, assured his majesty "that his subjects of Ireland are a free people. That the crown of Ireland is an imperial crown, inseparably annexed to the crown of Great Britain, on which connection the interests and happiness of both nations essentially depend; but that the kingdom of Ireland is a distinct kingdom, with a parliament of her own, the sole legislature thereof. That there is no body of men competent to make laws to

On the 27th of May the Irish parliament met after an adjournment of three weeks, and the duke of Portland announced in his opening speech the unconditional concessions made to Ireland by the parliament of Great Britain. The news was received with an outburst of gratitude. These concessions, as expounded by Mr. Grattan, amounted to the giving up by England, unconditionally and in toto, of every claim of authority over Ireland; they were grounded not merely on expediency but on constitutional principles; they were yielded magnanimously, and in a manner that removed all suspicion; and all constitutional questions between the two countries were at an end. Such was Mr. Grattan's interpretation of the measure. He moved the address in a brilliant speech, breathing the generous sentiments of his noble and confiding nature. A warm discussion ensued. Mr. Flood, Sir Samuel Bradstreet, recorder of Dublin, and Mr. Walsh, a barrister, took a different view from Mr. Grattan of the English concessions. It was urged by them that the simple repeal of the act of 6 George I. merely expunged from the English statute-book the declaration that England had the right to make laws for Ireland; it did

bind this nation except the king, lords, and commons of Ireland, nor any other parliament which hath any authority or power, of any sort whatsoever, in this country, save only the parliament of Ireland;" and "that we humbly conceive that in this right the very essence of our liberties exists—a right which we, on the part of all the people of Ireland, do claim as their birthright, and which we cannot yield but with our lives."

† See the substance of this statute, pp. 635, 636, *supra*



not deny that England had that power; but left the question as it was before the passing of the obnoxious act, when the English parliament so frequently arrogated to itself and exercised such power. All Mr. Grattan's arguments were founded on a generous estimate of the honor and good faith in which the resolutions of the English parliament were brought forward; and his opinion prevailed. The address was carried by a division of 211 to 2. The house then, as an evidence of its gratitude, voted that 20,000 Irish seamen should be raised for the British navy, and a grant of £100,000 be made to carry out that object. Nothing was heard but mutual congratulations; it was the great and bloodless victory of the volunteers; a day of general thanksgiving was appointed; and the house next testified the gratitude of the country to its gifted benefactor, by voting £50,000 to purchase an estate and build a house for Mr. Grattan.

Two parties now arose among the patriots, led by the rival orators, Mr. Grattan and Mr. Flood. The former had been led into error by his too generous credulity. At that very moment, English statesmen were contemplating the reassertion of English supremacy; and the duke of Portland, encouraged by the divisions among the patriots, wrote to Lord Shelburne on the 6th of June, 1782, that he had the best reason to hope that he would soon be able to obtain a recognition of the power claimed by England; although

a few days after he was compelled to acknowledge that the state of popular feeling in Ireland rendered such a step impossible for the present. Mr. Flood's opinions gained ground out of doors, while those of his opponent continued to prevail in parliament. Most unworthy aspersions were thrown upon the motives of Mr. Grattan. It was said that he had obtained his reward, and that he was now ready to abandon the popular cause. On the other hand, Mr. Flood's friends urged that their leader had made an enormous personal sacrifice for his country; and as he would not, they said, stoop to accept any boon, an attempt, but a fruitless one, was made to induce the present government to restore his office, then in the hands of an unpopular man, Sir George Young. Mr. Flood brought the question at issue between him and Mr. Grattan before the house, in the shape of a motion for leave to bring in the heads of a bill declaring the sole and exclusive right of the Irish parliament to make laws in all cases whatsoever, internal and external, for the kingdom of Ireland; but on the 19th of July the house divided, when only six members voted for his motion; the ground of rejection, as stated by Mr. Grattan, being, that the exclusive right of Ireland to self-legislation had already been asserted by Ireland, and fully and finally acknowledged by the English parliament.

A change of cabinets was brought about by the death of the Whig min-



ister. the marquis of Rockingham ; and Earl Temple was sent to replace the duke of Portland in the government of Ireland. During the administration of the latter, several important measures had been carried. The Bank of Ireland was established ; a *habeas corpus* act was given to this country ; the dissenters were relieved from the sacramental test ; the perpetual mutiny bill was repealed, and the independence of the judges was established. At length, on the 27th of July, the eventful session of 1782 was brought to a close. Popular discontent, however, was far from being set at rest. The question, whether the simple repeal of the 6 George I. were sufficient, or whether England should not be called upon to renounce formally her claim of supremacy, was everywhere discussed.\* Hence, "re-

\* In the following session (23 Geo. III.) government brought into the British parliament an express act of renunciation, "for removing and preventing all doubts which have arisen, or might arise, concerning the exclusive rights of the parliament and courts of Ireland in matters of legislation and judication," &c.

† For detailed accounts of the proceedings of the vol-

peal" and "renunciation," became the watchwords of the two parties. Provincial, county, and district meetings of volunteer corps and delegates were frequently held, their resolutions were published in the newspapers, and every private soldier was taught to feel that he had a right to express his sentiments on the constitutional questions which occupied the legislature.† The conduct of the people was peaceable and orderly, yet public feeling was highly excited. It was a period of great national energy ; but having in this already lengthy chapter traced the fortunes of Ireland from their very lowest ebb to what it has been the fashion to regard as their culminating point, we shall not add another word here to forestall approaching events.

unteers, the reader may refer to the *Lives of Grattan* and *Lord Charlemont* ; Sir Jonah Barrington's *Rise and Fall of the Irish Nation* ; MacNevin's *History of the Volunteers*, in Duffy's "Library of Ireland ;" the Appendix to Grattan's *Miscellaneous Works* ; *Historical Collections Relative to Belfast* ; *Hist. of the Convention* ; the public journals of the period, &c., &c.



## CHAPTER XLIII.

## FROM THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE TO THE UNION.

**Shortcomings** of the volunteer movement.—Corruption of the Irish parliament.—The national convention of delegates at the Rotunda.—the Bishop of Derry.—The Convention's Reform Bill.—Bill rejected by parliament.—The convention dissolved and the fate of the Volunteers sealed.—The Commercial Relations Bill—Orde's propositions.—Great excitement in parliament.—Mr. Pitt's project abandoned.—Popular discontent.—Disorders in the South.—The Right-boys.—The feud of the Peep-o'-day-boys and Defenders—Frightful atrocities of the former.—The Orange Society.—The regency question.—Political clubs.—Ferment produced by the French Revolution.—The Catholic committee.—Theobald Wolfe Tone.—Formation of the Society of United Irishmen.—Their principles.—Catholic Relief Bill of 1793.—Trial of Archibald Hamilton Rowan.—Mission of Jackson from the French Directory—His conviction and suicide.—Administration of Earl Fitzwilliam—Great excitement at his recall.—New organization of the United Irishmen.—Their revolutionary plans.—Wolfe Tone's mission to France.—The spy system.—Iniquitous proceedings of the government—Efforts to accelerate an explosion.—The Insurrection and Indemnity acts.—The Bantry Bay expedition.—Reynolds the informer.—Arrest of the Executive of the United Irishmen.—Search for Lord Edward Fitzgerald.—His arrest and death.—The insurrection prematurely forced to an explosion.—Free quarters, torturings, and military executions.—Progress of the insurrection.—Battle of Tara.—Atrocities of the military and the magistrates.—The insurrection in Kildare, Wexford, and Wicklow.—Successes of the insurgents.—Outrages of runaway troops.—Siege of New Ross.—Retaliation at Scullabogue.—Battle of Arklow.—Battle of Vinegar Hill.—Lord Cornwallis assumes the government.—Dispersion and surrender of insurgents.—The French at Killala.—Flight of the English.—The insurrection finally extinguished.—The Union proposed.—Opposition to the measure.—Pitt's perfidious policy successful.—The Union carried.

[A. D. 1782 TO A. D. 1800.]

**A**T the close of the last chapter we left the volunteers in possession of a constitutional victory; but we then paused before the bright side of a picture, of which we have now to examine the shade. Turning aside from the glorious pageant of the national army, we are here, unhappily, doomed to find that the victory was deceptive and evanescent; that the parliament which was made free was venal, corrupt, and, unless reformed, worthless; that the popular leaders were in religion intolerant, in politics short-sighted, and many of them faithless and insincere; that although four-fifths of the population were Catholics, the just rights of this vast majority were not recognized by the very men who sought political freedom for themselves; that the country was consequently weakened by disunion, and an unjust government enabled with security to refuse all reform of abuses and all redress of grievances; and, finally, that the volunteer association, deprived of moral influence, was



after a few years, suffered to die of inanition.\*

On the 15th of July, 1783, parliament was dissolved and a new parliament summoned to meet in October. It was a moment when the question of reform was very earnestly and generally agitated. The Irish House of Commons was then composed of 300 members, of whom 64 were returned for counties, and of the remainder at least 172, or a majority of the whole house, were sent in for close boroughs, the property of a few lords and wealthy commoners, and which were bought and sold like any ordinary merchandise. Other members, besides those for close boroughs, were also purchased by government; and the few who could be said to represent the people honestly formed a minority insignificant in point of numbers. In this degraded state of venality and corruption, however, the

Irish parliament was not unique; that of England at the same period presents similar characteristics, for which the debasing policy of the government and the profligacy of the times were responsible. The subject of parliamentary reform was now taken up warmly by the volunteers. A meeting of delegates was held at Lisburn on the 1st of July, 1783, preliminary to another held at Dungannon on the 8th of September, at which all the Ulster volunteer corps were represented. The subject of equal representation of the people in parliament was discussed and commended to the attention of the volunteers of all Ireland. The movement was taken up in the same spirit by the other provinces, and the result of their provincial meetings was the project of a grand national volunteer convention, to assemble in Dublin on the 10th of November. These proceedings alarmed

\* "The services of the volunteers," says Dr. Madden, "are, on the whole, greatly exaggerated by our historians; the great wonder is, how little substantial good to Ireland was effected by a body which was capable of effecting so much. As a military national spectacle, the exhibition was, indeed, imposing, of a noble army of united citizens roused by the menace of danger to the State, and once mustered, standing forth in defence of the independence of their country. But it is not merely the spectacle of their array, but the admirable order, conduct, and discipline of their various corps—not for a short season of political excitement, but for a period of nearly ten years—that even, at this distance of time, are, with many, a subject of admiration. .... But what use did the friends and advocates of popular rights make of this powerful association of armed citizens, which paralyzed the Irish government, and brought the British ministry to a frame of mind very different to that which it hitherto exhibited towards Ireland? Why, they wielded this great weapon of a nation's collected strength to obtain an illusory inde-

pendence, which never could rescue the Irish parliament from the influence of the British minister without reform, and which left the parliament as completely in the power of the minister, through the medium of his hirelings in that house, as it had been before that shadow of parliamentary independence had been gained. .... The other adjuncts to this acquisition were, a place-bill and a pension-bill, which had been the stock-in-trade of the reforming principle of the opposition for many years. No great measure of parliamentary reform or Catholic emancipation was seriously entertained or wrung from a reluctant but then feeble government. The error of the leaders was in imagining that they could retain the confidence of the Catholics, or the co-operation of that body, which constituted the great bulk of the population, while their convention publicly decided against their admission to the exercise of the elective franchise."—*The United Irishmen, their Lives and Times*, by R. R. Madden, M D. *First Series*, p 143, second edition.











government, but the new parliament. in the mean time, met and passed a vote of thanks to the volunteers. This perhaps was only intended to conciliate. A warm debate took place on the question of retrenchment, and the opposition was, as usual, defeated. Grattan had latterly ceased to co-operate earnestly with the other popular leaders. On this occasion an angry altercation took place between him and Flood, whose policy was more progressive and uncompromising, and the mutual hostility of these two great men, which was so disastrous to their country, became henceforth more bitter than ever.

Monday, the 10th of November, arrived, and one hundred and sixty delegates of the volunteers of Ireland assembled at the Royal Exchange. They elected as their chairman the earl of Charlemont, and adjourned to the great room of the Rotunda, marching two and two through the streets, escorted by the county and city of Dublin volunteers, with drums beating and colors flying. Vast multitudes assembled; there was great enthusiasm, and the scene was altogether a most imposing one.\* In the Rotunda the seats were arranged in semicircular order before the chair, the orchestra was occupied by ladies, and the delegates adopted in their proceedings the forms of parliament. One of the most prominent members of the convention was

Frederick Augustus Hervey, earl of Bristol in the English peerage, and Protestant bishop of Derry in Ireland. This eccentric personage took the extreme popular side on all questions, and was idolized by the multitude. He assumed a degree of princely state; was daily escorted to the convention by a troop of light dragoons commanded by his nephew, George Robert Fitzgerald, of duelling notoriety; and was only saved by the eccentricity of his manner from the serious consequences to which his bold assertion of opinion would have laid him open.

The convention had not made much progress in its deliberations before government contrived by an artifice to introduce the seeds of dissension. Sir Boyle Roche, a man notorious for his blunders and buffoonery, made his appearance at the Rotunda, with what purported to be a message from Lord Kenmare, to the effect that the Irish Catholics were satisfied with what had been done for them by the legislature, and that they only desired to enjoy in peace the benefits bestowed upon them. This occurred on the 14th of November, and the same day the general committee of the Catholics held a meeting, with Sir Patrick Bellew in the chair, and resolved unanimously that the message to the national convention was totally unknown to, and unauthorized by them; and that they were not so unlike the rest of mankind as to prevent, by their own act, the removal of their shackles. This resolution was

\* See description of the procession, in Gilbert's *Hist. of Dublin*, vol. ii., p. 61.



communicated to the convention in the evening by the bishop of Derry; but the assembly, with all its assumption of liberality, was anti-Catholic. Following the principles laid down by the Dungannon convention, it had, by its first resolution, restricted to Protestants the right of assuming arms; it now pretended not to be able to distinguish between the authenticity of Sir Boyle Roche's message and that of the resolution of the Catholic committee, and concluded by an illiberal exclusion of Catholics from the constitutional privileges claimed for the Protestant minority. We cannot be surprised that such a course should have deprived the convention of Catholic sympathies.

Plans of reform were now submitted for consideration by several of the delegates. Hardy, in his "Life of Charlemont," describes them as "incongruous fancies and misshapen theories." Mr. Flood and the bishop of Derry took the leading part in digesting these plans, and out of them was at length composed the bill which Mr. Flood introduced in parliament on the 29th of November. A stormy debate in the House of Commons ensued. Mr. Yelverton, the attorney-general (afterwards Lord Avonmore), led the opposition to the bill. Although he himself had been a volunteer, he declared that originating as the bill did with an armed body, it was inconsistent with the freedom of debate in that house to receive it. They did not sit there to register the edicts of another assembly,

or to receive propositions at the point of the bayonet. He admired the volunteers so long as they confined themselves to their first line of conduct, but when they formed themselves into a debating society, and with that rude instrument, the bayonet, probed and explored a constitution which required the nicest hand to touch, his respect and veneration were destroyed. Such was the logic employed against the bill. Mr. Flood defended the bill and the volunteers by a display of powerful eloquence. A writer who was present describes the scene as "almost terrific"—as one of "uproar, clamor, violent menace, and furious recrimination."\* Several supporters of the measure, and the delegates who were present, appeared in uniform. Mr. Grattan gave the bill but a feeble support, and the motion was rejected by a division of 159 to 77. Corruption was triumphant. The attorney-general then moved, "that it had now become necessary to declare that the house would maintain its just rights and privileges against all encroachments whatsoever," and the resolution was carried by a similar majority. The gauntlet was fairly thrown down to the volunteers, and the consequences might have been most serious to the empire had not some of the popular leaders behaved with more than ordinary prudence. Lord Charlemont exerted himself privately and publicly to prevent a collision; and at length, on

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\* Hardy's *Life of Charlemont*, vol. II., p. 146.



the morning of Tuesday, the 2d of December, adjourned the convention *sine die*. This sealed the fate of the volunteers. Their prestige and influence were gone forever. Mr. Flood retired in disgust to England, and on his return the following year introduced another reform bill, only to be again defeated. His object was to show that it was not because the former bill emanated from the volunteers it had been rejected, but because it was directed against the scandalous corruption of an unprincipled House of Commons. An attempt was made by Flood, Napier Tandy, and others, to get up another national congress, by addressing circulars to the high-sheriffs, inviting them to convene meetings of their respective counties and cities to elect delegates; but the high-sheriffs were threatened by government with the vengeance of the law, and few of them had the hardihood to hold the required meetings. A few delegates were, however, returned, and in October, 1784, met in Dublin with closed doors. Flood attended their sittings; but some of them were offended at his hostility to the Catholics; the abortive convention dissolved; and Fitzgibbon, then attorney-general, to make an example, prosecuted the sheriff of the county of Dublin by an attachment. The volunteers, deserted by most of their aristocratic leaders, now became a democratic association. In Belfast and Dublin they commenced openly to train people of all classes and sects in the use of

arms, and the example was followed elsewhere; but government, reassured by the late triumph over the volunteers in parliament, now took bolder measures. The standing army was raised to 15,000 men, and in February, 1785, a sum of £20,000 was voted to clothe the militia. These forces, however, were unpopular, and the volunteers having ceased to co-operate with the civil authorities for the preservation of the peace, every part of the country soon became disturbed by scenes of tumult and violence.

Hitherto we have seen the trade and manufactures of Ireland invariably sacrificed to the interests of England. The great question of 1785 was a bill for regulating the commercial relations of the two countries. William Pitt was the minister, and the duke of Rutland was viceroy of Ireland. The measure was introduced in the Irish parliament by Mr. Secretary Orde, in the shape of nine propositions, and did not pass without considerable opposition, as it was proposed that this country should contribute a quota for the protection of the general commerce of both countries at the discretion of the British parliament. The bill passed the Irish parliament on the 12th of February, and was introduced by Mr. Pitt in the English House of Commons on the 22d. The commercial jealousy of England had been roused, and petitions were poured in from all quarters against the measure. Pitt complained of this hostility as unjust and ungen-



erous, but secretly he took measures to allay the sordid fears of the English manufacturers, by assuring them that Ireland should derive little advantage from the bill; and he accordingly added eleven new propositions to the nine Irish ones, altering the bill so materially, that when returned to Ireland in August it had ceased to be the same measure which had passed the Irish parliament. By the new propositions, Ireland was to be debarred from all trade beyond the Cape of Good Hope and the Straits of Magellan, and would be bound by whatever navigation laws the English parliament might thenceforth enact. The insulting restrictions, and the attempt to bind Ireland by English-made laws, produced a violent commotion in the Irish parliament. They were denounced in one of the most memorable efforts of his eloquence by Grattan, who now saw how grievously he had been mistaken about the constitutional arrangements of 1782. "This bill," he said, "goes to the extinction of the most invaluable part of your parliamentary capacity; it is a union, an incipient and creeping union; a virtual union, establishing one will in the general concerns of commerce and navigation, and reposing that will in the parliament of Great Britain; a union where our parliament preserves its existence after it has lost its authority, and our people are to pay for a parliamentary establishment without any proportion of parliamentary representation." The latent patriotism even

of that corrupt house was awakened, and when a division on the altered bill took place, after a debate which was sustained until eight o'clock in the morning, the numbers were found to be, for the bill, 127, against it, 108. So small a majority, yielded by its own hirelings, was properly regarded by the ministry as a defeat, and the bill was abandoned; but Pitt never forgave the Irish House of Commons for this display of its nationality.

Popular discontent, arising from a variety of causes, social, political, and religious, pervaded the whole country, and gave rise in many places to scenes of tumult and disorder. Opposition to the importation of English manufactures was renewed, and led to some violent proceedings, particularly in Dublin. In the south, the Whiteboys were revived under the name of Right-boys, and in 1787 their turbulence and acts of intimidation filled several counties with alarm. Tithes, church-rates, and rack-rents had driven the famishing peasantry to madness; the law afforded them no relief, and against the unlimited exactions of tithe-proctors and middlemen, and the cruelties of unjust magistrates, they sought protection in their own system of wild justice. Mr. Grattan made various fruitless attempts in parliament to obtain an inquiry into the causes of this agrarian discontent. He was opposed by Fitzgibbon, who, defending the parsons, said he knew the unhappy tenantry were ground to powder by relentless landlords; and



instanced cases in Munster, in which, to his own knowledge, a poor tenant was compelled to pay £6 an acre for potato ground, which £6 he had to work out with his landlord at five pence a day. He might have found cases much worse still in Connaught; but Grattan showed that "the landlord's overreaching, compared to that of the tithe-farmer, was mercy." To the relentless inhumanity of both these classes the wretched people were abandoned; and when goaded into resistance, they were refused by the legislature any remedy but the bayonet and the halter. Still, the outrages committed by the Right-boys were not to be excused, and they were denounced from the altars by the Catholic clergy, and more particularly in pastorals issued by the Most Rev. Dr. Butler, archbishop of Cashel, and the Right Rev. Dr. Troy, Catholic bishop of Ossory.

Meantime, disturbances of a different nature commenced in the north between two parties called Peep-o'-day-boys and Defenders. They originated in 1784 among some country people, who appear to have been all Protestants or Presbyterians; but Catholics having sided with one of the parties, the quarrel quickly grew into a religious feud, and spread from the

county of Armagh, where it commenced, to the neighboring districts of Tyrone and Down. Both parties belonged to the humblest classes of the community. The Protestant party were well armed, and assembling in numbers, attacked the houses of Catholics, under pretence of searching for arms; insulting their persons, and breaking their furniture. These wanton outrages were usually committed at an early hour in the morning, whence the name of Peep-o'-day-boys; but the faction was also known as "Protestant boys" and "Wreckers," and ultimately merged in the Orange society.\* Their object was something more than a mere attack upon Catholics for their religion. They coveted the lands occupied by their Catholic neighbors, and adopted the Cromwellian principle of sending the Papists "to hell or Connaught." For this purpose they burned the houses of the Catholics, great numbers of whom were thus driven from the country, and their holdings afterwards given to Protestants; and Plowden tells us, that in the beginning of 1796, "it was generally believed that 7,000 Catholics had been forced or burned out of the county of Armagh, and that the ferocious banditti who had expelled them had been encouraged, connived

\* The first Orange lodge was formed in September, 1795, in the village of Loughgall, in Armagh. The confederacy spread rapidly, and the frightful atrocities committed by its members on the Catholics helped to accelerate the insurrection of '98, and added fearfully to its horrors. "The original oath, or purple test, of this society was not produced by the officers of the society

on the inquiry entered into by the parliamentary committee in 1835; but the existence of this diabolical test was given in evidence before the Secret Committee of 1798, by Mr. Arthur O'Connor, and the knowledge of it admitted by the committee on that occasion." *The United Irishmen, &c.*, first series, p. 110, second edition.



at, and protected by the government." Against these savage atrocities the Catholics were compelled to band themselves for protection, and hence they assumed the name of Defenders. The association of Defenders, however, spread into some localities where no aggression from Protestants was to be apprehended, and in such cases the Defenders leagued themselves for the redress of various agrarian grievances, especially that of the tithe system. They bound themselves by an oath of secrecy, and had pass-words like other similar societies, but they were exclusively illiterate men, and their political opinions were generally limited to a vague notion that "something ought to be done for Ireland."\*

In the autumn of 1788, George III. was attacked by insanity, and the regency was conferred in England on the prince of Wales, clogged with a variety of restrictions, upon which Mr. Pitt insisted. The Irish parliament, generally ready enough to assert its own privileges, refused to be dictated to either by the English parliament or by the minister, and in the exercise of its national independence voted the regency without restriction or limitation. The lord-lieutenant (the marquis of Buckingham) refused to forward the address to the prince of Wales; but the parliament appointed a commission to convey the address to England, and

the deputation was most graciously received by the prince. The phalanx of corruption was for the moment broken up in the Irish parliament; the hirelings were uncertain whom they should obey; and Grattan seized the opportunity to introduce a pension bill and some other popular measures. But the king's health was suddenly restored; the servile majority resumed their ranks, and all attempts at reform were as hopeless as ever. Pitt was exasperated by the conduct of the Irish parliament on the regency question, and never after lost sight of his determination to deprive Ireland of her legislature.

No viceroy ever exerted the corrupting influence of government more shamelessly than the marquis of Buckingham. He bargained openly for single votes, and during his short administration added £13,000 a year to the pension list. In 1790 he was succeeded by the earl of Westmoreland. It was an age of political associations; societies were springing into existence in every part of the empire. A Whig club was established in Ireland similar to that of England; but not only were Catholics excluded, as they were from most of the other political societies, but even the discussion of the Catholic question was interdicted. The ferment in the popular mind was daily increased by the progress of the French revolution, and the wildest theories of democ-

\* See Plowden's *History*, vol. ii., c. 7; MacNevin's *Pieces of Irish History*, p. 55, &c. The trials of the

Defenders; Dr. Madden's *Lives and Times of the United Irishmen*, &c.



racy began to float on the tide of public opinion. Still, the government was inexorable in its opposition to every proposition for reform, and it was openly asserted in parliament that such conduct seemed designed to goad the people to rebellion. Grattan arraigned the ministry in a long series of charges, and that other gifted and illustrious Irishman, John Philpot Curran, labored at this time in the same cause; but their efforts were in vain.

On the 11th of February, 1791, a general committee of the Catholics of Ireland met in Dublin, and resolved to apply to parliament for relief from their disabilities. The Catholics had hitherto refrained from all agitation, and their body was weakened by a division into an aristocratic and a democratic party, this breach being daily widened by the suspicion with which the excesses of the French revolution induced the friends of religion and order to regard all democratic tendencies. The most active men of the Catholic committee at this time were John Keogh, Richard M'Cormic, John Sweetman, Edward Byrne, and Thomas Braughall. Theobald Wolfe Tone, a young barrister of considerable talent and of an ardent and aspiring disposition, proffered his services to promote their cause, as did likewise the Hon. Simon Butler, also a barrister, and some other patriotic Protestants and Dissenters; and the accession of such men gave a fresh impulse to their efforts, and roused them to the adoption of more decisive lan-

guage than they had hitherto used. Nothing was more calculated to excite the jealousy of government than this fellowship of Protestants and Catholics; and, on the other hand, the friends of the popular cause saw that nothing was more necessary to promote their views than unanimity between all classes of Irishmen. With this object in view, Wolfe Tone visited Belfast in October, 1791, at the invitation of a volunteer club already existing there, composed of such men as Samuel Neilson, Robert Simms, Thomas Russell, &c., and in conjunction with them founded the first club, which took the name of the Society of United Irishmen. He then returned to Dublin, and with James Napper Tandy, Simon Butler, and others, founded a similar society in the metropolis. The fundamental resolutions of the society were: "1st. That the weight of English influence in the government of this country is so great as to require a cordial union among all the people of Ireland, to maintain that balance which is essential to the preservation of our liberties and the extension of our commerce. 2d. That the sole constitutional mode by which this influence can be opposed, is by a complete and radical reform of the representation of the people in parliament. 3d. That no reform is just which does not include every Irishman of every religious persuasion."

Such were the principles of the first United Irishmen. Their society was



perfectly constitutional, and in every respect as legal as any of the numerous political clubs which at that time existed in England and Ireland, and which boasted among their members some of the most distinguished statesmen of the day. Wolfe Tone and some of his associates had already imbibed republican ideas, but it is an unquestionable fact that they did not attempt to engraft these on the original constitution of the United Irishmen, which was thoroughly monarchical. The grand principle of the society was that of "union among all classes of Irishmen;" it was this which marked it out as specially dangerous in the eyes of a government which, like every Irish government since the earliest times of English rule in this country, relied on the contrary principle of division amongst the people; and it was this which gave the society so much political influence during the first period of its existence.\*

In July, 1791, the anniversary of the French revolution was celebrated with

military pomp at Belfast by the armed volunteers and townspeople. Democratic ideas became daily more prevalent, and in order to protest against such principles, sixty-four of the Catholic aristocracy seceded from the Catholic body, and presented an address of loyalty to the lord-lieutenant. This proceeding was uncalled for, and was injurious to their cause; indeed, these were the persons of whose sentiments Sir Boyle Roche undertook to be the worthy expositor to the volunteer convention in 1783. In 1792, the Catholic committee employed the son of the great Edmund Burke as their advocate to defend them against the imputations of the sixty-four addressors. In fact, the attention of the committee was then so exclusively confined to the one great point of obtaining a relaxation of the penal code, that they mixed themselves up with no other political agitation, and nothing could be more unjust than to impute to their proceedings a democratic character. A convention of Catholic delegates was suggested;

\* The "test" of the first society of United Irishmen was as follows: "I, A. B., in the presence of God, do pledge myself to my country, that I will use all my abilities and influence in the attainment of an impartial and adequate representation of the Irish nation in parliament; and as a means of absolute and immediate necessity in the establishment of this chief good of Ireland, I will endeavor, as much as lies in my ability, to forward a brotherhood of affection, and identity of interests, a communion of rights, and a union of power, among Irishmen of all religious persuasions, without which every reform in parliament must be partial, not national, inadequate to the wants, delusive to the wishes, and insufficient for the freedom and happiness of this country."—See Wolfe Tone's *Memoirs*;

Madden's *Lives and Times of the United Irishmen, &c.* "Strictly speaking," says the historian of the United Irishmen, "Samuel Neilson was the originator, and Tone the organizer of the society, the framer of its declaration, the penman to whom the details of its formation was intrusted. The object of Tone in assisting in the formation of the Belfast and Dublin societies is not to be mistaken—he clearly announces it in his diary. In concluding the account of the part he took in the formation of the former, he plainly states: 'To break the connection with England, the never-failing source of all our political evils, and to assist the independence of my country—these are my objects.'"—Madden's *Lives and Times of the United Irishmen*, second series p. 11, second edition.



this proposal (fraught with most important results) produced an outcry, and violent proceedings against the Catholics were adopted by the grand-juries throughout the country. Nevertheless the Catholic delegates assembled in Dublin, and held their first meeting on the 2d of December, 1792, at the Tailor's Hall in Back-lane. The Catholics next prepared a petition to the king, representing their grievances; it was signed by Dr. Troy and Dr. Moylan, on behalf of the prelates and clergy, and by all the county delegates. Five delegates—namely, Sir Thomas French, Mr. Byrne, Mr. Keogh, Mr. Devereux, and Mr. Bellew—were chosen to convey the petition to London, and on the 2d of January, 1793, they presented it to his majesty, by whom they were very graciously received.

Under the pressure of renewed war with France, and in order to detach the Catholics from the more active and dangerous politicians of other creeds, government brought in the relief bill of 1793,\* but in the same session were passed a militia bill, and the gunpowder and convention bills; the two latter coercive measures being directly aimed against the volunteers and the United Irishmen, the former having still retained a nominal existence. Mr. Pitt's

favorite tactics were to create disunion and alarm, and thus to prepare the way for strong measures. He enveloped the proceedings of the executive in mystery, and reckoned on the fears, and never on the confidence of the people.

A meeting of the United Irishmen, held in Dublin in February, 1793, published an address protesting against the inquisitorial nature of certain proceedings of the secret committee of the House of Lords, then conducting an inquiry relative to the Defenders' association. For this, the Hon. Mr. Butler, who acted as chairman of the meeting, and Mr. Oliver Bond, the secretary, were called before the bar of the house, and adjudged to be each imprisoned six months and fined £500. In January, 1794, Mr. Archibald Hamilton Rowan was prosecuted for an address to the volunteers, adopted at a meeting of the United Irishmen, of which he was secretary, and which was held nearly two years before. He was defended by Curran, who made one of his most celebrated speeches on the occasion; but by the aid of the nefarious jury-packing system, then newly introduced by the notorious John Gifford, the sheriff, and on the testimony of a perjured witness, Mr. Rowan was

\* This act (33 Geo. III.) restored the elective franchise to the Irish Catholics, and threw open to them certain offices in the army in Ireland, and all offices in the navy, even that of admiral, on the Irish station. In the army three offices were still excepted—viz., those of commander-in-chief, master-general of the ordnance,

and general on the staff. The preceding year the Irish House of Commons refused to receive a petition from Belfast in favor of the Catholics; and yet, in 1793, the only bigots in that den of corruption who were consistent enough to vote against the relief bill, were Dr. Duigenan and Mr. Ogle.



convicted of a seditious libel, and sentenced to two years' imprisonment and a fine of £500. These proceedings increased the popular ferment, and an address from the Society of United Irishmen was presented to Mr. Rowan in Newgate; but on the 1st of May he made his escape, and although £1,000 reward was offered for his apprehension, he succeeded in making his way to France, and thence to America.

In the beginning of April, 1794, an emissary arrived in Ireland from the French Convention, to sound the popular mind relative to an invasion. This person was the Rev. William Jackson, a Protestant clergyman of Irish extraction, but who had been born in England, and had resided many years in France. He rashly confided his secret to his legal adviser, Mr. John Cockayne, a London solicitor, by whom it was immediately revealed to the prime minister, Mr. Pitt. By Pitt's advice, Cockayne accompanied Jackson to Ireland, and was present at his interviews with Leonard McNally, Archibald Hamilton Rowan, then in Newgate, Theobald Wolfe Tone, and other leaders of the United Irishmen. Fortunately for the Irish leaders, they looked at first with some suspicion on Jackson, and avoided committing themselves in the presence of Cockayne. Thus did the first overtures of France to Ireland come, as it were, through the very hands of William Pitt himself; and the government having made this first experiment in treason manu-

facture, had Jackson arrested on the 28th of April. Three days after, as we have seen, Hamilton Rowan made his escape, and on the 4th of May the meeting of United Irishmen at the Tailor's Hall was dispersed by the sheriff, under the convention act, and their papers seized. Many of the more prudent members of the society now thought it high time to withdraw.

The latter part of 1794 witnessed some strange political intrigues. Pitt professed to abandon his policy of coercion, and thereupon many of the old Whig party entered into a coalition with him. The earl of Westmoreland was recalled from Ireland, and on the 4th of January, 1795, Earl Fitzwilliam, a nobleman of liberal principles and most estimable disposition, arrived to replace him. Lord Fitzwilliam came over with the express understanding that he was to pursue a policy of conciliation. At Dublin Castle he found a system established utterly incompatible with any honest, constitutional plan of government, and he at once set about reforming it. His first acts were to dismiss Secretary Cooke, and to deprive Mr. Beresford of the power which had enabled him and his family for many years to monopolize a vast proportion of the public emoluments, and to exercise an uncontrolled sway over the Irish government. The new viceroy surrounded himself with liberal-minded men; the Catholics were promised complete emancipation; the people were inspired with a confidence



which they had never felt till then; and extraordinary joy was diffused through the country. But this was only for a moment. When the hopes of the nation were raised to the highest pitch, Lord Fitzwilliam was recalled. The effect was heart-rending. Addresses and resolutions poured in from all sides to avert the calamity, but to no purpose. On the 25th of March, Lord Fitzwilliam took his departure from Ireland, amidst the anguish of the people. His coach was drawn to the water-side by some of the most respectable citizens of Dublin; the city wore an aspect of mourning, but the public grief was equalled by the public indignation at the heartless duplicity of the minister. Pitt had made up his mind for the Union, cost what it might, and he knew that it was through the humiliation and misfortune, not through the happiness and prosperity of Ireland, that such a measure could be brought about. To realize his favorite project, this unhappy country was to be deluged with crime and blood.

On the 23d of April, 1795, the Rev. William Jackson was put on his trial for treason, and convicted on the evidence of Cockayne. When the unfortunate man was brought up for judgment on the 30th, he took a dose of arsenic before entering the dock, and to give time for the poison to take effect, he caused his counsel, Mr. Leonard McNally, to plead in arrest of judgment. Externally he concealed the frightful tortures which he endured; his jail-

ers did not perceive a muscle change; and the ingenuity of counsel protracted the argument until the wretched prisoner fell in the agonies of death. A coroner's inquest closed the scene. Jackson's object in anticipating the law was, to save for his wife and children the little money which he possessed, and which would have been confiscated had judgment been pronounced.

The Society of United Irishmen had already assumed a new character. Desperation having succeeded to hope in the public mind, physical force and foreign aid were thought of. The original objects of reform and emancipation were merged—at least in the minds of many of the leaders—in revolution and republicanism. The original test of the society was changed into an oath of secrecy and mutual fidelity; and for the words, "equal representation of the people in parliament," was substituted in their declaration the phrase, "a full representation of all the people of Ireland;" the word "all" being added and "parliament" omitted. Baronial, county, and provincial committees were established; each society was limited to twelve members, including a secretary and treasurer; five of these secretaries formed a lower baronial committee, which delegated one of its members to an upper baronial committee; and so on for the committees of counties and provinces. Each of the four provinces had a subordinate directory, delegated by a provincial committee; and in Dublin there was



an executive directory of five persons, elected by ballot in the provincial directories. The executive directory exercised supreme command over the entire union, and its members were only known to the secretaries of the provincial committees; but the result proved that all this secrecy and complicated organization afforded no protection against treachery. From the very commencement every important proceeding of the United Irishmen was known to the government.

By the 10th of May, 1795, the new organization of the society was complete on paper; and on the 20th, Wolfe Tone left Dublin for Belfast, on his way to America. He had been implicated by the evidence on Jackson's trial, but through the influence of very powerful friends he was saved from prosecution on condition of quitting the country. From America he proceeded to France, in fulfilment of a promise which he had made to the leaders at home, that he would lay such representations before the French republican government as would lead to an invasion of Ireland. He arrived at Havre on the 1st of February, 1796, and hastened to Paris. His credentials consisted only of two votes of thanks from the Catholic Committee, of which he had been secretary, and his certificate of admission to the Belfast volunteers. The American ambassador was friendly to him; he intro-

duced himself to Carnot; and his success, under many disheartening circumstances, was so complete, that on the 16th of December, the same year, a French expedition under General Hoche sailed from Brest to Ireland. It consisted of 17 ships of the line, besides frigates, &c., to the number in all of 43 sail, having on board 15,000 troops and 45,000 stand of arms, with artillery, ammunition, &c.; Theobald Wolfe Tone himself, with the rank of adjutant-general, being on board the same ship with General Grouchy, the second in command. It was madness to undertake the expedition at such a season. Scarcely had the shores of France been cleared, when foul winds and foggy weather, "the only unsubsidised allies of England," dispersed the fleet; the admiral's ship, with the commander-in-chief, separated, and such of the vessels as kept together cruised for six or eight days at the entrance to Bantry Bay, waiting in vain for Hoche, and then returned to France; Grouchy having refused to attempt a landing without the orders of the chief in command. It was one of those cases in which the destinies of nations seem to hang by a slender thread. Had the weather been more propitious, it is quite possible that the result of the expedition might have been a successful civil war in Ireland, and the loss of this country forever to the crown of England.\*

\* For the details of the events here related, and of those which are immediately to follow, the reader is re-

ferred to *The United Irishmen, their Lives and Times* by Dr. R. B. Madden, M. R. I. A.—a work of immense



The horrible drama which was to be played out in Ireland during the two or three ensuing years was now commenced in right earnest. Earl Camden succeeded Lord Fitzwilliam as lord-lieutenant; Robert Stewart, Viscount Castlereagh, a political apostate, who had entered parliament as a pledged reformer, but who soon proved himself the most unprincipled foe to popular rights, became an active member of the Irish executive; Lord Carhampton, the worthy grandson of the infamous Henry Luttrell, got the command of the army, and exercised his power with fierce and reckless cruelty; early in 1796 an insurrection act was passed, making the administration of an oath like that of the United Irishmen punishable with death; a discretionary power was given to magistrates to proclaim counties; houses might be entered between sunset and sunrise, and the inmates seized and sent on board tenders without any formality of trial; Lord Carhampton, had, indeed, in the summer of 1795, banished in that way one thousand three hundred persons on

his own authority and without any legal form; the ferocity and fanaticism of the Orangemen, as the Peep-o'-day-boys were now denominated, were employed for the extirpation of the Catholics;\* and acts of indemnity were passed to shield the magistrates and military from responsibility for the cruelties in which they exceeded the law. In parliament nothing would be done to ameliorate the condition of the country or allay the popular ferment; but every thing that could most effectually provoke and foment discontent. The results were only what were to be expected. If revolution can, under any circumstances, be justified—and upon revolution the constitution of England is founded—it would be monstrous to blame the unhappy victims of Pitt's policy in Ireland for meditating resistance at that fatal period. Accordingly, we find that the leaders of the United Irishmen formed the plan of engrafting a military organization on their civil organization. This was commenced in Ulster about the end of 1796, and in

labor and research, and which constitutes in itself a repertory of Irish history for this period; also to the *Memoirs of Theobald Wolfe Tone*; Dr. W. J. MacNevin's *Pieces of Irish History*; Moore's *Life of Lord Edward Fitzgerald*; MacNevin's *Lives and Trials of Eminent Irishmen*; Telling's *Personal Narrative of the Rebellion*; William Samson's *Autobiography*, edited by William Cooke Taylor; *Autobiography of Hamilton Rowan*, edited by Dr. Drummond; Hay's *History of the Insurrection in Wexford*; Conley's *Personal Narrative*; O'Kelly's *General History of the Rebellion*; *History of the Rebellion*, by the Rev. James Gordon (a Protestant clergyman); Alexander's *Account of the Rebellion*; C Jackson's *History of the Rebellion*; Mus-

grave's *Work* (a tissue of prejudice and falsehood) Reports from Committees of Secrecy of the Houses of Lords and Commons; Sir Jonah Barrington's *Rise and Fall of the Irish Nation*; the Lives and Speeches of Henry Grattan and John Philpot Curran; Lord Cloncurry's *Personal Recollections*; the Correspondence of Lord Castlereagh and of the Marquis Cornwallis, &c.

\* The Peep-o'-day-boys and Defenders fought a pitched battle at a place called the Diamond, near Armagh, on the 21st September, 1795. The former were much better armed, and the latter, although more numerous, were beaten with a loss of forty-eight killed. It was notorious that government encouraged the Peep-o'-day boys or Orangemen.



Leinster in the beginning of 1797. The secretary of a society of twelve became a petty officer; the delegates to the lower baronial committees became captains; the delegate from the lower to the upper baronial committee was, in most cases, a colonel; but every commission higher than that of colonel was in the appointment of the executive directory. The members did not for some time adopt these titles, nor was the Leinster directory elected until the close of 1797. The society spread rapidly among the humbler classes, especially in localities where Orange clubs were established. On the eve of the outbreak in 1798 the total number of enrolled members was computed at 500,000, and of these very nearly 300,000 might be counted on as effective men. A few years before the leaders complained that the people were sluggish and hard to be moved; they now found that the great difficulty was to restrain them under the system of provocation practised by government. Some of the leaders were too enthusiastic; but it was a settled point among them that without foreign aid an insurrection should not be hazarded; that the country should not be exposed to the horrors of a war like that of La Vendée, and that the impatience of the people should be restrained by every means until the arrival of a French invading army. Agents were therefore repeatedly sent to solicit the aid of France. Lord Edward Fitzgerald, a brother of the duke of Leinster, and who had served with great distinction in the English army in Canada, went on one of these missions to France in 1796, accompanied by Mr. Arthur O'Connor, a member of the Irish parliament. They proceeded to Switzerland, where they had an interview on the frontier with General Hoche, previous to the departure of the Bantry Bay expedition. In March, 1797, Mr. Lewines, an attorney of Dublin, was sent on a similar mission, and remained in France as a permanent agent of the Irish directory; Wolfe Tone being also at the same time in Paris. In June, 1797, Dr. MacNevin was dispatched to France on a similar errand, but only got to Hamburgh, where he imprudently ventured to communicate by letter with the French government, and a copy of his memorial came into the hands of the British minister through the treachery of an employee in the French foreign office. Indeed, the English government was thoroughly informed of every movement of the Irish leaders, and might at any moment have broken up the scheme which was thus hatched under its very eyes. A regular system of espionage was employed by government so early as 1795, and was rendered complete by the end of the following year. Besides the common gang of informers who, like the infamous Jemmy O'Brien and his associates, were under the immediate control of Town-majors Sirr and Swan, there was a "higher class" of miscreants in the pay of government for the same



vile purposes. The former were exclusively persons taken from the dregs of society, and were employed in the lowest work of iniquity. They were usually called "Major Sirr's people," or "the battalion of testimony;" but among the other class were some in the rank of "gentlemen," and some whose baseness was not divulged until long after their death, when they appeared in public documents as the recipients of secret service-money and of government pensions. Some of these "gentlemen" had expressly entered the society and wormed themselves into the confidence of the members for the purpose of betraying their associates; others were the legal advisers and advocates of their unfortunate victims, with whose most intimate secrets they had thus made themselves acquainted; others betrayed their bosom friends and benefactors. One of the informers, M'Gucken, was the solicitor of the United Irishmen of Belfast. Mr. Leonard MacNally, their advocate, was in the secret pay of the government, and received a pension of £300 a year for life; but what the precise service was which he rendered for the wages we are not informed. The notorious Thomas Reynolds, of Kilkea Castle, in Kildare, became a United Irishman, and got himself raised to a high grade in the society, that he might betray his friends. In the same base manner Captain Armstrong of the King's County Militia betrayed Henry and John Sheares. Nicholas Maguan, of

Saintfield, in the county of Down, was a member of the county and provincial committees, and attended the meetings of his betrayed dupes until June, 1798, communicating all the time the secrets of the society to government through a third person. John Hughes, a bookseller of Belfast, another spy, was repeatedly arrested and confined along with members of the society, in order to learn their secrets as a fellow-victim; and John Edward Newell, of the Belfast society, Frederick Dutton, and a man named Burd, or Smith, also figured in the same vile capacity.

On the 13th of March, 1797, General Lake, commanding the northern district, issued a proclamation virtually placing a great part of Ulster under martial-law; and his orders were executed with excessive rigor by the military. The illegal and violent nature of the proceedings resorted to was described some months after by the earl of Moira in the English House of Lords, in a fruitless effort to elicit the sympathy of the legislature on behalf of this suffering country. Among the cruelties which he himself had seen practised, Lord Moira mentioned, that if any man was suspected to have concealed weapons of defence, his house, his furniture, and all his property were burned; nor was this all, for if it were supposed that any district had not surrendered all the arms which it contained, a party was sent out to collect the numbers at which it was rated, and in the execution of this order, thirty



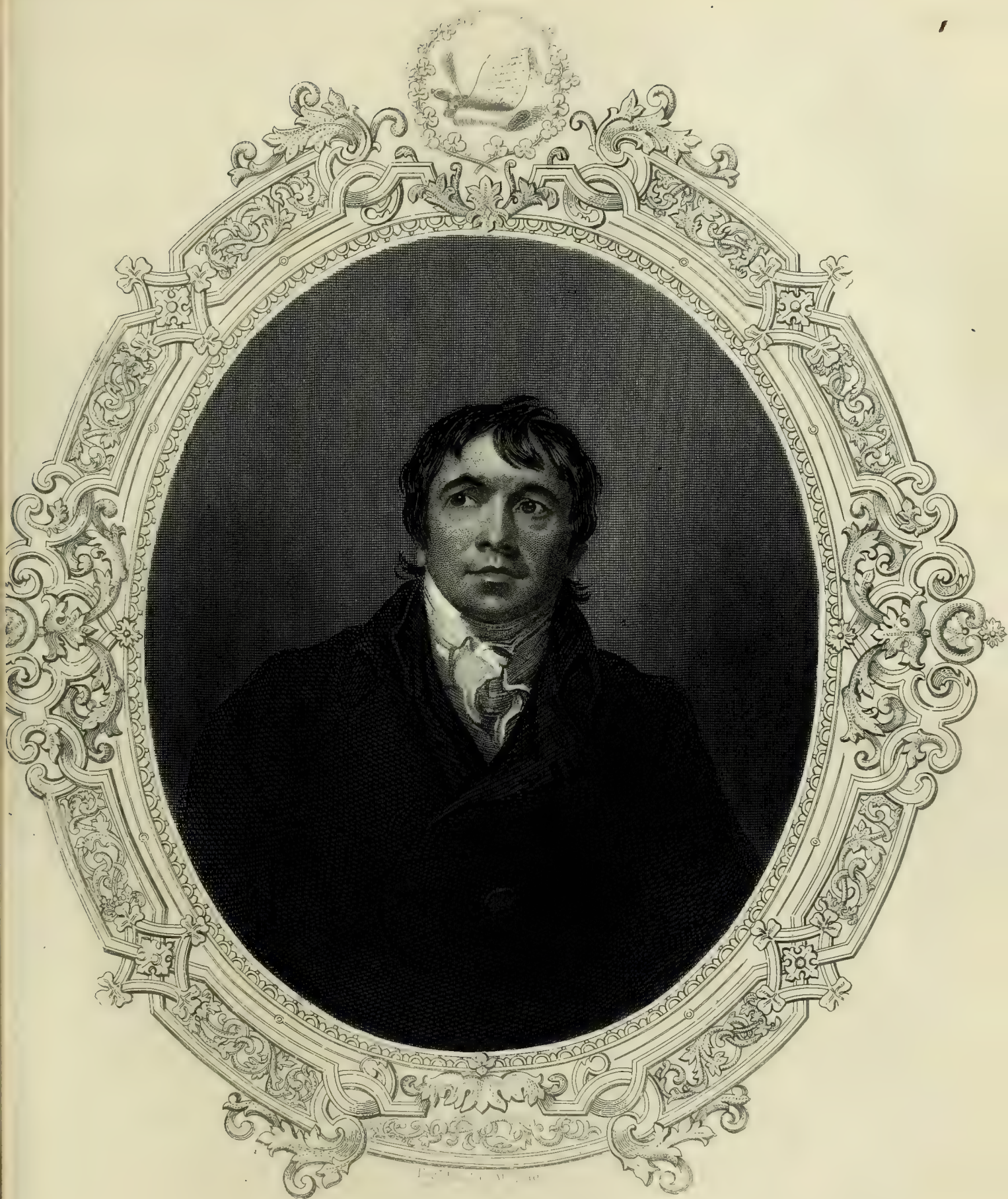
houses were sometimes burned down in a single night; officers took upon themselves to decide arbitrarily the quantity of arms which should be forthcoming, and if this quantity were not yielded up, these barbarous cruelties were inflicted. "When a man was taken up on suspicion," said his lordship, "he was put to the torture; nay, if he were merely accused of concealing the guilt of another. The punishment of picketing, which had been for some years abolished as too inhuman even in the dragoon service, was practised.\* He had known a man, in order to extort confession of a supposed crime, or of that of some of his neighbors, picketed until he actually fainted; picketed a second time until he fainted again; as soon as he came to himself, picketed a third time, until he once more fainted; and all upon mere suspicion! Nor was this the only species of torture; many had been taken and hung up until they were half dead, and then threatened with a repetition of the same cruel treatment, unless they made confession of the imputed guilt. These, observed Lord Moira, were not particular acts of cruelty, exercised by men abusing the power committed to them, but they formed part of our system. They were notorious, and no person could say who would be the next victim of this oppression and cruelty." On the rejection of Mr. Ponsonby's

motion for reform in 1797, Mr. Grattan and the other leading members of the opposition seceded from the House of Commons. No proceeding could have conveyed a stronger condemnation.

In the autumn of 1797, Mr. William Orr, of Antrim, was tried at Carrickfergus on a charge of administering the United Irishmen's oath to a soldier named Whately, who was the only witness against him. The jury, who were locked up during the night, were copiously supplied with spirituous liquors, and under the influence of intoxication and of threats of prosecution as United Irishmen, if they did not convict the prisoner, they at length brought in a verdict of guilty. Some of the jurors at once confessed the circumstances under which they had been induced to find against their consciences. Mr. Orr, who was a man of high character and respectability, solemnly protested his innocence, and the soldier, smitten with remorse, declared on oath before a magistrate, that his testimony at the trial was false. Petitions to the lord-lieutenant, praying that the prisoner's life might be spared, were poured in from all parts of the country, but to no purpose. Three times a respite was granted, but, with the most convincing evidence of the prisoner's innocence before him, Lord Camden, nevertheless, ordered his execution, which took place on the 14th of October. This judicial murder destroyed any remaining confidence the people might have had in the law or the government, and "remem

\* The punishment of picketing consisted in making a man stand with one foot on a pointed stake.











ber Orr" became a watchword with the United Irishmen.

Irish agents were actively engaged throughout the year in France, endeavoring to obtain military aid; and at home the people, maddened by the cruelties to which they were subjected, were only restrained from rising by assurances of an immediate French invasion, without which, they were told, it would be utter folly to attempt resistance. Another expedition for the Irish coast was indeed prepared in the Texel, under a Dutch admiral, but was prevented from sailing by Lord Duncan's victory near Camperdown; and finally, promises were again held out by the French directory, that an invasion would take place in April, 1798, and again the Irish were doomed to be disappointed. Bonaparte's jealousy of Hoche, and his ambitious designs against Egypt, were fatal to the hopes of the United Irishmen; and there is no reason to think that the affairs of Ireland excited any interest with the French government of that day, beyond the consideration of keeping England occupied by a civil war in this country.

Sir Ralph Abercrombie, an experienced and upright officer, was appointed

to the command of the army in Ireland, in December, 1797; but he soon became disgusted at the disorderly and outrageous conduct of the troops, and at the system of murder and rapine which he was expected to countenance. In general orders which he issued on the 26th of February, 1798, he censured the irregularities and disgraceful conduct of the military, as "proving the army to be in a state of licentiousness, which rendered it formidable to every one but the enemy;" but at the close of April he was recalled, to the great triumph of the Orange faction, and was succeeded by General Lake, a man who had already shown himself to be uninfluenced by feelings of justice or humanity. A system of coercion and terror was now regularly established; torture was employed; every man's life and property were at the mercy of informers; the country was abandoned to the fury and licentiousness of the soldiery in "free quarters;" and in a word every thing was done that can be conveyed by the atrocious admission made by Lord Castlereagh himself—namely, that "measures were taken by government to cause the premature explosion" of the insurrection.\*

\* This diabolical design of the government has been over and over again admitted, and is a fact as notorious as any in history. The reader will find abundant admissions of it in the parliamentary debates of the period, and in the recently published papers of Lords Castlereagh and Cornwallis. For the manner in which the design was carried out, we may refer to the first series of Dr. Madden's work already quoted, chap. xii.

second edition; but the following passage from Lord Holland's *Memoirs of the Whig Party*, gives a picture of the state of Ireland at this precise moment at once most vivid and of undoubted credibility. After alluding to the "burning cottages, tortured backs, and frequent executions," in the midst of which the Orange faction "were yet full of their sneers at what they whimsically termed 'the clemency' of the government,



Matters being thus ripe, government, acting on the information of the traitor Thomas Reynolds, caused the Leinster delegates to be seized, when assembled at the house of Mr. Oliver Bond, in Bridge-street,\* on the 12th of March, 1798. The warrant was executed by Justice Swan. The pass-words were, "Where's MacCann? Is Ivers from Carlow come?" but the officers rushed up stairs to the place of meeting with-

out encountering any obstacle. Fifteen persons were seized on this occasion, including Mr. Bond himself, who was a wholesale woollen draper, and, like the majority of the leaders of the United Irishmen, a Protestant.† Thomas Addis Emmet, the head-piece and chief organizer of the society, and Dr. William James MacNeven, Henry Jackson, and John Sweetman were taken the same day at their several places of abode, and all

and the weak character of their viceroy, Lord Camden," his lordship writes: "The fact is incontrovertible, that the people of Ireland were driven to resistance, which, possibly, they meditated before, by the free quarters and excesses of the soldiery, which were such as are not permitted in civilized warfare, even in an enemy's country. Trials, if they must so be called, were carried on without number under martial-law. It often happened that three officers composed the court, and that of the three two were under age, and the third an officer of the yeomanry or militia, who had sworn in his Orange lodge eternal hatred to the people over whom he was thus constituted a judge. Floggings, picketings, death, were the usual sentences, and these were sometimes commuted into banishment, serving in the fleet, or transference to a foreign service. Many were sold at so much per head to the Prussians. Other more illegal, but not more horrible, outrages were daily committed by the different corps under the command of government. Even in the streets of Dublin a man was shot, and robbed of £30, on the bare recollection of a soldier's having seen him in the battle of Kilmaleasy, and no proceeding was instituted to ascertain the murder or prosecute the murderer. Lord Wycombe, who was in Dublin, and who was himself shot at by a sentinel between Blackrock and that city, wrote to me many details of similar outrages, which he had ascertained to be true. Dr. Dickson (lord-bishop of Down) assured me that he had seen families returning peaceably from Mass, assailed without provocation, by drunken troops and yeomanry, and the wives and daughters exposed to every species of indignity, brutality, and outrage, from which neither his remonstrances nor those of other Protestant gentlemen could rescue them. The subsequent indemnity acts deprived of redress the victims of this widespread cruelty." Referring to the "free quarters" barbarity Sir Jonah Barrington (*Rise and Fall, &c.*, pp. 430, 431, ed. 1843) says: "This measure was resorted to,

with all its attendant horrors throughout some of the best parts of Ireland previous to the insurrection;" and he adds, "Slow tortures were inflicted, under the pretence of extorting confession; the people were driven to madness; General Abercrombie, who succeeded as commander-in-chief, was not permitted to abate these enormities, and therefore resigned with disgust. Ireland was reduced to a state of anarchy, and exposed to crime and cruelties, to which no nation had ever been subject. The people could no longer bear their miseries; Mr. Pitt's object was now effected. These sanguinary proceedings will, in the opinion of posterity, be placed to the account of those who might have prevented them." We can have no difficulty, then, in accepting the statement unanimously made by Dr. MacNeven, Thomas Addis Emmet, and the other State prisoners, in their examination before the secret committee in 1798, when, upon being asked the immediate cause of the rising that year, they replied, that it was owing to "the free quarters, the house-burnings, the tortures, and the military executions," resorted to by the government.

\* The house was then No. 13, but it is now known as No. 9, Lower Bridge street. See Gilbert's *History of Dublin*, vol. i., pp. 336, &c., where the particulars of the arrest are given; as also in Dr. Madden's *United Irishmen*.

† In a list given by Dr. Madden of 162 of the most eminent or leading members of the Society of United Irishmen, 106 are Protestants or Presbyterians, and only 56 Catholics. "There never was a greater mistake," observes Dr. Madden, "than to call the attempted revolution of 1798 a 'Popish rebellion.' Alike in its origin and organization, it was pre-eminently a Protestant one. Neither the 'Popish religion,' nor the Celtic race of Ireland, can lay any claim to the great majority of the founders and organizers of the Society of United Irishmen."—First series, pp. 385, 386. Second edition.



committed to Newgate. Arthur O'Connor, a leading member of the executive directory, was at that time in custody, having been arrested in the beginning of the year, at Margate, on his way to France, in company with Father Coigley or Quigley. The latter was convicted on the 22d of May, that year, at Maidstone, and hanged on evidence so inconclusive that Lord-chancellor Thurlow said: "If ever a poor man was murdered, it was Coigley!"

Lord Edward Fitzgerald was still at large. In consequence of not attending the meeting at Bond's he had escaped capture on that occasion; and a reward of £1,000 was offered for information that would lead to his arrest. For some months he had been recognized as the military head of the Union; and of all the leaders was alone fitted by military experience to take the command in the field; but though admirably suited for that purpose, he was not the man to organize a revolution. The men fitted to project and advise were Emmet, O'Connor, and Wolfe Tone; and their services were no longer available for their country. Those of the leaders who were still at liberty were divided in opinion. Lord Edward insisted that the time for action had arrived, and that the insurrection should take place without wait-

ing longer for succor from France. He held the royal troops in contempt, and had great confidence in the numbers who were prepared to rise, and in the strength which the people would acquire by a little experience in warfare. Some other members entertained similar views, but the more prudent were wholly opposed to an immediate attempt at insurrection; and some felt so strongly on this point as to threaten with denunciation to government any one who would insist upon raising the standard of revolt under such circumstances. There was on the whole a want of harmony among the members, and the Protestant and Catholic leaders had lately begun to feel distrust in the firmness and ulterior views of each other.\*

Lord Edward was concealed for some weeks in various retreats about Dublin, but chiefly at the house of a widow lady named Dillon, on the bank of the canal at Portobello, where he remained three weeks. After several intermediate removals he was conveyed on the night of the 18th of May, for the second time, to the house of Mr. Nicholas Murphy, a feather merchant, of 153 Thomas-street, where he was immediately tracked and arrested the following day. It was about seven in the evening on the 19th; Lord Edward,

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\* Arthur O'Connor affords, in his sentiments, a melancholy instance of this spirit of disunion and distrust. He disliked the Catholic leaders in general; and towards Emmet, although a Protestant, he entertained a positive enmity. It is probable he would have disliked any

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man who acknowledged religious convictions of any kind; and some other leading members of the Union, were, like him, unhappily imbued with the infidel principles which the example of France had rendered fashionable at that day.



who was ill from cold, was lying on the bed in the back room of the attic story, and Mr. Murphy, who had just entered, was speaking to him. Justice Swan, accompanied by a soldier in plain clothes, rushed into the apartment and exclaimed to Lord Edward, "You are my prisoner." Instantly Lord Edward sprang from the bed, and drawing a formidable zigzag-shaped dagger wounded Swan in the hand, but only slightly. Swan fired a pistol at Lord Edward without effect; and, ordering the soldier to remove Murphy, shouted out, "I am basely murdered." His cries brought to his assistance a Mr. Ryan, who was both a captain of yeomanry and one of the staff of Giffard's Orange newspaper, the "Dublin Journal." Ryan threw himself upon Lord Edward and endeavored to hold him down upon the bed, but in the struggle received several desperate wounds from Lord Edward's dagger, one of which, in the stomach, proved mortal a few days after. Swan appears, at this moment, to have rendered little assistance, if, indeed, as one account has it, he did not leave the room altogether to call for help, and the struggle between the wounded Ryan and the enraged Geraldine was fearful; but Town-major Sirr, with half-a-dozen soldiers, now rushed in, and Sirr having taken delib-

erate aim with his pistol, shot Lord Edward in the right arm, and the dagger fell from his hand. Still it required the efforts of the whole party of soldiers to hold Lord Edward down with their muskets crossed upon him until he could be secured, a drummer having, while this was doing, wounded him very severely in the back of the neck with a sword. The deadly struggle did not occupy more than a few minutes.\* A large military force, collected from different posts, was, by this time, drawn up outside. An attempt, made by the crowd assembled, to rescue Lord Edward was at once overcome; and the noble prisoner was carried in a sedan chair to the castle, where his wounds were dressed. He was then removed to Newgate, where none of his friends would be permitted to see him until a few hours before his death, when his aunt, Lady Louisa Connolly, and his brother, Lord Henry, obtained access to his bedside. A few days had developed fatal symptoms; on the 4th of June he expired, and his remains were deposited in the vaults of St. Werburgh's church. Thus perished one of the most disinterested and noble-hearted patriots that Ireland had ever produced. The greatest enemies of the cause for which he was immolated have never ventured to cast a slur on the

\* See Madden's *United Irishmen*, 2d ser., pp. 412 to 437, 2d ed., where Murphy's narrative of the capture of Lord Edward is given, together with the statement of Mr. D. F. Ryan, whose father lost his life on the occasion, and accounts of the transaction on the authority

of Sirr and others. Mr. Adrien, an eminent surgeon, being at the house of Mr. Tighe in the neighborhood, was sent for by the major, and Lord Edward, on learning from him that his wounds were not mortal, expressed regret.



memory of Lord Edward Fitzgerald. He was virtuous and amiable, open, unselfish, high-minded, and chivalrous. His stainless character, and gentle and generous disposition, endeared him to all who knew him. Of all his contemporaries he was, at that fearful juncture, the best suited to command the confidence and respect of his fellow-countrymen. He possessed military skill and heroism which might have led them to victory in battle; and had it pleased divine Providence to relieve Ireland at

that time from her heavy yoke of oppression, he was, apparently, the person most likely to have been her deliverer. Had Lord Edward's retreat remained undiscovered one day longer, he would have been beyond the reach of Major Sirr and his myrmidons; and, perhaps, with a very different issue to the contest, would have been ready to place himself at the head of those brave men of Kildare and Wexford, who, a few days later, devoted themselves so heroically, but hopelessly, for their country.\*

\* It is a most singular fact, that for more than sixty years the name of the betrayer of Lord Edward Fitzgerald remained a profound secret. Even the indefatigable researches of Dr. Madden failed to unmask the scoundrel, although he made an important step towards that result, when he published the "secret-service money" accounts, in which occurs the item—"F. H., discovery of L. E. F., £1,000." This disclosure of the initials rescued the memories of several honorable men from the suspicions that had been cast upon them in the matter by other investigators, and by public rumor; but it was not until the appearance, in the course of the year 1859 of the *Correspondence of the Marquis of Cornwallis*, edited by Charles Ross, son of General Ross, the governor of Fort George, that the mystery of F. H. was finally unveiled, and that the infamy was fixed upon the right owner—namely, Francis Higgins, a well-known character of that day in Dublin. This person, who was nick-named the "sham squire," from a very disgraceful proceeding, had become the proprietor of the *Freeman's Journal*, which he diverted from its hitherto steady advocacy of popular rights, making it a base organ of an unprincipled government. He was notorious for his domestic and social misdeeds, had been convicted of public crimes, and was in fact a man who might have been guilty of any baseness. These disclosures were first made public in the following curious note by the editor of the Cornwallis correspondence: "A sum of £1,500 per annum was placed at the disposal of the lord-lieutenant, by an act passed in 1799, to be distributed as secret-service. Towards the close of 1800, Mr. Cooke drew up for the use of Lord Castle-reagh the following confidential memorandum, which still remains in the castle of Dublin: 'Pensions to Royalists—I submit to your lordship on this head the following: First, that Mac——,' (Leonard MacNally)

'should have a pension of £300. He was not much trusted in the rebellion, and I believe, has been faithful. Francis Higgins, proprietor of the *Freeman's Journal*, was the person who procured for me all the intelligence respecting Lord Edward Fitzgerald, and got —— to set him, and has given me much information, £300. M'Guichen, who is now in Belfast, ought to have £150. I wish a man of the name of Nicholson, whom I employ regularly, should have £50. Darragh ought to have for himself and his wife at least £200 (at first written £300). Swan—— Sirr——, I think, it might be right to get rid of many of our little pensioners, and Major Sirr's gang, by sums of money instead of pensions.'"

As to the character of Lord Edward, we gladly borrow the beautiful words of the late Lord Holland, who, in his *Memoirs of the Whig Party*, writes as follows: "More than twenty years have now passed away. Many of my political opinions are softened—my predictions for some men weakened, my prejudices against others removed; but my approbation of Lord Edward Fitzgerald's actions remains unaltered and unshaken. His country was bleeding under one of the hardest tyrannies that our times have witnessed. He who thinks a man can be even excused in such circumstances by any other consideration than that of despair, from opposing a pretended government by force, seems to me to sanction a principle which would insure impunity to the greatest of all human delinquents, or, at least, to those who produce the greatest misery among mankind. \* \* \* Lord Edward was a good officer. The plans found among his papers showed much combination and considerable knowledge of the principles of defence. His apprehension was so quick and his courage so constitutional, that he would have applied, without disturbance, all the faculties he possessed to any emergency however sudden, and in the moment of



In the face of every possible discouragement, with their plans exposed to government, their leaders seized, and the forces of their enemies concentrated against them, the United Irishmen still madly resolved to make their attempt, and fixed the 23d of May for their rising. The plan of insurrection was to surprise Dublin, and on the same night to take the castle, the camp at Loughlinstown, and the artillery barracks at Chapelizod. The rising was to be simultaneous in Dublin and the rural districts; and the signal for the country was to be the stoppage of the mail-coaches on the morning of the 24th. On the 22d, Lord Castlereagh delivered to parliament a message from the viceroy announcing the design; and the vigilance and energy of the executive received a due meed of praise from

both houses. But we have here to mention a few incidents of a somewhat earlier date. It appears that for a few months previous to this time frequent visits were paid to the shop of Mr. Byrne, a Catholic bookseller, of Grafton-street, by a Captain John Warneford Armstrong, of the King's county militia, a corps in which it was understood that national opinions had made some progress, and which was stationed at the Loughlinstown camp. Captain Armstrong spoke with enthusiasm about the projects of the United Irishmen, and plainly intimated that not only he but his men would be ready to aid in any enterprise that might be undertaken by them. He induced Byrne to introduce him to the brothers Henry and John Sheares, barristers of respectable family, and who, since the arrests at

the greatest danger or confusion. He was, among the United Irish, scarcely less considerable for his political than his military qualifications. His temper was peculiarly formed to engage the affections of a warm-hearted people. A cheerful and intelligent countenance, an artless gayety of manner, without reserve, but without intrusion, and a careless yet inoffensive intrepidity, both in conversation and in action, fascinated his slightest acquaintances, and disarmed the rancor of even his bitterest opponents. These, indeed, were only the indications of more solid qualities—an open and fearless heart, warm affections, and a tender, compassionate disposition." Dr. Madden tells us that Lord Edward was "a sincere and ardent believer in the Christian religion." Murphy, in his narrative, describing the personal appearance of Lord Edward, says: "He was about five feet seven inches in height, had a very interesting countenance, beautiful arched eyebrows, fine gray eyes, handsome nose, high forehead, and thick, dark-colored hair." He was "as playful and humble as a child, as mild and timid as a lady, and, when necessary, as brave as a lion. Peace to his name!" From *The Earls of Kildare and their Ancestors*, edited by the marquis of Kildare, and printed for private circulation in 1857, we obtain the following

authentic data. Lord Edward was born in 1763, and was the twelfth child, but fifth son, of James, the 20th earl of Kildare, and first duke of Leinster. "He succeeded to the estate of Kilrush, in the county of Kildare. He entered the army in 1780, and served with distinction in America. In 1783 he was elected M. P. for Athy, and in 1790 for the county of Kildare. In that year, refusing to support the government measures, he was informed he would not be permitted to have the rank of lieutenant-colonel. On this he took the cockade from his hat, and dashing it to the ground, trampled upon it. In 1792 he went to France, where, in December, he married Pamela Sims, said to be the daughter of Madame de Genlis (and Philip Egalité, duke of Orleans). Whilst there he was dismissed from the army. In 1796 he joined the United Irishmen, and having been arrested on the 19th of May, 1798, he died of his wounds in Newgate prison, on the 4th of June. He had one son and two daughters. After his death he was attainted by act of parliament, and his estate forfeited and sold. This act was repealed by a private act in 1819."—See, for ample details, Dr. Madden's *United Irishmen, &c.*, second series, second edition; and the *Life and Death of Lord Edward Fitzgerald*, by Thomas Moore



Bond's, had become members of the directory of the United Irishmen. Armstrong saw the two brothers frequently during the month of May, 1798; dined at the house of the elder brother, Henry, in Baggot street, where he was introduced to their mother and the other ladies of the family; and effectually wormed himself into their confidence; while, as he himself afterwards stated, for each of these interviews with the Sheares he had one with his colonel and Lord Castlereagh, to whom he disclosed all the circumstances he had learned. On Sunday, the 20th of May, the base informer dined for the last time at the house of his victims, knowing well that the next day they would be arrested for high treason on his information. At their trial, on the 12th of July, he swore their lives away, and two days after they were executed. John, the younger brother was deeply involved in the schemes of the United Irishmen, and the night before his arrest wrote the rough draft of a proclamation to be issued at the outbreak. The strongest passages of this document were produced in evidence against both brothers. For the sake of his wife and children he supplicated for mercy. His friend, Sir Jonah Barrington, at his solicitation, applied to Lord-chancellor Clare (Fitzgibbon), who, from personal pique, had urged on the prosecution of the brothers, and had appointed, with that view, as attorney-general, Toler, afterwards the notori-

ous Lord Norbury. At the last moment, however, a respite was granted for Henry, but it came a few minutes too late. The two brothers, falling hand in hand from the drop, had been just launched into eternity, and the executioner having, according to barbarous usage, added the indignity of decapitation, was holding up the head of Henry Sheares, and exclaiming, "This is the head of a traitor," when Sir Jonah arrived with the reprieve. The fate of the Sheares was one of the saddest episodes in the woful story of '98.

The 23d of May at length arrived. The city of Dublin was placed under martial law; the guards at the castle were trebled; all the loyal citizens were put under arms; in the law courts the barristers pleaded in regimentals, with side-arms, and one of the judges (Baron Medge) sat on the bench in the same costume; and at each house the names of the inmates were posted on the outer door. The city assumed the appearance of a vast barrack, and the people were alarmed by false rumors of massacres and outrages. Late in the evening Samuel Neilson rashly exposed himself under the walls of Newgate, as if planning an attack on that prison. He was transferred at once to a cell within the walls. The lamp-lighters rebelliously neglected their duty on that night, leaving the city in almost total darkness, for which treasonable conduct several of them were hanged from their



own lamp-posts! The country people had risen in the neighborhood, and were preparing to march on the city, but were attacked and slaughtered at Rathfarnham and Santry. At the latter place, Lord Roden and his fox-hunters did notable execution; and the next morning, the killed and prisoners having been taken into town tied together on carts, the dead bodies were exhibited in the castle-yard—a ghastly spectacle!—and the prisoners were hanged from lamp-irons, and on the scaffolding at Carlisle Bridge.

The country was now plunged in all the horrors of a sanguinary civil war, but the rising was premature and partial: by the capture of the leaders it was reduced almost to a rising of illiterate peasantry, without any matured plans, or men of the least military skill or knowledge to form a plan or execute one, almost without arms or ammunition, and altogether without money or discipline. It was confined to the coun-

ties of Kildare, Wicklow, and Wexford, with the exception of a few efforts in the counties of Dublin, Meath, and Carlow; and in every instance it was the immediate result of the free quarters, burnings, floggings, and other varieties of outrage practised by the military, yeomanry, and magistrates. The ferocity of the Orange yeomanry was indescribable: a notion appeared to have generally prevailed among them that the time to extirpate the Catholics had arrived, and they acted accordingly; their conduct during the insurrection was that of incarnate fiends; the North Cork, Armagh, and some other militia regiments, rivalled them in inveterate animosity against the people; the Ancient Britons, commanded by Sir Watkins William Wynn, covered themselves with infamy by their merciless cruelties; and innumerable atrocities were committed by the Homsperg dragoons, German mercenaries in the king's service.\* It

\* That the terms employed above to characterize the cruelties and animosities of which the unhappy insurgents of '98 were the objects are not too strong, many authorities might be adduced to show, but the following passages from the recently published correspondence of the marquis of Cornwallis will suffice. Lord Cornwallis arrived in Ireland on the 20th of June, 1798, invested with the twofold authority of lord-lieutenant and commander-in-chief; nearly three weeks after, on the 8th of July, he wrote as follows to the duke of Portland: "The Irish militia are totally without discipline, contemptible before the enemy when any serious resistance is made to them, but ferocious and cruel in the extreme when any poor wretches, either with or without arms, come within their power; in short, *murder appears to be their favorite pastime*. The principal persons of this country, and the members of both houses of parliament, are, in general, averse to all acts of clemency, and although they do not express,

and are too much heated to see the ultimate effects which their violence must produce, *would pursue measures that could only terminate in the extirpation of the greater number of the inhabitants*, and in the utter destruction of the country. The words Papists and priests are forever in their mouths, and by their unaccountable policy they would drive four-fifths of the community into irreconcilable rebellion; and in their warmth they lose sight of the real cause of the present mischief." Describing the feelings of the ascendancy party he continues: "The minds of the people are now in a state that *nothing but blood will satisfy them*, and although they will not admit the term, their conversation and conduct point to no other mode of concluding this unhappy business than that of extermination." Again his lordship writes: "*I am much afraid that any man in a brown coat who is found near the field of action is butchered without discrimination*." And writing to General Ross, he says: 'The violence of our



was a fearful dragoonade, in which the usages of civilized war were set aside; and such being the case on the part of the royal troops, it is not wonderful that the undisciplined peasantry should have been guilty of many acts of barbarity. The crimes of the latter, however, were done in retaliation; they were often prompted by private malice, and it should be remembered that they were the work of exasperated multitudes, goaded by injuries and unrestrained by authority.\*

Early in the morning of the 24th of May, the fighting was commenced in Kildare by a body of insurgents who marched against Naas, but were repulsed with slaughter: the military there, under the command of Lord Gosford, having been re-enforced and prepared for the attack. The troops had two officers and about thirty men killed, but many of the people were shot down while crowded together in the street or attempting to escape from the burning cabins which were set on fire; others of them were taken out of the houses and instantly hanged in the

streets; "and such," says Plowden, "was the brutal ferocity of some of the king's troops, that they half roasted and eat the flesh of one man named Walsh, who had not been in arms. The insurgents were more successful in other parts of Kildare. At Prosperous, a party of the North Cork militia, under Captain Swayne, were attacked in their barrack, which was set on fire, and these men having made themselves peculiarly obnoxious by their outrages in free quarters, having burned the Catholic chapel, and several cabins and farm-houses, and frequently employed the pitch-cap in torturing the suspected rebels, were now in their turn treated without mercy, and any of them who attempted to escape from the flames were piked. Dr. Esmond, of the Salins yeomanry corps, was compelled by the people to join them in this attack; and was immediately after tried by court-martial in Dublin, where he was hanged on the scaffolding of Carlisle Bridge. At Rathangan the peasantry also cut off a military party and took possession of the town. The same day

friends and their folly in endeavoring to make it a religious war, added to the ferocity of our troops, *who delight in murder*, most powerfully counteract all plans of conciliation." \* \* \* "*We are engaged*," he writes, "*in a war of plunder and massacre*;" and after referring to the horrors inseparable from martial law, he adds: "*But all this is trifling compared to the numberless murders that are hourly committed by our people*, without any process of examination whatever. \* \* \* The conversation of the principal persons of the country all tends to encourage this system of blood; and the conversation, even at my table, where you will suppose I do all I can to prevent it, always turns on hanging, shooting, burning, &c., &c., &c. *And if a priest has been put to death, the greatest joy is expressed*

*by the whole company.*" These being the words of a lord-lieutenant sent over to complete the cold-blooded project of Mr. Pitt, and to accomplish the Union, it will be understood how inadequately they must describe the actual state of things as felt by the persecuted people themselves; but such a testimony speaks volumes.

\* Mr. Cloney undertook the unpleasant task of making out a comparative statement of the outrages in cold blood perpetrated in the county of Wexford in the year 1798, by the magistrates, military, and yeomanry on the one side, and by the insurgents on the other; and on the side of the former there is a fearful balance in point of number and enormity. See Cloney's *Personal Narrative*, pp. 216-219, and Madden's *United Irishmen*, first series, pp. 321-325.



Captain Erskine's troop of dragoons were encountered by the insurgents at Old Kilcullen, and almost annihilated—only a sergeant and four men of the entire troop having escaped, although the party of Irish were scarcely more numerous, and were armed only with pikes. The insurgents then marched to Kilcullen Bridge, where General Dundas had his headquarters, but here they were repulsed with considerable loss. Several minor affairs took place about the same time in the counties of Kildare and Dublin, in all of which the country people were repulsed and slaughtered; and to discourage them the more, all the prisoners were, without any form of trial, immediately hanged. A large body of insurgents attacked the town of Carlow in a tumultuous manner, shouting as they entered, and incautiously penetrating into the interior, where they were received with a murderous fire by the military. A great number of the people then took refuge in the houses, which, being thatched, were barbarously set on fire by the soldiers, and eighty houses, with some hundreds of the unfortunate insurgents, were consumed in the conflagration. About two hundred more were made prisoners, and hanged or shot. These massacres were followed by the court-martial judicial murder of Sir Edward Crosbie, on whose lawn the insurgents had mustered before the attack, al-

though it did not appear that that gentleman was himself a rebel. The disaster at Carlow was one of the most deplorable during the outbreak. Discouraged by so many reverses, the men of Kildare now began to see how hopeless was their undertaking. A body of two thousand men, encamped under a leader named Perkins on the historic Hill of Allen, near the Curragh, entered into a negotiation with General Dundas to lay down their arms and return home. This arrangement was finally carried out on the 28th of May, when some cartloads of pikes and rusty muskets were surrendered; General Dundas having on this and several other occasions during the war shown himself a man of a humane and honorable disposition. The next day a multitude assembled at the Gibbet-Rath on the Curragh of Kildare, for the purpose of following the example of the men of Knock-Allen; their arms were to have been delivered up to Major-general Duff, then on his march from Limerick, but the troops were ordered by that officer to fire on the defenceless people, and Lord Roden's cavalry went in to hew them down; and thus exposed on that vast plain, without a hedge to shelter them for miles, the wretched peasantry were slaughtered without resistance and without mercy; the number slain on that occasion in cold blood being, according to Musgrave, 350.\*

\* As an excuse for this frightful massacre it was said that when the insurgents were about to deliver up

their arms, one of them fired a gun which provoked the military; but the shot appears to have been discharged



A military force of over 400 men, with one cannon, marched, on the 26th of May, to attack a body of some 3,000 insurgents encamped on the hill of Tara. The latter were chiefly armed with pikes, yet, for about four hours of hard fighting, they continued to maintain their ground, and at one time had surrounded the cannon; the steady fire of the military, however, mowed down their irregular masses; they were dislodged from the cemetery near the summit of the hill, and obliged to retreat with the loss, it was said, of 400 men killed and wounded. It was the barbarous practice of the royal troops to give no quarter, so that all the unhappy Irish who were left wounded on the field or fell into the hands of their enemies were slaughtered in cold blood or hanged immediately after. This defeat crushed the rebellion in that quarter.\*

The insurrection now broke out in the county of Wexford, with a fury that soon threw into the shade the movements which had taken place elsewhere. There was a larger admixture of the old Anglo-Norman blood in this county than in any other part of Ireland; and the ancient Celtic race of

Hy-Keinnselaigh was always distinguished for an independent spirit. The people were almost all Catholics; they were remarkable for their industry and peaceable habits; and the organization of the United Irishmen scarcely made any progress among them till the very eve of the outbreak. The gentry, however, were Protestant and exclusive. The North Cork militia, commanded by Lord Kingsborough, quartered in the county in April, introduced the Orange system there, and in a brief space almost all the Protestants had become open and sworn Orangemen. The Catholics were terrified with rumors of intended massacres like those of Armagh; and on some occasions the people, for a distance of thirty miles, deserted their homes at night and slept in the open fields. The militia paraded in orange ribbons, fired at the country-people when at work in the fields, burned their houses, and frequently applied the pitch-cap to the heads of the "croppies," as the United Irishmen were termed, from the practice which many of them adopted of cutting the hair short.† These unprovoked aggressions had the natural result: as Orangeism

into the air, and most probably by accident, while it is quite certain that the order for the massacre was deliberately given by General Duffe.

\* The earl of Fingall's yeoman cavalry were the most prominent in the attack upon the insurgents at Tara. An address, signed by Lords Fingall and Kenmare, the president of Maynooth, and other Catholics of distinction to the number in all of forty-one, was presented about that time to the lord-lieutenant, to vindicate themselves from the attempts made to fasten the charge of rebellion upon the whole Catholic body.

† "It is said," writes Mr. Hay, in his history of the Wexford insurrection, "that the North Cork regiment were the inventors—they certainly were the introducers—of pitch-cap torture into Wexford. Any person having his hair cut short, and therefore called a croppy (by which name the soldiery designated a United Irishman), on being pointed out by some loyal neighbor, was immediately seized and brought into a guard-house, where caps, either of coarse linen or strong brown paper, besmeared inside with pitch, were always kept ready for service. The unfortunate



spread, so did the principles of the United Irishmen. On the 27th of April, the county was proclaimed by a meeting of magistrates at Gorey; and from that moment the magistracy acted in the most ruthless manner. A few days before any outbreak took place, Mr. Hunter Gowan paraded Gorey at the head of his yeomanry with a human finger on the point of his sword; and various disgusting freaks were performed in the course of the evening, among others, that of using the "croppy's finger" to stir punch! On Whit-Sunday, the 27th of May, some yeomen burned the Catholic chapel of Boulavogue, in the parish of Kilcormack, at the foot of Oulart Hill, but Father John Murphy, the parish priest, at the head of his parishioners, fell upon the miscreants, several of whom, with two officers who commanded them, were slain in the conflict. The people now flew to arms, and before many hours had elapsed two large bodies were assembled, one on the hill of Oulart, and another on that of Kilthomas. The gathering at the latter place was scattered by a party of 200 yeomen from Carnew, and 150 of the fugitives were killed; the yeomen burning in their progress two other Catholic chapels and above 100 cab-

ins and farm-houses of Catholics, and shooting several of the poor country-people whom they called to their cabin doors. At Oulart Hill, where Father Murphy commanded, the result was different. A detachment of 110 men of the North Cork militia under Lieutenant-colonel Foote attacked the people, who, at the onset, fled; but 300 pikemen having been rallied by Father Murphy, bore down upon the royalists, and in an instant slew the whole party except the lieutenant-colonel, a sergeant, and three privates. The insurgents marched next day to Camolin, where they procured 800 stand of arms that had been just deposited there by Lord Mountnorris. They then marched to Enniscorthy, which they took after some fighting; the garrison flying to Wexford, together with the Protestant inhabitants. About the same time Gorey, though not attacked, was evacuated by its garrison, which fled to Arklow. All was consternation, and the country smoked with the burning homesteads of both parties. In Wexford, the yeomanry could with difficulty be prevented from entering the jail and murdering the prisoners, among whom were Mr. Beauchamp, Bagenal Harvey, Mr. John Henry Colclough, Mr. Ed-

victim had one of these, well heated, pressed on his head, and when judged of a proper coolness, so that it could not be easily pulled off, the sufferer was turned out amidst the horrid acclamations of the merciless torturers."

The same writer tells us that a sergeant of the North Cork's was called "Tom the Devil," from his

ingenuity in devising torments. Sometimes this wretch cut the hair of his victims in the form of a cross, and instead of a pitch-cap, applied moistened gunpowder which he rubbed into the seam and then set on fire; sometimes he applied a lighted candle until all the hair was singed off, and the head covered with blisters!



ward Fitzgerald, and other gentlemen who had been arrested on suspicion. Mr. Colclough and Mr. Fitzgerald were sent as messengers to Vinegar Hill (a lofty eminence overlooking Enniscorthy, and which the insurgents had chosen as their principal rendezvous), for the purpose, if possible, of persuading the people to return to their homes; but the embassy had quite a contrary effect. The insurgents retained Mr. Colclough at the camp, and sent back Mr. Fitzgerald to announce their intention of immediately attacking Wexford itself. On the morning of the 29th, Colonel Maxwell, with 200 of the Donegal militia and a field-piece, arrived from Duncannon Fort to re-enforce the Wexford garrison; and the same evening General Faucett, with the 13th regiment, four companies of the Meath militia, and some artillery, halted at Taghmon, seven miles from Wexford, sending forward a detachment for the latter town. Early on the morning of the 30th this detachment was intercepted by the Irish at the Three Rocks, almost the whole party slain, and two howitzers taken. Faucett immediately returned to Duncannon Fort, and the same day an offer was made to surrender Wexford to the insurgents; but before any terms could be arranged, the garrison disgracefully evacuated the place, leaving it to the mercy of the people. Mr. Bagenal Harvey, who was still in the jail, was now chosen general by the insurgents, who were regaled with drink by the

inhabitants; the town was decorated with green boughs; such houses as had been deserted by their owners were pillaged; and the flying troops, on their side, signalized their retreat by plunder, devastation, and numerous murders, burning the cabins, and shooting the country-people in their progress.

On the 4th of June a corps of 1,500 men, under General Loftus, with five pieces of artillery, having arrived at Gorey, marched in two divisions by different routes to attack a position taken up by the Irish on Carrigrua Hill. One of these divisions, under Colonel Walpole, was surprised and routed with great loss at Tubberneering, near Gorey, the colonel being killed and three cannon left in the hands of the Irish. A party of seventy men of the Antrim militia, sent across some fields by General Loftus to relieve Walpole, was also cut off, scarcely a man escaping; and the general himself retreated to Carnew, and thence to Tullow; so that the Irish were left masters of the entire county, except Duncannon Fort and New Ross at the southwestern extremity. An Irish force having mustered at Carrickburne Hill, six miles from New Ross, marched on the 4th of June to Corbett Hill, within a mile of that town; and Mr. Harvey, who commanded, sent a summons next morning to the garrison to surrender. The messenger was shot by a sentinel, and this so exasperated the Irish, that without waiting to carry out General Harvey's



plan of attack, a column of pikemen rushed on with irresistible impetuosity, drove the British cavalry back in disorder upon the infantry, and entering the town pell-mell with both, pursued them to the bridge, over which some of the royal troops fled in a panic, leaving the Irish masters of the artillery and of the principal part of New Ross. This gallant exploit, however, was not followed up. Instead of pursuing the enemy, the Irish, unrestrained by authority or discipline, abandoned themselves to intoxication. The royal troops rallied and twice attempted to recover the place, and as often were repulsed; but the infatuated insurgents continued to drink, and late in the evening the military having come a third time to the charge, drove them with great slaughter from the town. The fighting had been sustained with little intermission for ten hours, during which Mr. Harvey was merely a spectator on a neighboring hill; the troops had about 300 men killed, and among them Lord Mountjoy, colonel of the Dublin militia; but it was estimated that the insurgents lost about four times that number, the greater part of them being killed in cold blood after the action was over. It was supposed that Harvey had an irregular army of 30,000 men before New Ross; and those of them who took part in the battle fought with wonderful intrepidity. In the end they owed their defeat to insubordination and drunkenness.

Unfortunately, another circumstance cast a slur on the cause of the insurgents that day. They had left a number of prisoners under a guard at Scullabogue house, near Carrickburne Hill; and in the afternoon some fugitives from the Irish army at New Ross came up, and pretended that Mr. Harvey had issued orders to have the prisoners executed, assigning, as a reason, that the royalists killed all the Irish prisoners who fell into their hands at Ross. Three successive messengers brought these pretended orders; and, at length, a tumultuous mob, composed of persons who had, each of them, bitter injuries of their own to revenge, overcame the resistance of the guard, and commenced the massacre. Thirty-seven unfortunate people were shot or piked at the hall-door, and the remainder, over a hundred in number, being collected into the barn, fire was applied to the roof, and all of them were consumed in the flames. It is said, that among them were sixteen Catholics who had made themselves obnoxious, and a few of the Protestants were rescued from destruction. It would be most unfair to throw the odium of this inhuman barbarity upon the Wexford insurgents in general, who were guilty of few outrages under so many provocations; but, above all, if the difference between the infuriated rabble who committed this crime, and the disciplined troops of the royalists acting under educated officers be considered, the systematic atrocities of the latter



greatly eclipse even the savagery of Scullabogue.\*

Several minor encounters had taken place between the military and people in the county of Wicklow, where a man named Joseph Holt, who had been driven into rebellion by a system of frightful persecution, was one of the most enterprising leaders. The Wicklow men having formed a junction with some of the Wexford insurgents at Gorey, marched on the 9th of June to attack Arklow, which was garrisoned by 1,600 effective men under Major-general Needham. In their first charge the pikemen drove back the pickets of cavalry, and the assailants came on in such numbers and in such good order, that General Needham, although very strongly posted, talked of the propriety of retreating. This suggestion was gallantly opposed by Colonel Skerret, who commanded the Durham fencibles; and to the firmness of that officer in the first instance, and the death of Father Michael Murphy, who was killed by a cannon-ball, within thirty yards of the English lines, the success of the loyalists was mainly to be attributed. This battle was the most

regular in its plan of any during the civil war, and it was decisive of the contest in Wicklow.†

After the battle of Ross the Wexford men chose the Rev. Philip Roche to replace Bagenal Harvey, who resigned the command; and for several days the county remained in their undisputed possession; but a powerful army was being concentrated against them, and the catastrophe of the war in Wexford was near at hand. In the interval, a scene of a melancholy and disgraceful nature took place in the town of Wexford. A number of prisoners, among whom were Lord Kingsborough (afterwards earl of Kingston), colonel of the North Cork militia, thirteen military officers, several officers of yeomanry, and many of the principal gentry of the county were confined in the jail, chiefly as a place of security against the violence of the exasperated populace. At the instigation of a person named Dixon, the master of a coasting vessel belonging to Wexford, and who has been described by all parties as a sanguinary monster, cries were repeatedly raised for the execution of these prisoners; but, for a long

\* Twenty-eight persons were massacred by the military in the ball-alley of Carnew, on the 25th of May, and thirty-four were shot in cold blood at Dunlavin. After the battle of Vinegar Hill, the hospital of the Irish at Enniscorthy was set on fire, and according to one account, over thirty, but according to another, seventy-six wounded men perished in the flames. The Rev. Mr. Gordon, rector of Killegny, in Wexford, says he was told by a surgeon that the hospital was only accidentally set on fire by the lighted wadding, when the troops were shooting the wounded men in their beds!—See Hay's, Cloney's, and Gordon's *Histories of the Insurrection*.

† The Rev. Mr. Gordon relates, that "some soldiers of the ancient British regiment cut open the dead body of Father Michael Murphy, after the battle of Arklow, took out his heart, roasted his body, and oiled their boots with the grease which dripped from it." *History of the Rebellion*, p. 212. The authority of the reverend writer, who was a Protestant clergyman of the highest respectability, and resided in the very midst of all the horrors which he described, cannot be questioned on this and other acts of military ferocity which he records.



ume, every attempt of the kind was successfully resisted by the leading men among the people. At length, on the 20th of June, while the fighting men of the Irish were mustering at Vinegar Hill, preparing for the expected battle of the morrow, Captain Dixon collected a number of cowardly wretches like himself at Wexford, and having plied a chosen party of them with liquor, forced an entrance to the jail, and selecting some of the prisoners, marched them to the bridge, and there, after a mock trial, had them put to death one by one. The unfortunate prisoners were taken from the jail in batches of ten or fifteen, but when thirty-five of them had been disposed of in this way, the slaughter was stopped by the interference of Father Corrin, a priest, who, after vainly supplicating the assassins to desist, commanded them in an authoritative tone, to kneel down and pray before they proceeded further with the work of death. Having got them on their knees he dictated, in a loud voice, a prayer, that God might show the same mercy to them which they would show to the surviving prisoners. These solemn words had the desired effect, and the batch of victims, then waiting for their doom, were conducted back to prison.

At that moment the rebel camp on Vinegar Hill was beset by the royal troops, approaching from different sides. Many of the peasantry had dispersed to a distance through the country, but

at the call of their leaders they rallied in great numbers, and with a devotedness that was wonderful under such circumstances. Several women also came with the men; and their bodies were found in the piles of slain after the battle. The Irish were almost destitute of gunpowder, having been unsuccessful in their attempts to manufacture some at Wexford. The attack was planned by General Lake, who did not think it prudent to undertake it with a smaller force than 20,000 men, besides a numerous artillery train. Generals Loftus, Duffe, Needham, and Moore acted under his orders; the hill was to have been surrounded at every point, and the attack to have commenced at seven o'clock on the morning of the 21st of June. General Needham, however, from some unexplained cause, did not arrive at his appointed position until two hours later, when the fighting was over. For an hour and a half, the Irish maintained their ground with great intrepidity under a shower of grape-shot and a dense fire of musketry, while the want of ammunition rendered their own artillery nearly useless. At length they gave way; the space left unoccupied, or "Needham's Gap," as it was sarcastically called, afforded a means of retreat too tempting for their stability; and with a loss not in proportion to the numbers engaged, they made good their way to Wexford, unpursued by the enemy. The most savage cruelties were now perpetrated by the soldiery. A build



ing in Enniscorthy, used by the Irish as a hospital, was set on fire, and the sick and wounded inmates consumed in the flames. Some hundreds of stragglers were killed after the battle, and several loyalists suffered in the indiscriminate carnage and destruction. At Wexford the gallant and humane General Moore prevented the troops under his command from entering the town while excited by victory: but the rest of the army poured in the following morning; the wounded in the hospital at Wexford were immediately put to the sword, as were also many of the inhabitants and others, who, owing to an understanding with Lord Kingsborough that protection would be extended to them on the evacuation of the town by the insurgent army, imagined themselves secure. General Lake refused to grant any protection, unless all the leaders were delivered into his hands; the surrounding country became a scene of frightful destruction and slaughter; and a court-martial, which assembled so hastily that the members were not even sworn, proceeded to order the execution of a number of respectable persons, among others, of the Rev. Philip Roche, Mr. Bagenal Harvey, Mr. Grogan, of Johnstown (an aged gentleman of very large fortune, whom the people had compelled to act in the capacity of commissary), Captain Keogh, Mr. Prendergast, Mr. Kelly, of Killan, and others.

Let us now transfer our attention for a moment to Ulster, where the popular

organization had been most complete; but where, owing to some misunderstanding among the leaders, and the betrayal of all their plans to government, the rising did not take place simultaneously with that in other quarters, and where the movement, though spirited, was brief and partial. In Antrim the person chosen by the United Irishmen as their adjutant-general having resigned his appointment at the last moment, Mr. Henry Joy M'Cracken, a young man respectably connected, and of an enterprising spirit, was induced to place himself in the hazardous position of chief. On the 7th of June he led a body of insurgents in an attack on the town of Antrim, where a meeting of magistrates was to have been held that day. The assault was made with great order and steadiness, and the town was carried after an hour's fighting; but the military having obtained large re-enforcements, returned to the charge, and dislodged the insurgents after a stubborn resistance. M'Cracken retired to the heights of Slemmish, with a small band of followers, who gradually dispersed; he escaped arrest until the beginning of July, when he at length fell into the hands of the royalists, and was tried and executed at Belfast on the 17th of the month.\* Unfortunately, in the latter part of the fight at Antrim, Lord O'Neill, a humane and

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\* See the beautiful and affecting account given by his sister of his trial and execution in Dr. Madden's *United Irishmen*.



popular nobleman, while entering the town with the yeomen, received some wounds from the pikemen, which caused his death a few days after. In Down the rising was more considerable, and the people had several successful conflicts with the military. At Saintfield they cut off a body of cavalry, and having marched to Ballinahinch they took up a strong position on Windmill Hill, and on some elevated ground in Lord Moira's demesne, adjoining that town. Their leader was Henry Munro, who was of Scottish descent, and, like M'Cracken, had been engaged in the linen manufacture. He possessed some knowledge of military matters, having been trained to the use of arms as a volunteer. In the disposal of his irregular force at Ballinahinch, he displayed considerable tact. On the 12th of June the royal troops under Generals Nugent and Barber marched against him from Belfast. A good deal of skirmishing took place that evening, and the army having set fire to the town passed the night in every kind of excess. Munro was urged to attack them while in the midst of their debauch, but he considered the attempt would be disgraceful, and declined. The action commenced next morning. The people had eight small cannons, mounted on common carts, but only a scanty supply of ammunition, while their adversaries, who had some heavy artillery, mowed them down with a terrific and well-sustained fire of musketry and grape.

One account describes the Monaghan regiment of militia, which was posted with two pieces of ordnance at Lord Moira's gate, as thrown into confusion by an impetuous charge of pikemen, and falling back upon the Hillsborough cavalry, which also reeled in disorder; but, in the mean time, the Argyleshire fencibles entered the demesne and attacked the insurgents on another side, and the militia regiments got time to rally. Charles Teeling, in his personal narrative, states that Munro had penetrated to the centre of the town, and that the British general had ordered a retreat, but that the sound of the bugle was mistaken by the insurgents for the signal for a fresh charge, whereupon they instantly fled. In a moment all was lost. Although hotly pursued, Munro endeavored to rally his men on the heights of Ednavady, but the royal troops almost surrounded the hill, leaving but one passage for retreat, and by this Munro led off his men, now not exceeding 150 in number. As usual on those occasions, the Irish lost more in the retreat than in the battle; but no reliance can be placed on the accounts of the numbers slain in the several conflicts during the rebellion. It was the custom of the loyalists to exaggerate extravagantly the losses of the insurgents, who of course kept no regular muster-roll; and the number of casualties on the side of the military, unless they were trifling, was studiously concealed in the official reports. Soon after the battle of Ballinahinch the



insurgents of Down surrendered their arms; Munro fled to the mountains, but was betrayed to the military, tried by court-martial, and hanged at Lisburn opposite his own door. Thus was the outbreak in Ulster suppressed.

On the 21st of June the marquis of Cornwallis assumed the civil government and supreme military command. The country having been sufficiently dragooned, he was sent over with instructions to check the ferocity of the Orange faction, and to substitute moderation for terrorism. But before the new policy was carried out, a remnant of the Wexford rebellion was still to be crushed. The inhuman tactics of General Lake in refusing protection had compelled the people to stand together in their own defence, and two large bodies of the armed peasantry quitted Wexford, one entering Wicklow and the other penetrating into the interior as far as Castlecomer, in the county of Kilkenny, where they hoped to raise the mining population. The town of Castlecomer was plundered on the 25th of June; but early on the following morning the insurgents were attacked on Kilcomney Hill by a strong military force under General Sir Charles Asgill, and after standing

a brisk cannonade for about an hour, they retreated by the Scollagh Gap in the direction of the Wicklow mountains. After their departure one of the most savage and gratuitous massacres of that sanguinary contest was perpetrated; the unoffending people of the locality, to the number of one hundred and forty, having been put to the sword by Sir Charles Asgill's orders. It is needless to follow any further the wanderings of the fugitive Wexford men, some of whom crossed the Boyne, and were finally defeated on their return southward in the vicinity of Swords. Their fine county was nearly depopulated, and in one of the districts of it called the Macomores, the diabolical project of extirminating the last remnant of the people was actually undertaken. The rebellion was now extinguished.\* On the 3d of July, Lord Cornwallis issued a proclamation of a very questionable character, authorizing the generals to grant protection to such of the insurgents as, being guilty of rebellion *only*, laid down their arms, took the oath of allegiance, and complied with other conditions. On the 17th an act of amnesty (as it was called) was passed, including all who had not been leaders in the insurrection.†

\* For some years after this the embers of the insurrection still smouldered in various parts of the country: in Robert Emmet's attempted rising in July, 1803, they flickered for a moment for the last time; and a small party of desperadoes, amidst the fastnesses of the Wicklow mountains, bid defiance for years to the attempts of government to exterminate them. The captain of these Wicklow outlaws was Michael Dwyer, a brave, honorable, active and hardy man, the very

type of an outlaw hero, whose exploits and hair-breadth escapes have all the interest of the wildest romance. He at length surrendered in December, 1803, on a promise of pardon, but was sent to Botany Bay, where he died in 1826. See the curious particulars collected about him by Dr. Madden in his *Memoirs of Robert Emmet*.

† According to the estimate generally received, the losses in the rebellion of 1798 amounted to 20,000 men



Another step in the way of conciliation on the part of the government was, to induce the principal state prisoners confined in Dublin to enter into a compromise, by which, on certain conditions, including permission to emigrate to some foreign land not at war with England, they undertook to give all the information in their power as to the internal transactions of the United Irishmen, and their negotiations with foreign States, without, however, implicating individuals; and likewise to give security not to return to Ireland without permission, or to migrate to an enemy's country. This agreement, which was brought about through the instrumentality of Mr. Dobbs, was signed by seventy-three of the state

prisoners on the 29th of July; and in pursuance of it, Mr. Arthur O'Connor, Mr. Thomas Addis Emmet, Doctor McNeven, Mr. Samuel Neilson, and others, were examined on oath before secret committees of both houses of parliament; but it was afterwards confessed that government had been already in possession, through sinister means, of all the material information elicited on this occasion; so that considering the little value of the revelations they were able to make, the prisoners purchased at a cheap rate their escape from the consequences of an unsuccessful insurrection. They originally stipulated that Mr. Oliver Bond and Mr. William Byrne, then under sentence of death, should be in-

on the side of the loyalists, and 50,000 on that of the people; the number of the latter who were put to death in cold blood greatly exceeding that of the killed in battle. Had the other counties risen like those of Wexford and Kildare, and had the people had leaders of organizing and military capacity and the necessary resources of war, or had they had the co-operation which they expected of adequate succor from France, it is more than probable that they would have succeeded in making their country independent. In Wexford, where it is admitted that the rising was not preconcerted, or connected with that of Dublin or other places, about 35,000 men are supposed to have turned out; and the force which might have been raised in the whole of Ireland in the same ratio to the population would have been enormous. Those who rose were undisciplined, unpaid, most imperfectly armed, and without even one competent leader in the field; yet to suppress the outbreak required a military force of 137,000 men—regulars, militia, and yeomanry—commanded by five general officers, and cost the government a vast amount of treasure. The secret-service money paid to informers from the 21st of August, 1797, to the 30th of September, 1801, was, according to official reports, £38,419; and the similar payments to 1804, which must be set down to the account of suppressing this rebellion, swell the amount in that particular list to £53,547. The indemnities paid to loyalists for destruction of property was

£1,500,000; the cost of the military force kept up in Ireland for three or four years was estimated at £4,000,000 per annum. In fine, the total cost of carrying the union, towards which the fomenting of the rebellion was the principal step, has been estimated by some writers at £21,500,000; by others at 30,000,000, and by others at even a higher amount. No estimate has been attempted of the destruction of the property of Catholics. A list of thirty-five Catholic chapels destroyed by the Orange yeomanry and militia in the counties of Wexford, Wicklow, Kildare, and Carlow, and the Queen's county, during the rebellion, was authenticated by the Most Rev. Dr. Troy; but this was considerably under the truth, for Mr. Cloney gives a list of thirty-three chapels burned in the county of Wexford alone during 1798 and the three succeeding years, while it is stated that only one Protestant church, that of Old Ross, was burned by the insurgents. As to the conduct of the latter, Dr. Madden observes that "throughout the rebellion there was an abundant evidence of their frenzy being more the impulse of a wild resentment against Orangeism than any spirit of hostility to the sovereign or the State."—First series, p. 349, second edition. It is right to add, that in all cases of retaliatory vengeance the insurgents invariably respected female honor, while numerous outrages to the contrary were committed by the military.



cluded in the pardon; but while the negotiations were still pending Byrne was hanged, as was likewise M'Cann and the Sheares, and Bond did not long enjoy the respite obtained for him, having died suddenly in Newgate on the 16th of September. From the act of amnesty passed on this occasion about fifty persons who had already fled beyond the seas were excluded—among others, Theobald Wolfe Tone and James Napper Tandy; and eighty-nine were compelled to go into banishment: but with respect to these latter, the compact was broken by government, twenty of the leading men being detained in prison until the 19th of March, 1799, when they were shipped to Scotland, and there immured as state prisoners in Fort George until after the peace of Amiens, which was signed in March, 1802.

When the insurrection had been suppressed, as we have seen, the country was once more thrown into a state of consternation by an unexpected after-clap in the west. On the 22d of August, 1798, a small French force of 1,060 men, besides officers, landed at Killala, under the command of General Humbert, an enterprising soldier who had risen from the ranks, and who had actually sailed with this diminutive armament without any immediate instructions from his government. He brought some arms for distribution among the people; hoisted the green flag with the motto "Erin go bragh," and invited the Irish to his standard.

The party composing the garrison of Killala having attempted to oppose his landing, were made prisoners; but the French evinced such excellent discipline, that the property, even of the loyalists, was quite safe while the town remained in their hands, and by the same orderly conduct and decorum, not less than by their gallantry before the enemy, the French maintained the high character of their national army during their stay in Ireland. It still suited the policy of the English government to keep up a feeling of terror and alarm in Ireland, and the present opportunity was turned to account for that purpose. Large masses of troops were moved to the west; Majors-general Moore and Hunter marched to the Shannon with 7,000 men; a line of posts, guarded by large bodies of yeomanry, was established through Leinster; strong re-enforcements were sent to Sligo, while the troops at the latter place were ordered into Mayo. General Lake got the command in Connaught, but Lord Cornwallis himself proceeded towards the Shannon to superintend the operations. On the 25th of August the French took possession of Ballina, where they met a more spirited resistance the preceding day than they were prepared to expect. Major-general Hutchinson, who hitherto had the command in Connaught, mustered his troops at Castlebar, where he was joined on the night of the 26th by General Lake, with a large re-enforcement. For a very in-



telligible reason there has been a studied silence observed in official accounts as to the precise number of royal troops assembled on this occasion in Castlebar, but there is ground to believe that it was not under 6,000 men, with 13 pieces of artillery. An attack from the handful of Frenchmen and their irregular Irish auxiliaries was not anticipated; but early next morning the alarm was given that the French were at hand. The attack commenced about seven in the morning. The French, estimated at about 800, with some 1,500 of the peasantry, appeared beyond a small lake, a short distance from the town. The British, drawn up in front of the town, presented a formidable line, and their artillery, which was well served, told with severe effect upon the foe; but men who had lived so long at free quarters, and who had displayed such fiendish activity in the destruction of villages and the slaughter of unarmed peasantry, could not, as Sir Ralph Abercrombie had foretold, stand before an enemy. Humbert perceiving how strongly the English were posted, and how powerful they were in artillery, contemplated retiring to Ballina, and to cover his retreat ordered General Surrazin to make a feint attack with some light troops under his command. This movement was mistaken by the English for an attempt to turn their flank, and produced an immediate panic. The opportunity was not lost upon the French general,

who, changing his plan, pressed upon the wavering enemy, and turned their disorder into a total rout. The retreat was most disgraceful. All the artillery, a great quantity of small arms, and five pair of colors were taken by the French. General Lake's official return admitted a loss of about 350 men in killed, wounded, and missing; but the amount, in truth, was much greater. A part of the Louth and Kilkenny regiments of militia remained not unwilling prisoners, and transferred their allegiance to the opposite side, for which offence ninety of them were subsequently hanged. The only stand made was by a party of Highlanders, who defended the bridge which the French were obliged to take at the point of the bayonet. Mr. Bartholomew Teeling, who, with a few other Irishmen, had accompanied Humbert from France, pursued for some distance the flying royalists in company with nine Frenchmen, and was traversing a six-pounder on an eminence to harass the fugitives, when a party of Lord Roden's light cavalry, observing the small number of the pursuers, turned and cut down four of the Frenchmen. Thus terminated what has been called the "races of Castlebar." The British retreated in disorder through Hollymount to Tuam, which place they reached that night, although nearly thirty Irish miles distant.

The news of this disaster induced Lord Cornwallis to hasten to Athlone



and move to the west with all the troops he found available. On the 2d of September he reached Tuam, and having waited for two regiments of regulars, he proceeded on the 4th to Hollymount. Here he learned that the French, who had made too long a stay at Castlebar, had marched that day to Foxford. Humbert expected re-enforcements from France, but in this he was disappointed, and his chief reliance was now on the United Irishmen, who, as he was told, were prepared to rise in Roscommon and some of the northern counties. It appeared, however, that both French and Irish were deceiving each other by vain promises. The leader of the Roscommon United Irishmen gave himself up to the Protestant bishop of Elphin on the eve of the day fixed for the rising, which, consequently, did not take place. Humbert marched through Foxford, Swineford, Ballaghy, and Tobercurry to Colooney, where, in a brisk skirmish, he routed a part of the garrison of Sligo, which Colonel Vereker had led against him; but supposing this to have been the vanguard of a large army, the French general abandoned his plan of marching to Sligo and thus penetrating to Ulster, and proceeded by Ballintogher to Manor Hamilton, whence he took a southerly course by the shore of Lough Allen. Humbert's rapid and irregular movements perplexed the English commanders; but he was closely pursued by General Lake and Colonel Crawford, while Lord Cornwallis, with the bulk of the army, crossed the Shannon at Carrick, for the purpose of intercepting his progress towards Granard. On the morning of the 8th of September, at Ballinamuck, a village in the county of Longford, near the borders of Leitrim, Humbert prepared to give battle to his pursuers. His band was now reduced to about 800 men, and his undisciplined Irish auxiliaries could render but little assistance, while the army which was closing round him exceeded 20,000 men. "Regarding their position as hopeless, 200 of the French laid down their arms at the first attack; but the remainder made a gallant resistance for a short time, capturing Lord Roden, who charged at the head of his cavalry; and General Lake then coming up with the bulk of the English army, Humbert was obliged to surrender at discretion. The French, to the number of 96 officers and 748 rank and file, became prisoners of war; but no stipulation was made for their unfortunate auxiliaries, who were pursued and slaughtered without mercy, the number of Irish slain, according to Gordon, being 500. Lord Cornwallis in his dispatch says, "numbers of them were killed on the field and in their flight." Bartholomew Teeling and Mathew, the brother of Theobald Wolfe Tone, were taken prisoners and sent to Dublin, where they were tried and executed. Mr. Richard Blake, of Galway, was also among the prisoners, and was



hanged. He had been a cavalry officer in the British service. All the horrors of the rebellion were renewed; executions were multiplied. On the 22d a body of 1,200 men, under the command of Major-general Trench, with five pieces of cannon, arrived at Killala, and the insurgents, who still held the town, having dispersed after a short but spirited resistance, the cavalry entered the place along with the crowds of the dismayed and flying people, and hewed them down in the street without resistance: about 400 men were thus slaughtered, and when there had been sufficient carnage to sate the most sanguinary appetites, the viceroy proclaimed an armistice, and allowed the people sufficient time to come in and surrender their arms. Seventy-five persons were tried by court-martial at Killala, and a hundred and ten at Ballina. Such was the boasted "lenity" of Lord Cornwallis.

Humbert's quixotic enterprise was part of a plan that had been concerted by the French directory with some of the Irish refugees, to send small detachments from different ports into Ireland; and although he had actually sailed without orders, and had on his own responsibility levied contributions on the merchants of Rochelle for the outfit of his ships and men, still it was resolved that he should not be abandoned, and another small expedition, consisting of one 74 gun ship, eight frigates, and two smaller vessels, with a land force of 3,000 men, under Gen-

eral Hardy, was got ready for sea, and sailed from Brest on the 20th of September, before the news of Humbert's surrender had reached France. Four Irish refugees accompanied this expedition, one of whom, Theobald Wolfe Tone, embarked in the commodore's ship, the *Hoche*. Such paltry attempts at invasion, could, at best, only serve to keep alive the embers of the Irish insurrection. They were unworthy the great nation by which they were made, and were fraught with ruin to the unhappy Irish, who felt that they had been deserted by the only country to which they could look for aid, and which, by inspiring delusive hopes, had hurried them into a most disastrous civil war. On the other hand we know that the revenue of France was at that time in a crippled state, that her military resources were wielded by Bonaparte for his own ambitious purposes elsewhere; that her navy was in so wretched a condition that no armament could be shipped with safety from her coast, and that in fact she was not in a position to render efficient aid to Ireland, however inclined to do so. The English had notice of Hardy's expedition before it sailed, and when four ships of the squadron, after encountering heavy gales, arrived off Lough Swilly on the 12th of October, they were encountered by four British sail of the line and a frigate. A terrific action ensued; the *Hoche* had to bear the brunt of the battle alone. "During six hours,"



says Wolfe Tone's son, "she sustained the whole fire of the fleet, till her masts and rigging were swept away, her scuppers flowed with blood, her wounded filled the cockpit, her shattered ribs yawned at each new stroke, and let in five feet of water in the hold, her rudder was carried off, and she floated a dismantled wreck on the waters." At length she struck. During the action Wolfe Tone commanded one of the batteries, fighting with desperation and courting death, but still untouched in the shower of balls. For some time after the capture he was confounded with the French officers, but being recognized among them at the earl of Cavan's table by an old fellow-student, Sir George Hill, was ironed, sent to Dublin, and tried by court-martial on the 10th of November. He made no attempt to deny the charge against him, but read a vindication of his motives, and only requested that he might be shot, not hanged. This request was not granted, and rather than submit to the ignominy of dying like a felon, he attempted to destroy his own life by cutting his throat with a pen-knife the morning fixed for his execution. The wound was not mortal, and he would have been taken to the scaffold had not the court of king's bench interfered. On a motion grounded on the affidavit of the prisoner's father, Mr. Curran argued in a powerful speech that the sentence was illegal. He showed that the prisoner, not

holding any commission in the British army, should have been tried before the ordinary tribunals, and not by a court-martial, and finally an order was made by the chief-justice, Lord Kilwarden (Wolfe), to stay the execution. Eight days after poor Tone died from the effects of the wound in his throat.

"Mr. Pitt," says Sir Jonah Barrington, "now conceived that the moment had arrived to try the effect of his previous measures to promote a legislative union, and annihilate the Irish legislature. The royalists were still struggling through the embers of a rebellion, scarcely extinguished by the torrents of blood which had been poured upon them; the insurgents were artfully distracted between the hopes for mercy and the fear of punishment; the viceroy had seduced the Catholics by delusive hopes of emancipation, whilst the Protestants were equally assured of their ascendancy, and every encouragement was held out to the sectarians. Lord Cornwallis and Lord Castlereagh seemed to have been created for such a crisis and for each other. An unremitting perseverance, an absence of all political compunctions, an unqualified contempt of public opinion, and a disregard of every constitutional principle, were common to both."\* The Union was first proposed indirectly in a speech from the throne on the 22d of Jan-

\* *Rise and Fall of the Irish Nation*, pp 463, 465, ed 1843.



uary, 1799. The project was next announced openly in a pamphlet written by Mr. Under-secretary Cooke, which was replied to in one by Mr. (afterwards lord-chancellor) Plunkett. The question was discussed at a meeting of the Irish bar, on the 9th of December that year; when the division was, against the union, 166; in favor of it, 32. Five debates on the subject took place in the Irish House of Commons. On the one side, it was pretended that there was no safety for Ireland except in the arms of England; on the other, it was insisted by the ablest lawyers that the parliament was incompetent even to entertain the question of a union. "Such," says Barrington, "was the opinion of Mr. Saurin, since attorney-general; Mr. Plunkett, since lord-chancellor; Sergeant Ball, the ablest lawyer of Ireland; Mr. Fitzgerald, prime serjeant of Ireland; Mr. Moore, since a judge; Sir John Parnell, then chancellor of the exchequer; Mr. Bushe, since chief-justice; and Lord Oriel, the then speaker of the House of Commons." Such was also the opinion of Grattan, Curran, Ponsonby, Burrowes, and other eminent men. But the statesmen who had waded to this measure through the blood of a nation were not to be diverted from it now by the arguments of lawyers in or out of parliament. It is a remarkable fact that many of

those persons who were officially concerned in the accomplishment of the union destroyed their papers, for the obvious purpose of burying, if possible, in oblivion the flagitious means employed to carry it;\* but these means were too notorious at the time, and too many historic evidences of them have been preserved, to leave the matter in any obscurity. The most nefarious corruption was openly practised. Votes were publicly bought and sold. Money, titles, offices, were given as bribes in the face of day. Whatever the public conduct of Lord Cornwallis might have been, and it was bad enough, he was capable of feeling and acknowledging in private the abominable nature of the work he was obliged to do. Writing to his friend, General Ross, he uses the following most significant expressions: "I trust I shall live to get out of this most cursed of all situations, and most repugnant to my feelings. How I long to kick those whom my public duty obliges me to court!" And, again, addressing the same friend on the 8th of June, 1799, he writes: "My occupation is now of the most unpleasant nature, negotiating and jobbing with the most corrupt people under heaven. I despise and hate myself every hour for engaging in such dirty work, and am supported only by the reflection that without a union the British empire must be dissolved."

\* See the important statement made on this subject in the preface to the *Cornwallis Correspondence*, to which publication, and that of the letters and papers of

Lord Castlereagh, the reader is referred for a great deal of important information relative to the passing of the union.



The now published correspondence of both Lord Castlereagh and Lord Cornwallis contain abundant disclosures to show the dark and disgraceful nature of these transactions.\* Lord Castlereagh publicly announced a tariff of corruption under the guise of "compensation." For each rotten borough the price fixed was from £14,000 to £16,000; each member who had purchased his seat was to be repaid the amount of the purchase-money from the public treasury; all who might be otherwise losers by the union were to be compensated for their losses, and for that purpose a vote of £1,500,000 was demanded; but these sums were quite distinct from those paid for the private purchase of votes, which in some instances were enormous. The entire amount paid for the rotten boroughs, at an average of £15,000 each, was £1,260,000, of which the marquis of Downshire received £52,000 for his share, the marquis of Ely,

£45,000, the earl of Shannon as much, Lord Clanmorris, £23,000 and a peerage, Lord Belvidere, £15,000, and other great proprietors in proportion to the number of boroughs at their disposal.

The last session of the Irish parliament was opened on the 15th of January, 1800. The viceroy's speech contained no allusion to the great question of the day, and the omission gave rise to many conjectures; but on the 5th of February Lord Castlereagh read a message from the lord-lieutenant to the House of Commons, formally bringing forward the measure of a legislative union. Every preparation had been made during the preceding year for this event, and, on the motion for taking the message into consideration, the ministry had a majority of 158 to 115; 27 members being absent. This division was decisive in the opinion of the government; but, considering all the engines of corruption, per-

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\* The attempts of the English ministers to repudiate the promises made by their agents in Ireland elicited some strange admissions on the part of the latter. Thus, in a letter of the 21st June, 1800, to Mr. Cooke, who was then in England, Lord Castlereagh permits himself to use some strong and significant expressions. "It will be no secret," writes the unprincipled statesman, "what has been promised, *and by what means the union has been carried*. Disappointment will encourage, not prevent, disclosures; and the only effect of such a proceeding on their (the ministers') part will be, to add the weight of their testimony to that of the *anti-unionists, in proclaiming the profligacy of the means by which the measure has been accomplished*. . . . I should hope, if Lord Cornwallis has been the person to buy out and secure to the crown forever the fee-simple of Irish corruption, that he is not to be the first sacrifice to his own exertions." And writing to Lord

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Camden on the 25th of the same month, his lordship delicately alludes to the corruption in which they had so deeply dealt in order to carry the union: "The Irish government is certainly now liable to the charge of having gone too far in complying with the demands of individuals; but had the union miscarried, and the failure been traceable to a reluctance on the part of government to interest a sufficient number of supporters in its success, I am inclined to think we should have met with, and in fact deserved, less mercy. Several of our supporters were speculating on which side the strength would ultimately lie, and things were so balanced as to enable single individuals, conversant with cabal, to produce a very serious impression. If reluctance is felt on your side of the water to the accomplishment of the proposed favors, be assured they were not entertained and promised without much pain by Lord Cornwallis."



suasion, and intimidation that had been so long at work, it is wonderful that the minority was so large. The incorruptible purity of 115 members, under such extraordinary circumstances, redounds to the honor of that Irish House of Commons which, with a proper measure of reform, might have been rendered so excellent. In the upper house, where Lord Clare domineered with a browbeating style of oratory that was peculiar to himself, the ministerial majority was 75 to 26. The progress of the measure through its various stages occupied the interval to the 1st of August, on which day the royal assent was given to the Act of Union. On the 1st of January, 1801, the act came into operation, and from that date Ireland ceased to be a distinct kingdom; for an independent legislature she received an inoperative minority in the imperial parliament; her local interests were no longer under the care of her own representatives; her debt accumulated; her taxation multiplied to an excessive amount; her commerce fell into decay; her nobility and gentry became absentees; her wealth was drained into another country, with scarcely any appreciable return; and in exchange for all these sacrifices she acquired—the honor of being an integral portion of the British empire!

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## CHAPTER XLIV.

### CATHOLIC EMANCIPATION.—TWO YEARS OF THE UNION.

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**Influence of the Union measure upon politics.**—Deception of the English government.—William Pitt and King George III.—Course of Lord Cornwallis.—Michael Dwyer in the mountains of Wicklow.—Alarm as to French invasion.—Catholic emancipation.—Views of the king and William Pitt.—Pitt resigns.—Cornwallis also.—Addington ministry.—General state of the country.—Military force in Ireland.—Debates in parliament as to martial law and suspension of *habeas corpus*.—Peace of Amiens.—Efforts of United Irishmen in Paris.—Lord Redesdale succeeds Earl of Clare.—Relief of disabilities sought by Presbyterians and Catholics.—Lord Castlereagh's statements on the subject.—Extracts from his letter to Mr. Addington.—Apprehensions of a renewed invasion by the French.—Fears as to Ireland.—Military force in the country.—Outbreak in Limerick and Tipperary.—Need of raising militia and yeomanry.—Doubts as to numbers to be sent by the French, and the effect produced.

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(A. D. 1800 TO A. D. 1803.)

**T**HUS, as has been related in the preceding chapter, was effected the Union between the kingdoms of England and Ireland. We need not dwell upon the means which were used, nor upon the many questions



which arise out of this act of Union; but it deserves to be noted, that the course which had been pursued gave birth to new subjects of discord, and gave a new character to the political agitations of subsequent years. As we have seen, William Pitt and his colleagues left no means untried to accomplish the end they had in view, and George III., equally eager to accomplish the same object, did not scruple to allow promises to be made which he probably never intended to keep. The appointment of Lord Cornwallis, in June, 1793, to the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland had been considered as indicating a more popular and gentler line of policy than had heretofore been pursued; but it is questionable whether the king or the ministry meant to carry out this policy in good faith. Thus there was more or less deception everywhere; and there was, beneath the surface, distrust between the king and his cabinet, and no less distrust between the heads of government in England and Lord Cornwallis in Ireland. It is in the private correspondence of Lord Castlereagh (see note, page 707), who was so largely influential in bringing about the Union, that we get a full view of the distrust and lack of confidence which existed. From the same quarter we learn that Cornwallis, the successor of the harsh and unpopular Camden, was by no means acceptable to the tory party, and was rather tolerated than approved by the king.

The point on which, no doubt, a great deception was practised by the English government was that of Catholic emancipation, which, if it was not directly promised in plain words, was so openly held out as a consequence to result from the Union, that no one could understand it otherwise than as an implied condition. Yet it is highly probable that Pitt knew well enough that it would never be granted, and it is certain that George III., while he allowed it to be promised, was fully resolved that the promise should not be fulfilled. Cornwallis remonstrated against this unhandsome course, and felt himself placed in a very embarrassing and vexatious position. Lord Castlereagh also wrote, in plain and strong terms, as to what must result if the ministry repudiated the engagements which had been entered into by the lord-lieutenant.\*

These earnest remonstrances produced considerable effect, and the king, alarmed at the opposition which he met with, subsequently waved or kept in abeyance his objections. Cornwallis, however, sensible that he was in an awkward position, soon after took measures to obtain his recall. His government was marked by a general tranquillity. The implied promise of emancipation had done much to secure this tranquillity, and none yet knew, even if they suspected, that this promise was deceptive.

\* See chapter xliii., note p. 707.



Michael Dwyer, with a few followers in the mountains of Wicklow, was all that remained of the late formidable rebellion,\* and the symptoms of discontent in other parts of the country were few and inconsiderable; yet the government was well aware that the elements of insurrection were still ready at hand, and that the disaffected were kept in subjection only by fear or want of means to carry out their plans. Hence the utmost alarm was excited, during the latter part of the year 1800, by new threats of invasion from France. In this connection, Cornwallis avowed his conviction that, if foreign enemies landed in Ireland, a great portion of the population would rise up and join them.

The question of making concessions to the Catholics assumed great importance at the beginning of the present century. The unwillingness of George III. to make these concessions is well known; and though he allowed and encouraged promises and expectations to be held out as an inducement to support the measure of the Union, yet he seems to have made up his mind from the first not to do any thing further in this respect than he was compelled. Just before the opening of parliament the question began to be publicly agitated, and the intentions of the English government were gradually made known. Mr. Pitt, the prime minister, was, to all appearance, in favor of allowing, to some extent,

the claims and hopes of those who had supported the Union on these grounds; but when the matter came up in cabinet council it met with such strong opposition, especially on the part of the king, that Pitt felt it necessary to resign. His retirement from the ministry was followed, as might be expected, by the resignation of Lord Cornwallis. There were many, however, who believed that Pitt was not sincere. They said that he had gone out of office merely to save appearances; that he would pretend to support the Catholics until their opponents had consolidated their strength; and that when they had no longer any hope of obtaining their desires, he would return to the cabinet and resist them on the plea of expediency. The Addington administration succeeded in England, and Lord Hardwicke was sent to take charge of the government in Ireland.

During the two years which followed the accomplishment of the Union few events of importance occurred in Ireland. The country remained tolerably tranquil, though it had been much distressed by the exhaustion consequent upon long political agitation and by the failure of the crops, especially of the potatoes; yet all serious expression of discontent was checked by the great military force now established, and the Catholics had formed new hopes from Pitt's retirement from office, and there-

\* Dwyer surrendered in December, 1803, on a promise of pardon, but was sent to Botany Bay, where he

died in 1826. See chapter xlv., pp. 715, 716, for some of his adventures.



fore refrained from active measures. Under these circumstances, the question of Catholic emancipation was not brought directly before the imperial parliament during its first session; but there were some warm debates in both houses on the bills for the continuance of martial law in Ireland, and for the suspension of the *habeas corpus*. These had been among the last acts of the Irish parliament, and had been called for by the state of the country at the close of the rebellion. The first empowered the lord-lieutenant and council to declare any county in a state of insurrection, on a report to that effect by a certain number of the magistrates; and upon this the magistrates were authorized to apprehend a person accused of being abroad after nine o'clock at night, or of aiding in any disturbance, and bring him before a petty session of two or three justices of the peace, by whom, without the intervention of a jury, he might be condemned to transportation as a disorderly person. There was reserved to the prisoner a right of appeal to a general sessions; but a very brief period was given for this appeal, which rendered it almost nugatory to the Irish peasantry, who were in general ignorant of the mode of proceeding, and not in a position to obtain advice. By strong urgency and fearful pictures of the actual state of Ireland, in regard to the safety of person and property, martial law was continued in force in the country.

Soon after the Addington ministry entered upon office negotiations were commenced with France, which ended in the peace of Amiens, concluded in March, 1802. During these negotiations opportunities were afforded to the leaders of the United Irishmen in Paris to send agents secretly to Ireland, and initiate new movements of resistance against the English government. On the death of the Earl of Clare, Mitford, speaker of the House of Commons, was raised to the peerage as Lord Redesdale, and was appointed the Earl of Clare's successor as lord-chancellor of Ireland; Charles Abbott was elected speaker in his place, and the chief secretaryship in Ireland was conferred upon Mr. Wickham.

A question of moment was at this time brought forward with regard to the Irish Church. The hopes held out to the Catholics naturally excited similar hopes in the Presbyterians and other dissenters from the Church of England, and they also sought relief from disabilities under which they labored. The question alluded to was that of making a government provision for the clergy of these two great bodies, Catholics and Presbyterians, in Ireland. The Presbyterians, however, on this occasion separated their claims from those of the other Protestant dissenters, and desired to obtain such benefits as they could without connection with others. The sentiments of Lord Castlereagh, as being one of the most active and efficient agents of the



English government in carrying out its plans, are worthy of note in this connection. Writing to Mr. Addington, under date of July 21, 1802, he says: "There is much in this body (the Presbyterian synod) which requires amendment, and much may be done by an efficient protection and support given on the part of the government to those who have committed themselves in support of the State against a democratic party in the synod, several of whom, if not engaged in the rebellion, were deeply infected with its principles. In the English Church, which is naturally attached to the State, schism might be dreaded as weakening its interests; but in such a body as the Presbyterians of Ireland, who, though consequently a branch of the Church of Scotland, have partaken so deeply, first, of the popular, and since, of the democratic politics of the country, as to be an object much more of jealousy than of support to government, I am of opinion that it is only through a considerable internal fermentation of the body, coupled with some change of system, that it will put on a different temper and acquire better habits. . . . . You will naturally infer, from what I have stated, that my opinion still continues strongly in favor of coupling regulation with the proposed increase of the Regium Donum." Much correspondence ensued on this particular point, and men of note among the Presbyterians, like Alexander Knox and others, favored the plan proposed; but the subject was

dropped amid the excitement caused by renewed threats of a French invasion.

Lord Castlereagh, under the date given above, applies the same general remarks, which he has already made, to the Catholics, a far more numerous body, and, as he believed, much more easily reconciled to the plans and wishes of the government. "Having," he says, "a hierarchy of their own, they are less alive upon the principle of subordination than the Presbyterians. Since I last had the pleasure of conversing with you on this measure, I have endeavored to find out what the temper and wishes of the Catholic clergy and laity are upon this subject. . . . . I mentioned to you that Dr. Moylan, whom I look upon as one of the most discreet and respectable of the body, had expressed to Lord Cornwallis, in London, a conviction that the Roman Catholic clergy would, under the present circumstances, gratefully accept a provision from the State. I have since had reason to know that Dr. Troy, titular archbishop of Dublin, holds the same language. I am inclined to infer that these two persons speak the sentiments of the body of their clergy. Lord Fingall lately, to a friend of mine, expressed similar opinions and wishes on his own part that the measure was taken up. . . . . The well-disposed Catholics, both clergy and laity, are sincerely desirous that this measure should be accomplished, and would solicit it in the most earnest





ROBERT EMMET.

THE PATRIOT & MARTYR OF 1803.

NEW YORK. THOMAS KELLY.







manner from government, if they had reason to know that their wishes would be gratified; yet, as things now stand, I do not conceive that it could be either expected or indeed desired that they should make the application. . . . To soften religious contention and animosity in Ireland, and to bring it gradually to a temper which shall, in future wars, deprive our foreign enemies of a certain ally in the resentful feelings of one of two contending parties, some effort must be made by the State to mitigate the struggle, which I see no means it has of accomplishing, if seven-eighths of our population are to remain wholly out of the reach of any species of influence or authority, other than that of the mere operation of the law."

Towards the close of the year 1802 apprehensions of a renewal of the war with the French began to be generally prevalent, and the preparations known to be going on in France caused the English government to suspect that Bonaparte meditated some hostile attack upon England. As Ireland was considered to be the weak point, and it was known that a few United Irishmen in Paris were in communication with the French government, the alarm was greatest in the sister kingdom, and the private correspondence of its ministers at this period relates chiefly to the necessity of increasing its defensive force. The effective military force in that kingdom was rated at twenty thousand men. It was said to be the

intention of the English ministry to increase it to twenty-five thousand; but it was considered also necessary to arm again either the militia or the volunteers. The objection to the volunteers was the strong religious animosity which they had shown in the late outbreak,\* while the militia had been far from steady in their loyalty. Numbers of them had, in 1798, joined the ranks of the insurgents, and at this very moment disbanded militia-men were actively engaged in exciting and organizing insurrection in the south. The alleged grounds for rebellion were the dearness of potatoes, and a grievance in Ireland, the right of the old tenants to retain possession of their farms. The peasantry were urged to rise and demand that a fixed price should be established for potatoes, and to oppose the introduction of strangers to the occupation of farmers. The disturbances were very general throughout the counties of Limerick and Tipperary, and extended partially into that of Waterford; but they were suppressed at the close of the year.

Although this insurrection was suppressed without serious difficulty, yet the government was aware of the necessity of raising militia and yeomanry to aid in preserving order, while the regular troops were employed against the invaders, who were expected ere long to appear. It was felt and avowed by the authorities in Ireland, that if

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\* See chapter xliii., p. 663



the French were able to send over 15,000 to 25,000 men, they were wholly unable to oppose their progress. It was also felt that any success on the part of the invading force would be fatal to the reputation and influence of the existing government in Ireland.

At the time, however, when there was an anxious estimating of the available military force in Ireland, an attempt at revolution had been made in the capital, the particulars of which will be given in our next chapter.

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## CHAPTER XLV.

### INSURRECTION UNDER ROBERT EMMET

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Early life, family, and education of Robert Emmet.—Visits the continent.—Joins the United Irishmen in Paris.—Fate of Colonel Despard's conspiracy.—Emmet returns to Dublin.—His labors, resources, and hopes.—Contrivances in his country-house and in Dublin.—His confidants and co-workers.—Michael Dwyer and his adventures.—Emmet's expectations.—Reasons for hastening the insurrection.—Plans of Emmet.—Remarkable address of the provisional government "to the people of Ireland."—On the day appointed, few come forward to join in the outbreak.—Events of the evening of July 23d.—Cruel murder of Lord Kilwarden.—Course of the authorities.—Emmet's flight.—Arrested.—Russell arrested and executed.—Trial of Emmet.—Speech of Plunkett.—The prisoner's eloquent address to the court.—Executed the next day.—Numerous arrests and imprisonments.

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(A. D. 1803.)

**R**OBERT EMMET, the son of Dr. Robert Emmet, physician to the lord-lieutenant, was one of the United Irishmen, and partook largely of the spirit which animated that association. His elder brother was Thomas Addis Emmet, who had been brought up to the bar, and who, in consequence of his share in the rising of 1798, had been placed in confinement at Fort George, in Scotland. Robert Emmet was one of the nineteen students expelled from Trinity College, in 1798, by order of the visitors, Lord Clare and Dr. Duigenan. His reputation as a scholar and debater, and his earnest, ardent temperament, naturally gave rise to high expectations as to the part he was destined to play in his country's affairs. In 1800 he visited his brother at Fort George, and soon afterwards passed over to the continent, where he travelled in Switzerland, Holland, and France. Having joined his brother's family in Paris, he entered heartily into the plans and purposes of the



United Irishmen, and became sanguine of success under the promises of Bonaparte and Talleyrand. Acting upon these sentiments, and also aware that war would speedily break out again between England and France, Emmet returned to Dublin, in October, 1802, and set himself diligently at work to accomplish the great object of his desires.

Previously to this, a conspiracy had been set on foot by Colonel Despard, in London. He had sent over to Ireland a person named Dowdall as his agent, and to see what were the prospects of success for the contemplated outbreak. Dowdall seems to have acted imprudently, and indulged in too great freedom of speech; the consequence of which was that the government soon knew all about the plot going on in London. Despard was arrested, and in February, 1803, with nine of his followers, was put to death. Dowdall escaped to Paris, and aided his fellow-laborers in their preparations to the extent of his ability and influence.

Emmet, undismayed by the fate of Despard's conspiracy, worked unceasingly in carrying out his plans. By the recent death of his father he had come into possession of about £2,000. Mr. Long, a merchant in Dublin, had placed at his disposal some £1,500. With such slender financial resources the ardent young Irishman was ready to undertake the overthrow of the government, and the emancipation of his country

from English rule. His conviction was, soon after his return to Dublin, that nineteen out of the thirty-two counties would rise; and he counted largely upon help from France to accomplish this end, and render it effective throughout Ireland.

For a time, Emmet concealed himself in his father's country-house at Clonsheagh on the Dundrum road. "An old and faithful servant of Dr. Emmet," says the writer of the memoirs of the United Irishmen, "Michael Leonard, a gardener, informed me, in 1836, that after the doctor's death a member of the family still resided there, and Robert Emmet remained there for some time; he had made trap-doors, and a passage under the boards of one of the rooms on the ground-floor, which could not be detected by any one who was not aware of their existence, which he thought he would be able to still point out to me. I visited the house with Leonard, and found his account was in every respect true. In the ceiling, over the passage leading from the hall door towards the kitchen, he pointed out to me the place where the boards overhead were sawed through; the square portion thus cut was sufficiently large to allow a person to pass through, when the boards were removed which formed the trap-door, communicating from the upper part of the house to the hall. If attention had not been directed to it, no one would have observed the cutting in the boards. On the ground-floor, on



the left hand side of the hall, there is a small room adjoining the kitchen, which was called 'Master Robert's bedroom.' In this room Leonard likewise pointed out to me the place where boards had been evidently cut through, in a similar way to the trap-door in the ceiling in the passage. This aperture, he said, led to a cavity under the parlor floor, sufficiently large to admit of a person being placed there in a sitting posture, and was intended to communicate, under the flooring, with the lawn. A servant woman of Mr. Stapleton, the present possessor of the house, said there were some old things in a cellar, which were said to have served for enabling Mr. Emmet to descend from the upper floor to the passage near the hall door, through the aperture in the ceiling. On examining those things they turned out to be two pulleys, with ropes attached to them, nearly rotten."

In March, 1803, Emmet left the house just spoken of, and took up his residence, under a feigned name, in a small building at Harold's Cross, near the canal bridge, in the same neighborhood where once Lord Edward Fitzgerald had concealed himself. The same contrivances were resorted to for carrying out his designs; but in April he removed to a house in Butterfield Lane, in the vicinity of Rathfarnham, where he went by the name of Ellis. This spot was chosen, probably, because it was convenient for communicating with the mountains of Wicklow.

Emmet had among his confidants and helpers Thomas Russell and James Hope, the former of whom went into Ulster to reunite the republicans in the north. He had also entered into communication with Michael Dwyer, who still held out at the head of a few desperate followers in the Wicklow Mountains, and who was to assemble the peasantry, and to march down upon Dublin to his assistance, on the signal being given that his help was wanted for the cause.

The adventures of Dwyer were of the most romantic description, and furnish a graphic picture of the troubled state of Ireland at this period. His principal place of refuge was a deep glen called Emall or Innel, where he lived with his followers in a subterranean cave, lined with wood and moss, the entrance to which was covered with a large sod cut out of a tuft of heath. They remained in this retreat all day, and took to the mountains at night. One of Dwyer's adventures at this time, which has been often told, and furnished the subject of a popular little poem by Mrs. Tighe, shows us the fidelity with which the outlawed chief was served by his men. One stormy night he and nine of his comrades were out in the glen, and had taken shelter in two houses, communicating with each other, six in one and four in the other, Dwyer himself being one of the four. It appears that they had gone to bed, unconscious of danger; but a traitor had carried intelligence of their



place of retreat to a barrack at no great distance. A little before break of day the house in which Dwyer slept was surrounded by a party of Highlanders, commanded by Colonel McDonald. Dwyer heard the tramp of the soldiers, and he immediately aroused his companions, who were some of his most devoted followers; a deserter from the Antrim militia, named Samuel McAlister, a man named Savage, and another named Costello, who had been a tailor. On being summoned to surrender, Dwyer first bargained that the family who occupied the house should be allowed to quit it; and when they were gone, he prepared for a desperate defence. He and McAlister had each a blunderbuss and a case of pistols, with which they fired a number of times, and several of the military were killed or wounded. The latter had, however, succeeded in setting fire to the house, and when it was becoming no longer tenable, a musket-shot broke McAlister's arm. He then said to Dwyer, "I am done; but you have a chance of escape. Load your blunderbuss, and give it to me; and while you crouch on your hands and feet, I will open the door and discharge the blunderbuss; they will fire at me, and you may escape before they can load again." Dwyer acted upon his brave friend's suggestion, who, as he prepared to open the door, said to him, "Now let me see how you can spring!" As McAlister expected, the soldiers discharged their volley at the door, and

he and the two others were killed. Dwyer made a desperate spring across a little stream which ran near by; but he slipped down on some ice which had formed near a barn-door. Shots were fired at him, one of which grazed his shoulder. Dwyer, however, recovered his feet, and fled across an adjoining field; and one of the Highlanders threw down his musket and followed him. This circumstance saved Dwyer's life, for the soldiers were afraid to fire again lest they should kill their comrade, who followed Dwyer so close that he was obliged to stop suddenly and trip him up. The Highlanders had been joined by another body of soldiers, and they continued the pursuit through the glen of Emall, until at Slaney they were obliged to desist, on account of the flooded state of the river across which he had passed. The six men in the other house having been captured, one of them turned informer, and the other five were hanged.

It seems hardly credible that Emmet could hope to accomplish his design of making Ireland free and independent, considering the very inadequate means he possessed for such a purpose; nevertheless, firmly persuaded that the country at large would join in the insurrection, he persevered in manufacturing arms, ammunition, and stores, and established in Dublin several secret magazines and workshops. An accidental explosion of combustibles in one of these depots in Patrick-street, on the 16th of July, nearly led to the discov



ery of the conspiracy. The authorities were excited to fresh vigilance, and vague suspicions were entertained of some plot against public order and tranquillity.

Alarmed at the prospect of discovery, Emmet seems to have resolved upon anticipating the date originally fixed for the commencement of the outbreak. On communicating with his co-workers, he determined to proceed to action on the night of the 23d of July. His plans were set forth quite at large in a paper sent to his brother in Paris. It evinces the care and study which he had given to the subject, and is worthy of examination by the student of history. We are sorry that our limits do not admit of quoting the paper in full; for it is an extraordinary and curiously complicated plan of getting possession of Dublin, formed by a young man without military experience, and with preparations unequal to the end proposed.

There is, however, another document, elaborately drawn up, and very characteristic of the tone and spirit of Robert Emmet. It is so interesting in itself, as well as suggestive to all who love Ireland, that we give the document entire. It was entitled:

*"The Provisional Government to the People of Ireland:*

"You are now called upon to show the world that you are competent to take your place among nations; that you have a right to claim their recog-

nizance of you as an independent country, by the only satisfactory proof you can furnish of your capability of maintaining your independence—your wresting it from England with your own hands.

"In the development of this system which has been organized within the last eight months—at the close of internal defeat, and without the hope of foreign assistance—which has been conducted with a tranquillity mistaken for obedience, which neither the failure of a similar attempt in England has retarded, nor the renewal of hostilities has accelerated; in the development of this system you will show to the people of England that there is a spirit of perseverance in this country beyond their power to calculate or repress; you will show to them that as long as they think to hold unjust dominion over Ireland, under no change of circumstances can they count on its obedience, under no aspect of affairs can they judge of its intentions; you will show to them that the question which it now behooves them to take into serious consideration is not whether they will resist a separation, which it is our fixed determination to effect, but whether or not they will drive us beyond separation—whether they will, by a sanguinary resistance, create a deadly national antipathy between the two countries, or whether they will take the only means still left of driving such a sentiment from our minds, by a prompt, manly, and sagacious acquiescence in our just



and reasonable determination. If the secrecy with which the present effort has been conducted shall have led our enemies to suppose that its extent must have been partial, a few days will undeceive them. That confidence, which was once lost by trusting to external support, and suffering our own means to be gradually undermined, has been again restored. We have been mutually pledged to each other to look only to our own strength, and that the first introduction of a system of terror, the first attempt to execute an individual in one county, should be the signal of insurrection in all. We have now, without the loss of a man—with our means of communication untouched—brought our plans to the moment when they are ripe for execution; and in the promptitude with which nineteen counties will come forward at once to execute them, it will be found that neither confidence nor communication are wanting to the people of Ireland.

“In calling on our countrymen to come forward, we feel ourselves bound, at the same time, to justify our claim to their confidence by a precise declaration of our views. We therefore solemnly declare *that our object is to establish* A FREE AND INDEPENDENT REPUBLIC IN IRELAND; that the pursuit of this object we will relinquish only with our lives; that we will never, unless at the express call of our country, abandon our posts until the acknowledgment of its independence is obtained from England; and that we will enter into

no negotiation, but for exchange of prisoners, with the government of that country, while a British army remains in Ireland. Such is the declaration on which we call first on that part of Ireland which was once paralyzed by the want of intelligence, to show that to that cause only was its inaction to be attributed; on that part of Ireland which was once foremost in its fortitude in suffering; on that part of Ireland which once offered to take the salvation of the country on itself; on that part of Ireland where the flame of liberty first glowed: we call upon the North to stand up and shake off their slumber and their oppression.

“Men of Leinster! stand to your arms; to the courage which you have already displayed is your country indebted; for the confidence which truth feels in its own strength; and for the dismay with which our enemies will be overcome when they find this effort to be universal. But, men of Leinster you owe more to your country than the having animated it by your past example; you owe more to your own courage than the having obtained protection by it. If, six years ago, you rose without arms, without plan, without co-operation, with more troops against you alone than are now in the country at large, you were able to remain six weeks in open defiance of the government, and within a few miles of the capital, what will you now effect, with that capital and every other part of Ireland ready to support you?



“But it is not on this head we have need to address you. No, we now speak to you, and through you to the rest of Ireland, on a subject dear to us, even as the success of our country—its honor. You are accused by your enemies of having violated that honor by excesses, which they themselves had in their fullest extent provoked, but which they have grossly exaggerated, and which have been attributed to you. The opportunity for vindicating yourselves by actions is now, for the first time, in your power; and we call upon you to give the lie to such assertions, by carefully avoiding all appearance of intoxication, plunder, or revenge, recollecting that you lost Ireland before, not from want of courage, but from not having that courage rightly directed by discipline. But we trust that your past sufferings have taught you experience, and that you will respect the declaration we now make, which we are determined, by every means in our power, to enforce. The nation alone has the right, and alone possesses the power of punishing individuals; and whosoever shall put another to death, except in battle, without a fair trial by his country, is guilty of murder. The intention of the provisional government of Ireland is to claim from the English government such Irishmen as have been sold or transported by it for their attachment to freedom; and for this purpose it will retain, as hostages for their safe return, such adherents of that government as shall fall into its hands.

It therefore calls upon the people to respect such hostages, and to recollect that in spilling their blood they would leave their own countrymen in the hands of their enemies.

“The intention of the provisional government is to resign its functions as soon as the nation shall have chosen its delegates; but in the mean time it is determined to enforce the regulations hereunto subjoined: it, in consequence, takes the property of the country under its protection, and will punish with the utmost rigor any person who shall violate that property, and thereby injure the resources and future prosperity of Ireland.

“Whosoever refuses to march to any part of the country he is ordered, is guilty of disobedience to the government, which alone is competent to decide in what place his service is necessary, and which desires him to recollect that in whatever part of Ireland he is fighting, he is still fighting for freedom. Whoever presumes, by act or otherwise, to give countenance to the calumny propagated by our enemies, that this is a religious contest, is guilty of the grievous crime—that of belying the motive of the country. Religious disqualifications are but one of the many grievances of which Ireland has to complain. Our intention is to remove not that only, but every other oppression under which we labor. We fight that all of us may have our country; and that done, each of us shall have our religion.



“ We are aware of the apprehensions which you have expressed, that in quitting your own counties you leave your wives and your children in the hands of your enemies; but on this head have no uneasiness. If there are still men base enough to persecute those who are unable to resist, show them by your victories that you have the power to punish; and by your obedience that you have the power to protect; and we pledge ourselves to you, that these men shall be made to feel that the safety of every thing they hold dear depends on the conduct they observe to you. Go forth, then, with confidence; conquer the foreign enemies of your country, and leave to us the care of preserving its internal tranquillity: recollect that not only the victory, but also the honor of your country is placed in your hands. Give up your private resentments, and show to the world that the Irish are not only a brave, but also a generous and forgiving people.

“ Men of Munster and Connaught! you have your instructions; you will execute them. The example of the rest of your countrymen is now before you; your own strength is unbroken; five months ago you were eager to act without any other assistance; we now call upon you to show what you then declared you only wanted—the opportunity of proving that you possess the same love of liberty and the same courage with which the rest of your countrymen are animated.

“ We now turn to that portion of our countrymen whose prejudices we had rather overcome by a frank declaration of our intentions, than conquer in the field; and in making this declaration we do not wish to dwell on events, which, however they may bring tenfold odium on their authors, must still tend to keep alive in the minds, both of the instruments and victims of them, a spirit of animosity which it is our wish to destroy. We will enter into no detail of the atrocities and oppressions which Ireland has labored under during its connection with England; but we justify our determination to separate from that country on the broad historical statement, that during six hundred years she has been unable to conciliate the affections of the people of Ireland; that during that time five rebellions were entered into to shake off the yoke; that she has been obliged to enter into a system of unprecedented torture in her defence; that she has broken every tie of voluntary connection by taking even the name of independence from Ireland, through the intervention of a parliament notoriously bribed, and not representing the will of the people; that in vindication of this measure she has herself given the justification of the views of the United Irishmen, by declaring, in the words of her ministers, ‘that Ireland never had and never could enjoy, under the then circumstances, the benefits of British connection; that it necessarily must happen,



when one country is connected with another, that the interests of the lesser will be borne down by the greater; that England had supported and encouraged the English colonists in their oppression towards the natives of Ireland; that Ireland had been left in a state of ignorance, rudeness, and barbarism, worse in its effects, and more degrading in its nature, than that in which it was found six centuries before.'

"Now, to what cause are these things to be attributed? Did the curse of the Almighty keep alive a spirit of obstinacy in the minds of the Irish people for six hundred years? Did the doctrines of the French Revolution produce five rebellions? Could the misrepresentations of ambitious, designing men drive from the mind of a whole people the recollection of defeat, and raise the infant from the cradle with the same feelings with which his father sank to the grave? Will this gross avowal, which our enemies have made of their own views, remove none of the calumny that has been thrown upon ours? Will none of the credit which has been lavished on them be transferred to the solemn declaration which we now make in the face of God and our country?

"We war not against property; we war against no religious sect; we war not against party opinions or prejudices; we war against English dominion.

"We will not, however, deny that

there are some men who, not because they have supported the government of our oppressors, but because they have violated the common laws of morality, which exist alike under all or under no government, have put it beyond our power to give to them the protection of a government. We will not hazard the influence we may have with the people, and the power it may give us of preventing the excesses of revolution, by undertaking to place in tranquillity the men who have been guilty of torture, free quarter, rape, and murder, by the side of the sufferers or their relations; but in the frankness with which we warn those men of their danger, let those who do not feel that they have passed this boundary of mediation count on their safety.

"We had hoped, for the sake of our enemies, to have taken them by surprise, and to have committed the cause of our country before they could have time to commit themselves against it; but though we have not been altogether able to succeed, we are yet rejoiced to find that they have not come forward with promptitude on the side of those who have deceived them; and we now call upon them, before it is yet too late not to commit themselves against a people which they are unable to resist, and in support of a government which, by their own declaration, had forfeited its claims to their allegiance. To that government in whose hands, though not the issue, at least the features with which the present contest is marked or



placed, we now turn. How is it to be decided? Is open and honorable force alone to be resorted to?—or is it your intention to employ those laws which custom has placed in your hands, and to force us to employ the law of retaliation in our defence?

“Of the inefficacy of a system of terror, in preventing the people of Ireland from coming forward to assert their freedom, you have already had experience. Of the effect which such a system will have on our minds, in case of success, we have already forewarned you. We now address to you another consideration. If in the question which is now to receive a solemn, and, we trust, final decision, if we have been deceived, reflection would point out that conduct should be resorted to which was best calculated to produce conviction on our minds.

“What would that conduct be?

“It would be to show us that the difference of strength between the two countries is such as to render it unnecessary for you to bring out all your forces; to show that you have something in reserve to crush hereafter; not only a greater exertion of the people, but one rendered still greater by foreign resistance. It would be to show us that what we vainly supposed to be prosperity growing beyond your grasp, is only a piratical exuberance, requiring but the pressure of your hands to reduce to form.

“But, for your own sakes, do not resort to a system which, while it in-

creased the acrimony of our minds, would leave us under the melancholy delusion that we had been forced to yield, not to the sound and temperate exertions of our superior strength, but to the frantic struggle of weakness, concealing itself under desperation. Consider that the distinction of rebel and enemy is of a very fluctuating nature; that during the course of your own experience, you have already been obliged to lay it aside; that should you be obliged to abandon it towards Ireland, you cannot hope to do so as tranquilly as you have done towards America; for in the exasperated state to which you have roused the minds of the Irish people—a people whom you profess to have left in a state of barbarism and ignorance—with what confidence can you say to that people, ‘While the advantage of cruelty lay upon our side we slaughtered you without mercy, but the measure of your own blood is beginning to preponderate. It is no longer our interest that this bloody system should continue. Show us, then, that forbearance which we never taught you by precept or example; lay aside your resentment; give quarter to us; and let us mutually forget we never gave quarter to you.’ Cease, then, we entreat you, uselessly to violate humanity, by resorting to a system inefficacious as a mode of defence, inefficacious as a mode of conviction, ruinous to the future relations of the two countries in case of our success, and destructive of those instruments of



defence which you will then find it doubly necessary to have preserved unimpaired. But if your determination be otherwise, hear ours. We will not imitate you in cruelty; we will put no man to death in cold blood; the prisoners which first fall into our hands shall be treated with the respect due to the unfortunate; but if the life of a single unfortunate Irish soldier is taken after the battle is over, the order thenceforth to be delivered to the Irish army is, neither to give nor to take quarter. Countrymen, if a cruel necessity force us to retaliate, we will bury our resentment in the field of battle; if we fall, we will fall where we fight for our country. Fully impressed with this determination, of the necessity of adhering to which past experience has but too fatally convinced us; fully impressed with the justice of our cause, which we now put to issue, we make our last and solemn appeal to the sword and to Heaven; and, as the cause of Ireland deserves to prosper, may God give us the victory.

“Conformably to the above proclamation, the Provisional Government of Ireland decree that, as follows:

“1. From the date and promulgation hereof tithes are forever abolished, and church lands are the property of the nation.

“2. From the same date all transfers of landed property are prohibited, each person paying his rent until the national government be established, the

national will declared, and the courts of justice be organized.

“3. From the same date all transfer of bonds, debentures, and all public securities are in like manner forbidden, and declared void for the same time and the same reasons.

“4. The Irish generals commanding districts shall seize such of the partisans of England as may serve as hostages, and shall apprise the English commanders opposed to them, that a strict retaliation shall take place if any outrages contrary to the laws of war shall be committed by the troops under command of each, or by the partisans of England in the district which he occupies.

“5. That the Irish generals are to treat (except where retaliation makes it necessary) the English troops which may fall into their hands, or such Irish as serve in the regular forces of England, and who shall have acted conformably to the laws of war, as prisoners of war; but all Irish militia, yeomen, or volunteer corps, or bodies of Irish, or individuals who, for ten days after the promulgation and date hereof, shall be found in arms, shall be considered as rebels, committed for trial, and their property confiscated.

“6. The generals are to assemble court-martials, who are to be sworn to administer justice, who are not to condemn without sufficient evidence, and before whom all military offenders are to be sent instantly for trial.

“7. No man is to suffer death by



their sentence but for mutiny ; the sentence of such others as are judged worthy of death shall not be put into execution until the provisional government declare its will ; nor are court-martials, on any pretence or sentence, nor is any officer, to suffer the punishment of flogging, or any species of torture to be inflicted.

“8. The generals are to enforce the strictest discipline, and to send offenders immediately to the court-martial ; and are enjoined to chase away from the Irish armies all such as shall disgrace themselves by being drunk in presence of the enemy.

“9. The generals are to apprise their respective armies that all military stores and ammunition belonging to the English government be the property of the captors, and the value equally divided, without respect of rank, between them, except that the widows, orphans, parents, or other heirs of those who gloriously fall in the attack shall be entitled to a double share.

“10. As the English nation has made war on Ireland, all English property, in ships or otherwise, is subject to the same rule, and all transfer of them forbidden and declared void, in like manner as is expressed in Nos. 2 and 3.

“11. The generals of the different districts are hereby empowered to confer rank up to colonels, inclusive, on such as they conceive merit it from the nation ; but are not to make more colonels than one for fifteen hundred men,

nor more lieutenant-colonels than one for every thousand men.

“12. The generals shall seize on all sums of public money in the custom-houses in their districts, or in the hands of the different collectors, county treasurers, or other revenue officers, whom they shall render responsible for the sums in their hands. The generals shall pass receipts for the amount, and account to the provisional government for them.

“13. When the people elect their officers up to the colonels, the general is bound to confirm it. No office can be broke but by sentence of court-martial.

“14. The generals shall correspond with the provisional government, to whom they shall give details of all their operations. They are to correspond with the neighboring generals, to whom they are to transmit all necessary intelligence, and to co-operate with them.

“15. The generals commanding in each county shall, as soon as it is cleared of the enemy, assemble the county committee, who shall be elected conformably to the constitution of United Irishmen. All the requisitions necessary for the army shall be made in writing by the generals to the county committee, who are hereby empowered and enjoined to pass receipts for each article to the owners, to the end that they may receive their full value from the nation.

“16. The county committee is charged with the civil direction of the



county, the care of the national property, and the preservation of order and justice in the county; for which purpose the county committee are to appoint a high-sheriff and one or more sub-sheriffs to execute their orders, a sufficient number of justices of the peace for the county, a high and a sufficient number of petty constables in each barony, who are respectively charged with the duties now performed by those magistrates.

"17. The county of Cork, on account of its extent, is to be divided, conformably to the boundaries for raising militia, into the counties of North and South Cork; for each of which a county constable, high-sheriff, and all magistrates above directed are to be appointed.

"18. The county committee are hereby empowered and enjoined to issue warrants to apprehend such persons as it shall appear, on sufficient evidence, perpetrated murder, torture, and other breaches of the acknowledged articles of war and morality on the people, to the end that they may be tried for these offences so soon as the competent courts of justice are established by the nation.

"19. The county committee shall cause the sheriff or his officers to seize on all the personal property of such, to put seals on their effects, to appoint proper persons to preserve all such property until the national courts of justice shall have decided on the fate of the proprietors.

"20. The county committee shall act in like manner with all state and church lands, parochial estates, and all public lands and edifices.

"21. The county committee shall, in the interim, receive all the rents and debts of such persons and estates, and give receipts for the same; shall transmit to the government an exact account of their value, extent, and amount, and receive the directions of the provisional government thereon.

"22. The county committee shall appoint some proper house in the counties where the sheriff is permanently to reside, and where the county committee shall assemble. They shall cause all the records and papers of the county to be there transmitted, arranged, and kept, and the orders of the government to be there transmitted and received.

"23. The county committee are hereby empowered to pay out of these effects, or by assessment, reasonable salaries for themselves, the sheriffs, justices, and other magistrates whom they shall appoint.

"24. They shall keep a written journal of all their proceedings, signed each day by members of the committee, or a sufficient number of them, for the inspection of government.

"25. The county committee shall correspond with government on all subjects with which they are charged, and transmit to the general of the district such information as they shall conceive useful to the public.

"26. The county committee shall



take care that all State prisoners, however great their offences, shall be treated with humanity; and allow them sufficient support, to the end that all the world may know that the Irish nation is not actuated by a spirit of revenge, but of justice.

"27. The provisional government wishing to commit, as soon as possible, the sovereign authority to the people, direct that each county and city shall elect, agreeably to the constitution of United Irishmen, representatives to meet in Dublin, to whom, the moment they assemble, the provisional government shall resign its functions; and, without presuming to dictate to the people, they beg leave to suggest that for the important purposes to which these electors are called, integrity of character should be the first object.

"28. The number of representatives being arbitrary, the provisional government have adopted that of the late House of Commons, three hundred; and, according to the best returns of the population of the cities and counties, the following number are to be returned from each: Antrim, 13; Armagh, 9; Belfast-town, 1; Carlow, 3; Cavan, 7; Clare, 8; Cork County, north, 14; Cork County, south, 14; Cork City, 6; Donegal, 10; Down, 16; Drogheda, 1; Dublin County, 4; Dublin City, 14; Fermanagh, 5; Galway, 10; Kerry, 9; Kildare, 14; Kilkenney, 7; King's County, 6; Leitrim, 5; Limerick County, 10; Limerick City, 3; Londonderry 9; Longford, 4; Louth,

4; Mayo, 12; Meath, 9; Monaghan, 9; Queen's County, 6; Roscommon, 8; Sligo, 6; Tipperary, 13; Tyrone, 14; Waterford County, 6; Waterford City, 2; Westmeath, 5; Wicklow, 5.

"29. In the cities the same regulations as in the counties shall be adopted. The city committees shall appoint one or more sheriffs, as they think proper, and shall take possession of all the public and corporation properties in their jurisdiction, in like manner as is directed in counties.

"30. The provisional government strictly exhort and enjoin all magistrates, officers, civil and military, and the whole of the nation, to cause the law of morality to be enforced and respected, and to execute, as far as in them lies, justice with mercy, by which liberty alone can be established, and the blessings of Divine Providence secured."

In addition to the preceding, Emmet had prepared an address to the citizens of Dublin, calling on them for aid and co-operation. He was busily employed in his depots up to the very last, and was full of sanguine hope of success; but on the day appointed, greatly to his chagrin, only a very few allies came to his assistance, and these chiefly from Kildare and Wexford. His associates, also, were harassed with doubts and fears, and wished to defer action; but Emmet was resolved to push onward. About nine o'clock in the evening, some eighty men were in one of his depots,



and a number of others were in the taverns, drinking and talking. A report being made that the troops were marching against them, Emmet got his men together, considerably less than two hundred in all, and set out, resolved to take Dublin Castle. A strange piece of folly and delusion! His men were undisciplined, as well as more or less under the influence of liquor; so that instead of following Emmet they engaged in the perpetration of disgraceful outrages in the streets.

Among these, the most shocking was the murder of Lord Kilwarden, Chief-Justice of Ireland. This aged and respected nobleman had a country-seat about four miles from Dublin, on the Wicklow side of the town. The dreadful scenes of 1798 are said to have made a deep impression on Lord Kilwarden's mind; and in the belief that his life was in danger, he had only recently ventured to sleep at his country residence. He had passed the week in fulfilling the duties of his judicial capacity, and on the morning of Saturday, the 23d of July, he went as usual to his house in the country to pass the Sabbath with his family. Towards evening he was alarmed by reports that numbers of suspicious-looking persons were observed hurrying into Dublin, and it was soon rumored abroad that an insurrection was intended that night. The personal apprehensions of Lord Kilwarden were immediately excited, and he came to the hasty and unfortunate determination of returning imme-

diately to town. With this purpose, about the dusk of the evening, he set out in a post-chaise, taking with him his daughter and his nephew, the Rev. Richard Wolfe. They met with no obstacle till, on reaching the entrance of the town, Lord Kilwarden, imagining that the most frequented streets would be the safest, directed the coachman to drive through St. James' and Thomas streets, which were at that moment in the undisturbed possession of the insurgents. He arrived in the latter street just as they were attacking the custom-house officer in the hackney-coach, which they left immediately for the post-chaise, under the impression, it is supposed, that the obnoxious and hated Lord Norbury was in it. When Lord Kilwarden saw that his carriage was surrounded, he shouted out, perhaps in the hope of being allowed to pass on, "It is I, Kilwarden, chief-justice of the king's bench!" One of the mob immediately answered, "You are the man I want!" and stabbed him with a pike, and he was then dragged out and covered with wounds and insult. Mr. Wolfe jumped out of the carriage and attempted to make his escape; but he was pursued, brought back, and instantly dispatched. Miss Wolfe remained inside the carriage, in a state of indescribable terror and distress, until one of the insurgent leaders came and took her out, and conducted her through the crowd to an adjoining house, where she waited a while, and then made her escape on foot to the



castle, where she gave the first intelligence of her father's murder. The authorities seem to have paid little attention to what was going on, although they had been informed that insurrection was planned for that night. They treated the whole matter with apparent contempt, notwithstanding afterwards they were much frightened, and resorted to severe measures. Emmet seems to have lost hope very soon, on seeing how his men behaved, as well as how inefficient and unreliable they were. A day or two after, he escaped from Dublin. Within a week he returned to the city, and lay concealed for a month. He was subsequently tracked out, arrested, and imprisoned to await his trial. Russell, having met with no success in Ulster, returned to Dublin, hoping to escape to France. Some months later he was arrested, and suffered the extreme penalty of the law.

The trial of Robert Emmet took place on the 19th of September, before a special commission, consisting of Lord Norbury, Barons George and Daly, and Justice Finucane. The case was stated at length by the attorney-general, Mr. Plunkett, and the evidence relied on to convict him was that of a few persons employed in the depots at Dublin. Curran was Emmet's counsel; and although the prisoner pleaded not guilty, he was not permitted by Emmet to exert his eloquence in defence of his friend. The speech of the attorney-general was extremely severe and harsh

and was animadverted upon by Emmet's friends in no measured terms. When called upon for his defence, he rose and addressed the court in words worthy of being here put on record:

"Why sentence of death and execution should not be pronounced against me, I have nothing to say; for that had been determined on ere this trial had taken place. But why my name and character should not be transmitted to posterity loaded with the foulest obloquy, I have much to say.

"A man in my situation has to combat with not only the difficulties of fortune, but those, too, of prejudice. The sentence of the law, which delivers over his body to the executioner, consigns his name to obloquy. The man dies, but his memory lives; and that mine may not forfeit all claim to the respect of my countrymen, I use this occasion to vindicate myself from some of the charges brought against me. Let what I have to say, and the few observations I shall make as to my principles and motives, glide down the surface of the stream of your recollection, till the storm shall have subsided with which it is already buffeted.

"Were I to suffer death only after having been adjudged guilty of crime, I should bow my neck in silence to the stroke; but—(Interruption from Lord Norbury.) Why did your lordship insult me—or, rather, why insult justice—in demanding of me why sentence of death should not be pronounced? I know, my lord, that form prescribes



that you should ask the question; the form also presumes a right of answering. It is true, this might be dispensed with, and so might the whole ceremony of the trial, since sentence was already pronounced at the castle before your jury was empanelled. Your lordships are but priests of the oracle, and I submit to the sacrifice; but I insist on the whole of the forms.

"I am accused of being an emissary of France; of being an agent for that country in the heart of my own. It is false! I am no emissary! I did not wish to deliver up my country to a foreign power, and, least of all, to France. I am charged with being a conspirator! with being a member of the provisional government. I avow it! I am a conspirator! I am and have been engaged in a conspiracy, of which the whole object is the disenthralment of my beloved country.

"It never was, never could be our design to deliver over our country into the hands of the French! No! From the proclamation of the provisional government, it is evident that every hazard attending an independent effort was deemed preferable to the more fatal risk of introducing a French force into our country. What! yield to the French? Heaven forbid! No! Look to the proclamation of the provisional government—to the military articles attached to it. Is there a sentence there that will warrant such a construction? Had I been in Switzerland, I should have fought against the

French! In the dignity of freedom I would have expired on the threshold of that country, and their only entrance to it should have been over my lifeless corpse! Were I in any country whose people were adverse to their principles I would take up arms against them. But if the people were not adverse to them, neither would I fight against the people. Is it, then, to be supposed I would be slow to make the same sacrifice to my native land? Am I, who have lived but to be of service to my country, who would subject myself even to the bondage of the grave to give her independence—am I to be loaded with the foul and grievous calumny of being an emissary of France? Were my country once freed from the yoke of England, had my countrymen a country to defend, then, should a foreign foe attempt to invade their shores, would I call on them, 'Be united! be firm! and fear no force without! Look not to your arms. Oppose them with your hearts. Wait not their attack, but run to your shores and meet them. Receive them with all the destruction of war, and immolate them in their very boats, nor let your land be polluted by the foe! With the sword in one hand and the torch in the other, oppose and fight them with patriotism, love of liberty, and with courage. Should you fail, should your love of country, your love of liberty, and courage not prevail, in your retreat lay waste your country. With your torch burn up every blade



of grass. Raze every house. Contend to the last for every inch of ground in ruin. Conduct your women and children to the heart and centre of your country. Place them in the strongest hold. Surround and defend them till but two of you remain; and when of these two one shall fall, let him that survives apply the torch to the funeral-pile of his country, and leave the invader nothing but ashes and desolation for his plunder.

"I am also accused of ambition. O my countrymen, was it ambition that influenced me, I might now rank with the proudest of your oppressors—(Interruption from the judge.)

"My lord, I have always understood it was the duty of a judge, when a prisoner was convicted, to pronounce the sentence of the law. I have also understood that a judge sometimes thought it his duty to hear with patience and speak with humanity—to deliver an exhortation to the prisoner. I appeal to the Immaculate God! I swear by the throne of Heaven, before which I must shortly appear; by the blood of the martyred patriots who have gone before me, that my conduct has been, through all this peril and through all my purposes, governed only by the convictions which I have uttered, and by no other motive but the emancipation of my country from the oppression under which she has too long and too patiently travailed.

"You say I am the keystone, the life-blood and soul of the conspiracy.

On my return to Ireland this conspiracy was already formed. I was solicited to join it. I asked for time to consider, and the result of my deliberation was that it appeared to me the only means of saving my country. My lord, I acted but a subaltern part. There are men who manage it far above me. You say that in cutting me off you cut off its head, and destroy the germ of future conspiracy and insurrection. It is false! This conspiracy will exist when I am no more. It will be followed by another more strong, and rendered still more formidable by foreign assistance. (Interruption from the judge.)

"What, my lord, shall you tell me, on the passage to that scaffold which tyranny has erected for my murder, and of which you are only the intermediary executioner, that I am accountable for all the blood that has and will be shed in this struggle of the oppressed against the oppressor? Shall you tell me this, and must I be so very a slave as not to repel it? I, who fear not to approach the Omnipotent Judge to answer for the conduct of my whole life—am I to be appalled and falsified by a mere remnant of mortality here? by you, too, who, if it were possible to collect all the innocent blood that you have shed during your unhallowed ministry into one great reservoir, your lordships might swim in it! (Interruption from the judge.) Think not, my lord, that I say this for the petty gratification of giving you a transitory



uneasiness. A man who never yet raised his voice to assert a lie, will not hazard his character with posterity by advancing a falsehood on a subject so important. Again I say, that what I have spoken is not intended for your lordship. It is meant as a consolation to my countrymen. If there be a true Irishman present, let my last words cherish him in the hour of affliction. (He was here interrupted again by Lord Norbury, who told him that, instead of advancing any thing in his justification, he continued to speak nothing but treason and sedition; said his (Emmet's) family had produced men of great talent, and that he himself was not the meanest of them. He had just then afforded them proof, and lamented the situation he had reduced himself to, etc. After thanking the judge for his compliments to his family, he proceeded.)

"My lord, I did not mean to utter treason. I did not mean to use seditious language. I did not even seek to exculpate myself. I did only endeavor to explain the obvious principles on which I acted, without even so much as an attempt at their application. Where is the boasted freedom of your constitution? Where the impartiality, mildness, and clemency of your courts of justice, if a wretched culprit, about to be delivered over to the executioner, be not suffered to vindicate his motives from the aspersions of calumny? You, my lord, are the judge; I am the culprit. But you, my lord, are a man,

and I am another. And as a man to whom fame is dearer than life, I will use the last moments of that life in rescuing my name and memory from the foul and odious imputations thrown upon them. If the spirit of the illustrious dead can witness the scenes of this transitory life, dear shade of my venerable father, look down with a virtuous scrutiny on your suffering son, and see, has he deviated for a moment from those moral and patriotic lessons which you taught him, and which he now dies for? As to me, my lords, I have been sacrificed on the altar of truth and liberty. There have I extinguished the torch of friendship, and offered up the idol of my soul, the object of my affections. There have I parted with all that could be dear to me in this life, and nothing now remains to me but the cold honors of the grave. My lamp of life is nearly extinguished. My race is finished, and the grave opens to receive me. All I request at my departure from this world is the charity of its silence. Let no man write my epitaph. No man *can* write my epitaph. And as no man who knows my motives dares to vindicate them, so let no man who is ignorant of them with prejudice asperse them. When my country takes her rank amongst the nations of the earth, then only can my epitaph be written, and then alone can my character be vindicated. I have done."

The next day, September 20th, this remarkable young man, only in his



twenty-fourth year, was executed in the presence of a large body of spectators. He met his fate with fortitude, and in a manner which excited strongly the sympathies of his countrymen everywhere. Although a portion of those engaged with Emmet in this ill-starred *émeute* made their escape abroad, there were eighteen who suffered with him the penalty of death. Numerous arrests were made, and the prisons were filled with persons charged with being concerned in the conspiracy. Dwyer and his companions in Wicklow surrendered soon after, and the last remaining spark of the famous rebellion of 1798 was finally extinguished.

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## CHAPTER XLVI.

LORD HARDWICKE'S ADMINISTRATION.—POLICY OF PITT AND FOX.—CATHOLIC PETITION.

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**Suspension of *habeas corpus* act.**—Martial law.—Investigation into the state of Ireland called for.—Pitt again in power.—Disappointment of the Catholics.—Agitation in Ireland.—Great meeting in Dublin.—Position of England.—Debate on renewing *habeas corpus* suspension act.—Arguments advanced.—Catholics determined to appeal to parliament.—The petition in full.—Action in the House of Lords.—Fox in the House of Commons.—Strong vote against the petition.—State of affairs.—Death of William Pitt.—“The ministry of all the talents.”—Revival of spirit among Catholics.—Disputes as to the “Catholic committee.”—Duke of Bedford lord-lieutenant.—Complaints as to his administration.—Disturbances in Ireland.—“The Threshers,” and their lawless course.—Death of Fox.—Meetings in Dublin.—Petition drawn up.—The Maynooth grant.—Course of the ministry in favor of the Catholics.—Lord Howick's bill.—Opposition of the king.—Bill withdrawn.—Ministers dismissed.—“No popery cabinet” formed.—Prospect in the future.

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(A. D. 1803 TO A. D. 1807.)

THE recent attempt at insurrection, narrated in the previous chapter, caused some surprise and anxiety in England, and new powers were asked to be conferred on the lord-lieutenant, to enable him to meet the supposed emergency. A warm debate ensued in parliament, in August, 1803, which was resumed again in December. The suspension of *habeas corpus* and the establishment of martial-law were demanded by government, on the ground of necessity as well as policy; the object being to encourage and strengthen the loyal part of the community, and to repress the designs of the disaffected. The Irish authorities were severely censured, in the course of the debates, and earnest attempts were made to defeat the measures proposed; but the bills were nevertheless passed by large majorities. In Ireland the condition of affairs did



not improve, as was expected; distrust and suspicion arose anew, and the old hostility between Protestants and Catholics was revived with additional bitterness.

Early in the year 1804, the conduct of the Irish government under Lord Hardwicke was again brought before parliament. A motion was made in the House of Commons to go into an investigation of the state of Ireland, especially in reference to the late insurrection. This motion was supported by Mr. Canning, who made a pungent and telling speech in its favor. Fox also advocated the investigation; but Lord Castlereagh and others strongly opposed the present movement; and as the ministerial majority was large, the motion was lost.

The events of the present year (1804) were calculated to disappoint and irritate the Irish Catholics, who had based their hopes of relief on the sentiments avowed by Mr. Pitt. This distinguished man was restored to power on the 12th of May, by the overthrow of the weak ministry under Mr. Addington; but in taking office, he accepted the condition insisted upon by the king, that he should abandon the question of Catholic emancipation. The new ministry seem to have thought it necessary to adopt a policy repulsive to the Catholics in Ireland; and there was an evident partiality shown towards the Orangemen, and an inclination to push the Catholics into intemperate acts, which might serve to excite

and keep alive suspicion against them. As might have been expected, there was a renewal of agitation in Ireland, and the discontent had been increased by commercial embarrassments caused by an exaggerated issue of bank-notes, and by some partiality believed to be shown in the distribution of the revenue. Discontent increased towards the autumn; and in the month of September a great meeting was held in Dublin, to take into consideration the Catholic grievances and petition parliament for relief. It was expected that this meeting would have led to some violent expression of dissatisfaction; but Lord Fingall took the lead, and under his influence its proceedings were calm and temperate. The meeting was adjourned from time to time, at his recommendation, that its final resolutions might be cautious and deliberate.

The government thought or supposed that these manifestations on the part of this large and numerous body in Ireland indicated a new rebellion; and the disaffected were certainly encouraged to fresh efforts against English rule. England herself was threatened by Bonaparte with invasion; and secret emissaries were again sent into Ireland to communicate with whatever remained of the republican party, while a committee of United Irishmen renewed its activity in Paris. This was assumed by the English ministers as a sufficient reason for again asking parliament to renew the bill for the sus-



pension of the *habeas corpus* act, a measure which, under all circumstances, was probably prudent; but it met with a very warm opposition in the House of Commons. The measure was brought forward on the 8th of February, 1805; and it was urged that the bill was rendered necessary by the existence of considerable disaffection in Ireland; by the avowed determination of the French to invade that country, and the preparations made for that purpose; and by the fact of the collection and association of a number of Irishmen with the forces designed for that purpose, and the actual sitting of a committee of United Irishmen at Paris, corresponding with the United Irishmen of Ireland, and stimulating them to insurrection. The bill was opposed by several eminent gentlemen, who demanded, as usual, fuller information on the state of Ireland, as a justification of such a measure.

Pitt, now chancellor of the exchequer, replied with some warmth. He denied that it was necessary or customary to produce such information as the opposition required, when it had been thought expedient to suspend for a time the action of the *habeas corpus* act. It was well known that a revolutionary spirit was still widely spread through Ireland, and this was intended as a measure of precaution to defeat the designs of an enemy who was preparing to take advantage of that spirit. Fox combated the doctrines avowed by Pitt, and declared that he was not

convinced of the necessity of the rigorous measure adopted by government towards Ireland during the last war, and now again asked for.

Although warmly opposed in all its stages through parliament, the bill was carried by large majorities. On motion to go into committee on it, on the 15th of February, 1805, the demand for inquiry and information was renewed, and resisted on the same ground—that the notoriety of the danger was a sufficient justification. The opposition denied entirely any such notoriety. Dr. Duigenan, in behalf of the government side of the question, affirmed that Irish witnesses could not come with safety to London to appear before a committee, without serious risk of assassination; and that various parts of Ireland were in such a shocking state, that plots and conspiracies were all the time being formed and carried out. Lord Temple, on the other hand, denounced these statements as libellous in the extreme, and as coming with a very ill grace from any one representing that country in the imperial parliament.

During these debates, the Catholics of Ireland continued to meet and discuss the important question then before them. In the month of March, 1805, they finally embodied their grievances in the form of a petition, which was signed by the Duke of Shrewsbury, and Lords Waterford, Wexford, Fingall, Kenmare, Germanstown, Southwell, and others. The ministry were



in rather an embarrassing position, since more than one member had in former years advocated the cause of the Catholics. Nevertheless, government determined to oppose the petition to the extent of their power. Pitt, in consequence of his understanding with the king, was of no service to the petitioners.\* They, therefore, turned their attention to Lord Grenville, who consented to act in their behalf, and on the 25th of March laid their petition before the House of Lords. We give the document in full, as well because of the interest it possesses in itself, as because it shows clearly the grounds on which the Catholics placed their claims for emancipation :

“The humble petition of the Roman Catholics of Ireland, whose names are hereunto subscribed, on behalf of themselves and of others, his majesty’s subjects, professing the Roman Catholic religion,

“*Showeth*, That your petitioners are steadfastly attached to the person, family, and government of their most gracious sovereign ; that they are impressed with sentiments of affectionate gratitude for the benign laws which have been enacted for ameliorating their condition during his paternal

reign ; and they contemplate with rational and decided predilection the admirable principles of the British constitution.

“Your petitioners most humbly state, that they have solemnly and publicly taken the oath by law prescribed to his majesty’s Roman Catholic subjects, as tests of political and moral principles ; and they confidently appeal to the sufferings which they have long endured, and the sacrifices which they still make, rather than violate their consciences (by taking oaths of a religious or spiritual import, contrary to their belief), as decisive proofs of their profound and scrupulous reverence for the sacred obligation of an oath.

“Your petitioners beg leave to represent, that by those awful tests they bind themselves, in the presence of the All-seeing Deity, whom all classes of Christians adore, ‘to be faithful and bear true allegiance to their most gracious sovereign lord, King George III., and him to defend, to the utmost of their power, against all conspiracies and attempts whatsoever, that shall be made against his person, crown, or dignity ; to do their utmost endeavors to disclose and make known to his majesty and his heirs all treasons and traitorous conspiracies which may be

\* Principle and truth have often been sacrificed to temporary difficulties and the exigencies of a particular occasion ; but they were never surrendered with a bolder and more mistaken firmness than by Mr. Pitt at this moment. He might, had he been so determined, have surpassed the glory of all preceding statesmen ; he might have spared the empire years of subsequent

misgovernment, distraction, and weakness ; and saved Ireland from a complication of evils, the terror of crimes, and a depth of misery which in this world never have been and never will be fully recorded.”—*Ireland : Historical and Statistical*, by George Lewis Smyth, vol. iii. p. 406.



formed against him or them; and faithfully to maintain, support, and defend, of their power, the succession to the crown in his majesty's family against any person whatsoever.' That, by those oaths, they renounce and abjure obedience and allegiance unto any other person claiming or pretending a right to the crown of this realm; that they reject and detest, as unchristian and impious, to believe that it is lawful in any way to injure any person or persons whatsoever, under pretence of their being heretics, and also that unchristian and impious principle that no faith is to be kept with heretics; that that is no article of their faith; and that they renounce, reject, and abjure the opinion, that princes excommunicated by the pope and council, or by any authority whatsoever, may be deposed or murdered by their subjects, or by any other person whatsoever; that they do not believe that the pope of Rome, or any other foreign prince, prelate, state, or potentate hath, or ought to have, any temporal or civil jurisdiction, power, superiority, or pre-eminence within this realm; that they firmly believe that no act, in itself unjust, immoral, or wicked, can ever be justified or excused by or under pretence or color that it was done for the good of the Church, or in obedience to any ecclesiastical power whatsoever; and that it is no article of the Catholic faith, neither are they thereby required to believe or profess, that the pope is infallible, or that they are bound to any order, in its own nature immoral, although the pope, or any ecclesiastical power, should issue or direct such order, but that, on the contrary, they hold that it would be sinful in them to pay any respect or obedience thereto; that they do not believe that any sin whatsoever committed by them can be forgiven at the mere will of any pope, or of any priest, or of any person or persons whatsoever, but that any person who receives absolution without a sincere sorrow for such sin, and a firm and sincere resolution to avoid future guilt and to atone to God, so far from obtaining thereby any remission of his sin, incurs the additional guilt of violating a sacrament; and, by the same solemn obligation, they are bound and firmly pledged to defend, to the utmost of their power, the settlement and arrangement of property in their country, as established by the laws now in being; that they have disclaimed, disavowed, and solemnly abjure any intention to subvert the present Church establishment, for the purpose of substituting a Catholic establishment in its stead; and that they have also solemnly sworn that they will not exercise any privilege, to which they are or may become entitled, to disturb or weaken the Protestant religion or Protestant government in Ireland.

"Your petitioners most humbly beg leave to show that, however painful it is to their feelings that it should still be thought necessary to exact such tests from them (and from them alone of all



his majesty's subjects), they can with perfect truth affirm, that the political and moral principles, which are thereby asserted, are not only conformable to their opinions, but expressly inculcated by the religion which they profess; and your petitioners most humbly trust that the religious doctrines which permit such tests to be taken will be pronounced by this honorable house to be entitled to a toleration, not merely partial, but complete, under the happy constitution and government of this realm; and that his majesty's Roman Catholic subjects, holding those principles, will be considered as subjects upon whose fidelity the State may impose the firmest reliance.

"Your petitioners further most humbly show, that twenty-six years have now elapsed since their most gracious sovereign and the honorable houses of parliament in Ireland, by their public and deliberate act, declared that 'from the uniform peaceable behavior of the Roman Catholics of Ireland for a long series of years, it appeared reasonable and expedient to relax the disabilities and incapacities under which they labored; and that it must tend not only to the cultivation and improvement of this kingdom, but to the prosperity and strength of all his majesty's dominions, that his majesty's subjects of all denominations should enjoy the blessings of a free constitution, and should be bound to each other by mutual interest and mutual affection;' a declaration founded upon unerring principles

of justice and sound policy, which still remains to be carried into full effect, although your petitioners are impressed with a belief that the apprehensions which retarded its beneficial operation, previous to the union, cannot exist in the parliament of the United Kingdom.

"For your petitioners most humbly show that, by virtue of divers statutes now in force, his majesty's Roman Catholic subjects, who form so great a proportion of the population of Ireland, and contribute so largely to the resources of the State, do yet labor under many incapacities, restraints, and privations, which affect them with peculiar severity in almost every station of life; that more especially they are denied the capacity of sitting or voting in either of the honorable houses of parliament, the manifold evils consequent upon which incapacity they trust it is unnecessary to unfold and enumerate to this honorable house.

"They are disabled from holding or exercising (unless by a special dispensation) any corporate office whatsoever in the cities or towns in which they reside; they are incapacitated and disqualified from holding or exercising the offices of sheriffs and sub-sheriffs, and various offices of trust, honor, and emolument in the State, in his majesty's military and naval service, in their native land.

"Your petitioners, declining to enter into the painful detail of the many incapacities and inconveniences avowedly inflicted by those statutes upon his



majesty's Roman Catholic subjects, beg leave, however, most earnestly to solicit the attention of this honorable house to the humiliating and ignominious system of exclusion, reproach, and suspicion which those statutes generate and keep alive.

"For your petitioners most humbly show that, in consequence of the hostile spirit thereby sanctioned, their hopes of enjoying even the privileges which, through the benignity of their most gracious sovereign they have been capacitated to enjoy, are nearly altogether frustrated, insomuch that they are, in effect, shut out from almost all the honors, dignities, and offices of trust and emolument in the State, from rank and distinction in his majesty's army and navy, and even from the lowest situations and franchises in the several cities and corporate towns throughout his majesty's dominions.

"And your petitioners severely feel that this unqualified interdiction of those of their communion from all municipal situations, from the franchise of all guilds and corporations, and from the patronage and benefits annexed to those situations, is an evil not terminating in itself; for they beg leave to state that, by giving an advantage over those of their communion to others, by whom such situations are exclusively possessed, it establishes a species of qualified monopoly, universally operating in their disfavor, contrary to the spirit, and highly detrimental to the freedom of trade.

"Your petitioners likewise severely feel that his majesty's Roman Catholic subjects, in consequence of their exclusion from the offices of sheriff and sub-sheriff, and of the hostile spirit of those statutes, do not fully enjoy certain other inestimable privileges of the British constitution, which the law has most jealously maintained and secured to their fellow-subjects.

"Your petitioners most humbly beg leave to solicit the attention of this honorable house to the distinction which has conceded the elective and denies the representative franchise to one and the same class of his majesty's subjects; which detaches from property its proportion of political power, under a constitution whose vital principle is the union of the one with the other; which closes every avenue of legalized ambition against those who must be presumed to have great credit and influence among the mass of the population of the country; which refuses to peers of the realm all share in the legislative representation, either actual or virtual, and renders the liberal profession of the law to Roman Catholics a mere object of pecuniary traffic, despoiled of its hopes and of its honors.

"Your petitioners further most humbly show that the exclusion of so numerous and efficient a portion of his majesty's subjects, as the Roman Catholics of the realm, from civil honors and offices, and from advancement in his majesty's army and navy, actually impairs, in a very material degree, the



most valuable resources of the British empire, by impeding his majesty's general service, stifling the most honorable and powerful incentive to civil and military merit, and unnecessarily restricting the crown, which encourages good subjects to promote the public welfare, and excite them to meritorious actions by a well-regulated distribution of public honor and reward.

"Your petitioners beg leave most humbly to submit, that those manifold incapacities, restraints, and privations are absolutely repugnant to the liberal and comprehensive principles recognized by their most gracious sovereign and the parliament of Ireland; that they are impolitic restraints upon his majesty's prerogative; that they are hurtful and vexatious to the feelings of a loyal and generous people; and that the total abolition of them will be found not only compatible with, but highly conducive to the perfect security of every establishment, religious or political, now existing in this realm.

"For your petitioners most explicitly declare that they do not seek or wish, in the remotest degree, privileges, immunities, possessions, or revenues appertaining to the bishops and clergy of the Protestant religion, as by law established, or to the churches committed to their charge, or to any of them, the sole object of your petitioners being an equal participation, upon equal terms with their fellow-subjects, of the full benefits of the British laws and constitution.

"Your petitioners beg leave most humbly to observe that, although they might well and justly insist upon the firm and unabated loyalty of his majesty's Roman Catholic subjects to their most gracious sovereign, their profound respect for the legislature and their dutiful submission to the laws; yet they most especially rest their humble claims and expectations of relief upon the clear and manifest conduciveness of the measure which they solicit to the general and permanent tranquillity, strength, and happiness of the British empire; and your petitioners, entertaining no doubt of its final accomplishment, from its evident justice and utility, do most solemnly assure this honorable house that their earnest solicitude for it, at this peculiar crisis, arises principally from their anxious desire to extinguish all motives to disunion, and all means of exciting discontent.

"For your petitioners humbly state it as their decided opinion, that the enemies of the British empire, who meditate the subjugation of Ireland, have no hope of success save in the disunion of its inhabitants; and therefore it is that your petitioners are deeply anxious at this moment that a measure should be accomplished which will annihilate the principles of religious animosity, and animate all descriptions of his majesty's subjects in an enthusiastic defence of the best constitution that has ever yet been established.



“Your petitioners, therefore, most humbly presume to express their earnest but respectful hope that this honorable house will, in its wisdom and liberality, deem the several statutes now in force against them no longer necessary to be retained; and that his majesty’s loyal and dutiful subjects, professing the Roman Catholic religion, may be effectually relieved from the operation of those statutes; and that so they may be restored to the full enjoyment of the benefits of the British constitution, and to every inducement of attachment to that constitution, equally and in common with their fellow-subjects throughout the British empire.”

The petition just given was not brought up for direct consideration until May, 1805. The claims of the Catholics were warmly advocated by Lord Grenville, Earl Spencer, and others; they were opposed by Lord Redesdale, the bishop of Durham, the earl of Limerick, and others; and after a long, animated, and full debate, Lord Grenville’s motion was rejected by a majority of more than three to one.

In the House of Commons, Fox made an eloquent speech in support of the claims of the petitioners. Grattan also, who was now a member of the imperial parliament, pleaded earnestly and forcibly in favor of concession to the reasonable demands of the Catholics; but despite all the eloquence and earnestness of the speakers in favor of the petition, the house refused to accede to their wishes. Three hundred and thir-

ty-six votes were given against the motion, and only one hundred and twenty-four in its support. Thus, for the present, at least, a quietus was put upon the discussion in parliament of the question of Catholic emancipation.

Although matters glided along apparently in their usual course, there was beneath the surface more or less discontent and disappointment at the condition of affairs; and the prominent leaders among the Catholics were settling down in the determination to continue to agitate the question of their claims until some favorable result was reached. Lord Hardwicke gained considerable popularity in Ireland, by taking ground in opposition to certain measures of the prime-minister. This led to a determination, on the part of the home government, that he should retire from office. The decease, however, of that eminent man, who had so long guided and controlled England and her policy, especially with regard to continental affairs, caused a number of unexpected changes, some of which materially affected Ireland. William Pitt died on the 23d of January, 1806; and after a brief interval a liberal ministry, “the ministry of all the talents,” was formed by a coalition between Lord Grenville and Fox. Ponsonby was made lord-chancellor, and John Philpot Curran, the defender of the United Irishmen, became master of the rolls. Lord Hardwicke was superseded, and the duke of Bedford, in March of



this year, went to Ireland as lord lieutenant.

The spirit of the Catholics began to revive. Younger and more energetic men were coming forward; among whom Daniel O'Connell soon became the recognized chief. Agitation was renewed, and the question of the repeal of the Union was strenuously urged by Irish patriots. Meetings were held in Dublin, and an effort was made to get up a petition in favor of repeal; but other counsels prevailed, and the design was postponed. The new ministry, however, made itself quite popular in Ireland, by allowing the *habeas corpus* suspension act to expire without renewal, and by removing Lord Redesdale, who was considered very obnoxious to the Irish Catholics, from the office of lord-chancellor.

It was unfortunate at this time that dissensions found place among the leading men of the Catholic party. Disputes, more ardent than wise, occurred on the subject of the "Catholic committee," and its position as representing and guiding the Catholic part of the community. Lord French and John Keogh were finally agreed upon as the principal men to take the lead in support of the cause they all wished to advance. The duke of Bedford was welcomed as usual in Dublin by the Roman Catholics; but they soon began to complain of remissness on the part of his administration. They wished for a change in the magistracy of the island, which consisted largely of men

with strong Orange feelings and views, and who, it was asserted, denied full and equal justice to the Catholic, and screened the Protestant in a course of outrage and insult towards his neighbor. The government, however, showed no great disposition to accede to their wishes. Little, indeed, had been done to restore quietness to Ireland, and agitation and agrarian outrage prevailed everywhere. The summer of 1806 was marked by no occurrence of much importance in Ireland; yet there were many indications of popular discontent. In the city of Armagh, where the Limerick militia was quartered, very alarming symptoms of discontent displayed themselves on several different days in July. Most of the men of that regiment were Catholics; and the yeomanry of the city of Armagh, and the greater part of the townsmen, who were Protestants and mostly Orangemen, had arrayed themselves on one side, and held provoking and insulting language towards them. The militia drew up, and were joined by most of the Catholics of Armagh; but providentially they committed no further excesses than some personal assaults, in which many were severely wounded. An affray of a similar kind occurred at Tullamore, but was repressed without serious results. The peasantry in the west indulged in tumultuous proceedings, especially in regard to the exactions of the tithe proctors; and the "Threshers," as they called themselves, formed a sort of confederacy in carrying out their plans.



Sometimes they met in bodies of several hundreds, dressed in white shirts or frocks; but they were easily dispersed by the military. As the winter approached, these agrarian insurgents became more active, and it was found necessary to pursue rigorous measures against them. Many were arrested and committed to prison; and a special commission having been issued for their trial, and some of them being hanged, these executions put a stop to their lawless proceedings.

The death of Fox, in September, 1806, threw a damper upon the hopes of many among the Catholics; but there was a strong disposition to press their claims at once. Frequent meetings were held in Dublin during the months of January and February, 1807, and communications were had with the Irish ministers; and it was finally resolved that a petition should be drawn up and presented to parliament during the session then commencing. This petition was a moderate and temperate one. The petitioners complained that they were excluded from many of the most important offices of trust, power, and emolument in the country, whereby they were made to appear like aliens and strangers in their native land; that not less than four-fifths of the inhabitants of Ireland, by the system of exclusion which had been pursued, were made, as it were, a distinct people, and placed in a position of degrading inferiority towards the rest; and they represented "that, from the uniform and

peaceable behavior of the Catholics of Ireland for a long series of years, it appeared reasonable and expedient to relax the disabilities and incapacities under which they labor; and that it must tend not only to the cultivation and improvement of this kingdom, but to the prosperity and strength of all his majesty's dominions, that his majesty's subjects of all denominations should enjoy the blessings of a free constitution, and should be bound to each other by mutual interest and mutual affection." The earl of Fingall and Mr. Grattan were appointed to present the petition to the two houses of parliament.

The ministry were somewhat embarrassed on this question, the king being, in reality, as reluctant as ever to yield a point. It was proposed in parliament to grant Maynooth College £13,000. Grattan advocated the grant, and it was carried; but Mr. Perceval and others tried to have the amount greatly reduced. It was felt that something must be done in favor of concession, and the ministry resolved to begin with the army and navy departments of the public service. On the 5th of March, 1807, Lord Howick moved for leave to bring in a bill to open the naval and military services indiscriminately to all his majesty's subjects who should take an oath to be thereby prescribed. In recommending this measure to the house, Lord Howick urged that, at a season of difficulty and danger such as then existed,



when it was desirable to unite every heart and hand in the cause of the country, it was unwise to exclude from that union so large a portion of the people as the Catholics of Great Britain and Ireland, amounting to nearly a fourth of the whole population of the empire, and to prevent them from sharing in the danger and the glory of their countrymen. Various arguments of expediency as well as justice were ably urged by the mover; but the opposition, led by Mr. Perceval, was very strong. King George III., though at first assenting, was roused; and petitions against the bill came from various parts of the country. The ministers soon after withdrew the bill; and the king having required of them a written pledge not to address him again on the subject, they refused, and the result was their dismissal from office. A strong anti-Catholic ministry was formed—the “no-popery cabinet,” as it was designated—with the duke of Portland at its head. Mr. Canning and Lord Castlereagh were the principal secretaries of state; and so far as appearances went, there was little room to hope for attention to the claims of the Catholics, as presented in their late petition to parliament.

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## CHAPTER XLVII.

### PROGRESS OF AFFAIRS.—DUKE OF RICHMOND'S ADMINISTRATION.

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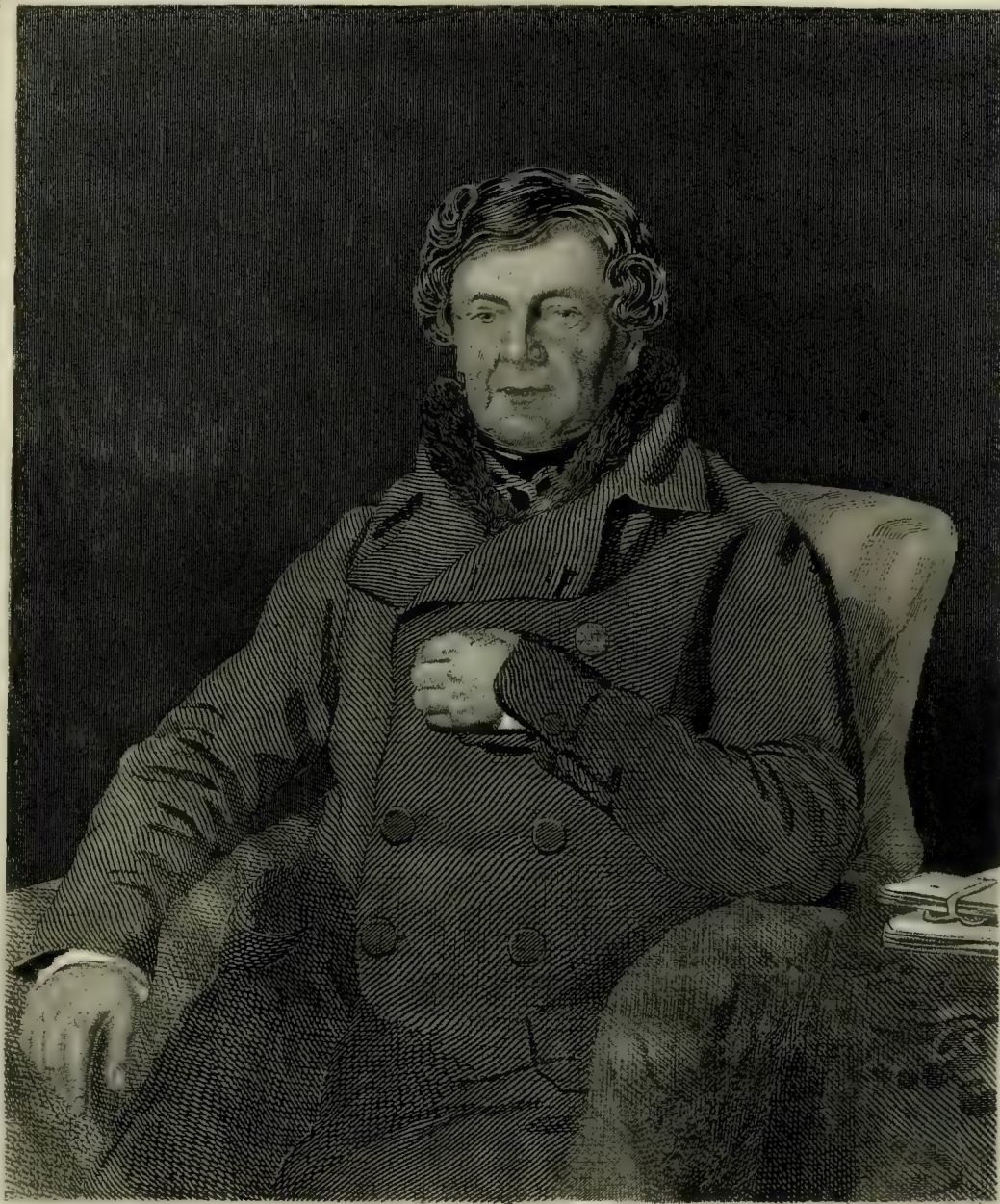
Opposition of the king.—Presentation of Catholic petition postponed.—Duke of Richmond, lord-lieutenant. — Insurrection act.—Sir Arthur Wellesley.—State of Ireland.—The veto question.—Course of the Catholics.—Agitation renewed.—Meeting in Dublin.—Orange lodges and doings.—English Roman Catholics on veto question.—Grattan's efforts.—Government policy.—Question of the veto in 1810.—Catholic committee's circular.—Extracts from.—Movement for *repeal of the Union*.—Meeting in Dublin.—O'Connell's speech.—Convention act enforced against Catholic committee.—Proceedings of government.—“Aggregate meetings.”—Petition to prince regent proposed.—Catholic board organized.—Mr. (Sir Robert) Peel, chief secretary in Ireland.—His policy and acts.—Famous parliamentary debate in 1812.—Position of Ireland at this date.—Earnest working for the cause.—The prince regent said to be in favor of the Roman Catholic claims.—Hopes and expectations excited.—Ministry denounced.—Protestants roused.—Feelings and views manifested.—Various acts of outrage in Ireland.—The state of things adverse to Catholic claims.—Mr Perceval assassinated.—Result in general.

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(A. D. 1807 TO A. D. 1813.)

THE decided opposition manifested by King George III. to the claims of the Catholics made it evident that there was no indulgence to be looked for by them at his hands. Their only course henceforth seemed to be to agi





FOUR COURTS, DUBLIN

T. Carrick

O'Neill

*Your faithful Servant*  
*Daniel O'Connell*







tate persistently, and by steady, judicious efforts to compel, in due time, attention to their just rights and privileges.

As stated on a previous page (see p. 743), Grattan had been asked to present the petition drawn up by the Catholic committee. But the change in the ministry and in parliament, and the bitter contentions in the House of Commons, as well as the acrimony of the public press, rendered necessary reconsideration and some further action. A general meeting was held in Dublin, April 18, 1807, the earl of Fingall presiding; at which it was understood by letter from Mr. Grattan, that in his opinion it would be inexpedient to bring the Catholic question at present before parliament. Mr. Keogh, O'Connell, and others advised this course; at the same time it was warmly urged by several gentlemen that the petition be presented at once, without further delay. The resolution proposed by Mr. Keogh prevailed, and under the circumstances it was judged best to publish an address explanatory of the principles and motives of the Catholic body in regard to that which they were now seeking to attain.

On the 19th of April, 1807, the duke of Richmond arrived in Dublin, as the successor of the duke of Bedford in the lord-lieutenancy. Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards duke of Wellington) was chief secretary, and Lord Manners lord-chancellor. The new parliament met in June, and Sir Arthur Wellesley

brought in a bill, early in July, to suppress insurrection and prevent disturbance of public peace in Ireland. The debates were long and ardent, and the offensive and oppressive features of the act were pointed out by a number of speakers, particularly Sheridan. It was passed, however, as a matter of course, and was followed by other acts of less interest and importance. On the 14th of August, Sheridan made an eloquent speech in favor of a motion to go into an inquiry as to the state of Ireland. "Justice," he said, "was all that Ireland asked for or looked for at their hands; if they were prepared to do justice to Ireland, they would gain an ally more faithful and more important than any they had lost upon the continent." The motion was negatived, and parliament prorogued without further notice of Ireland and her claims.

During the autumn of 1807, Ireland was in a state of agitation. Meetings were held, resolutions were passed, all looking to the great end of emancipation. In January, 1808, a meeting was held in Dublin, and a petition drawn up, which was intrusted to Grattan to present, as usual.

The veto question now came prominently into notice. Lord Fingall, on behalf of the Irish Catholic body, asserted their willingness to allow the crown to exercise a direct control in the appointment of bishops and clergy. Dr. Milner sustained the statements of Lord Fingall, and was authorized to



say that the Irish bishops would agree to the negative or veto power of the government in nomination to bishoprics in Ireland. When, then, Grattan, in May, 1808, brought forward the Catholic petition, he stated that he was able to assure the house explicitly that the Catholics were ready and willing to concede to the crown a veto on the election of bishops. Mr. Perceval, on the part of the ministry, opposed the petition, notwithstanding this assurance, and it was rejected. Lord Grenville, in the House of Lords, discussed the veto question, declaring, among other things, that it was Pitt's view and desire to have some such arrangement as that "the king should have a negative in the nomination of those of the Catholic clergy who are allowed to exercise episcopal jurisdiction, and no one should act in that capacity without the approbation of the crown."

Dr. Milner subsequently protested against the use made of his name in this matter; and the consequence was a division among the Catholic party, many of whom were in favor of the negative power which was to be given to the crown by this suggested measure, while the greater number were as warmly opposed to it. Thus a controversy arose, which lasted for several years. It produced an immediate agitation among the Catholic body in Ireland; and the bishops met in synod in Dublin, on the 14th and 15th of September, and passed resolutions: "That it is the decided opinion of the Roman

Catholic prelates of Ireland that it is inexpedient to introduce any alteration in the canonical mode hitherto observed in the nomination of the Irish Roman Catholic bishops, which mode long experience has proved unexceptionably wise and salutary. That the Roman Catholic prelates pledge themselves to adhere to the rules by which they have been hitherto uniformly guided—namely, to recommend to his holiness only such persons as are of unimpeachable loyalty and peaceable conduct." Other meetings were held, and the prevailing opinion among the Catholics in Ireland appears to have been against the veto.

During the present session (1808) various matters were urged upon parliament with reference to Ireland. Prison abuses of a disgraceful and shocking character were pointed out; petitions against the tithe system were very numerous and pressing; and the government gave a reluctant promise to look into the subject.

The agitation against the Catholic claims, which was encouraged by the government, and a feeling of resentment against the whole body of Catholics on account of promised indulgences from government, produced an irritable state of mind and temper in the country. In several districts hostility broke out into serious collisions, attended by loss of life; and the Orange yeomanry were guilty of outrage of a very shameful description, wherever and whenever they had an opportunity.



In May, 1809, the Catholics held a large meeting in Dublin, and earnestly debated the expediency of petitioning parliament at its present session. The majority were in favor of pressing forward, and never, even in appearance, faltering or giving up their claims. The Catholics also gathered fresh vigor by reviving the Catholic committee. Their activity provoked the government, and was responded to by an increase of violent language in the Orange lodges, which, reckoning on the countenance of the ministers, acted in a manner which was most insulting and aggravating to their opponents, and which sometimes led to lamentable outbreaks. In fact, Orangeism was at this moment increasing rapidly, and a great number of new lodges had been established during the past and present year. This extension was attributed partly to the exertions of a meeting of deputies from all the Orange lodges in the autumn of 1808, in Dublin. Several outrages which were perpetrated by the Orangemen in different parts of the country during the summer of 1809, increased the popular irritation. At Enniscorthy a magistrate had rendered himself obnoxious to the Orangemen by his tolerant feelings; and at the celebration of their festival in July they cut down a tree and erected it in the market-place, with an effigy of the magistrate hanging to its branches. This insult led to a riot, in which many persons were severely wounded. At Enniskillen an Orangeman was executed for the

murder of a Catholic, and it was found necessary to guard him at the execution with a strong military force against the Orange yeomanry, who had manifested an intention to rescue him. A similar feeling was strongly manifested in many places.

The question of the veto aroused considerable feeling in England early in 1810. At a meeting of the English Roman Catholics in London, on the 1st of February, the following resolution was adopted, and subsequently added to the English Catholic petition to parliament. This resolution, it will be seen, was expressed in very general terms. It stated, "that the English Roman Catholics, in soliciting the attention of parliament to their petition, are actuated, not more by a sense of the hardships and disabilities under which they labor, than by a desire to secure on the most solid foundation the peace and harmony of the British empire; and to obtain for themselves opportunities of manifesting, by the most active exertions, their zeal and interest in the common cause in which their country is engaged for the maintenance of its freedom and independence; and that they are firmly persuaded that adequate provision for the maintenance of the civil and religious establishments of this kingdom may be made consistently with the strictest adherence, on their part, to the tenets and discipline of the Roman Catholic religion; and that any arrangement founded on this basis of mutual satisfaction and secu-



city, and extending to them the full enjoyment of the civil constitution of their country, will meet with their grateful concurrence." The English Catholics wished to prevail upon their Irish brethren to accept of this clause, but in vain; and it was urged that they were wavering in their allegiance to the pope. The subject was discussed in several meetings of the Catholics in Ireland during the earlier months of 1810, and the proposal was everywhere rejected. In the meanwhile liberal sentiments towards the Catholics were gaining ground among the Protestants, and a large meeting in the county of Tyrone, in the beginning of April, which was attended by many of the Orangemen in that county, passed a series of resolutions in favor of emancipation.

Grattan, in making his annual motion in favor of petition from the Catholics, spoke of the veto, and frankly stated that, in his judgment, some proviso of the kind was called for, and was just and reasonable. The Irish Catholics, however, much as they appreciated his devotion to their interests, did not approve his views as expressed in the House of Commons. A resolution was passed by them, March 2, 1810, stating that, "as Irishmen and as Catholics, we never can consent to any dominion or control whatsoever over the appointment of our prelates on the part of the crown or the servants of the crown." Later in the session, in May, Grattan expressed him-

self more fully on the same subject. He was ably supported in his arguments and appeals on behalf of the Catholics and their claims; but to no practical purpose. The petition was rejected.

Government, however, thought it expedient to relax a little of their rigorous policy, and early in June a bill was brought into parliament to repeal the Irish Insurrection Act (see p. 745). This was done on the ground that the authorities felt that they could govern the country without it, and were strong enough to maintain peace and public tranquillity without continuing in force a law justified only by the most urgent necessity. Other acts were passed for preventing improper persons from having arms in Ireland; for preventing the administration of unlawful oaths, and the protection of magistrates; for regulating trade and management of the revenue, etc.

The question of the veto gave rise to bitter discussions among the Catholics during the year 1810, from the circumstance that some of their ablest advocates in parliament, such as Lord Grenville, Grattan, and Ponsonby, had not only advocated that measure, but declared that they considered it a necessary condition. One of the most violent and unflinching writers against the veto at this time was Dr. Milner, the agent in England of the Catholic prelates, who had at first been in favor of it. His earnest opposition to it was rewarded by the thanks of the Irish



Catholic bishops, conveyed in a resolution passed in a synod held at the end of February, 1810. A few days afterwards the Catholic committee passed a resolution condemning the veto. Many, however, were not only laboring to obtain the consent of the Catholics to the veto, but they intrigued to promote divisions and disputes among the Catholic body; and pamphlets and newspaper articles were circulated largely, and were full of recriminations and personal abuse. The committee exerted itself to restore and maintain unanimity; and at the end of July a circular was prepared and sent to all the leading Catholics in Ireland. An extract or two will show its force and pertinency:

“The general committee of the Catholics of Ireland, having consulted together upon the best interests of Catholic freedom, deem it proper to address the following considerations to their Catholic fellow-sufferers at this important juncture. It is notorious that the Catholic cause has, within the last two years, gained considerably upon the public mind in Great Britain, as well as in Ireland. The nature of public events, their consequences, the growing exigencies of the empire, the policy, nay, the necessity of domestic concord and general conciliation, have wrought a happy change in the minds of our fellow-subjects. But still more to the public discussion of the Catholic subject, which has so frequently occupied the press and the parliament, and called

forth beneficial inquiries and luminous reasonings, enforced by the high and increasing authorities of the best and ablest men in the empire, may the Catholics justly attribute the immense progress which their cause has lately made.

“However, though the argument has triumphed, its practical results in our favor are yet to be obtained. The fruits of victory may be lost through the impolicy of the victors. Apathy and lethargy may prove as ruinous on the one hand, as indiscreet energy on the other. Our fellow-subjects, though no longer deaf to the justice of our cause, or blind to the wisdom of concession, have yet much to learn. They are not yet aware of the extent and variety of Catholic sufferings; the mental and personal thralldom in which we are bound; the immense means of continual annoyance, insult, and contumely to which we and our families are exposed. Nor are they yet competent to appreciate the soreness, irritation, and impatience which consequently exist in Ireland, or to calculate the probable mischiefs and disastrous effects which result from such an order of things, and may possibly soon become irremediable. The Catholics alone can enlighten their fellow-subjects, by disclosing and frequently repeating the necessary information, and pouring forth fresh remonstrances. The committee, far from presuming to dictate, or even to urge any specific proceeding to the wisdom of their fellow-Catholics, desire nothing



more ardently than to promote free and serious discussion amongst all. With unaffected earnestness and honest zeal in pursuit of emancipation, they are conscious that their countrymen will give them credit for the honorable and worthy motives which actuated them. Every honest and reflecting Catholic feels with anguish his abject depression, his systematic vassalage under the existing penal laws. His fairest hopes are depressed; his industry circumscribed; his most honorable exertions frustrated; his energies paralyzed; his person, fame, and property, and those of his family, exposed to the mercies of uncontrolled oligarchy; his servitude not merely base already, but in annual hazard of fresh degradation; the passing generation withering away in inglorious torpor; the rising youth bereft of all happy promise—of all incentive to laudable industry—of all excitement to honorable deeds.

“The committee hope that Catholics will take frequent opportunities, and as early as possible, of holding local meetings for these purposes; and there, unfettered by external authority and unaffected by dictation, apply their most serious consideration to subjects of common and weighty concern with the candor and directness of mind which appertain to the national character. The establishment of permanent boards, holding communication with the general committee in Dublin, has been deemed in several counties highly useful to the interests of the

Catholic cause. Nothing is more necessary amongst us than *self-agency*; it will produce that system of coherence of conduct which must insure success.

“In this solemn appeal to the Catholic mind of Ireland, the committee feel a deep and natural anxiety; they wish to collect and follow the sentiments of their fellow Catholics, but they wish that those sentiments may spring from as general and as active a discussion as circumstances will permit; measures grounded upon such discussion must be honest, most probably will be judicious, and cannot possibly be prejudicial.

“With a fellowship in suffering and in affection, in sorrow and in hope, with common sympathy, common prospects, and common wishes, in perfect union with you and every other upright Catholic, the general committee trust to your personal indulgence for their address, and rely upon your good sense and feeling for its liberal reception.

“Upon you and other Catholics, co-operating effectually at the present time, and openly avowing your sentiments, collected by convenient meetings for the purpose, the eyes of the committee will remain watchfully fixed. With due exertions, a few months may, perhaps, crown our joint efforts with success.

“Signed, by order,

“DANIEL O’CONNELL, Chairman.”

In the summer of 1810 a movement was made to see if something could not



be done towards effecting a *repeal of the Union*. Several members of the corporation of Dublin, looking upon the question as one in which the commercial prosperity of Ireland was deeply concerned, determined to have prepared a petition to parliament in behalf of repeal. The high-sheriffs were asked to call a meeting of the freemen and freeholders of the city, "to prepare an humble petition to his majesty and the parliament, praying for a repeal of the Act of Union, as, in common with all our unbiassed countrymen, we look upon that act as the root and origin of all our misfortunes." One of the sheriffs refused; the other agreed to call the meeting. It assembled on the 18th of September, 1810, when Sir James Reddell, the sheriff, presided. An immense assemblage was gathered, and the business formally entered upon. The petition, as prepared, was read and agreed to, O'Connell making a spirited address in its favor, and condemning the Union and its results in the most unmitigated terms. His speech was printed and spread abroad by the thousand all over the island, and it certainly made a deep impression upon his countrymen. The repeal petition was forcibly written, and urged the point at issue with great cogency and earnestness, affirming, in conclusion, "that to the repeal of the legislative union can the people of this country look, as the only efficient means of procuring its present relief, of securing its future prosperity, and securing its per-

manent connection with Great Britain." The time, however, had not yet arrived when this subject could receive its full share of attention. Just now, other and more immediately pressing topics engaged the thoughts of the Catholics in Ireland.

The government looked with some concern upon the proceedings of the Catholic committee, and it was resolved to enforce the Convention act (passed in 1793) against that body. The matter was allowed to rest for a brief period, Lord French and others declaring that they were only individuals met to petition parliament in a legal way; but in March, 1811, Mr. Ponsonby brought the subject before the House of Commons, and some very severe remarks were made on the conduct of the Irish government. In the course of the session several other warm debates took place on Irish affairs; but all attempts to obtain relief or investigation were overwhelmed by the ministerial majorities.

On the 31st of May, Grattan brought the Catholic petition before the House of Commons, but in vain. Mr. Hutchinson announced his intention of moving for the repeal of the Convention act; and on the 11th of June, Mr. Parnell repeated his motion for an inquiry into the Irish tithe system.

The Catholic committee having resolved to hold a general convention of that body, delegates were chosen from the several counties to meet in Dublin. This brought the Catholics within the



scope of the Convention act, and the magistrates were directed to enforce the law. A number of arrests were made of persons acting or being elected as delegates. When, on the 19th of October, the delegates, to the number of three hundred, met in Dublin, the magistrates interfered, and would have proceeded to further severity had not the meeting dispersed in quiet. Later in the season, December 23d, the magistrates broke up the meeting entirely. The government also proceeded to take a more stringent course. In November the attorney-general filed information against the earl of Fingall for presiding over Catholic meetings, against several persons for attending them, and against the proprietors of the "Freeman's Journal" and the "Correspondent," for publishing reports of their proceedings. On the 23d of November, the attorney-general applied for an attachment against Mr. Magee, the proprietor of the "Dublin Evening Post," for a paragraph in that paper relating to the recent prosecutions, which the attorney-general said tended to interfere with the course of justice. He at the same time announced that the court had come to the opinion that the Catholic committee was an illegal assembly, and that the prosecutions would not be persisted in if that body offered no further resistance. Immediately afterwards the Irish Catholics gave a grand dinner in Dublin, which was attended not only by some of the principal Catholic noblemen, but by many distinguished

Protestants, among whom were Grattan and Curran. Early in the year 1812, it may be here mentioned, the government carried forward the prosecutions, which resulted in several convictions, sufficient to demonstrate the power and determination of the public authorities on this subject.

An "aggregate meeting," as it was very aptly called, came together on the 26th of December, 1811, Lord Fingall being in the chair. A petition to the prince regent was determined on; strong resolutions, condemnatory of the duke of Richmond's government, were passed; the general committee was dissolved; and the "Catholic Board" established in its stead. The principle on which this board was formed was to have a council always in action, but without any delegative power such as was forbidden in the Convention act, and to get up "aggregate meetings" for the purpose of arousing and informing the people.

During 1812, Mr. (afterwards Sir Robert) Peel became chief secretary of Ireland, an office which he held much to the disgust of the Irish, for six years. Peel had little or no sympathy with the Catholic claims and demands, and his superior abilities were devoted to the maintenance of the English supremacy, and the carrying out of the laws against all offenders. He avowed plainly that, so far as he was concerned, the Roman Catholics should remain as they were, and the Protestant ascendancy not at all be lowered or diminished. Some Catholic writers speak of



Peel and his measures with exceeding severity, and affirm that, during his secretaryship, "the business of spies, informers, and police flourished." They denounced his attendants as made up of "spies, informers, expectants, place-hunters, Orange magistrates, Orange judges, Orange sheriffs, Orange juries, Orange attorney-generals;" and they tell us "that his iniquitous organization kept Ireland for twenty years in a state which no description can picture." Other writers admit his great abilities in various steps which he took during his term of office. "After a half century's experience," remarks McGee, "we may safely say that the Irish constabulary have shown themselves to be a most valuable police, and as little deserving popular ill-will as any such body can ever expect to be; but they were judged very differently during the secretaryship of their founder; for at that time, being new and intrusive, they may, no doubt, have deserved many of the hard and bitter things which were generally said of them."\*

An earnest and long debate, famous in parliamentary annals, took place early in 1812, on the state of Ireland and the claims of the Roman Catholics. But, on the whole, the result of the debate was rather prejudicial than otherwise to the Irish hopes and wishes. All the leading statesmen of the day had taken part in the discussion, and the majority in both houses had been

decisive. A feeling, moreover, seems to have grown up in the public mind, that the whigs were not altogether sincere in their advocacy of the Catholic cause, and that they rather used it as a means of advancing their party purposes than for any other effect. Then there was a potent influence in the fact that the regent had abandoned his early friends, and thrown the weight of his countenance into the scale of their opponents; and this was sufficient, for a long season, to swell the hostility on the English side of the channel, at least against the emancipation of the Catholics, in which the general welfare of Ireland was for so many years involved.

Ireland, however, was assuming more and more importance in public estimation, and questions relating to her position and claims could not longer be put aside without a hearing. Conciliation was demanded, and to some extent obtained.

Difficulties occurred in regard to the cabinet, which rendered it hard to agree upon the men who were to retain the reins of power. Lord Wellesley came out against the ministerial policy as to the Catholics. Grattan displayed his eloquence and ability in the House of Commons, where he had so often advocated emancipation. As a late writer observes: "Men were in earnest in that day of 1812, when prejudice, political rancor, and national danger

\* The term *Peeler* (derived from the secretary's name) was in use as a bitter reproach; it was sy-

nonymous with spy, informer, and every thing detestable.



threw a misty halo over all objects that the mind could contemplate; and when, whether right or wrong, they were working disinterestedly for the best object that human ingenuity could attain. Whether right or wrong, both sides were in earnest; and few discussions have taken place in the world's history, in which greater powers of debate, deeper philosophical knowledge of human interests, or broader conceptions of the world's advantage were entertained, than those exhibited in the course of these disquisitions."

The debate just spoken of produced a great and powerful impression; but there was another occurrence which surpassed it in the sensation it excited in England and Ireland. This was the statement made by Mr. Ponsonby, that the prince regent was in favor of concession to the Catholics. The sentiments and views of the regent being thus authoritatively stated, it awoke to new life and energy the hopes and expectations of those in Ireland who were studying to promote their country's welfare; and it was at once concluded by the Catholics, that all the prince regent's influence would be given in support of their claims. He was looked upon as their benefactor, and even advocate, and they counted to an extravagant extent upon his patriotic and enlarged views and promises. His ministers were denounced as being the only obstacles to the concession of their claims, and no epithet was too vile for adoption when stigmatizing their

characters, their principles, and their proceedings. In England, among the more earnest of the Protestant portion of the population, the declaration excited very great alarm; and there was, on their part, a settled determination to uphold every thing in Church and State by which they conceived the institutions of the country to be guarded, and the liberties of the people to be secured. It was a great blow and severe discouragement to that great party who had hitherto acted as the conservative supports of the government, and upon whom the reliance of those in power principally rested. The conduct of the duke of Bedford and Mr. Ponsonby was severely canvassed, and almost universally reprobated, as in palpable violation of the duty owed to the king, whose sentiments were well-known to be immovable on this subject. Their conduct was felt, on its exposure, to be absolutely militating against the cause which they professed to serve. No great cause was ever permanently successful, except through the action of perfect truth and uninterrupted honesty. The cause of the Catholics of Ireland needed no such pandering to popular clamor. It was great in itself, great in its principles, great in its action on the public mind, great in the time in which it was brought before the legislature, and great in the men by whom it was advocated and enforced.

Not only the public press, properly so-called, but men in every grade of



society, were aroused by a sense of the peril of the country, and the disadvantage to which the British government might be exposed by the admission of Catholics to seats in the legislature, and to the other high offices in the service of the State. Pamphlets, books, and appeals abounded; and not only ordinary writers, but men whose position was eminent lent their talents to the promotion of the popular feelings and views, and by animated appeals, from day to day, and week to week, the attention of the Protestants in both countries was kept alert and active. On the continent the war was raging with violence; in Ireland, acts of outrage and cruelty were perpetrated, and a system of lawless disregard towards person and property was inaugurated.

It was an unfortunate time to be seeking favors or concessions at the hands of the English government. The

course of Bonaparte, in his celebrated Milan and Berlin decrees, had produced great distress in the manufacturing districts in England, where riot and violence prevailed to an alarming degree. The present ministry, too, under the guidance of Mr. Perceval, aided by Lord-Chancellor Eldon, possessed a weight of influence never surpassed, if ever equalled; and the Catholics were at disadvantage in pressing their claims upon a government who had no sympathy with them.

The assassination of Mr. Perceval, in May, 1812, gave somewhat of a new turn to public affairs. It produced a good deal of difficulty in the ministerial ranks, owing to personal rivalry among the Whig leaders, without, however, effecting any material change. The hopes of the Catholics were again doomed to disappointment, and the day of emancipation was postponed for the present.



## CHAPTER XLVIII.

## LEADERSHIP OF O'CONNELL.—EMANCIPATION EFFECTED.

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State of affairs at this date.—Grattan's emancipation bill.—Canning's clauses.—Opinions in Ireland as to the veto.—O'Connell's course.—Speech at aggregate meeting in Dublin.—Prosecution of Maghee.—Outrages in Ireland.—Severe measures resorted to.—Petitions.—Veto question.—Inquiries into the state of Ireland.—Distress, discontent, etc.—O'Connell's statement as to veto question.—George IV. and his queen.—Plunkett's motion.—The king's visit to Ireland.—Wellesley, lord-lieutenant.—Whiteboys and Captain Rock's men.—Their excesses and cruelties.—Famine and its terrors.—Help afforded by England.—Wellesley insulted in Dublin Theatre.—Moral degradation of witnesses.—Tithe composition act.—State of education in Ireland.—Use of the Bible in schools.—The Catholic association in 1823.—Its power and influence.—Catholic rent.—Association suppressed.—New one formed.—O'Connell's threat.—Sir F. Burdett's resolution.—O'Connell's activity and influence.—Canning's ministry and death.—March of events.—O'Connell elected for County Clare.—Test and corporation acts repealed.—Wellington's and Peel's policy.—Measures adopted.—Emancipation carried.—O'Connell in the House.—Seat denied him.—Re-elected, and victory at last complete.

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(A. D. 1813 TO A. D. 1829.)

IN pursuing the course of Irish history, for a number of years to come, it is not necessary to attempt to go into any lengthy details. The one great object of the Catholic leaders, especially O'Connell, the chief, was patent to all, and it was persistently carried forward. The question of the Catholic claims, in all their length and breadth, was constantly brought before parliament, and the patriots whose names have often been mentioned in these pages, the Grattans, Cannings, Plunketts, and others, still raised their voices and gave their best efforts to secure the end desired. Concession was again and again promised, debated, almost within the grasp of the friends of Ireland; but it was again and again postponed to a later day. Evils were complained of, with steady determination to have them abated, if possible; and yet the government as steadily opposed, and threw every obstacle in the way of the demands made by the Catholics to abolish the penal laws in their various oppressive features. Nevertheless, although slowly, the course was onward; and however much hindered by folly, outbreaks of passion, and lawlessness, it was destined, in due time, to reach the goal of success.

At the close of November, 1812, a new parliament met, and the prince regent, in his opening speech, spoke of the war on the continent, the war recently begun by the United States, etc., but made no allusion to the Cath-



public claims. Canning, the previous summer, had carried a motion in favor of "such a final and conciliatory adjustment as may be conducive to the peace and strength of the United Kingdom," by a vote of two hundred and thirty-five to one hundred and six. Encouraged by this success, Grattan, on the 30th of April, 1813, introduced his Emancipation bill into parliament. It contained several important enactments, which may here be briefly noted. The preamble declared the Protestant succession to the throne and the Protestant Church establishment to be inviolable; and also, the expediency of conferring upon the Roman Catholics the blessings enjoyed by the Protestants. The bill then went on to enact that it should be lawful for persons professing the Roman Catholic faith to sit and vote in either house of parliament, upon making a declaration of oath, instead of the usual oaths of allegiance, abjuration, and supremacy, and the declarations against transubstantiation and the invocation of saints. The oath, which was very long, promised allegiance to the king, and renunciation of all temporal power or jurisdiction in the pope. On taking this oath, in its plain natural sense, Roman Catholics were eligible to hold and exercise all civil and military offices, or places of trust or profit, with the exceptions of the offices of lord-high-chancellor, lord-keeper, or lord-commissioner of the great seal of Great Britain; or lord-lieutenant, or lord-deputy, or other

chief governor or governors of Ireland; also to be a member of a lay body corporate, and to hold any civil office or place of trust therein.

Canning introduced some clauses which secured the veto power to the government. Lord Castlereagh also favored this course. When the bill came up for decision, the ministry had a small majority; and so Mr. Ponsonby moved to withdraw it, and the bill was accordingly withdrawn.

Opinions were much divided in Ireland upon this result. The desire for emancipation, and for the numerous openings that it would give the Catholics in every branch of the public service, was so intense amongst the higher classes of society, that they were indignant in the extreme that their views should be opposed by what they termed only a mere matter of discipline. If they did but grant a veto to government, emancipation was certain, and all its consequences were theirs. But they were strenuously opposed by the lower classes, the priesthood generally, and most of the popular leaders of the day. In this conflict O'Connell was particularly active, and his influence great; and, indeed, he was, throughout the whole of this period, apparently not less disinterested and patriotic than he was earnest and diligent. Amid much opposition and personal reproach, he adopted the views and policy of the priesthood in Ireland, who steadily refused any connection with the State in appointments to vacant bishoprics.



The great mass of the Roman Catholics went with them.

Aggregate meetings followed; irritation and excitement were prevalent. O'Connell's course, as the exponent and advocate of the masses, was denounced by some of the gentry. Mr. Grattan's bill was criticized, and in many respects disapproved; and the old bone of contention, the veto power, was pronounced by the Roman Catholic prelates, May 27th, "utterly incompatible with the discipline of the Roman Church, and with the free exercise of their religion;" they also declared that "they could not, without incurring the guilt of schism, accede to such regulations," as were contemplated by Mr. Grattan's bill.

A passage or two from O'Connell's speech at the aggregate meeting, held in June in Dublin, will illustrate his views and position at this date. He was received with immense popular demonstration, for which he returned abundant thanks. "Your enemies say," he went on, "and let them say, that I wish for a separation between England and Ireland. The charge is false; it is, to use a modern quotation, 'as false as hell;' and the men who originated it, and the men who inculcate it, know its falsehood. There lives not a man less desirous of a separation between the two countries; there lives not a man more deeply convinced that the connection between them, based on one king and two separate parliaments, would be of the utmost value to the

happiness of both countries, and the liberties of the civilized world. Next, your enemies accuse me of a desire for the independence of Ireland. I admit the charge; and let them make the most of it. I have seen Ireland a kingdom; I reproach myself with having lived to behold her a province. Yes, I confess it; *I have an ulterior object.* It is the *repeal of the Union*, and the restoration of old Ireland to her independence. I am told that it is indiscreet to avow this intention. It may be so; but in public affairs indiscretion amounts to dissimulation; and if to repeal the Union be the first service, as it clearly is, that can be rendered to Ireland, I, for one, most readily offer to postpone our emancipation, in order to promote the cause of our country.

"The delay of Catholic emancipation I hail with joy, because in that delay lies the only prospect of attaining my great, my ultimate object—*the legislative independence of my native land.* Emissaries are abroad. Agents have been employed. Abundance of money and great encouragement are held out to those who may seduce you from your allegiance. Should you allow yourselves to be so seduced, you would have no friends, no supporters. We who now join you in bearing down upon your oppressors; we, who expose the hypocrites that cover their bigotry in the stolen garments of religion; we, who are ready to brave every danger, to sustain every calumny, and every loss, and every personal inconvenience



in your cause, so long as you conduct that cause within the limits of the constitution; we, in whom you confide, would and must be found, if you violate the law, in the ranks of your enemies, and in arms. For myself, I will tell you honestly, that if ever that fatal day arrives you will find me arrayed against you."

In 1814, aggregate meetings were held in various parts of Ireland. The Catholic board fell into insignificance, and was suppressed by the government. O'Connell was the head and soul of the democratic movement for arousing the *people* of Ireland, not simply the aristocracy or gentry. Maghee, of the "Dublin Evening Post," in which certain resolutions passed at one of the aggregate meetings were published, was prosecuted anew, and a fine of £1,000 added, with two years' imprisonment.\* This roused up more ill-blood, and deeper hatred of the English government. Agrarian outrages, against which O'Connell exerted all his influence, and which so long and so seriously disturbed and injured the country, were continued with increased violence, so that neither life nor property became safe. Political feeling was roused to the utmost degree of rancor, and secret societies were formed which were most treasonable in their nature, and fraught with the greatest danger to the country, and which, no doubt, were guided and controlled by men in

higher positions than was generally supposed.

The Irish government, Lord Whitworth being now lord-lieutenant in place of the duke of Richmond, felt unable to grapple with existing difficulties. Peel consequently called for the passage of an Insurrection bill, which was promptly carried through parliament in July, 1814. The result of this severe measure was only partially beneficial. Outrage and disorder were by no means suppressed, and a deeper gloom seemed to be settling over unhappy Ireland.

The next year, in May, 1815, a petition of the Roman Catholics of Ireland was presented in parliament, and redress of grievances was earnestly besought. A petition of like import was brought in from Catholics in England. Nothing, however, was effected at this time. The old trouble of the veto power was not yet at rest. For months the fire smouldered, and at last the prelates of their Church met, and agreed upon a petition to the prince regent, demanding, in somewhat imperative terms, a redress of the grievances under which they, and their fellow-countrymen of the same persuasion, labored; and expressing their feeling that emancipation, with the veto attached, would only be changing one form of oppression for another. An appeal was at the same time made to the pope for his sanction to their proceedings; but

\* The year before this same person had been prosecuted for libel and convicted, although O'Connell

made a most powerful and able defence in his behalf.



the pope declined giving any positive reply just then. Parliament was opened by commission, February 1, 1816, Ireland being in a distracted and unsettled state, and requiring a large body of troops to repress the spirit of insubordination in almost every part of the island.

In April, Sir John Newport made a motion to inquire into the state of Ireland, especially as to the reasons why it was necessary to support an army of twenty-five thousand men to keep that country in order. Peel's amendment was to the effect of asking from the prince regent a statement of the nature and extent of the disturbances lately prevalent in Ireland, and the measures taken to put an end to them. The amendment was carried by a large majority; and Lord Whitworth, in June, sent a dispatch going at large into the subject. The document was long, and presented a fearful catalogue of outbreaks against peace, and life, and property, as well as the stringent course pursued by the government in their efforts to maintain law and order.

Other petitions were presented; but they met with the usual fate, Ireland continuing in a state of disquietude and resistance to the government. There was additional reason for disturbances in this year, for the people of Ireland had been peculiarly affected by the commercial and agricultural distress which pervaded the whole of the empire. The necessaries of life had become exceedingly dear, and great mel-

ancholy was thrown over the national spirit from the little prospect held out that the evils which the people endured were likely to be mitigated by any speedy alleviation. No gain had been made in the way of parliamentary relief for the Catholic disabilities, and as much discord prevailed among the councils of the Catholic leaders as had ever distinguished the chief adherents of their faith. To one thing only did they commonly consent, and that was an unremitted continuance of application to parliament for admittance to seats in both houses of the legislature. Grattan, in the House, and Lord Donoughmore, in the Lords, pressed the Catholic claims. This was in 1817. Again the next year the subject was resumed, and debated by such men as Grattan, Earl Grey, Lord Liverpool, etc., but to no real purpose. The Protestant ascendancy was too strong to be moved.

The condition of things for several years was disheartening in the extreme. General prostration of business, discontent, suffering, and poverty of the masses, influence of demagogues, severity of taxation, and such like, kept Ireland in a state which can only be imagined, not described. England, likewise, suffered from similar causes, and its history, too, shows how profoundly depressed was the English nation by its struggles with Napoleon and its contest with America. No wonder that the prince regent was hooted at in the street, and his carriage



stoned, in January, 1817, as he was returning from the opening of parliament. No wonder that Ireland exhibited so widely the spirit of discontent, and a fierce determination to return evil for evil.\*

The tenacity of the Irish on the subject of the veto was astonishing; but it was mainly owing to O'Connell and the priesthood. O'Connell himself, some years later (in 1832), affirmed this very decidedly: "The Catholic laity were totally repugnant to allow the crown any power to nominate the Catholic bishops of Ireland. We steadily opposed the court of Rome, as well as the inclination shown by our own prelates; we resolutely resisted the wishes of our nobility, and of so many of our merchants, backed, as they were, by the almost universal voice of the Catholics of England; and we firmly, loudly, and emphatically declared that we would not accept of emancipation upon terms so derogatory to public liberty, as the power of nominating the bishops of another Church must be if vested in the crown—that is, in the ministers of the day. For this we deserve the thanks of every lover of constitutional freedom; and, for my own part, I do believe that the reform bill would never have been carried if we had yielded that additional influence to the ministers of the crown. Those who recollect how much the Irish

members contributed to carrying that bill, will probably accede to the truth of my opinion."

King George III. died January 29, 1820, aged eighty-two, having been king for nearly sixty years. George IV. succeeded him, and his wife, from whom he had been separated for more than twenty years, came to England to claim her rank as queen consort. Her case excited great sympathy; and the trial which was brought by the king, resulted, in November, in her acquittal. The king was a profligate *roué*, and had disgusted the people by his immorality and vice. Public indignation ran high and serious outbreaks were apprehended; but Queen Caroline died in August, 1821, and her wrongs were buried with her in the grave.

In the session of 1821, Mr. Plunkett renewed the movement in favor of Catholic emancipation. Petitions came in abundantly from Protestants against and from Catholics in favor of the motion. This was in England; but in Ireland there was little spirit on the subject, for Mr. Plunkett, being a supporter of the veto, was not looked upon with much esteem by the masses. The measure was warmly debated in both houses, the Duke of York, among others, throwing the weight of his influence against it. Of course, it failed of obtaining approval.

Parliament was prorogued in July, 1821, and George IV., considering it a good stroke of policy, resolved to visit Ireland. The people, with that impul-

\* John Philpot Curran, the orator and wit, died in 1817. Henry Grattan, equally eminent in his devotion to Ireland's cause, died in 1820.



siveness which characterizes them, were enthusiastic in receiving the king, and they counted extravagantly upon the good which was to flow from his visit. The king made his public entry into Dublin, August 17th, amidst all the magnificence of a State procession, and applauded by the tens of thousands that attended his progress. During the day he held a drawing-room, at which all the nobility and gentry of any note, at that time in the country, attended. Nothing could be more enthusiastic or cordial than his reception, and he remained a month dispensing and enjoying hospitality, apparently perfectly satisfying his own and his people's feelings.\* Addresses, breathing the utmost loyalty, were presented by the city of Dublin; the clergy, with the bishops and archbishops at their head; the university, with all its dignitaries; and yet, after the departure of the king in September, the most violent outrages were perpetrated, in the three last months of the year, that had ever been known in Ireland. The bubble of conciliation soon burst, and a system of assassination was commenced, which the pen refuses to attempt to delineate. The masses, with blind fury, rushed into every kind of outrage and cruelty, not being able apparently to perceive that every act of the kind only put further and further off the day of emancipation and freedom.

Lord Wellesley, who succeeded Lord Talbot in the vice-royalty in Ireland, was looked upon as a more than usually liberal ruler. He had not any prejudices against the Catholics, but was rather disposed to favor them all he could. Plunkett, also, now took the place of Saurin, the decided Protestant, as attorney-general; and so far as appearances went, the Catholic cause had gained ground. But the Protestants in Ireland were active and zealous in their opposition. Addresses were presented to the new lord-lieutenant in January, 1822, and it was hoped that a better state of things was already begun; but he found himself unable to reconcile the strife and faction among the richer and higher classes; still less was he able to control the fierce passions and outbreaks among the poorer and more disaffected of the people.

The "White-boys," so called from wearing white shirts or frocks over their clothes in order to prevent identification, were especially active and unsparing in their deeds of cruelty. These, and "Captain Rock's Men," in the South and West of Ireland, kept the country in a continual alarm, and, despite all the efforts of the police and military, committed outrages in great numbers. A Roman Catholic writer, lamenting the impediment which conduct of this kind threw in the way of O'Connell and emancipation, remarks:

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\* Lord Castlereagh (now Marquis of Londonderry), whom the Irish Catholics hated and reviled with intense bitterness, accompanied the king in his visit to

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Ireland. The next year, August 12, 1823, he put an end to his own life in a temporary fit of insanity.



"The object of these societies was to procure the lowering of rents, the mitigation of the tithe system, and to prevent the ejectment of the tenantry by the great landlords. They legislated at midnight, and enforced their decrees with terrible celerity. They grew into importance in the years ranging from 1821 to 1825, and derived either their origin or principal support from the oppressions practised by the agents of the 'Courtenay Estates,' a considerable landed property in the county of Clare, the agent of which began a wholesale ejection of the small tenants from the lands. These dispossessed men, maddened by despair, plotted together for the destruction of those whom they looked on as the authors of their ruin. Several murders by assassination were the consequence, and a full crop of approvers, hangings, and transportations followed in regular succession. The peasantry in the South and West, oppressed almost to death by rack-rents, ejectments, and tithes, leagued with the Captain Rock societies to intimidate the gentry. Vast districts became infected, disturbed, or subject to insurrection laws; special commissions for the trial of offenders, and a long train of congenial evils, followed as the only remedies at the disposal of government."

At the opening of parliament, in February, 1822, immediate steps were taken with reference to the state and condition of affairs in Ireland. The suspension act was re-enacted, and the

*habeas corpus* was suspended, to last for a period of six months. Violence and disorder, however, continued, and murders were not infrequent. The Irish government acted with energy and there was speedily some abatement of the terrible lawlessness of these deluded men. Various causes operated, in addition to those already named, for rousing up and keeping alive these shocking exhibitions of passion and violence; but probably no one was so powerful for evil as the practice of illicit distillation, which rapidly demoralized the peasantry, and brought additional trials upon the Irish people.

About the end of April, something of an aspect of tranquillity was restored to the country; but a new and more terrifying visitation was at hand. In consequence of the heavy and incessant rains of the preceding year, the potatoes, which formed the staple of the food of the people in the South, decayed and perished in the ground. This attracted but little attention for a time among men who had grown their own, and they went on consuming as usual so long as their stores lasted, each believing that when his own supply should be exhausted he would easily be able to purchase more in the market through the means of his labor. But when their stock was really finished, and they applied to the public vendors, they found that potatoes, which were usually three halfpence a stone, had risen to sixpence-halfpenny while, from the distress of the country



their labor was little required. Potatoes being thus placed quite beyond the reach of the lower orders, they were compelled to resort to oatmeal mixed with water; and happy was he who could procure one scanty repast of that sustenance during the day, for this resource also shortly failed them. Before the beginning of May, the whole of Connaught and Munster was in a state of starvation. The peasantry, leaving their cabins and the little allotments of ground whence they had derived their scanty subsistence, crowded into the villages, in vain seeking for employment or to be relieved by the charity of those who were in almost as bad a position as themselves. There was scarcely a town in the South, the streets of which were not filled with hundreds of able-bodied men, wandering in quest of food, or the means wherewith it might be obtained. Nor was this evil by any means confined to the lowest class of the population, for Sir Edward O'Brien asserted that fully one-third of the respectable inhabitants of the county of Clare were reduced to a condition little short of actual starvation; and all the neighboring counties, more especially Cork, Limerick, Kerry, Mayo, Roscommon, and Sligo, were in a similar position. It was not, however, the present suffering only, with which the people had to contend. There was the prospect of the mischief becoming permanent, for, under the constraining power of hunger, the poor were compelled to consume those potatoes which

they had saved for seed. The hay also became scarce, and a great mortality consequently ensued among the cattle, and then came typhus, with its hideous train of horrors, to darken the aspect of national distress. Nothing could be perceived but a sad alternation of misery; and the districts which had, only a few weeks before, been the scenes of nightly assassination and plunder, now presented but one oppressive spectacle of famine and disease.

In this dire calamity happily aid was not wanting. Not only the government but more especially individuals came forward, and large sums were contributed to help the starving population. Cargoes of potatoes, oats, and other cheap kinds of food were sent. Work was afforded by the authorities as widely as possible, and a spirit of warm sympathy everywhere manifested. In June, 1822, it was estimated that in the county of Clare, with a population of two hundred thousand, one-half were subsisting on charity from day to day. In other counties the proportion was even greater than this, of those who were the recipients of the bounty so generously bestowed.

Lord Wellesley, whose policy was that of conciliation, discouraged the anti-Catholic party in every way in his power. This stirred up an ill-feeling on the part of the Orangemen, who used regularly, on the 4th of November, to decorate the statue of William III., in College Green, Dublin. The lord-lieutenant having forbidden this



annual proceeding, so offensive to the Catholics, he soon had a practical proof of loss of popularity. One evening, December 14, he was grossly insulted at the theatre by hisses, and old bottles and other things thrown at the stage-box. Prosecutions were set on foot, but to little purpose; for, on a general investigation into the administration of justice, it was found that witnesses could not be relied on, that they were partisans wherever religious or political sentiments were in question. So strikingly was this the case, that at the Carrickfergus Assizes the judges refused to take the testimony of either side, Catholics or Protestants, and dismissed the case with a well-deserved reproof to all concerned. Insults of every description were bandied from one to the other, riots ensued, and the hatred between the Orangemen and the Ribbonmen seemed unquenchable. The pen wearies in recounting the outrage and desolation which resulted, and made 1823 almost, if not quite, equal its predecessor.

The tithe composition act, passed in the previous session, began to work at the latter end of 1823, and in the course of February, 1824, so anxious were the owners of tithes to avoid any pretence for predial outrage, that a return was made, stating that out of a thousand applications from different parishes to carry its arrangements into effect, more than five hundred had proceeded from the different incumbents. Several discussions took place, in the

course of the present session, on the state of education, and it was generally agreed that in this respect the country was in an improving state. In 1773, as appeared by a return in the west and southwest parts of Ireland, there were only eight schools, while in 1816 there were eight hundred, and in this year, 1824, there were as many as one thousand one hundred and twenty-two. The poorer part of the population seemed to be alive to the benefit placed within their reach, for their children were readily sent to be instructed. The Bible, without note or comment, was used in the schools; but no attempt, it was stated, was made to derive any particular doctrine from its contents—the children were simply made acquainted with the text. This was not consonant with the views of the Catholic clergy and the doctrines of the Church. They therefore discouraged the attendance of the children; and, in the course of March, their bishops presented a petition to the House of Commons, in which they complained that the public money granted for the promotion of education in Ireland was applied in such a manner that Roman Catholics could not conscientiously avail themselves of the instruction thereby provided.

The astute leader of the Catholics was not slow to take advantage of the existing state of things. In the spring of 1823 he organized the "Catholic Association," at an aggregate meeting held in Dublin, and in due time it



worked well for the noble cause on which his heart, as well as the hearts of all patriotic lovers of their native land were firmly set. The Association held regular sessions in Dublin; nominated committees; received petitions; referred them to a committee of grievance; ordered a census of the population to be taken; assessed cities, towns, and parishes, and appointed collectors in every district for the receipt of what was called the "Catholic rent." By this *rent* was meant the subscription of one penny per month from each Catholic. At first the proposal did not meet with favor or success; but after a year or two, by persevering efforts, the *rent* became a settled and important part of the plans which O'Connell was carrying out. It gave life and interest to the cause, and in less than two years it amounted to £500 a week. Newspapers were set a going, lawyers were paid to defend cases in court, subsidies were voted for Catholic poor-schools, electioneering agents and expenses were paid, etc.

Government became alarmed at the progress and course of the Association,\* and steps were taken to suppress this and other like societies. A bill passed

both houses of parliament to this effect, and the Association quietly dissolved. But a "*new Catholic Association*" was formed immediately, ostensibly for "charitable and other purposes," but in reality to add fresh energy to the cause of emancipation and freedom.

Early in March, 1825, and while the unlawful societies' bill was pending in the House of Lords, Sir Francis Burdett submitted a series of resolutions to the House of Commons, the effect of which was that it was desirable and expedient that the Roman Catholics should be admitted to the same political privileges as their Protestant fellow-subjects. The resolutions were adopted by a considerable majority, and a bill was founded upon them, which, after a long and stormy debate and several adjournments, passed its third reading on the 10th of May, by a majority of nineteen in a very full house. There was every prospect of its passing the Lords also; but, on the second reading of the bill, the Duke of York went down to the house and emphatically declared himself against it.† Such an intimation from the heir presumptive to the throne had naturally great weight, and the bill was conse-

\* In a speech of O'Connell's, at this date, he used the following language: "I warn the British minister against either intimidating or coercing the people of Ireland. They are a brave and a chivalrous race, whose valor the history of all Europe attests. If ever they shall be driven to the field to vindicate their liberties, they may not want another Bolivar to animate their efforts!" The Government desired to punish O'Connell for such language; but the Dublin grand jury refused to find a true bill against him.

† "I have been," said the duke, "for five-and-twenty years, ever since the question has been agitated, advocating the cause of Protestant ascendancy. I have been brought up from my earliest years in these principles; and from the time when I began to reason for myself, I have entertained them from conviction; and in every situation I may be placed in during my future life, I will maintain them, *so help me God!*"



quently negatived by a majority of forty-eight.

O'Connell and several other delegates appeared in London, and gave audience before committees of both houses on the state of Ireland. The great leader lost some popularity by his course in England; but on his return to Ireland he readily persuaded his countrymen that he was acting all the time for their best interests. He exerted his enormous influence at the general election of 1826, and succeeded in defeating the candidates of the opposition in various quarters. The machinery of the Association worked excellently; there was no lack of money, and every thing betokened that the day of success was not far distant. The Earl of Liverpool died in February, 1827, and the king invited Canning to form a cabinet. This was attended with several trying difficulties, Peel, Lord Eldon, and the Duke of Wellington declining to be associated with him. Canning seems to have felt keenly the desertion of his old allies; and it preyed upon his spirit so much that serious illness began to undermine his system. During his short administration several acts were passed for the regulation and improvement of the prisons and lunatic asylums in Ireland, and several other details were rectified, which contributed much to the general welfare of the country. After the session he went to the Duke of Devon-

shire's villa at Chiswick, for change of air and rest; but it was to no purpose. After a few days of suffering, he expired on the 8th of August.

Events were now rapidly progressing towards the end, which it was evident must soon be attained. On Canning's death the Duke of Wellington became premier, and O'Connell and his co-workers bent themselves vigorously in opposition. By a happy discovery, it was found that the act which forbade Catholics to sit in parliament did not forbid them to be *elected members*. Hence, acting on this shrewd view of the state of things, O'Connell himself became a candidate for the county of Clare, in the summer of 1828, and announced that, in case of his election, he could pass to the speaker's table in the House of Commons without taking any objectionable oath. After a spirited contest he was declared by the sheriff to be elected, much to the joy of the Catholics, and not a little to the surprise and alarm of the Government.

At the opening of parliament, in February, 1828, Lord John Russell moved for the repeal of the test and corporation acts. As these were at this date of little effect, being practically obsolete, the motion was carried without difficulty. The Catholic Association, meanwhile, continued its active efforts; meetings were held almost daily, and the *rent* came in at the rate of £1,000 a week.\* The Marquis of

\* The North of Ireland did not respond according to the wishes of the Association. Mr. Lawless thereupon

went on a mission to rouse up the people of that region; but the principal result was the renewal of old



Anglesea, the lord-lieutenant, favored most decidedly the claims of emancipation, and he communicated his views to the Government in England. The Duke of Wellington found that he must act with promptness and firmness, and either put down by military force the Catholic agitation, or consent to the demands which they made so steadily and so perseveringly. He chose the latter alternative, with the concurrence of Mr. Peel, and proceeded at once to carry out into action his present design.

Parliament met early in February, 1829, and the king recommended early attention to the claims of the Catholics. As Wellington was determined to *legislate* rather than *negotiate*, various measures were proposed and carried through parliament despite the earnest opposition of the Protestants in both countries. A bill suppressing the Catholic Association was passed in March; the Catholic Relief Bill was warmly debated in both houses, but became a law on the 13th of April, three weeks only after it was introduced into the legislature; the bill abolishing the forty-shilling freeholders was next passed, by raising the county franchise to ten pounds for every freeholder.

Thus, after thirty years' agitation and pressure, by the irresistible progress of events, and by that necessity which Peel urged as an excuse for his complete change of opinion and action

in less than a year—thus emancipation was effected, and the Protestant ascendancy destroyed forever.

O'Connell, though member elect, did not hurry himself to take a seat in parliament. On the 15th of May, 1829, he was introduced into the House by Lords Ebrington and Dungannon, and advanced to the speaker's table. On the oaths being tendered to him, he passed his fingers over those of abjuration and supremacy, and refused to take them. The circumstance was reported to the speaker, who immediately ordered him to withdraw. O'Connell stood for a few moments in perfect silence, when the order was repeated, and he claimed a right to be heard in his place in defence of his seat. The speaker again repeated his order to withdraw, which O'Connell, bowing to the chair, immediately obeyed. A long debate ensued, which was postponed for a few days. On the 18th, Peel moved that O'Connell be heard at the bar. The successful leader of the Catholics made a speech of two hours, very eloquent, and full of argumentative appeals. O'Connell was sent back to Ireland, owing to a clause in the Relief Bill, which did not admit of his then taking his seat. He was received, as may be supposed, with the most unbounded enthusiasm, as the great champion of national rights and glory. A new writ was issued for County Clare, and O'Connell was returned without opposition. His prog-

feuds and disputes. The *Order of Pacificators* was started, and it is stated that they were very successful

in reconciling enemies, and removing long-standing animosities.



ress from Ennis to Dublin, about one hundred and twenty miles, was one grand triumphal procession; and, at last, he had gained the victory of his life, and vindicated his right to sit in parliament.

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## CHAPTER XLIX.

### IRELAND'S INTELLECTUAL AND MORAL POSITION.

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Ireland distinguished for brilliant orators, poets, writers, etc.—Her contributions to literature and science.—Her Burkes, Grattans, Currans, Edgeworths, etc.—THOMAS MOORE, the poet *par excellence* of Ireland.—Birth and education.—Visits America.—Duel with Jeffrey.—Marriage.—His “Irish Melodies.”—“Lalla Rookh,” and biographical and historical works.—Receives a pension of £300.—Death, in 1852, and character.—THOMAS DAVIS, a poet and prose writer of note.—Connected with the “Nation.”—Object of this journal.—Davis’s labors.—Death in 1845.—Extracts from his literary and historical essays.—FATHER MATHEW.—Birth and education.—Becomes a priest.—Labors among the poor in and around the city of Cork.—Enters on the temperance movement.—Marvellous effects of his labors.—Visits other cities with great success.—Goes to England.—Thence visits the United States.—Returns to Ireland, and dies in 1856.—Beneficial results of his life and career.—Statements of Mr. Smyth on Father Mathew’s devotion to temperance.—All honor to his name!

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AS a relief to the ordinary and somewhat tedious details of civil and political history, in which struggles for liberty and aspirations after freedom occupy almost entire attention, it may be well at this point to pause awhile, and invite the reader’s consideration to some other matters, more especially those which relate to the poets, prose writers, philanthropists, etc., of Ireland.

Though so oppressed and down-trodden by centuries of misrule and injustice, Ireland has always been distinguished for the brilliancy and fervor of her poets, orators, and statesmen. Ireland has given birth to men of the loftiest genius, of the most wide-spread fame, and of the largest influence in the forum, as well as in the domain of learning and science; and while we are far from having any wish to disparage or undervalue the great men and the noble productions of other lands, we maintain that Ireland has done her share, and more than her share, in her contributions to the wealth of the world’s literature.

As illustrating these general remarks, we shall call the reader’s attention to a few of the great names on the roll of honor of Ireland’s sons. We need not attempt here to speak at all at large of such names as Burke, Grattan, Curran, Sheridan, Flood, Wellington, Rosse, and the like. We have not space at



command to enter into any disquisition upon the lives and writings of Goldsmith, Lady Morgan, Miss Edgeworth, Maginn, Lover, Carleton, and others. It must suffice that we now merely allude to these gifted sons of Ireland, and use the page or two we have to spare in speaking first of one who is, *par excellence*, the most honored bard of his native land.

Thomas Moore stands pre-eminent among the poets in the former half of the present century. Born May 28, 1779, in Dublin, of parents in moderate position in life, he became in due time a fellow-student at Trinity College with Robert Emmett, and other active spirits of the day. Almost in the nursery he began to rhyme, and to give expression to his conceptions by singing them aloud. He wrote odes at school, and translated Anacreon in College. At the age of twenty he went to London to study law in the Middle Temple; but having published his Anacreon the next year, and thereby been introduced into literary and fashionable society, he gave but slight attention to the law and its dry and dull details. In 1803 he went to Bermuda as registrar to the admiralty; but not liking the place, and pining after life in the metropolis, he left his office in the hands of a deputy, and made a rapid visit to the United States and Canada. He was severe upon American institutions and the like, but rather through want of knowledge than malice; and in later life he was quite ashamed, and wished

to recall every unpleasant word. 'The "Odes and Epistles," in which Moore thus vented his satire, contained worse things than satire, indecency and very doubtful morality. Jeffrey handled him very sharply in the *Edinburg Review*, and Moore challenged the reviewer to a duel in consequence. They met at Chalk Farm, August 12, 1806, but were prevented by the police from taking one another's lives. Subsequently, these two men, so unlike, became warm friends.

For some years Moore lived a gay life, and was much in the company of Lord Moira, Lord Lansdowne, and other Whig peers; but did little or nothing with his pen. In 1811 he married Miss Dyke, a young actress, with whom he lived happily, and for whom he began to make literature a profession. Besides *jeux d'esprit* and political squibs, Moore wrote many songs adapted to the ancient music of Ireland, and entitled "Irish Melodies." These brought him great fame, and will probably always remain the most popular of his productions. Between 1814 and 1816 he devoted himself to "Lalla Rookh," an oriental romance, overflowing with Eastern imagery and melodiousness of composition. Longman paid him £3,000 for it, and it attained immense popularity and success.

Without undertaking to give a full list of Moore's works, we may mention that he wrote the "Life of Sheridan" (1825); "Memoirs of Captain Rock"



(1824), a witty political effort; "Notices of the Life of Lord Byron," 2 vols. (1830); "Memoirs of Lord Edward Fitzgerald" (1831); "A History of Ireland" (1835), for Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopædia; made a collection of his poetical works in 10 vols. (1842); wrote occasionally some poetry for the columns of the London Times, etc. In 1835 a pension of £300 was conferred on him, and in 1850 £100 a year was settled on his wife. Moore lived most of his life out of his native country; but when occasional visits were paid to Ireland, he was received with enthusiastic admiration and pride; for his countrymen felt that at heart he was their staunch advocate and friend, and that he had more than once displayed patriotism, courage, and independence worthy of his name and origin.

Moore died February 26, 1852, and his Memoirs, Journal, and Correspondence were published in eight volumes (1853-56), edited by Lord John Russell at Moore's special request. We shall not attempt any summing up of the character and ability of Thomas Moore; but shall content ourselves with quoting the words of an ardent countryman of the Bard of Erin:

"Who has not banqueted on the melody of his inspired muse? Who has not plucked wisdom from his wit, delight from his sentiment, or spirit from his strains? Who has not felt his griefs or his joys expressed by Thomas Moore? What sentiment has he not enrobed in the lovely drapery

of his brilliant fancy? It was Moore who won homage from our oppressors, while he told them unwelcome truths, and evoked resistance to their sway; the doing which any other man would have expiated with his life upon the scaffold. He wrote in a season when it was literally "treason to love and death to defend" his country. The beauty and power of his strains paralyzed the uplifted arm of his enemies, and, as he well expressed it—

'The stranger shall hear thy lament on his plains;  
The sigh of thy harp shall be sent o'er the deep;  
Till thy masters themselves, as they rivet thy chains  
Shall pause at the song of their captive, and weep'

All this, and much more, has been realized for Erin by the poetry of her own immortal bard."

Another name, akin to Moore's in poetic fervor and ability, and even superior to him in the keenness and power of his pen in poetic composition, demands brief notice at our hands. Thomas Davis, born at Mallow, County Cork, in 1814, is one of Ireland's sons who will live in his country's history. An ardent and whole-souled patriot, devoted to the interests of Ireland with every faculty of body and mind, he stands forth as one not among the least of those who have lived and breathed only to effect the repeal of the hated Union with England, and the entire independence of their native land. Distinguished as a poet, as well as a prose writer, Davis has contributed some of the most stirring and pathetic pieces which have ever appeared in the pub



the press. Journalism is now so potent an instrument in the world's affairs, so much more is now accomplished by it than by almost any other mode, that Thomas Davis, having received a thorough education at Trinity College, early joined himself to the corps of writers for the "Nation." This powerful paper, as is well known, is the oracle and hope of Ireland. It has awakened every Irish heart, and its whole aim is to secure the freedom of the land which gave birth to the O'Neils, and Sarsfields, and Tones, and Emmetts, and thousands of other patriots and statesmen. And for years, Davis devoted himself to adding force and vigor to its regular issues. Indeed, his life was expended in its service, and up to the last, called away as he was when only comparatively a young man, Davis thought, and wrote, and labored through its columns for the good of his beloved country.

Thomas Davis died September 16, 1845, and several volumes of his poetic and other contributions to the "Nation" have been published by sorrowing friends, who had counted largely upon the increased and increasing field of usefulness which he was yet to fill. As specimens of his ability, we give an extract or two from a volume of "Literary and Historical Essays," gathered from the "Nation." They will help, better than any thing else we can say, to illustrate the spirit and energy of the man.

In speaking of "The History of To-

Day, Mr. Davis says: "From 1793 to 1829—for thirty-six years—the Irish Catholics struggled for emancipation. *That* emancipation was but admission to the bench, the inner bar, and parliament. It was won by self-denial, genius, vast and sustained labors, and lastly by the sacrifice of the forty-shilling freeholders—the poor veterans of the war—and by submission to insulting oaths; yet it was cheaply bought. Not so cheaply, perchance, as if won by the sword; for, on it were expended more treasures, more griefs, more intellect, more passion, more of all which makes life welcome, than had been needed for war; still it was cheaply bought, and Ireland has glorified herself, and will through ages triumph in the victory of '29. Yet what was emancipation compared to repeal? The one put a silken badge on a few members of one profession; the other would give to all professions and all trades the rank and riches which resident proprietors, domestic legislation, and flourishing commerce infallibly create. Emancipation made it possible for Catholics to sit on the judgment-seat; but it left a foreign administration which has excluded them, save in two or three cases, where over-topping eminence made the acceptance of a judgeship no promotion; and it left the local judges—those with whom the people had to deal—as partial, ignorant, and bigoted as ever; while repeal would give us an Irish code and Irish-hearted judges in every court, from the



chancery to the petty sessions. Emancipation dignified a dozen Catholics with a senatorial name in a foreign and hostile legislature. Repeal would give us a senate, a militia, an administration, all our own. The penal code, as it existed since 1793, insulted the faith of the Catholics, restrained their liberties, and violated the public Treaty of Limerick. The Union has destroyed our manufactures, prohibits our flag, prevents our commerce, drains our rental, crushes our genius, makes our taxation a tribute, our representation a shadow, our name a by-word. It were nobler to strive for repeal than to get emancipation.

"The world attended us with its thoughts and prayers. The graceful genius of Italy and the profound intellect of Germany paused to wish us well. The fiery heart of France tolerated our unarmed effort, and proffered its aid. America sent us money, thought, love—she made herself a part of Ireland in her passions and her organization. From London to the wildest settlement which throbs in the tropics, or shivers nigh the pole, the empire of our misruler was shaken by our effort. To all earth we proclaimed our wrongs. To man and God we made oath that we would never cease to strive, till an Irish nation stood supreme on this island. The genius which roused and organized us, the energy which labored, the wisdom that taught, the manhood which rose up, the patience which obeyed, the faith

which swore, and the valor that strained for action, are here still, experienced, recruited, resolute. The future shall realize the promise of the past."

Ireland's people are depicted with a master-hand: "We have never concealed the defects or flattered the good qualities of our countrymen. We have told them in good faith that they wanted many an attribute of a free people, and that the true way to command happiness and liberty was by learning the arts and practising the culture that fitted men for their enjoyment. Nor was it until we saw them thus learning and thus practising, that our faith became perfect, and that we felt entitled to say to all men, here is a strife in which it will be stainless glory to be even defeated.

"In a climate soft as a mother's smile, on a soil fruitful as God's love, the Irish peasant mourns. Consider his griefs! They begin in the cradle; they end in the grave. Suckled by a breast that is supplied from unwholesome or insufficient food, and that is fevered with anxiety; reeking with the smoke of an almost chimneyless cabin; assailed by wind and rain when the weather rages; breathing, when it is calm, the exhalations of a rotten roof, of clay walls, and of manure, which gives his only chance of food—he is apt to perish in his infancy. Or he survives all this (happy if he have escaped from gnawing scrofula or familiar fever), and, in the same cabin, with rags instead of his mother's breast,



and lumpers instead of his mother's milk, he spends his childhood.

"Aristocracy of Ireland, will ye do nothing? Will ye do nothing for fear? The body who best know Ireland, the body that keep Ireland within the law—the repeal committee—declare that unless some great change take place, an agrarian war may ensue! Do ye know what *that* is, and how it would come? The rapid multiplication of outrages, increased violence by magistrates, collisions between the people and the police, coercive laws and military force, the violation of houses, the suspension of industry, the conflux of discontent, pillage, massacre, war, the gentry shattered, the peasantry conquered and decimated, or victorious and ruined (for who could rule them?)—*there is an agrarian insurrection!* May Heaven guard us from it! May the fear be vain!"

Another of Ireland's honored sons, and one of the greatest benefactors of his countrymen which the world has ever seen, was that distinguished reformer and philanthropist, the Reverend Theobald Mathew, familiarly known, in Europe and America, as "FATHER MATHEW." He was born in Tipperary, October 10, 1790. Though left an orphan at an early age, he was adopted by an aunt, and helped forward in his education; and after a course of study at Maynooth, he was ordained a priest in Dublin, in 1814. The chief scene of his labors was in Cork, where for more than twenty years he devoted himself

to the interests of his flock, with a zeal and patience worthy of his high vocation. The love and reverence of the poor were, we are assured, almost boundless; the favor and countenance of those among the higher ranks were also freely bestowed upon him; and had he done no more than labor in his quiet, obscure position in Cork and its vicinity, he would have been entitled to all honor and praise.

But when the subject of temperance, or abstinence from intoxicating drinks, became a matter of public interest (in 1838 and 1839), Father Mathew entered into it with all his heart. He had seen too much of the misery and wretchedness consequent upon drunkenness, he had noted too often the hard lot of the drunkard's wife and children, not to have all his sympathies aroused to seek out some way and means by which the downward, degrading course of thousands upon thousands could be arrested. He began with the people immediately around and about him, and was very successful. A *pledge* was prepared and administered, and, what was better, was *kept*, to the wonderful improvement of those brought under Father Mathew's influence. "Confirmed drunkards, whose days and nights were passed in a maze of intoxication, profane swearing, and every species of crime, were seen suddenly awakened from their stupor of infamy—were seen becoming industrious, cleanly, better clothed, more frequently in the church, and never in the public



house. Their wives and little children proclaimed, in their cheerful eyes, the happy results of temperance. Father Mathew, who had been the agent of this change, was looked upon by the people, and not without reason, as a thrice-blessed man. His words were the words of a prophet; and the pledges plighted in his presence were vows to Heaven which it were perdition to break." This great and good man was ere long called on to labor in a wider sphere. He visited Limerick, and administered the pledge to more than fifty thousand. At Galway one hundred thousand took the pledge in two days. His greatest triumph was in Dublin, which he visited in March, 1840. Crowds flocked to hear him, and listen to his persuasive appeals in favor of teetotalism. Ten thousand were enrolled on the first day. The whole city was stirred up; thousands upon thousands, filled with enthusiasm, flocked around him, vowing, upon their bended knees, under the wide canopy of heaven, and before their God and their country, to be temperate for evermore.

Thenceforth, Father Mathew became the "Apostle of Temperance," and converts, numbered by the million, have been enrolled among those vowing never to touch liquor in any shape or form. He next went to London, Liverpool, Manchester, and other places in England, where he was listened to with

earnest and increasing interest. Subsequently he extended his philanthropic labors to the United States, and lectured in the principal cities with very great success. He returned to Ireland in the autumn of 1851, and five years afterwards, December 8, 1856, he died.

The beneficial results of Father Mathew's labors can hardly be fully estimated. In Ireland, especially, he has accomplished that for millions of his countrymen, without which, if they were to gain entire independence of England's control, they could neither enjoy nor retain their freedom. A brighter day has dawned upon Ireland since that long-suffering country has begun to realize the value and importance of the labors of the zealous, single-hearted, devoted Father Mathew.

Mr. George Lewis Smyth, in his "Ireland: Historical and Statistical," speaks of the movement associated with Father Mathew's name in terms worthy of being quoted. Writing in 1849, he says: "This movement is one of the most striking, significant, and satisfactory of modern times. A whole population, obedient to the pious solicitation of a simple friar, fall down on their knees in the public streets, and renounce, before heaven and the world, a debasing vice. They carry away with them the friar's blessing, and an approving conscience, to strengthen them in the keeping of their pledge, and these suffice for the purpose.\*"

\* The following is the form of Father Mathew's pledge: "I promise, so long as I shall continue a mem-

ber of the Teetotal Temperance Society, to abstain from all intoxicating liquors, unless recommended for



And they will suffice. The temper of the people, the exigencies of their condition, and the salutary effects produced by the improvement, are the sure guarantees of its continuance. We have only to glance at the other changes which have taken place of late years in the condition of the mass of the Irish people, to be satisfied that this one will be maintained. They have ceased to appear as a distinct and disqualified caste; they have commanded the exercise of political rights in a manner new and far more independent than a short time ago they could have believed possible; they have felt themselves rising in the scale of society, and heard the public voice in all directions sympathizing aloud with their remaining grievances, and emphatically demanding their removal. Under these circumstances the humblest Irishman must have taken up a fresh idea of his own value, and have felt himself impelled to offer some public test or demonstration of the sense growing within him of acquired superiority. But that, while

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medical purposes, and to discourage, by all means in my power, the practice of intoxication in others." After having said this slowly and distinctly, Father Mathew passed from person to person, and making the

he continued a drunkard, would always be impossible. Intoxication reduces all grades and minds to the same low level, and there confounds them. Consideration in society, which an Irishman prizes, was thus unattainable; and long before good Father Mathew appeared, the Irishman must have had a longing desire urging upon his heart the abandonment of so vile a habit and freedom from the enslaving bonds that prevented him from enjoying the full and undisputed reputation of being a regenerated individual. . . . . Rescued for the future from the danger of being dragged into this whirlpool of ruin (*i. e.*, drunkenness), the Irishman will find that he has a legitimate claim to a distinct grade in society, and he will maintain and improve the claim, because he will not be slow to discover that by so doing he will add to his fortune, while he gratifies his pride."

All honor, then, be to this good man, this noble philanthropist, and may his name from henceforth and ever be held in perpetual memory!

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sign of the cross on the forehead, repeated the usual form of Roman Catholic blessing: "I bless thee in the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost Amen.





L. Hatcher R.A.

Rogers

THOMAS MOORE.

PAINTED BY THOMAS KELLY







## CHAPTER L

## O'CONNELL IN PARLIAMENT, AND IRELAND'S STRUGGLES.

Position and influence of O'Connell in Parliament.—Death of George IV.—Succeeded by William IV.—Excitement about reform.—Change of ministry.—Marquis of Anglesea lord-lieutenant.—Decides against public meetings for repeal.—O'Connell and others arrested, tried, and convicted, but not sentenced.—Reform-bill introduced into Parliament.—O'Connell's activity, popularity, and demands.—Reform-bill carried in 1832.—Not much satisfaction to Ireland.—Agitation on the subject of tithes.—Abolition of ten bishoprics, etc.—Earl Grey's coercion bill.—Agitation not stopped.—Discussion in Parliament on the Repeal question.—The "Experiment" proposed and attempted to be carried out.—Of no real benefit.—Orange lodges and other societies suppressed.—Bills for reform of municipal corporations, for poor-laws, for abolition of tithes, etc. 1836.—Mr. Nichols' Report on the condition of the poor in Ireland.—Lord John Russell's bill.—Passed in 1838.—Result.—O'Connell's labors for years.—Death of William IV.—Accession of Queen Victoria.—Expectations.—Demands in behalf of Ireland.—Reform in Irish corporations.—Good results.—Lord Fortescue lord-lieutenant.—His policy.—Repeal Association formed in 1840.—O'Connell lord-mayor of Dublin.—Petition of city corporation for repeal of the Union.—"Monster meetings."—Immense gatherings.—Bold language of O'Connell and Bishop Higgins.—Government preparations.—Meeting at Mullaghmast.—One appointed to be held at Clontarf.—Forbidden by the lord-lieutenant.—O'Connell and six others arrested, tried, and convicted.—Sentence and imprisonment, 1844.—Ill effects upon O'Connell.—His views as to using force in carrying forward repeal.—The "Young Ireland" party.—O'Connell's sickness and death, 1847.—Estimate of his character and career.—Determination of the British Government.—Macaulay's expressions.—Eulogy on O'Connell.—The potato rot or disease.—Terrible famine in Ireland.—Maynooth endowment, 1845.—Queen's Colleges.—Denounced by the Catholic hierarchy.—Catholic University founded.—Government efforts to relieve distress.—Bill for constructing public works so as to employ the poor.—The famine of 1846-7.—Poor-law amended.—Large contributions for relief.—Private benevolence.—Sad picture of the state of the country.—Places for relief.—Extensive emigration.—Increased for years.—Diminution of population between 1841 and 1851.

(1829—1847.)

THE position of Daniel O'Connell in the English parliament was looked upon as a very important one for the interests of Ireland. Lofty expectations were entertained in regard to what he was about to accomplish, and the confidence and enthusiastic devotion of his countrymen were unbounded. His great ability, his boldness, his zeal, and his eloquence had proven his admirable fitness for the position of the leader of Irishmen in their own land; it now remained to be demonstrated in how far his remarkable powers could be employed in the imperial legislature in furthering the one great object of his life, the repeal of the Union and the restoration of a parliament for his native country.

O'Connell's course in parliament was characterized by his usual sagacity and shrewdness, and was well calculated to



promote the ends to which he had pledged himself. It was not long, moreover, before his influence began to make itself manifest in various ways. In May, 1830, O'Connell introduced a motion for reform in parliament, universal suffrage, and vote by ballot at elections. This motion, though it met with no favor or support at the time, was a significant indication of the spirit of O'Connell, and the far-reaching aims had in view by himself and his compeers.

George IV. ended a vicious and almost worthless life on the 26th of June, 1830, and was succeeded by his brother, the duke of Clarence, William IV. Parliament was prorogued in July, and writs issued for an election of members for the new parliament to meet in November. Much excitement prevailed, both in England and Ireland, and strenuous efforts were made to have members returned so as to support the views of the tories and opponents of reform on the one hand, and to carry forward the extension of popular privileges on the other. In fact, reform was loudly called for, and great agitation and excitement prevailed.

When parliament met again, November, 1830, the Wellington and Peel ministry speedily found themselves in a minority, and so of course resigned. Earl Grey then became prime-minister. Lord Melbourne was made home secretary, Brougham became lord-chancellor, the Marquis of Anglesea was again sent to Ireland as lord-lieutenant, with Mr.

Stanley as his chief secretary, and Plunkett was made Irish chancellor. The appointment of the Marquis of Anglesea it was supposed would prove of great service to the government, as he had been very popular in Ireland, because of his favoring Catholic emancipation (see p. 768); but the result did not answer the expectation of government. Dublin was full of agitation and excitement on political questions, and in nearly all parts of the country there seemed to be a determination to proceed to ulterior movements. Emancipation was only a part of what the Catholics wanted and were resolved to attain. Repeal, as O'Connell announced, was the grand object to be reached, and repeal O'Connell bent all his energies to favor and push forward. In January, 1829, he said, that in order to accomplish repeal he would give up emancipation and every other measure, and that his exertions for such an object would meet with the co-operation of all sects and parties.

The lord-lieutenant met with a cold reception on his arrival in Dublin; and when he took the ground of putting a stop to all public meetings for agitating repeal, as seditious and unlawful, he found arrayed against him all the influence of O'Connell and the other leaders of the Catholics in Ireland.

In January, 1831, O'Connell and seven of his fellow-workers were arrested as trespassers against the lord-lieutenant's proclamation forbidding assemblages for discussing political topics.



Soon after, the grand-jury found true bills against O'Connell and the others, and the trial was had in February. It resulted in their conviction, but judgment was deferred. O'Connell asserted boldly that the government would not proceed to sentence him; and he was right in so saying, for the government was so situated in parliament as to need all the support and help of O'Connell and the Irish members. The act under which the Liberator was tried expired in June, and his legal criminality expired of course with it. As might have been expected, this prosecution greatly increased O'Connell's popularity with the masses of the people, and he used the power he possessed in urging on the cry for repeal of the Union.

In parliament, the ministry introduced a plan for reform in the representation of the people of England. The necessity of some action on this subject was universally felt, and Lord John Russell's bill, which was brought into the Commons in March, 1831, passed the house by a considerable majority. In the Lords, however, it met with determined opposition, and was thrown out in October. Immense excitement prevailed in consequence. The houses of various noblemen were attacked, and their owners who opposed the bill were hooted at in the streets of London. The ministry had no alternative, and so parliament was dissolved.

O'Connell was, as usual, actively engaged in rousing the people to contend

earnestly for their rights, and so great was the enthusiasm which his presence excited everywhere, that the Marquis of Anglesea and government in Ireland were able to make but feeble opposition to his commanding influence and his eloquent appeals throughout the country, and at the trials for political offences, held at Limerick, Galway, Roscommon, and other places. In fact, O'Connell's popularity was unbounded. Wherever he went through England or Scotland, thousands and hundreds of thousands greeted his approach. He proclaimed the necessity of a further reform in the British Constitution; demanded the reform of the House of Lords, by the abolition of hereditary privileges; demanded annual or triennially elected parliaments, the ballot and universal suffrage, and for his native country the fullest measures of equal political privileges with England, or the restoration of her native parliament; and these demands were seconded and heartily approved by millions of the English people.

Parliament met in December, 1831, and the subject of reform came up almost immediately. So strong had been the public expression throughout the kingdom of the necessity of this reform, that parliament felt it a duty to give the matter the earliest attention and settlement. The debate was protracted and earnest in the House, but the bill passed, March 22d, 1832. In the House of Lords the duke of Wellington and others strongly opposed the reform



measures. The bill was read the second time, April 14th, and discussed in committee early in May. The ministry resigned; but as a new one could not be formed with any prospect of success, Earl Grey and his fellow-workers were recalled, and on the 4th of June, 1832, the reform-bill passed the House of Lords.

The bill for parliamentary reform, as applicable to Ireland, was introduced by Mr. Stanley, May 22d, and was carried through both houses by the beginning of August. It gave five new members to Ireland; but as the leaders and agitators, in behalf of reform, demanded at least twenty-five additional members, as well as an extension of the franchise, there was great disappointment at this meagre result, and considerable indignation at the course pursued by the government.\* O'Connell, who had laid aside, for the time, the agitation of the repeal question, in order to obtain all the possible benefits of parliamentary reform, now resumed his active interest and efforts in this and all other movements calculated to increase the political power and influence of the Catholics in Ireland. The burden of tithes was denounced, the demand for abolition of these oppressive and odious exactions, as they were held

to be, was warmly discussed, and much and vigorous exertion was bestowed in endeavoring to agree upon a settlement of this vexed question. In fact, the whole subject of the established church in Ireland was gone into, in this and subsequent sessions of parliament; and the ministry finally gave way so far as to abolish ten bishoprics and throw off one-fourth of the entire tax.

The new parliament, under the reform act, met in January, 1833. The Irish representation was largely made up of friends and followers of O'Connell, who had been particularly active in connection with the Trades' Union, the Volunteers, and other associations engaged in political movements in Ireland.

In February, Earl Grey introduced the coercion bill for Ireland, based upon the fact that disturbances and violations of law were so prevalent that decided measures must be taken to repress them. The bill was strongly opposed by O'Connell and others, who moved various and important amendments; but it became a law by the close of the month of March. The lord-lieutenant acted upon the powers given him, putting a stop to political gatherings, Volunteers' associations, etc. Agitation, it was hoped, would gradually diminish;

\* "Ireland," says Mr. O'Brennan, "got only five additional members, who increased our representatives to 105. About 40 members were returned at the general election, pledged to support the Repeal of the Union. Had not the elective franchise been unjustly withheld from the people, nearly all the constituencies would have returned repealers, all sects and parties being convinced that nothing short of a parliament in College Green,

Dublin, could restore this country to a secure and permanent condition of national prosperity. Such an assembly would check the drain of absenteeism, which is one of the greatest sources of our poverty, and would cherish and enlarge our manufactures, make trade flourish, and keep the gentry at home to watch over and encourage native industry. An Irish parliament would heal all our miseries."



but every such hope was delusive; for O'Connell and the Irish patriots who were joined with him were determined never to cease agitating the subject of a Repeal of the Union, until success crowned their efforts. At the opening of parliament in 1834, the king declared that he would uphold the Union between Great Britain and Ireland at the utmost cost, and with all the power of the State. This declaration O'Connell met some time after by a resolution in the House of Commons, that the Union had not only been singularly disastrous to Ireland, but also greatly injurious to England, and that it was expedient that it be immediately repealed. The great discussion on the Repeal question took place, April 22, 1834, when O'Connell made one of his noblest efforts, giving a history of the connection between England and Ireland from the beginning, and detailing the oppressions inflicted on his native country during 600 years by the tyrannical Saxon. Mr. Spring Rice and Mr. E. Tennant, both Irish members, spoke in behalf of the government, and undertook to show how greatly Ireland had advanced in wealth, commerce, and resources, since the Union; how Cork, Belfast, Galway, and Wexford had increased their shipping; and what a prospect for the future lay open before Ireland, if she could only be freed from the mischievous political agitation, which lay as an insuperable incubus on her prosperity. The debate was kept up for a week; but, on a division, there were five hun-

dred and twenty-three votes against the motion, and only thirty-eight in its favor. Ministers, immediately after the division, brought forward a series of resolutions, declaring the Union at present existing with Ireland forever indissoluble; but pledging parliament and the king to redress all proved abuses to be found there.

On a change in the ministry, in 1835, Earl Grey having retired and Lord Melbourne having assumed the premiership, the Earl of Mulgrave was sent to Ireland as lord-lieutenant, with Lord Morpeth as chief secretary. O'Connell had certain overtures made to him, on condition of his giving up repeal agitation, to introduce and carry out the most thorough and complete reform in Ireland. O'Connell was not unwilling to listen to these advances, as we learn in a letter written by him in May, 1835:

"Here I am, for one, fully determined to contribute all I can to the success of this experiment. The union, fairly tried, may, as some expect, produce honest and good government, and consequent tranquillity and prosperity, in Ireland. If it do so, all that we desire to obtain by the Repeal will be realized—a result which I fervently hope for, but cannot bring myself to say I confidently anticipate. But such a result would please everybody, and, in the comfort and prosperity of Ireland, her patriots would have their glorious reward. If, on the other hand, the experiment fails, and then, after honestly



applying all the powers of a friendly but united legislature to the amelioration of the condition of the Irish people, it is proved to demonstration that nothing can cure the evils arising from provincial degradation, from the absence of the nobility, gentry, and great landed proprietors, but a domestic legislature in a nation of more than eight millions of inhabitants, why, then we will demand 'the repeal' in a voice of thunder, and we shall be joined in the cry by all the rational and right-thinking men of Great Britain."

The new lord-lieutenant arrived in Dublin in May, 1835, and almost immediately became popular, as well by his attractive manners as by his sincere desire to promote the welfare of Ireland. Every thing was done that could be done to quiet and soothe the public mind; places under government were freely bestowed; popular leaders were raised to office; lucrative positions were given to such men as Sheil, O'Dwyer, O'Connell's son and son-in-law, O'Farrell, and others; the liberator was offered a judgeship worth £4,000 a year, and was entertained by the lord-lieutenant at a state banquet; prisoners for political offences were liberally pardoned; and, in short, the government was so free in its use of patronage and its holding out expectations of great good from the present course of things, that for the time being the repeal cry was entirely hushed. But, as might have been expected, the "experiment" failed of accomplishing any real good

for the mass of the people; and Lord Mulgrave, the popular and cultivated lord-lieutenant, was recalled early in 1839.

During the following session (1836) Mr. Sheil brought forward the subject of the orange lodges, with a view to their suppression, and succeeded in obtaining a select committee to inquire into their extent and tendencies; and this was backed up by a resolution of Mr. Hume's, to extend the inquiry to the orange lodges which were known to exist in the army, which he alleged were not only an insult to Ireland, but also treasonable towards the country. A law was then passed by parliament against all and every kind of secret societies, in which the freemasons, and other social and friendly brotherhoods, were included, and which completely suppressed the orange system in Ireland and in the army. It will be remembered that, in 1834, an act had been passed for an extensive reform of the municipal corporations of England and Wales, founded on the elective principle of the great reform-bill; which had been found, from experience, to be of vast utility in opening those exclusive bodies to general competition, and in sweeping away an immense number of most gross corruptions. This principle it was now proposed to carry out also in Ireland, and a committee was accordingly appointed to inquire into the best mode of effecting that desirable object.

The imperial legislature professed



itself to be anxious to benefit, in any and every way possible, the people of Ireland. By the granting of Catholic emancipation, the great masses of the people, it was conceived, had been placed on a political level with their Protestant fellow-subjects. By the extension of municipal reform, they hoped, by giving the middle classes an active participation in the local, as well as general, government of the country, to increase their personal dignity and self-respect. It was now proposed to release the lower classes from the abject thralldom in which they were held, by giving them a title to relief, in times of adversity, upon the landed and other property, by the introduction of a judicious system of poor-laws; and thus save them from the degradation of that eleemosynary relief, upon which, in periods of distress, they had hitherto solely to depend.

Parliament met on the 14th of February, 1836, when it was opened by the king in person; who, in the speech from the throne, laid these several topics before the legislature. Mr. O'Loghlin, the attorney-general, introduced a bill for the reform of the municipal corporations, which was passed by the House; but the House of Lords having made numerous amendments, to which the lower House did not agree, the bill was lost.

The Irish Tithe-Bill was first mooted in the House of Commons on the 25th of April, 1836, by Lord Morpeth, who trusted that he should neutralize all

opposition by moving a resolution, in the adoption of which all parties might, without at all compromising themselves, combine. His resolution was, "That it is expedient to commute the composition of tithes in Ireland in a rent-charge, payable by the owners of estates, and thus make a further provision for the better regulation of ecclesiastical dues and revenues." By this process it was expected that nearly £100,000 would be gained for other purposes; and out of this sum he proposed to appropriate £50,000 to educational and other similar purposes. The bill met with much opposition, and was deferred for the present. Meanwhile, the clergy issued processes to collect the tithes, and were sustained by the highest law authorities.

The Catholics were exasperated at these proceedings, and at a meeting held in the Corn Exchange, where O'Connell was the leading spirit, tithes were denounced altogether, and a feeling of intense indignation was roused. On the other hand, the Protestants in the north of Ireland made very great exertions to secure and sustain what they considered to be their rights under the constitution, and to counteract the designs of the Catholics.

The year 1837 opened with lowering clouds over Ireland. Neither Catholic nor Protestant was satisfied; and there was too much room for discontent and disturbance, if not serious outbreaks in various parts of the country. The subject of relief to the poor was fully and carefully discussed, based upon the re-



port of Mr. Nichols, who had been sent by Lord John Russell to Ireland to examine into the actual condition of the poor. Mr. Nichols' report was full, accurate, and clearly arranged. He stated that the wages of the agricultural laborers varied from sixpence to twelve-pence a day; the average was about eight-and-a-half. The earnings of laborers, on an average of the whole class, did not exceed two shillings to two shillings and sixpence a week, for the whole year round; from which miserable income a man and his family were to feed and clothe themselves! The number of persons out of work, and in distress, during thirty weeks of the year, was estimated at 585,000; and the number of persons dependent upon *them* for support, at not less than 1,800,000,—making, in the whole, 2,385,000, or one-fourth of the entire population, who might be said to be dependent upon charitable support for six months in every year; that the support of the poor fell exclusively on the farming and cotter class; and the voluntary relief afforded by these he valued at near a million sterling per annum.

The poor-law of Lord John Russell was based upon Mr. Nichols' report. He proposed to adopt the principle of compulsory rates for the relief of the poor; but in order to render the relief efficacious, so that improper persons should not receive the relief thus devised, he annexed a condition, that all who required relief should be compelled to enter the workhouse, where

they would meet with worse fare and work harder for their support than when they were working for any other master than the parish. In order to insure a right feeling among the several bodies, or boards of guardians, who would have the immediate direction of all the parishes, he proposed altogether to exclude clergymen, whatever their principles might be. The measure was argued and re-argued. O'Connell and others opposed it strongly, and it was laid aside for that session on account of the king's death. It was taken up again the next session, and, early in the year 1838, passed by large majorities. Money was granted for the erection of poor-houses to the extent of hundreds of thousands of pounds, and the whole machinery for this vast effort to benefit the poor in Ireland was soon after brought into operation.

A Catholic writer, who sympathizes with the labors of O'Connell and his fellow-workers in opposition to the poor-law, asserts that "this measure has proved a signal failure. The people, in most cases, refuse to pass a rate. There is no money to be found by the commissioners; and the consequence is, the poor in many places are discharged upon the country, and live upon the bounty of the charitable, as they formerly did."

Our limits do not admit of going into details, or of enlarging upon the vast influence and power exerted by O'Connell in his country's affairs. Suffice it here to say, that for several years



O'Connell devoted his best energies to the one great topic on which he had staked his future life and powers, as the Liberator of Ireland. Repeal was steadily and forcibly advocated in parliament and out of it; O'Connell never lost sight of it when dealing with the masses, as well in England as in Ireland; Repeal was his battle-cry, and he spared no way or means to further its advance. Associations were formed well calculated to set forward the cause, and these exercised great influence in Ireland and elsewhere; and, in fact, all through the reign of William IV., O'Connell was a thorn in the side of the successive administrations, was ever busy in keeping alive the agitation of the great question, was wearied by no labor, appalled by no difficulties, discouraged by no disappointments, and resolute in persisting to the end in pressing a dissolution of the Union, as a matter of simple justice to Ireland, and as an advantage to both England and Ireland.

On the 20th of June, 1837, William IV. died, and was succeeded by the Princess Victoria, daughter of the Duke of Kent. She was now in the eighteenth year of her age, and her views and feelings, so far as was known and believed, were liberal and generous. In the enthusiasm arising out of a new sovereign mounting the throne, high hopes were excited in behalf of Ireland and her claims; and it was expected by many that now justice, at least, would be rendered to this portion of her majesty's dominions.

The new parliament, under Queen Victoria, met in November, 1837, and was composed of about an equal number of whigs and tories. Various matters relative to Ireland came before the legislature, upon questions connected with the purity of elections and the evident course of things in that country, dissatisfied as its people were with the rule of the whig party. The abolition of monopolies like the Bank of Ireland was called for; there was an earnest asking for encouragement to the Irish fisheries; and, indeed, a general fostering of Irish enterprise and internal improvements was demanded.

During the years 1838 and 1839 O'Connell was much occupied in seeking to obtain a corporate reform-bill for Ireland. The attempt to renew the charter of the Bank of Ireland was defeated. Ardent and long-continued discussions on the Irish poor-law were had; but the affairs of Ireland did not obtain that attention they deserved. England was in a state of great agitation and excitement. The chartist masses, on the one hand, were armed, and meeting in bodies of thousands and tens of thousands, by torchlight, and demanding the "people's charter," under denunciations of the most fearful kind; and on the other, the tory party was indulging in threatenings and abuse of the queen, and especially of Lord Melbourne, the prime-minister. O'Connell's labors, we may mention here, to obtain a reform in the Irish corporations, were crowned with success in 1840. The bill for



this purpose was finally passed by the House of Lords, although many of its clauses were stricken out, and it was not altogether what was demanded. It, however, had this good effect, that it opened the corporations to men of all religious denominations, and subjected the taxing powers to public scrutiny; but it provided that the old officers should not be removed without ample compensation. The bill went into operation in the year 1841.\*

Lord Mulgrave (now Marquis of Normanby) having been recalled, Lord Fortescue was sent, in 1839, to Ireland, as lord-lieutenant. The new viceroy, with outspoken plainness, declared publicly that no member of the Repeal Association should receive place or promotion from him. This, as may be supposed, produced considerable feeling, and the question of repeal excited more and more attention. The "Precursor Association," founded in August, 1838, was replaced by the "Registration Society," and that, in 1840, by the "Loyal National Repeal Association of Ireland." This latter formally pledged itself never to dissolve until the Union was repealed.

The struggle of the whigs against the tories resulted, in 1841, in the complete discomfiture of the former. Sir Robert Peel became the premier in

September, 1841, and held that important position until 1846. O'Connell, after a busy and exciting canvass, was elected lord-mayor of Dublin in 1841, and on the 1st of November was duly installed into office. It was a position not more honorable than influential; and though the Liberator never lost sight of the one great object of his life, still it deserves to be put on record that he discharged the duties of his office with acknowledged impartiality and fairness, and retired from his position, at the end of the year, with honor and credit. The year following (in February, 1843) he gave notice, as one of the city aldermen, that he should offer a motion to petition the House of Commons for a repeal of the Union. (See p. 751.) The question was debated on the 1st of March, when O'Connell delivered one of his most powerful and effective speeches, on a topic in which his whole soul was engaged; and though ably opposed, the motion to petition for repeal was carried by a large majority. Other municipalities followed the example thus set—as Cork, Waterford, Limerick, etc.; and by the aid of the press and the activity of the repealers, the question became the all-engrossing one of the day. Seven hundred thousand persons were enrolled members of the Repeal Association in

\* **GERALD GRIFFIN**, distinguished among his countrymen as an author of superior talent and force, was born in Limerick, December 12, 1803. He manifested very early a love for literature; and when he grew up, he devoted himself to it with unusual zeal, and attained great success. He was the author of "The Collegians,"

"The Rivals," etc.; and his works have been collected, and, together with a memoir by his brother, published in New York, in ten volumes. Griffin joined a religious society, called The Christian Brothers, in 1838; but his health gave way, and he died, December 12, 1840.



the year 1843, and there was paid into the treasury, for furthering the objects of the society, not less than £48,000.

O'Connell, though now sixty-eight years old, was full of activity and energy, and gave his whole attention to the rousing of the people to a full sense of their position, and the only mode of obtaining redress. He resolved, in furtherance of his grand purpose, to call a series of meetings in the fields and on the hill-sides, which, from the vast numbers that gathered at his call, were termed "monster meetings." The first was held at Trim, near Dublin, on Sunday, March 19, 1843, where twenty thousand met. Other meetings were held—at Limerick, April 19th; at Mullingar, May 14th; at Cashel, May 23d; at Kilkenny, June 8th; at Tara, August 15th; and in many other parts of the country: so that, between March and the beginning of October, there were forty-six of these immense gatherings. The hills and valleys rang with the excited cry of hundreds of thousands of the people, for repeal and for justice to Ireland.

The government was evidently in great doubt and perplexity, and began to be alarmed as to whereunto all this would grow. Sir Robert Peel and the Duke of Wellington declared positively that they would "put down" the Liberator and his fellow-workers in the repeal agitation. Several regiments of infantry and cavalry, a large quantity of arms and ammunition, and four vessels of war, were sent to Ireland, to be

ready against the threatened emergency. But O'Connell bore himself bravely before the people. "I am not to be mocked," he said. "I belong to a nation of eight millions; and let me also tell you that there is, besides, more than a million of Irishmen in England. If Sir Robert Peel has the audacity to cause a contest to take place between the two countries, we will begin no rebellion; but I tell him, from this spot, that he dare not commence the strife against Ireland."

He was seconded by one of the Catholic bishops, with language even more daring and significant. "I know," said Bishop Higgins, of Ardagh, "that, virtually, you all have reason to believe that the bishops of Ireland were repealers; but I have now again formally to announce to you that they have all declared themselves as such, and that from shore to shore we are all now repealers. I cannot sit down without adverting also to the means which that body would have, and would be *determined to exert*, in case that foolish minister, who presides over the fated destinies of our country, would have dared to put his threat into execution. *I*, for one, defy all the ministers of England to put down the repeal agitation, in the single diocese of Ardagh. If they attempt, my friends, to rob us of the daylight, which is, I believe, common to us all, and prevent us from assembling in the open fields, we will retire to our chapels; we will suspend all other instruction, in order to devote



all our time to teaching the people to be repealers, in spite of them. If they follow us to our sanctuaries with their spies and myrmidons, we will prepare our people for the scaffold, and bequeath our wrongs to posterity."

The ministry were alarmed, as well they might be, at such bold denunciation; but they were none the less resolved to conquer the difficulty. The repeal press, especially the "Nation," roused the people to a pitch of enthusiasm never before known. The repeal-rent swelled from £200 and £300 to £700 in the week. Warlike preparations were pushed forward by the government. A bill for disarming the Irish people was introduced into parliament, which was warmly and energetically discussed; and Smith O'Brien moved an inquiry into the state of Ireland, and pressed it so earnestly, that three days were spent in the debate upon it. The government, however, while acknowledging the difficulty, steadily adhered to their determination, and refused to yield to either entreaty, or argument, or threats of danger to the stability of the Union.

The numbers reported as present at these "monster meetings" seem to be almost incredible: at Limerick, 110,000; at Cork, 500,000; at Clare, 700,000; at Tara, 750,000; at Mullaghmast, 400,000. At this last meeting, held October 1st, 1843, O'Connell occupied the chair, and while there allowed a deputation of writers and artists to place upon his head a cap

made upon the model of one of the ancient Irish crowns. An address was presented, to which the Liberator answered, and vowed to wear this kingly cap during his life, and to have it buried with him in his grave.

Another monster meeting was fixed by O'Connell to be held on the famous battle-field of Clontarf, three miles from Dublin, on the 8th of October. The government, however, had come to the resolution to put a stop, by force if needful, to any further gatherings of the kind. Earl de Grey, who had succeeded Lord Fortescue as lord-lieutenant, in December, 1841, on consultation with the council, issued a proclamation, late Saturday afternoon, October 7th, denouncing the proposed meeting as seditious and inflammatory, and forbidding the assemblage as illegal, and subjecting all present to prosecution.

O'Connell immediately gave notice that the meeting would not be held, and all chance of direct collision with the authorities was prevented. But the government were not content with putting an end to these monster gatherings. They next proceeded, within a week, to arrest the Liberator and six others, on charge of seditious designs and practices in what had taken place. The trial began, January 15, 1844, and excited profound interest and concern as well in England as Ireland. Some of the first talent in the country were engaged for the defence, which was very ably conducted; but on the 12th of February a verdict of guilty was



brought in by the jury. Sentence was delayed; the jury were denounced as packed and perjured; and O'Connell appeared in his place in parliament, and in various parts of England. There was no lack of sympathy with him in his peculiar trial, and it was admitted on all hands that the prosecution to which he had been subjected could never be sustained before the tribunal to which it was to be carried on a writ of error.

On the 30th of May, 1844, O'Connell and his compeers were brought into court to receive their sentence. O'Connell was condemned to be imprisoned for a year, and pay a fine of £2,000. The others were to be imprisoned for nine months, and pay fines of £50 each. The appeal to the House of Lords was diligently carried forward by the law-agents of the prisoners, and, after much difficulty and great cost, came before that body in July. The argument was fully gone into, and on the 5th of September judgment on the writ of error was given. Three out of five of the law-lords were in favor of annulling the whole proceedings, which was accordingly done, and the prisoners were ordered to be discharged. On the 6th of September O'Connell left the Richmond Bridewell, and was received again to liberty with the enthusiastic devotion of thousands upon thousands.

The consequences of this unjust imprisonment were marked in their effect upon O'Connell. He was never again the same man that he was before. The

iron seemed to have entered into his soul; his spirit sank within him; and as almost threescore years and ten had passed over his head, he was physically unequal to the labor and fatigue of keeping alive and directing the repeal agitation. "On Tara Hill," says O'Brennan, "the 15th of August, 1843, he had but to express his will, and the million and a half of hearts who were true to him as were men to a leader at any time in the annals of history, had placed him in a position that no foreign government would have dared to lay hands on him. On that day he was the uncrowned monarch of the Irish nation. We had followed him to death or victory." But now, a year subsequent to that proud moment, the Liberator was changed indeed; he was now but illy fitted for that position which enthusiastic myriads expected him to occupy.

O'Connell had always, amid the most fiery of his denunciations, and the loudest cry for repeal and justice to Ireland, advocated the use of moral force, and the seeking redress by legal, constitutional means; he never meant to proceed to open insurrection, or to enter upon a contest of physical power with England. But now, some of his followers, members of the Repeal Association, becoming restless and dissatisfied with this constant talking and remonstrating, and not acting, advocated the bringing matters to as speedy a crisis as possible. The "Young Ireland" party were for entering on the mortal struggle at the earliest moment, and asserting the li



berty and independence of Ireland at the cannon's mouth.

The dissensions in the Repeal ranks, and the fearful sufferings of the people in the great famine of 1845, 1846, as well as the seeming consciousness that his mission was now approaching its end, weighed down the veteran Liberator, who had for nearly half a century been battling for the cause of his native land. With failing spirit his health declined, and he was ordered by the physicians to the south of Europe. Early in 1847, he set out for Rome, earnestly hoping that he might be permitted to die there; but, on reaching Genoa, May 15th, he expired, being not quite seventy-two years old.

Various and contradictory are the estimates of O'Connell's character and career. By the one party he is reviled and denounced as a bigoted tool in the hands of unscrupulous men for the worst of purposes, as a demagogue, a cheat, a schemer for selfish ends. By the other he is lauded to the skies as the impersonation of goodness, patriotism, and self-sacrificing devotion to the best interests of Ireland. That he was a truly wonderful man, possessed of marvellous powers, versatile, brilliant, able to move an audience with incredible force, of bold manly presence, ca-

pable of unsurpassed vituperation and sarcasm, witty and humorous, with every thing in fact which could give a man command over his fellow-men,—that he was all this, hardly admits of doubt; and probably no Irishman ever lived that could compare with him as a popular leader, in whom the masses trusted with the most perfect faith.

But it may be questioned whether he was altogether wise in seeking to obtain an end which can never be attained peacefully, which the English government has always expressed itself determined never to grant, and which the whole force of the army and navy would be used to put down at any cost whatsoever. It was a waste of words, it was a loss of time and energy, to call for repeal, as was done for so many years by the Repeal Association, under the delusive expectation that the English government would grant it. It is quite possible that O'Connell persuaded himself that persistency in the course he adopted, and the united cry of millions, might induce or compel the government to yield. but if so, he erred greatly in judgment; for if there be one thing which is fixed and certain in the policy of England, it is, never to permit Ireland to become independent.\* If the green isle of the ocean is ever

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\* Macaulay, in a speech in the House of Commons, 1845, expressed this determination on the part of England in terms worth quoting: "The repeal of the Union we regard as fatal to the empire; and we will never consent to it; never, though the country should be surrounded by dangers as great as those which threatened her when her American colonies, and France and Spain

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and Holland, were leagued against her, and when the armed neutrality of the Baltic disputed her maritime rights; never, though another Bonaparte should pitch his tent in sight of Dover castle; never, till all has been staked and lost; never, till the four quarters of the world have been convulsed by the last struggle of the great English people for their place among the nations."



to be freed from her connection with Great Britain, it can only be attained by force, by actual resort to arms, and by asserting and maintaining her liberty by the power of the sword. This, of course, would be revolution, a bloody revolution, a terrible struggle, a fearful sacrifice of human life; but it is the price which Ireland must pay if she insists on independence and absolute self-control.

"Had O'Connell," says Mr. Smyth, in summing up the Liberator's career, "bestowed upon the discharge of his grave and far more salutary duties, as a member of parliament, a tithe of the labor, the industry, the eloquence, and the genius which he lavished unavailingly upon the Repeal agitation; he might have removed from the Irish system every inequality and ground of complaint under which his countrymen have to suffer. Never Irishman did more in his own time; never Irishman missed the opportunity of doing so much. Often as he gave proofs of superior ability in handling details and explaining the operation of systems, he failed to realize the character of a practical politician."

A Catholic writer, who knew O'Connell well, and whose admiration for him has no bounds, considers him to have been the very foremost man of all the world. A passage from his eulogy, written before O'Connell's death, may here be given: "As a husband, he was loving; as a father, affectionate; as a Christian, sincere; as a Catholic, rigid; as a man, honest: as an orator elo-

quent; as a scholar, learned; as a lawyer, deep; as an advocate, effective; as a representative, able; in the field, valiant; in the senate, wise; in council, deferential; in debate, overwhelming; as a gentleman, delicately courteous; as a host, hospitable; as a guest, entertaining; as a companion, jovial; as a citizen, patriotic; as a landlord, kind; as a great man, approachable; as the chief magistrate of Dublin, conciliatory and just; as the leader of Ireland, faithful, incorruptible, unpurchasable, and unintimidated."

Leaving, however, the great Liberator to rest in peace, we resume the narrative of events from 1845. It was a sad dispensation of divine Providence which came upon Ireland during that year and 1846. The potato, which is the main support of the laboring people in Ireland, is subject to disease at times. The origin is not easy to explain. For some years previously this mysterious disease—called mildew, murrain, rot, and pestilence—had been making its way all over Europe. In the autumn of 1845 it appeared in Ireland, and so rapid was its progress, that often in a week's time it would destroy a whole crop, though promising, just before, an abundant harvest. Acres upon acres were planted with the potato, which became at once wholly unfit for food. Famine in its most dreadful form, pervaded the whole country; and with famine came its usual attendant, fever of the most malignant kind. Hundreds and thousands were swept to their



graves, and the pestilence raged with fearful effect amongst those who, more than all, were least able to guard against it. The workhouses were filled to overflow, and the numbers of the inmates at length became so great, that the overcrowding of the houses became a source of the very evil which they had been erected partially to prevent. The smaller farmers were reduced to ruin, and those beneath them were thrown into absolute destitution. From the government and other sources relief was speedily obtained. Provisions were shipped to Ireland, and every effort was made so to distribute them that the suffering people might obtain the help they so much needed.

Early in the session of 1845, Sir Robert Peel brought into parliament a bill, the object of which was to increase the grant annually made for the support of the Catholic college of Maynooth. (See p. 743.) This college had originally been instituted for the education of young men within the British Isles for the Catholic priesthood, in order to save them from the necessity to which they had formerly been subjected, of repairing to the Continent for that tuition necessary to enable them to enter upon the duties of the ministry. Mr. Pitt conceived, in originally making the grant, that he would thereby enlist their sympathies in favor of their native country. The greater portion of his object remained to be achieved, but Sir Robert Peel hoped to effect its accomplishment by increasing the favor. He

accordingly carried a bill through parliament, in the face of the most strenuous opposition, and £26,000 a year were appropriated, out of the consolidated fund, for the better sustenance and payment of the students and professors of Maynooth. Another measure of conciliation was introduced and carried through parliament. This was the establishment of three colleges for secular education in Ireland, for which £100,000 were granted. One of these was located at Belfast, for the North; a second at Cork, for the South; and a third at Limerick, for the West. An endowment of £7,000 a year was fixed for each; twelve professors were appointed for each college; £2,000 a year are distributed in the way of prizes; and no religious test is required from professors or students.

The government was led to this step, in the founding the "Queen's Colleges," by the success which had attended the establishment of the National system of education in 1831. We may mention in the present connection, although somewhat in advance, that the new colleges were not looked upon with favor by the Catholic clergy, they holding that education ought not to be severed from religion, but rather that religion and the church should have prominence in all respects. The pope ere long condemned them as "godless colleges;" and at a national synod held at Thurles, August 22, 1850, the Irish hierarchy formally denounced them as dangerous to faith and morals, and stated that a











Catholic university would speedily be founded. John Henry Newman, a distinguished clergyman (formerly of the Church of England, now a Roman Catholic), was chosen as rector of the new university, which was opened in November, 1854, much to the gratification of those who did not approve of or patronize the Queen's Colleges.

Famine and pestilence continued their ravages in 1846. The poor-houses were insufficient to accommodate the suffering multitudes, and large numbers perished of famine, misery, and disease. The government strove to meet the emergency, and by the end of the year not less than £850,000 had been expended in this most philanthropic and humane object.

The repeal of the corn-laws took place just at the close of Sir Robert Peel's premiership, and free-trade thenceforth became the policy of England in her vast commercial relations throughout the world. A bill was brought into parliament in 1846, to repress crime and outrage in Ireland; but it was strongly opposed by the Irish members, and failed of passing the house. The constabulary force was, however, increased to 10,000 men, and large accessions were made to the military force in the country.

Lord John Russell now came into power, and applied himself diligently to the providing measures of relief for Ireland. A bill was introduced for the construction of various public works,

the cost of which was to be defrayed out of the consolidated fund. These works consisted of the improvement and the formation of roads, the draining of morasses, and such works as the most ordinary of the laboring population could be employed in, and which would be apparently useful to the country. The plan was admirably devised, and skilfully and energetically carried out, and was for some time very successful in alleviating the prevalent distress. Lord John obtained the sanction of parliament to a grant for £50,000 for the most distressed districts—security being taken upon the county rates for the repayment of the sum within ten years, with three-and-a-half per cent. interest. His lordship also proposed, and obtained, the grant of another sum of equal amount for the poorer districts, which were never likely to be able to repay the loan.

A blight having again fallen upon the potato-crop, the winter of 1846-7 was peculiarly severe upon the poor in Ireland, and no words can adequately depict the terrible sufferings from famine and pestilence which swept over the country. Parliament met, January 29th, 1847, and gave immediate attention to the condition of Ireland. Every effort was made to relieve the starving population and allay the ravages of disease. From thirty to forty steamers, and fourteen or fifteen sailing vessels, were constantly employed in pouring breadstuffs into Ireland, while all the medical aid at the public command



was readily rendered for the aid of the sufferers.

At the close of the month an important amendment of the Irish poor-law was passed. The experience of the last two years had shown that the workhouse plan did not succeed in practice. It was impossible to receive and provide for the crowds of suppliants for relief within the Union buildings. (See p. 792.) It was determined, therefore, to abide by the old principles of relief, but to grant to out-door paupers the help they needed. During the period that elapsed between September and the spring, not less than £2,000,000 had been applied to the relief of the people; and the ministry ventured upon the further plan, which had been originally sketched by Sir Robert Peel, of making the whole loan to Ireland £10,000,000, and for this purpose the chancellor of the exchequer contracted a loan to the amount of £8,000,000. Private benevolence also was largely and liberally exerted in behalf of the suffering poor, and everywhere throughout England and Scotland subscriptions were made, generously and freely, and upwards of £250,000 were collected for the purpose of buying food and saving from starvation the afflicted thousands and tens of thousands in Ireland at this date.

It was, indeed, a sad and gloomy picture which everywhere met the eye of the beholder. A teeming population, in want and wretchedness, without

any apparent resource; an ancient aristocracy of landed proprietors in the possession of large estates without deriving from them a shilling of rent, whilst millions of acres of soil lay in a state of uncultivated barrenness, while its surface might have been covered with crops of waving corn, and the strong hands and brawny arms that should have called them forth from the bosom of the earth were either hanging down in listless idleness, or were engaged in work that literally produced nothing. Murmuring, distress, doubt, and death pervaded the land, and the spirit of the people seemed to be well-nigh crushed by the load of calamities which had fallen upon them.

Among the various plans proposed for the relief of the Irish people, there were three which promised the speediest and best results. These were—emigration, which was powerfully advocated in parliament by the Earl of Lincoln; the reclamation of waste lands; and such a disposition of the encumbered estates as would, while relieving their then proprietors from the burden under which they labored and by which they were disabled, at the same time insure to the new owners a certain and indefeasible title to their property.

Emigration, to which every encouragement was given by the landlords and boards of guardians, became very active and beneficial to the country. In 1846, the year of the great famine, some 250,000 emigrated to the United



States and Canada. The tide kept on increasing for several years ; but since 1852, when the number of emigrants was 190,000, emigration has decreased.

In 1858 there were 64,000 who left their native land. Since then, as there has been less occasion, so Ireland has not found it needful or profitable to part with any very large number of her children in the way of emigration. "Every mail that sped across the Atlantic," says a late writer, speaking of the year 1850, "brought funds to pay the passage of their relatives, who had been left behind ; and, in one instance, as many as five hundred letters, each of which contained a remittance to aid those who waited for a passage to the land of promise, passed in one day through the post-office at Galway. Cars, coaches, carts were all pressed into the service to convey the passengers to the quays of Cork, Galway, Dublin, and Liverpool ; whence three, four, five, and sometimes six vessels

a-day sailed with their living cargoes to the shores of the West. Not only the poor and destitute, but the respectable and well-to-do farmer packed up all that he had, converted his property into money, and turned his face, with his wife and family and stalwart laborers, towards America. And this was no sudden burst of enthusiasm. It lasted for weeks, and months, and years, with increasing fervor, until at last it was calculated that upwards of a thousand individuals in a day left the shores of Ireland for settlements abroad ; so that, when the census of 1851 was computed, it was found that, notwithstanding the well-known proportionate superiority of births over deaths, the population of the country, through famine, pestilence, and emigration, had been reduced 1,622,000 during the past ten years."\*

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\* The population of Ireland, according to the census, was, in 1841, 8,175,224 ; in 1851, 6,553,290 ; in 1861, 5,764,543.



## CHAPTER LI.

## SMITH O'BRIEN'S INSURRECTION.—MORE RECENT HISTORY AND PROGRESS

The "Young Ireland" party and the "Irish Confederation."—William Smith O'Brien—His co-workers, Meagher, Mitchell, and others.—The year 1848 a year of revolutions.—O'Brien in parliament—Goes to Paris—Sympathy of the French.—O'Brien prosecuted for sedition—Jury not agreed—Set at liberty.—Mitchell transported.—Condition of the country.—Affray at Dolly's Brae.—Action now resolved upon by O'Brien, Duffy O'Gorman, etc.—Measures of government.—O'Brien's movements.—March from Enniscorthy.—Encounter with the police near Ballingar—The conflict, and result.—O'Brien and others arrested, tried, and condemned.—Sent to Australia.—Proposal to abolish lord-lieutenancy.—Eviction of small farmers and tenant-rights.—Mr. Crawford's bill — "Irish Tenant-league."—Further attempts at legislative settlement of the question.—General face of the country improved.—Ireland's share in the Great Exhibition in Hyde Park in 1851.—Exhibition in Cork in 1852.—Earl of Eglintoun lord-lieutenant.—Political excitement.—Aggregate meeting in Dublin—Right Rev. Dr. Cullen presides—Resolutions adopted.—Proposal of Mr. Gladstone, chancellor of the exchequer, to impose the income-tax on Ireland—His statements and views—Two weeks' debate.—Speeches and arguments of the opposition—The government plan supported by a majority of 71.—The result.—Ecclesiastical affairs brought under discussion.—Opposition to, and complaints of, the establishment.—National system of education—Discussion in parliament—Earl Derby's speech—Testimony of a Catholic writer respecting the schools, the books used, etc.—Mr. Dargan's public-spirited efforts to inaugurate the Industrial Exhibition of 1853—The building, contents, etc.—Opening of the Exhibition by Earl St. Germans.—Visit of her majesty Queen Victoria to Ireland—Her presence at the Exhibition.—Results hoped for

(1848—1853.)

IN July, 1846, when O'Connell's failing health had caused him to give up active efforts of all kinds, and when his son, John O'Connell, had introduced certain peace resolutions into the Repeal Association, William Smith O'Brien and a number of others seceded, and formally dissolved connection with that body. The way was now opened for the more ardent spirits of the "Young Ireland" portion of the Repealers to enter upon a more energetic course of action; and it was determined, as had been for some time contemplated, to form an "Irish Confederation," and to claim and enforce the absolute independence of Ireland. Smith O'Brien took the lead in this movement, for he was a man of education, family, and fortune, and although a Protestant, had become, in 1844, a prominent member of the Repeal Association.\* Ardent in temperament, and an advocate of bold and daring meas-

\* In a letter to O'Connell at that date, O'Brien thus strongly expresses himself: "Ireland, instead of taking her place as an integral of the great empire which the

valor of her sons has contributed to constitute, has been treated as a dependent tributary province; and at this moment, after forty-three years of nominal union



ures, he had distinguished himself, in parliament especially, and at public and private gatherings, by the intrepidity of his language and the tremendous force of his objurgations against the oppressors of his native land. Thomas Francis Meagher, a gentleman of substance of the County of Waterford, joined O'Brien. John Mitchell also, a man of education and ability, and holding a powerful pen, who edited a paper called "The United Irishmen," gave the whole force of his talents to the cause, and wrote soul-stirring addresses to the people of Ireland, exhorting them not to agitate for Repeal only, but to combine for the overthrow altogether of the power of England in the country. Several barristers joined their ranks, as did also T. B. McManus, a gentleman for many years a merchant in Liverpool.

The year 1848, it will be remembered, was a year of revolutions in Europe; and O'Brien and "Young Ireland" seem to have been aroused to the point of definitive, positive action. O'Brien made a violent speech in the House of Commons, threatening to establish a republic in Ireland and to teach the English government a salutary lesson. In the month of April he accompanied a deputation from the "Irish Confederation" to Paris, to re-

quest aid in carrying out the plans about to be adopted for cutting Ireland loose from all connection with England. There were abundant expressions of sympathy and kindness; but the French revolutionists, having their hands full with their own affairs, were unable to give any promise of direct or effective assistance.

The open foreshadowing of their designs on the part of O'Brien and his fellow-workers, compelled the government not only to notice, but to take some action to meet, the threatened emergency. Lord Clarendon, who had succeeded to the vice-royalty of Ireland on the death of the Earl of Bessborough, instituted proceedings, in May, 1848, for sedition, against Smith O'Brien, Meagher, Doheny, and four or five of the others. The charge was fully made out, but the jury refused to agree upon a verdict in the case of O'Brien. A similar result followed in that of Meagher and another of those tried for sedition; and the government declining to persevere, all the prisoners were set at liberty. Mitchell, however, undeterred by what had taken place, repeated the offence even more boldly and unqualifiedly than ever. He was accordingly tried and convicted, and sentenced to transportation for fourteen years.

the attachments of the two nations are so entirely alienated from each other, that England trusts, for the maintenance of the connection, not to the affection of the Irish people, but to bayonets which menace our bosoms, and to the cannon which she has placed in all

our strongholds. . . . Slowly, reluctantly convinced that Ireland has nothing to hope from the sagacity, the justice, or generosity of England, my reliance shall be henceforward placed upon our country and her patriotism."



The condition of the country, in the midland and southern portions, was greatly disturbed; outbreaks and violations of law and order were frequent; arrests became numerous; the jails were filled with prisoners; and a special commission was opened in Limerick, Ennis, and Clonmel, at which between five and six hundred prisoners were tried and sentenced to the several grades of punishment deemed necessary, some few being capitally convicted and executed. An unfortunate affray also occurred, July 12th, between a body of Orangemen on the one hand and Ribandmen on the other, at Dolly's Brae, in which a number of lives were lost, and the mutual hatred of partisans inflamed.

The time seemed now to have come when the contest was to be inaugurated, and bold words were to give place to bold deeds. Mr. C. Gavin Duffy, a gentleman of the highest respectability in Ireland, who was shortly afterwards apprehended for alleged treasonable practices, and Smith O'Brien, who, with Mitchell, was afterwards exiled to Australia, earnestly prompted decisive action. O'Brien, immediately after the trials for sedition, went on a mission to the South, to incite the people to rise; Meagher went to one part, and O'Gorman to another, for the same object; while Dillon and others remained in Dublin as a standing committee.

The lord-lieutenant now called for new additional powers, and Lord John Russell immediately asked parliament

for the prolongation of the Insurrection act until the 1st of March, 1849. Three days afterwards, on the 24th of July, his lordship moved for a bill to suspend the *habeas corpus* act in certain districts in Ireland. The bill was hurried through both houses without opposition, and was at once approved by the queen.

The preparations which the government were making to prevent outbreaks probably urged forward the present attempt. Meagher and Dillon hastened down to Enniscorthy, where O'Brien, after a tour through parts of Tipperary, Limerick, Cork, and Kilkenny, was stopping. They found him there on the Saturday, and directly entered upon the arrangements necessary to insure an immediate and general rising; their particular object being, in the first instance, to release Mitchell, who was at that time lying under sentence in Dublin, and to prevent the trial of Duffy, which was soon to take place. On Sunday, O'Brien addressed a considerable assemblage, but without much effect, inasmuch as the Catholic priesthood rather looked askance at the whole matter, as ill-timed, and not likely to meet with the desired success.

The Confederates proceeded on Monday from Enniscorthy, by Shivannon, Mullinahon, and Kilenaul, towards Ballingar, everywhere addressing the excited population. After more than a week of inaction, so far as warlike proceedings were concerned, it was de-



terminated to make the decisive stroke without further delay. They met a small body of cavalry on the road, which, however, did not interfere with their movements. At a police station near by, there was a sergeant named Williams, with six men under him. The arms of these men were demanded by the leaders; but Williams shut the gate in their faces, positively refusing either to yield the place or surrender their arms; and the police were, in an hour or two afterwards, enabled to retire to Cashel without molestation.

General Blakeney, who was in command of the military in Ireland, caused a body of troops, comprising infantry, cavalry, and artillery, to be in readiness to meet the rising where it was supposed it would take place; but the evident determination of the government did not prevent the attempting to do what had been resolved upon. On the 19th of July, 1848, Smith O'Brien marched out of Enniscorthy at the head of three hundred men variously armed, expecting to be joined by the peasantry on his route. In this he was not disappointed; for, by the time that he drew near to Ballingar, in Tipperary, his followers had increased to nearly three thousand in number. Most of them had fire-arms in their hands, and a goodly quantity of ammunition in store. When within about three miles of that place, on Boulagh-common, they encountered a party of between forty and fifty of the constabulary, under a sub-inspector, whom

they immediately prepared to encounter. The only place of refuge was a solitary farm-house, inhabited by the widow of a farmer named McCormack, and her five young children, situated some three or four fields from the highway. It was a substantial structure, covered with slate, and surrounded by a court-yard enclosed by a wall. This, Inspector Blackburn with his men secured by a run, and immediately barred the door, and blockaded the windows with the furniture.

O'Brien approached one of the windows, and demanded the arms of the constabulary, which the inspector declared that he and his men would surrender only with their lives. On receiving this answer, orders were given to fire upon the house and its occupants, and compel them to give up their arms. A brisk attack was immediately made, which was answered promptly by a rapid fusilade from the police, and an animated firing was kept up for nearly half an hour on both sides, the inspector having served out two hundred and thirty rounds of ball-cartridge to his men. At the end of that time, two of O'Brien's men having been killed and several wounded, the whole body retired to a rise at a little distance. At four o'clock a contingent of police arrived to the relief of their comrades, upon which all those who had taken part in this attempted rising dispersed, and the leaders fled for their lives.

Several of the chief men concerned



escaped in various disguises. A reward was put upon their heads by the government, and Smith O'Brien was arrested, August 5th, by a railway guard, of the name of Hulme, just as he was preparing to leave by the train at Thurles. Meagher, O'Donoghue, and McManus were also apprehended. On the 21st of September, 1848, a special commission was opened at Clonmel for the trial of the prisoners, for high treason; when, after a patient investigation, which lasted for four weeks, they were all convicted and sentenced to death, the principal evincing great coolness and self-possession under his trying position. The sentences were afterwards severally commuted to transportation, and O'Brien and his compatriots were accordingly sent to Australia. O'Brien, we may mention here, remained in exile till the year 1856, when he was permitted, with others, to return home.\*

During the session of 1850, a bill was introduced into parliament for abolishing the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland. It was carried through a second reading by a large majority; but it was warmly opposed by the Irish members in the House. Government, therefore, in consideration of public feeling on the subject, abandoned the measure.

The frequency of the evictions of the small farmers from their holdings, by which they were necessarily divested of every portion of their property, con-

stantly brought the subject of tenant-right before the public and under the consideration of the government. For several sessions, Mr. Sharman Crawford had introduced bills for the amendment of this grievous evil. It was monstrous, as he asserted, that when a tenant had held his farm for perhaps seven years, and had expended all his little capital in the erection of farm-buildings, draining the land, and in effecting other similar improvements, he should at any moment be ousted by his landlord, and thus be entirely divested of all the little property that he held in the world. The equity of the principle of granting compensation for such investments was readily allowed by men of all parties in the house; but great difficulty was experienced in ascertaining the limits of the landlord's and the tenant's right; and Mr. Crawford's bill was felt to be too radical in its tendency to meet the temper of the House.

In August, 1851, a conference was held, by a number of gentlemen and lovers of their country, in Dublin, to consider the insecure condition of the tenant farmers of Ireland. "The Irish Tenant League" was formed, and a council elected to take measures in order to secure efficient action in parliament. A similar conference was held the year following, and high hopes were entertained of the success of the League

\* According to the statements of one of the journals, James Stephens, the Head Centre of the Fenian Brotherhood, was engaged with O'Brien in the insurrection

of 1848. Stephens escaped to France; but in after years returned to Ireland. His subsequent movements in connection with Fenianism we shall see by and by



in the important objects it was seeking to accomplish.

The subject spoken of above, as brought forward by Mr. Crawford, was revived in the session of 1850-1; but with no material advantage. In 1852, when Mr. Napier filled the office of attorney-general, under the Earl of Derby's administration, he introduced four bills; which, from the nice balance of interests which their provisions contained, seemed excellently calculated to accomplish the object he had in view; but, at the same time, Mr. Serjeant Shee also introduced a bill for the same purpose; and, as it appeared likely that benefit might arise from a partial incorporation of the several measures, government assented to a proposition for referring them all to a select committee; but they were not destined to proceed any further at that time.

During the three or four years that had just elapsed, the face of Ireland had undergone a favorable change. Much, very much, undoubtedly remained to be done; but, in general, improvement was the order of the day. Everywhere the number of cottier tenements had been either reduced, or had entirely disappeared. The system of squatting had been almost totally subdued. Wealthy proprietors, equally skilled in the commercial and agricultural management of their property, had assumed possession of the lands. The poor-rates were diminished, and the inmates of the poor-houses were reduced from thou-

sands to hundreds, while the debts of the unions were very largely decreased. In every part—in remote Connaught, as well as in distressed Munster—the country assumed an appearance of increasing and healthy prosperity.

In the Great Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations, held in Hyde Park, in 1851, under the patronage of the Queen and Prince Albert, Irish taste, capital, and skill, in her poplins, her silks, and her linens, and other fabrics, were admirably represented; and their presence in this hall of peace aided in promoting the growth of manufactures in Ireland, and a spirit of enterprise and emulation among the people. This was shown in the following year, by the opening of an exhibition of a similar kind in the beautifully situated city of Cork, where the day of its opening was observed as a kind of jubilee in the city and its neighborhood.

In March, 1852, the Earl of Eglington succeeded Lord Clarendon in the lord-lieutenancy, and his administration proved to be in a high degree popular. He was a nobleman well-suited to the genius of the people over whom he was placed. Gallant in bearing, affable and agreeable in manner, and active in visiting various parts of the vice-royalty, he gave great satisfaction to the friends and supporters of the tory government. But, there was nevertheless a strong feeling of dislike on the part of the whigs, the Catholic priesthood, and numbers of the nobility and gen-



try. This was evidenced subsequently in the elections for parliament, where much excitement prevailed, and opposition candidates were elected.\*

On the 19th of August, 1852, an aggregate meeting of the Catholics of the United Kingdom was held in the Rotunda, in Dublin. It was an imposing assemblage, attended by prelates, peers, and representatives from various parts of the empire. Dr. Cullen, the Roman Catholic archbishop, took the chair, and inaugurated the meeting with words of eloquence and devotion to the cause of his native land. Dr. MacHale, bishop of Tuam, made a powerful and patriotic speech. He denounced, in unmeasured terms, English tyranny, and the attempts at proselytism which had been, and were being made, among the Catholic youth of Ireland. At this meeting, the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:—

1. "That we hereby solemnly pledge ourselves to use every legitimate means within the Constitution, to obtain a total repeal of that act (the Ecclesiastical Titles Act) which imposes on the Catholics of this empire any civil or religious disability whatsoever, or precludes them from the enjoyment of a perfect equality with every other class of their fellow-subjects.

2. "That as one of the great constitutional and practical means of carrying out the objects of this meeting, we pledge ourselves to make every effort

to strengthen the hands and increase the power of those faithful representatives, who, in the last session of parliament, so energetically devoted themselves to the formation of an *independent party in the legislature*, having for its object the maintenance of civil and religious liberty in the British empire; and that the following prelates and members of the legislature be a committee to define, with accuracy, the objects which are to occupy the Association, to frame the rules and regulations by which it shall be governed, and to submit the same to the next general meeting of the Association."

An eloquent and forcible address in support of this movement was made by Mr. G. H. Moore, M. P. for Mayo, and it was expected that results of no ordinary moment would be attained. In consequence, however, of want of proper organization and efficiency in securing a regular and adequate supply of funds, the Association languished, and failed of accomplishing the object for which it was formed.

The winter of 1852–3 passed in comparative quiet, although the government thought it necessary to keep the coercion act in operation in Ireland. New proprietors had been found for the encumbered estates. Money was brought into the country by these men, and they used it discreetly, not only for their own interests, but for the good of the community at large. In this

\* It was in connection with this election that the Six Mile Cross affray occurred, when the Orangemen and

their opponents engaged in deadly strife, and a number of lives was lost.



state of affairs, Mr. Gladstone, Chancellor of the Exchequer in the Aberdeen ministry, thought it a favorable opportunity to assimilate the taxation of the two countries of England and Ireland, and make them one in fiscal regulations, as they had been made one politically by the act of Union. In bringing forward his budget, therefore, on the 18th of April, 1853, Mr. Gladstone submitted a resolution to the House for a continuation of the income-tax for a period of seven years, and, for the first time, proposed to include Ireland in the sphere of its operation.

In the elaborate statement presented by the learned chancellor, the question as to the exemption of Ireland necessarily came up. As Ireland, he argued, had derived benefit from the fiscal changes made by government, and as the duties which constituted the ground of her exemption had disappeared, he did not see why the income-tax should not be levied in Ireland. He had proposed to charge Ireland with the income-tax and the duty on spirits; but the government had come to the determination to relieve her from the consolidated annuities, amounting to £4,500,000, which would cease from and after the 29th of September last, all arrears up to that date to be paid, and all sums received since to be returned.

The proposal to relieve Ireland from the charge of £4,500,000, which was due to the consolidated fund, and which laid like a dead weight upon the na-

tional energies ever since the time of the famine, was too great a boon not to be eagerly sought after by the best-intentioned of the Irish landlords; the Irish members taking an increased interest in the debate. The extension of the income-tax to Ireland was anticipated to produce about £460,000 a year; and the increase of the duty upon Irish spirits, from two shillings and eightpence to three shillings and fourpence a gallon, to produce nearly £200,000 annually.

The debates on this important measure continued for two weeks, and brought out the best ability of the members of the House of Commons. Mr. Fagan, while admitting the statesmanlike character of the ministerial plan in general, yet felt bound to resist that part of it which subjected Ireland to the income-tax, as an equivalent for the abandonment of the consolidated annuities. He protested against the introduction of these annuities into the plan, insisting that the labor-rate, forming part of the charge, had been misapplied; and entered into details, to show that Ireland had derived but slender advantages from the remission of taxation for which the income-tax was imposed. He further contended that the imposition of this tax would be inconsistent with the act of union, which stipulated that Ireland should contribute to the general taxation only in a certain proportion, which had been already exceeded; and he urged the cruelty of taking advantage of a breath



ing-time, which Ireland seemed now to enjoy, to oppress her with an income-tax.

Other Irish members, as Mr. Maguire, Serjeant Shee, Mr. French, etc., supported the views advanced by Mr. Fagan, and contended that it would be equally ungenerous, unjust, and dishonorable, to impose the income-tax upon Ireland. The government side of the question, however, was argued and supported by Mr. Cobden, Mr. Disraeli, Serjeant Murphy, and others; and, on a division, there were found to be 323 against 252, a majority of 71 in favor of the financial measures proposed by Mr. Gladstone.

The result reached was an important one, whether just or unjust in its application, viz., the affirming the principle, that in future years the taxation of Ireland should rest upon the same basis as that which regulated the imposition of taxes upon other parts of the United Kingdom. A large portion of the Irish gentry, it is said, approved of the government plan; and among the rest, Maurice O'Connell, eldest son of the Liberator, and inheritor of the property of Derrynane.

Another effort was made at this date for the benefit of Ireland, by Mr. Whiteside, who moved for leave to bring in a bill to facilitate the sale, partition, and exchange of lands, by the court of chancery in Ireland, and the recovery of moneys secured by recognizance. Great and vexatious delays had occurred and were occurring,

and a remedy was imperatively demanded. The question was settled, however, by the government bringing in and carrying a short bill for renewing the "Encumbered Estates Act" for a period of two years.

The position of ecclesiastical affairs, particularly the Established Church in Ireland, was again under discussion in the session of parliament for 1853. The long-existing and deeply-rooted sense of injustice done to the larger part of the population by the Establishment, and the settled determination to bring about a change and a more equitable adjustment of matters on this subject, were manifested in the speeches and arguments of various members. Lord John Russell, however, and others, opposed any movement of the kind, and when the question was taken for the appointment of a select committee to inquire into the ecclesiastical revenues of Ireland, and how far they were applicable to the benefit of the Irish people, the motion was negatived by 260 to 98.

Another question, of no little importance to Ireland and her true interests, was fully discussed at the present session of parliament. We refer to the national system of education. The debate was opened in the House of Lords on the 19th of July, 1853, by Lord Donoughmore. The system of education in Ireland, as he stated, was originally founded by Lord Stanley (now Earl of Derby), some twenty years previously, and was intended to be a sys-



tem of united secular and separate religious instruction. Immediately after its first organization, the board had commenced the publication of a number of works which could not be too highly praised, and which had since then not only been used in the schools under the board, but also in schools in this country and the colonies. No objection whatever had been taken, or could be taken, to the system of secular education as carried out by the board; but certain objections were taken by men of high character and standing against the nature, amount, and substance of the religious instruction. And from this, serious difficulty was experienced in managing the religious teaching so as to give general satisfaction.

The Earl of Derby also spoke upon the subject, and stated that, from the first, it had been contemplated to mingle a certain amount of religious with the secular instruction given in the national schools. In the report issued by the commissioners in 1844, they stated that they had established a number of schools, which were attended by thousands of children, and that they had succeeded in compiling several works, containing a series of lessons grounded on Holy Writ, which were used in the general instruction afforded in all the schools. But in that year also, and in order to meet objections which had been raised by various Catholics in the community, these books were not insisted on, but only strongly recommended. A rule also was adopt-

ed, viz., "The commissioners do not insist on the Scripture-lessons being read in any of the national schools, nor do they allow them to be read during the time of secular or literary instruction in any school attended by children whose parents or guardians object to their being so read. In such cases the commissioners prohibit their use, excepting in the hours of religious instruction." Earl Derby, in continuing his remarks, deprecated any diminution of religious instruction in the national schools. The whole system, he said, so far as attaining the great end in view was concerned, depended upon the mutual and harmonious working of members of different religious denominations; upon the sound sense exercised by both parties; and upon the balance being impartially held between Protestants and Catholics.

A zealous Catholic writer, a number of years ago, expressing not only his own, but also the sentiments of the powerful and ancient church of which he is a member, remarks, that "knowledge and tyranny are antagonist principles. They never can coexist, they never have coexisted, in the same community of men. The six-and-twenty letters of the alphabet are the powers which Ireland relies upon, and in this Ireland is supremely right. Let the present five or six hundred thousand Irish children, that are at school, but get to manhood without any material check or civil commotion, and not all the powers of Europe, though Europe



combined in arms for the purpose, could hold the Irish nation, for one day, in bondage to any other. It is true that these national schools are supported by English money, and teach English political principles; but with all that, there is a great deal in what they teach that we must admire. Their system is uniform, for their teachers are all educated by superior men, at the head or model school in Dublin. Their books of instruction appear to be excellent. Indeed, all their books are the very best in the English language, and some have been adopted in the German schools. Their general system of instruction includes reading, writing, arithmetic, bookkeeping, agriculture, grammar, geography, geometry, mathematics, mechanics, civil and natural history, Scripture-lessons (selected and mutually agreed upon), elocution, singing, linear or mechanical drawing, etc. Mental exercise and instruction are cultivated. Not only do the masters catechize the scholars, but the scholars question and argue with the masters. Order is peculiarly enforced; and a certain step and discipline are taught, in play-hours, entering and returning from school, which adapt the boys, to a certain extent, for military drill. The commissioners are quite sensitive to public opinion, and are becoming daily more and more *national*. There may be objections to their system; but if there be any thing erroneous in their inculcation, sufficient of the spirit of inquiry is abroad to correct it; and as

those children cannot, upon any other conditions, obtain this much-desired education, it is better to let them learn to read, write, and cipher, to draw and step,—and rely upon an active public press, and an enlightened public opinion, to eradicate the political errors of the schoolrooms.”

One other matter which occurred at this date, in Ireland, deserves to be put on record. It had been customary for the Royal Dublin Society to have an exhibition of the products, natural and artificial, of the country, once in three years, at their rooms in Merrion Square. As the year 1853 was the one in due course of routine for this display, it occurred to an individual of great public spirit and liberality, Mr. Dargan, to make this exhibition one of national importance. To secure the public character of the Dublin Exhibition, it was intrusted to a committee comprising the highest and most honorable names in Dublin, in connection with that important body, the Royal Dublin Society, on whose grounds adjoining Merrion Square the building was raised. The building reflected no small credit upon Mr. Benson (now Sir John Benson), its architect. In character and design it differed from the Crystal Palace in Hyde Park. The open area of the interior, supported on columns, was one point of resemblance; but the whole light was admitted from above, there being none at the sides; and only a portion of the actual roof was glazed. Instead of rectangular outlines, broken



by an arched transept, Mr. Benson's design was distributed in a series of long parallel halls with semicircular roofs, and oval in form, the central one being the loftiest, and having an exceedingly striking and novel effect. It was 425 feet long, 100 feet wide, and 105 feet high; and altogether was an imposing and beautiful hall for the purpose designed in its erection.

Here were collected the chief attractions of the exhibition—statues, fountains, and trophies of manufacturing skill; while, crowning immense tiers of benches raised at either end, stood two large and powerful organs, for which the shape and character of the hall seemed well adapted. The two similar, but smaller halls, on either side, were 325 feet in length, 50 feet wide, and 55 feet high. In these, and in the galleries adjoining them, the various collections of manufactured articles were arranged in classified order, much after the manner of the exhibition in Hyde Park. The sides of the building were occupied by two halls, smaller still than those next the main hall. In one, the machinery in motion was very effectively provided for by Mr. Fairbairn, the well-known engineer; in the other, Mr. John Deane, assistant-secretary to the committee, by dint of great energy, tact, and perseverance, collected a most brilliant display of paintings in the English, Prussian, Belgian, Dutch, and French schools. This portion of the building also contained a sculpture-room and, behind all, accommodation

was provided for carriages, locomotives, and agricultural implements.

The Dublin Exhibition was officially opened on Thursday, May 12, 1853, by Earl St. Germans, lord-lieutenant, attended in state by his suite, the corporation of Dublin, the committee, and the officers intrusted with charge of the Exhibition.

Towards the close of August, 1853 Her Majesty, Queen Victoria, resolved to make a short visit to Ireland, and witness the result of the Dublin Industrial Exhibition. Accordingly, on the 29th of that month, accompanied by the Prince Consort, and the Prince of Wales, and Prince Alfred, the Queen entered Dublin Bay, in the royal steam-yacht, the *Victoria & Albert*. The visit was an agreeable one, both to the Queen and the people. She was received with all the pomp and circumstance which wait on royal movements, and the usual enthusiasm was displayed wherever her presence was recognized. The corporation of Dublin presented addresses to their distinguished visitors, duly acknowledging the honor conferred on their city, and expatiating on the general improvement of the country.

Her Majesty, in her reply to the corporation, said: "It is my anxious desire to encourage the industry of my Irish subjects, and promote the full development of the great natural resources of Ireland; and I share in the confident belief that the striking display of beautiful productions of art and industry



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by which I am surrounded is to be appreciated, not only as evidence of successful genius, but as a happy manifestation of that persevering energy, which, under the blessings of Divine Providence, is an unfailing source of national prosperity." A few days afterwards the Queen returned to England, not without hope that her presence at the Exhibition had been productive of beneficial effects. Very probably it has been so; but it may be doubted whether any permanent or lasting good was or could be produced, in this way, for a country suffering as Ireland has for so long a time.



## CHAPTER LII.

THE FENIAN BROTHERHOOD.—IRELAND'S PRESENT POSITION AND PROSPECTS.—  
HOPE FOR THE FUTURE.

Activity and zeal of the Irish patriots.—The Fenian Brotherhood.—Origin and purpose of this association.—Its scientific organization.—First Fenian Congress at Chicago, 1863.—Second Congress at Cincinnati, January, 1865.—Third Congress in Philadelphia, September, 1865.—Reorganization, steps taken of various kinds, etc.—Course of the British Government.—Martial law proclaimed in Ireland.—James Stephens, the Head Centre of the whole Brotherhood, arrested.—His escape from prison.—Visits the United States.—The Queen's speech, February, 1866.—Suspension of the *habeas corpus* act.—John Bright's views.—S. Mill's remarks.—Fenian invasion of Canada.—Mortifying failure.—Course pursued by the President of the United States.—Criticized by the Irish patriots.—Lord Derby's thanks to the United States Government.—Fenians tried and condemned in Canada.—McMahon and Lynch sentenced to be hung.—Mr. Seward's interposition.—Excitement among the Irish.—Stephens's speech at meeting held at Jones's Wood, New York.—His bold announcement.—Opposition to the Fenian movement by bishops and priests of the Catholic Church—Extracts from a Catholic paper on this subject.—Meeting of Fenians in New York, November, 1866.—Resolution and appeal adopted.—Father Vaughan's spirited review of "English misrule in Ireland."—The rising in Ireland reported as having been entered upon at the close of November, 1866.—Spirit and tone of the English press.—Threats of retaliation on the part of the Fenians.—Fixed resolve of the British Government.—Force under Stephens in Ireland.—Sympathy in various quarters.—Warren's address to Irishmen in America.—Extracts from an Irish New York journal on the position of affairs and the prospects of success.—Condition of things at the close of 1866.—Views and opinions of eminent Irishmen and Englishmen on the questions at issue.—What has been done for the people's good.—What remains to be done.—*Nil desperandum*.—Ireland must be free.

(1856—1866.)

**D**URING the last few years the people of Ireland have not been idle, or forgetful of the one great object which they so earnestly desire to attain—that is, the entire freedom and absolute independence of their native land. Encouraged by the strong, warm-hearted sympathies of those who have emigrated to the United States and other parts of America, and retain their affection for the Green Isle of the Ocean, and also conscious of the vast power of combined, well-organized efforts, the Irish patriots have not remitted their labors or allowed themselves to despond under any pressure or any difficulty.

This is evident, not only by the firm and decided tone adopted by the Irish, so far as they are able, at home, and fully and openly abroad, but also by the formation and active working of an association which, it is hoped and expected with confidence, will materially help towards establishing the new "Irish Republic."

This association is known by the name of the "Fenian Brotherhood,"



and is so interesting in the objects it seeks to attain, and the high aspirations for liberty and freedom which it has aroused, that it requires at our hands some account of its origin and progress. Our notice must necessarily be more or less imperfect, as the nature of the association does not admit of its affairs being made entirely public; but having sought, with much care, for accurate information, we think the reader can rely upon what is here stated.

The members of the Brotherhood in Ireland are, of course, under a pledge of secrecy, which has been so successfully preserved, as that neither the gold of the Government on the one hand, nor the efforts of spies and traitors on the other, have been able to break up the association or expose its members to the vengeance of the ruling authorities. All its members are required to be able-bodied men, and are sworn into military service and secretly drilled as soldiers. The numerical strength of the Fenians in Ireland is not generally known, of course, but it is represented as being formidable, when compared with the numbers which England and Scotland could add to the British army.

The material and resources for active warlike operations, when the right moment arrives, are, of necessity, to be looked for from the Brotherhood residing in other countries; and it is the settled purpose of those who have entered upon this work to seize the first opening which presents itself, and to raise the standard of revolt, and to make Ireland a free and independent nation in the world. This is their purpose. It remains to be seen whether they can accomplish it, and whether the vigilance and power of the English Government can be overcome.

It is within less than ten years that the Fenian Brotherhood has been organized and at work in the United States.\* The organization is of a scientific character, and is calculated to promote the highest efficiency of its members. First, there is a Local Circle of not less than sixty members, to whom a commission is granted by the State Centre, and it is authorized to send a delegate to the next Fenian Congress. The Local Circle elects a permanent Centre, subject to the approval of the State Centre and Head Centre. Full reports are made by

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\* "The Fenian Brotherhood, otherwise known as the Irish Revolutionary Brotherhood, was started in 1857. It was the result of a compact entered into by the late Michael Doheny, Michael Corcoran, myself, and some few others in New York, with James Stephens in Ireland, whither he had then recently returned from Paris. In America, Michael Doheny was its real founder. Never did the cause of Irish freedom seem more hopeless to the outside world than at that time. Public opinion was everywhere against any attempt at Irish revolutionary action. The press scoffed at the idea all

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the world over. Ireland was everywhere proclaimed to be thoroughly subjugated, and her people to be loyal to the British crown, contented, and even happy. Some money was collected, nevertheless, principally from uninitiated friends of our cause, by means of which 35,000 men were enrolled in Ireland by James Stephens. The sum total was not much—some thousands of dollars in all; but a little money will go a great way in preliminary organization in Ireland."—*President O'Mahony's Message, January, 1866.*



these Centres every month, and sent to headquarters; and a neglect to do this for three months puts a Circle in "bad standing," and renders it liable to be cut off. Every candidate for admission has to be proposed by one Fenian brother and seconded by another, and then reported upon by the Committee of Safety of each Circle. The initiation fee is not less than one dollar, and the monthly dues average about fifty cents for each member. The following declaration is required of the newly elected member: "I solemnly pledge my sacred word of honor, as a truthful and honest man, that I will labor with earnest zeal for the liberation of Ireland from the yoke of England, and for the establishment of a free and independent government on the Irish soil; that I will implicitly obey the commands of my superior officers in the Fenian Brotherhood in all things appertaining to my duties as a member thereof; that I will faithfully discharge my duties of membership, as laid down in the Constitution and By-Laws thereof; that I will do my utmost to promote feelings of love, harmony, and kindly forbearance among all Irishmen; and that I will foster, defend, and propagate the aforesaid Fenian Brotherhood to the utmost of my power." All political discussions, except in relation to Ireland, and all religious questions whatever, are positively prohibited in each and every Circle. Centres of Circles correspond with State Centres; State Centres with the Head Centre.

All correspondence with brothers in Ireland passes through the Head Centre, to whom, with the Central Council, are known the true names and addresses of the "I. R. B.," or "Irish Revolutionary Brotherhood." And when any member comes from Ireland, his credentials have to be submitted to the Head Centre. The State Centres are appointed and commissioned by the Head Centre, the highest officer in the association, who is elected annually by a general Congress, composed of the various State Centres and one delegate from each Circle in good standing.

The first Fenian Congress was held in Chicago, in November, 1863, and consisted of nearly 200 delegates. The Constitution of the Order was largely altered, and its designs were more boldly avowed. The second Congress was held in Cincinnati, in January, 1865, and various committees, on Military Affairs, on Foreign Affairs, on Ways and Means, etc., were appointed. A Fenian Sisterhood was also established at this time, with promise of beneficial results. The membership of the Order, it was reported, had largely increased, there being about 380 circles and some 80,000 members, over 14,000 of these latter being of the naval and military class.

In September, 1865, another Congress assembled in Philadelphia, at which a new Constitution was adopted, modelled upon the Constitution of the United States. Its design is to secure



the blessings of liberty to the Irish race in Ireland, and it admits to membership United States citizens of Irish birth and lineage, and friends of Ireland everywhere on the American continent. The Brotherhood is subdivided into State, District, and Social Circles, as previously. The Congress consists of a Senate and House, the former limited to fifteen in number, the latter composed of delegates from the Circles, one delegate for every hundred members. The executive power resides in the President, who is elected annually by the Congress, and, in connection with the Senate, arranges treaties, appoints ambassadors, etc. He, and all civil officers, are liable to impeachment for treason, bribery, and other high crimes and misdemeanors, and on conviction are expelled from the Brotherhood.

Various steps were taken, after the adjournment of the Congress, looking to the great end had in view. Offices were opened in New York and an issue of bonds commenced. A serious difficulty which occurred between the president, John O'Mahony, and the Senate, and which threatened to do great mischief, caused some excitement; but the difficulty was ultimately settled so as

not to interfere with the main objects of the Brotherhood.

In the existing state of affairs, the British Government has not been unmindful of the dangers to its supremacy, caused by the organization and course of action of the Fenian Brotherhood. Troops have been sent to Ireland; the constabulary force has been increased, and various preparations have been made to meet the threatened emergency. During the year 1865 martial law was proclaimed in some counties, and suspected persons were here and there arrested and imprisoned. Among these was James Stephens, a man of considerable note and importance in the present condition of Ireland, being the Head Centre of the whole Brotherhood, not only in his native land, but also elsewhere. Stephens, by the aid of compatriots, escaped from prison, and, despite the utmost vigilance of the authorities, sharpened by offers of large rewards for his arrest, arrived soon after in France; thence he made his way, in the spring of 1866, to the United States, to carry forward the objects of the Brotherhood in any and every way which might present itself.\* Various steps were taken with reference to an

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\* Stephens, on his examination, took high ground, and denied the right of the English Government to exercise any authority in Ireland. Especial precautions were taken to prevent his escape. The corridor of the prison in which he slept was kept locked, except during the hour allowed for exercise. This corridor is divided from its continuation in the other wing of the prison by a heavy, solid iron door, which was kept securely locked. Three policemen were stationed here on guard. At the other end of the corridor is a

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massive iron door, with a huge lock, opening on the lobby of a stone staircase, by which the ground is reached. The door of Stephens's cell was cased with iron, no keyhole inside, and secured by a very large swing bar, fastened by a padlock of great size. Despite all this precaution, the doors were all opened for Stephens, and one night he quietly walked out. A reward of £1,000 was offered for his apprehension; but to no purpose.

Of Mr. Stephens's fellow workers in his revolutionary



irruption into Canada, in order to strike a blow, which would be felt, at British power in America, and ultimately to

operate from this quarter in favor of efforts at home for the freedom of Ireland.

movement, the following were the principal men who fell into the power of the British authorities about the same time that he did, but who had not the good fortune to escape with him from the dungeons of their enemies:

Jeremiah O'Donovan-Rossa, a gentleman of fair education, and of superior natural talents, though self-made, was born in Ross-Carberry, in the county of Cork, of an old and respectable, but latterly reduced, family, whose ancestors—the O'Donovans-Rossa—were formerly owners of the surrounding territory of *Ros-o-g Cairbre*. Of all the imprisoned leaders of the Fenians, there was none so popular as O'Donovan-Rossa. His frank and genial manners gained him the good-will of all who came into contact with him, and his thorough devotedness and indomitable energy as a patriot, secured the respect and confidence of his organized associates, while his ancient clan associations, as well as his intrinsic good qualities as a man and a friend, had so endeared him to his neighbors in his native district, that few men in the south of Ireland had a larger personal following than he. He was somewhat above the middle height, muscular and athletic, with an open and rather handsome countenance. His first experience of an English prison was in 1858, when he was arrested with several others for the Phoenix Conspiracy of Skibbereen, but released on bail, with his companions, after several months' incarceration—the jury before which he was tried not having agreed to a verdict. No sooner was he restored to liberty than he resumed his revolutionary labors, and was the mainspring of the Fenian movement in West Munster up to his removal to Dublin, in 1863, when he became manager of the Irish People newspaper in that city. But his labors were not confined to his connection with this journal. He made frequent tours to England and Scotland, and more than once to the United States, in the service of the organization. He was arrested on the 15th Sept., 1865, with the other conductors of the Irish People. When tried, soon after, he defended himself. On being convicted of treason felony, he was sentenced to penal servitude for life. He was the only civilian amongst his associates upon whom so severe a penalty was passed. It was the meed of his universal popularity, as well as his activity and zeal as an Irish revolutionist. He is now about thirty-five years old, and has a young and beautiful wife and a large interesting family.

2d. Charles J. Kickham was born thirty-four years since, in the town of Mullinahone, near the northern base of Slievenamon. He came of a respectable stock, and his father, John Kickham, was a wealthy and patriotic draper in his native town; besides which he was

extensively engaged in agriculture. Young Kickham received a first-class education. His literary talents and acquirements were of a high order. He was an eloquent and correct prose writer, and a poet of no mean genius. In '48, though scarcely out of his boyhood, he established a Young Ireland club in his native parish, and was one of the followers of Smith O'Brien in his attempted revolution, from the consequences of which he escaped by reason of his youth. When Dr. Cane started the Celt in Kilkenny, some time after, Kickham was one of its ablest contributors. He joined the Fenian movement in '61; since when, in company with Denis D. Mulcahy and a few other tried men, he helped to sow the seeds of revolution broadcast over Tipperary. He attended the first convention of the American Fenians at Chicago, in '63. Soon after his return to Ireland, he became one of the principal editors of the Irish People—his connection with which was the immediate cause of his arrest, trial, and conviction. He was also a member of the Revolutionary Council. His tastes were exalted and refined; his disposition was extremely gentle and kindly; while in his devotedness to his land and his race, he was an enthusiast.

3d. John O'Leary was also a member of the Irish Revolutionary Council. He, too, began his career as an Irish rebel at a very early age—having been arrested for having made an attempt to muster the peasantry of Tipperary at a place called the Wilderness, near Clonmel, for the purpose of rescuing Smith O'Brien and his companions in durance, during their trial in '48. He was then a mere boy. Having been set at liberty, after an imprisonment which lasted several months, he devoted himself to the study of the medical profession and to literary pursuits. Though in relations of the closest intimacy with James Stephens, since the return of the latter to Ireland from France in '57, he did not become prominently connected with the Fenian movement till his installation as chief editor of the Irish People; nor is it well ascertained whether he was ever regularly initiated as a member of that society. John O'Leary comes of an old and patriotic race, originally located in the west of the County of Cork. He was born in the rising town of Tipperary, where his father was held in very great esteem, as one of its most influential and enterprising merchants. He was, in private life, a worthy man, and in public a sterling lover of his country. As a *littérateur*, John O'Leary has few superiors. In revolutionary matters, he is more of a philosophic thinker than a man of impulsive action. But though his patriotism is not of a demonstrative cast, it is not the less determined and pure. In person he is of slight



Early in February, 1866, at the opening of Parliament, the Queen, in her speech, said: "A conspiracy adverse alike to authority, property, and religion, and disapproved and condemned alike by all who are interested in their maintenance, without distinction of creed or class, has unhappily appeared in Ireland. The constitutional power of the ordinary tribunals has been exerted for its repression, and the authority of the law has been firmly and impartially vindicated." Notwithstanding, however, the Queen's statement on the subject of the efficiency of the ordinary processes of law, the lord lieutenant,

in the most earnest terms, insisted upon a suspension of the *habeas corpus* in Ireland, affirming that he could not hold himself responsible for the safety of the country unless this were done. Parliament acted with promptness and decision, and the necessary bill was passed, on the 17th of February, by both the Houses of Commons and of Lords, and received the royal assent the same day.

Mr. Bright, in the Commons, protested against this movement, and spoke warmly upon the traditional misgovernment of Ireland. "Never," he exclaimed, "does the Government act

and graceful build, above the middle height, and of regular, handsome features. He is unmarried, fortunately for himself.

4th. Thomas Clarke Luby is now about forty-two years old. Son of an Anglican clergyman, and nephew of one of the most learned and distinguished fellows of Trinity College, he commenced his university career and won considerable scholastic distinction, at an early age. In '48 he joined the Young Ireland party, and thus lost the friendship and patronage of his uncle, who is an extreme loyalist. After the failure of Smith O'Brien, Luby joined Fenton Lalor, Philip Guy, Joseph Brennan, and others, in an attempt to reorganize the party; but their efforts proved abortive. After this, he became editor of a patriotic paper, started in Dublin by a Mr. Fulham. After the failure of this journal, Luby continued true to his principles through very trying domestic difficulties, notwithstanding the pressure brought to bear upon him by his loyal relative, who urged him to give up patriotism and continue his studies for the Irish Bar—promising, in case he should comply, to forward his personal interests with his means and all the influence at his command. Luby, however, resisted the temptation. He assisted James Stephens in founding the Fenian movement in Ireland, and was one of its most prominent, earnest, and effective workers up to the time of his arrest. Luby is a man of erudition—he speaks well and writes well. He is married, and has left a wife and interesting young family unprovided for.

5th. Denis Dowling Mulcahy is a younger man than any of the preceding. He is sprung from an old and

esteemed stock in South Tipperary. His father, Denis Mulcahy, was one of the staunchest supporters of Daniel O'Connell during the Emancipation, Tithe Reform, and Repeal agitations, in the course of which he suffered severely in property, through his devotedness to what he considered to be his country's best interests. Mulcahy has received an excellent education. His talents are considerable, and by his family influence, personal popularity, and untiring self-sacrificing labors, he has spread the organization widely through the counties of Waterford and Tipperary. He is a man of indomitable courage, towering stature, and everywhere calculated to gain a distinguished position among his countrymen in the projected revolution.

The other principal victims of the British Government in this movement are: John Haltegan, for a long time Centre in Kilkenny; James O'Connor, William Roantree, Michael Moore, Hugh Brophy, all of Dublin; John Kenelly, John Lynch, Brian Dillon, and Chas. U. O'Connell, of Cork; C. Keane, of Skibbereen; Michael O'Regan, of New York, U. S.; and Patrick O'Leary (surnamed the Pagan), of New York also. The latter was the first Fenian convict. The spreading of the organization in the British army was his special vocation. His success therein was most extraordinary. He had sworn in over three thousand British soldiers as citizens of the Irish Republic before he met with the traitor who procured his arrest and conviction. Patrick O'Leary is, on the whole, a most remarkable and original character. His real name was not discovered by the enemy at the time of his trial and conviction.



with energy and promptness towards Ireland, except upon a measure of repression or coercion. I have sat here through several administrations. Sir Robert Peel, Lord Aberdeen, Lord Palmerston, Earl Russell, have all sat at the head of the Government, and the conduct of every administration towards Ireland has been utterly devoid of statesmanship." At the same time, Mr. Bright said that he would not oppose a measure which the Government deemed essential to the preservation of the public peace. Mr. John Stuart Mill, also, while the subject was before the House, added his testimony to that of Mr. Bright, and dwelt forcibly upon the injustice with which Ireland has been and is uniformly treated.

In the United States there was a strong disposition, in the spring of 1866, on the part of many of the Fenians, to make an irruption into Canada, as we have above noted. Mr. Stephens, it appears, was not favorably inclined towards this undertaking, and exerted his influence to prevent it, and to turn all the energies of Irish patriots in the direction of Ireland, and the supplying funds and arms for those who were about to fight the battle with English tyranny on their native soil. The Canadian scheme was not, however, abandoned. At the beginning of summer parties of the Fenians rendezvoused at several spots on the frontier, principally at Buffalo in New York, and St. Albans in Vermont. On the 1st of June a considerable body crossed

the border at Buffalo, with the intention of overthrowing, if possible, the British Government in Canada. Several skirmishes occurred with the Canadian troops and volunteers; and whether it were owing to want of proper drill and organization, or to some other cause, the Fenians were worsted decidedly, and the irruption proved to be a failure. Many of the Fenians, on recrossing into the United States, were made prisoners by the public authorities.

On the 6th of June, 1866, President Johnson issued a proclamation, denouncing the Fenian enterprise as a high misdemeanor, directing the authorities to arrest all concerned in it, and instructing General Meade to use the national forces, if necessary, to prevent any invasion from the United States into her majesty's dominions. No supplies or arms were allowed to pass to those in Canada, and most of those who had gone upon this expedition made their way back. Another crossing was made, a few days later, near St. Albans, Vermont, but without any success or profit to the Fenian cause. The Canadian Government arrested and held to bail the leaders and officers of the expedition; but the privates were released and sent back into the United States.

The course of action taken by the direction of President Johnson was sharply criticized as unfriendly in the extreme, and wanting in sympathy for the struggles of Irish patriots after



independence and freedom; and it was avowed that the least the American Government could do, in such a case, and where so high and sacred interests were at stake, was to remain neutral, and allow the Fenians free space for an irruption into the British provinces, and the striking a blow which would materially aid in the disenthralment of Ireland. On the other hand, the new prime-minister, Lord Derby, expressed, early in July, the profound thanks of her majesty's government for the prompt and efficient action of the President of the United States. "Notwithstanding," were his lordship's words, "the latitude which is given in the United States to all expressions of public feeling, and to any thing short of actual violation of laws, yet, as soon as the law was plainly about to be violated, vigorous and decided measures, as I acknowledge with the utmost gratitude, were taken by the government of the United States to prevent a violation of their own laws, and the rights of friendly States, by a lawless band of marauders."

By direction of the home government, the Fenian prisoners in Canada, captured during the irruption just spoken of, were tried, convicted, and sentenced to death by the court held at Toronto. Among these were R. B. Lynch, professedly a newspaper correspondent, but, according to testimony adduced on the trial, acting as a colonel of the Fenian troops; and John McMahon, a Catholic priest, whose

plea was that he was compelled by the Fenians to remain with them and administer the rites of the Church to the wounded, although he had not gone to Canada for any purpose of acting with the Fenians. Both Lynch and McMahon were found guilty, and sentenced to be hung on the 13th of December. The American secretary of state, Mr. Seward, interposed in behalf of these men, and asked for a record of the trial and a suspension of the sentence. He urged upon the British minister at Washington that, as the offences were purely of a political character, there ought to be great leniency shown towards the prisoners, and a spirit of forgiveness manifested. The secretary, also, with a slight touch of sarcasm, added that his suggestion was "made with freedom and earnestness, because the same opinions were proposed to us by all the governments and publicists of Europe, and by none of them with greater frankness and kindness than by the government and statesmen of Great Britain."\*

As was to be expected, the result of these trials caused no little excitement among the Fenian Brotherhood and the Irish people generally in the United States. A fresh impulse seemed to be given to the cause, and a profounder and stronger feeling to be aroused in behalf of struggling Ireland. On Sunday, the 28th of October, 1866, a very large meeting of the Fenians was held

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\* The sentences in these cases were subsequently commuted to imprisonment for twenty years.



at Jones's Woods, near the city of New York. Mr. Stephens, the Chief Organizer and Head Centre of the Irish Republic, made a speech of considerable length and importance. As we have before stated (see p. 815), Stephens was not in favor of invading Canada; on the present occasion, he denounced the movement as a sort of filibustering affair, and affirmed that if, last year, the Fenians in Ireland had only had a few thousand more rifles at one particular point, the whole Island would have been theirs in ten days, and every English soldier on Irish soil would have been dead or captive. Among other things, he stated that the Fenian army in Ireland numbered fifty thousand men, as well trained, drilled, and equipped as any in the world. With a degree of candor unusual in such matters, Stephens named the very time when the rising was to take place. "I do not say," were his words, "that there will be fighting in Ireland before the 13th day of December; but there will be before the 1st of January, 1867, with as fair prospect of success as ever was known, and I shall be there in the midst of my countrymen." In the same connection, he alluded (in terms of disapproval) to the opposition of the Catholic clergy in regard to the Fenian movements; and, while reiterating that the contest of arms was certain to begin speedily, he begged his auditors to mark every man who ridiculed or attempted to cry down the cause of Ireland, and remember him forever.

The fact spoken of above by Mr. Stephens is worthy of note, and, how ever it may be accounted for, it is nevertheless true, that the Fenian movement, at home and abroad, was looked upon with disfavor by the bishops and priests of the Catholic Church. We quote, in illustration, from an English Catholic paper (of October, 1865) several paragraphs, which show the grounds taken by the hierarchy, and the reasons which influenced their action:

"The Fenian Brotherhood is, at the present moment, a great fact in the history of Ireland. It exists there, and cannot be ignored. Day by day the Irish papers give us accounts of Fenian meetings, of the gathering together of large bodies of men, who are mustered and drilled with the regularity and precision of a well-organized army. How many there may be in America associated in the same society it is hard to say; but, if the reports of the papers are correct, there must be in Ireland at least thirty thousand; and these men, we firmly believe, would, to-morrow, shed the last drop of their blood for their fatherland. Now, what is the end and object of this society? Simply the liberation of Ireland (so, at least, the members tell us) from the yoke of England. So far so good; and so far we heartily sympathize with our fellow-countrymen, and desire, as earnestly as any of them, the freedom of Old Erin. With heart and soul we would join in the great work of deliv-



ering Catholic Ireland from the domination of Protestant England. But, is the work to be done through the instrumentality of the Fenian Brotherhood? Can the work *possibly* be done *through* them *and by* them? We think *not*, and there are many reasons that lead us to this conclusion.

“In the first place, the movement has been generally discountenanced by the clergy, and invariably denounced by the bishops. For what reason? Is it that the bishops and clergy of Ireland do not love their native land? Is it that they do not desire that which would be most beneficial to their flocks? Are they in the pay of England; and is it that they fear to lose, by the change of foreign domination for independent home government? We ask these questions simply because certain papers, influencing a large circle of readers, make such charges against the episcopate and clergy of Ireland; and to each of these questions we return a positive and unqualified negative.

“But a short time ago we saw how the clergy of Poland worked and strove, and even fought for the freedom of their native land. There was a prospect—and a hopeful one—of success. They thought that France was with them, and hoped for the sympathy of England. They were disappointed; and the noble effort, the heroic struggle, failed through want of means, and through lack of sympathy. But the priests were with the people; with them they lived, suffered, and

died. The sympathy of every Catholic heart was with the Poles, and we all know how deep an interest the Holy Father took in their welfare—how, for them, he has braved and scorned the displeasure of the mighty Czar. How, then, does it happen that, whereas in Poland the Church blessed and favored the uprising for liberty, it is now, in Ireland, opposed to such an attempt? The question requires two answers—the one from the Church as such, the other from the Church in Ireland.

“It seems that Fenianism is a secret society—that is, its members take an oath to obey an unknown authority, and to follow out, in detail, every order issued by that authority. We read that in Limerick a man was requested ‘to take an oath, binding him to obey the rules laid down by the heads of the association in the United States.’ What were these rules? He was, therefore, called upon to take an oath without knowing the obligations that oath involved. Such an oath is rash, and is, therefore, forbidden by the law of God and by God’s Church. If, therefore, the oath of obedience to an unknown authority, and the oath to follow unknown rules, be a necessary preliminary to the initiation into the Fenian Brotherhood, the Church must, necessarily, condemn such a society. The bishops and clergy of Ireland may condemn, and do condemn it on this ground; but they have other reasons which can only be manifest to those



who know Ireland well. They are not, we may be well assured, wanting in love of their country and their flocks. Who knows better than they do all the afflictions, and griefs, and oppression of one and the other? And who can sympathize more deeply than they do with Ireland and the Irish? It cannot be, therefore, from want of sympathy in the good cause that they do not approve of the Fenian organization. They condemn it because of the oath which the Church cannot, and will not, allow; and they disapprove of it because they see that, instead of freeing Ireland from misery, it is likely to plunge her still more deeply into the mire. The Irish clergy are a body of men who love their country, and who love, with a father-like love, their flocks; and any thing that would benefit their fatherland and spiritual children would receive, not merely their approbation, but their co-operation. They would work for it unto death; and, if they now oppose this movement, depend upon it, it is simply because they know that it can result in no good. They know that the promises that come so freely from America will never be fulfilled; that men who have made a home in the far-off land will never return to fight for the country they have abandoned. They know, too, that were every man in Ireland to go to the battle-field, they could not offer any effectual opposition to the power of England. They know that there is no dependence upon America,

and they know that without such aid it would be madness for Ireland to think of rising against England. They know well what loss of life, what misery and desolation, an unsuccessful uprising would involve; and so, loving their children, they prudently and wisely oppose it. And so they are said to be unpatriotic, and accused of being in the pay of England.

“Oh, listen to your priest! He knows you; he loves you—he loves our dear country. And any thing that tends to break that close and affectionate union that has ever existed in Ireland, between priest and people, cannot be good. The priest knows and loves his country and his people, and must approve of that which is for the benefit of both. If the clergy of Ireland condemn Fenianism, it merely shows that they know it to be of no advantage either to the country or the people.”

A few weeks after the meeting at Jones's Woods, there was a gathering of the Centres and Delegates of the Brotherhood of New York and vicinity. It was held at the Apollo Rooms, New York, on Sunday evening, November 19th, and the following resolution and accompanying Appeal were unanimously adopted:—

“*Resolved*, That the Centre of each Circle of the F. B. in New York, Brooklyn, Jersey City, and vicinity, be instructed to send a committee of their ablest and prominent members to each house in the localities in which its Cir



cles may be situated, and solicit from every Irishman, and the lovers of liberty of all nationalities, arms, munitions, and money in aid of the revolution about to be inaugurated in Ireland, and that the names of those subscribing for the purposes referred to, and those who, being Irishmen, may refuse to contribute, be written in a book of record, to be kept for that purpose in the Central Office, No. 19 Chatham street, for future reference, and that the views of this meeting may be placed before the world by an appeal to be published herewith.

#### THE APPEAL.

*To the Men of Irish Birth and all Lovers of Republican Institutions everywhere :*

“COUNTRYMEN, FRIENDS, AND BROTHERS :—Every item of information reaching us from Ireland proves it to be certain, beyond all question, that our countrymen at home are determined on war—war to the knife, and that this very year. The final struggle of our people with the foreigner will be soon inaugurated; the oppressed will meet the oppressor foot to foot, to battle for the very existence of our race and of our nationality. The issue is patent. Either we must succeed in this our final struggle, and take our place among the nations of the earth, or be defeated—to be scattered broadcast, as a people despised, pointed at only with the finger of scorn, and ready to do battle for every country but our own. To the Irishmen of America such an eventual-

ity cannot fail to suggest the profoundest emotions. The degradations to which his kindred have been subjected for centuries—the sacrifices of a people offered as a holocaust at the shrine of despotism; the many miseries entailed by foreign domination—are to be washed away in the blood of the enemy, or live a perpetual curse in our defeat. The wrongs of the past must be righted by the manhood of the present. A nation which will not make sacrifices is unworthy of freedom. That is a blessing which cannot be too highly prized by any people; it is one of the holiest gifts which God can bestow on man. And what greater sacrifice can be required of a people to gain that blessing, than that of life and every thing they hold most dear? Our countrymen being resolved to fight against an old, an intolerant enemy, to wipe out the stigma of slavery, they risk life, property, all, on the struggle. It will be to the eternal credit or disgrace of their kindred in America, if this struggle be a glorious or disastrous one—if Ireland be a land crowned by the laurels of a victorious army, or reduced to the condition of an immense wilderness and charnel-house. Should revolution in Ireland end in defeat, should the land, be saturated with the blood of freedom's martyrs shed in vain, let those in America who could, but would not, aid in the freedom of their native land, bear the humiliation and shame. That the lukewarm and skeptical may no longer have an ex-



cuse for not giving that assistance to their compatriots at home which is expected from them, we deem it our duty to place our views before the world. Advocates of universal liberty, but especially of liberty in Ireland, we have resolved to do all in our power to sustain those of our kindred who keep garrison at home. That the struggle, now so imminent, may be short and effective, we appeal to all our kindred in America, men and women, and to the lovers of freedom everywhere, to give what our brothers require. That no one claiming to have Irish blood in his veins may have any longer an excuse for not contributing in proportion to his means, a committee of gentlemen, properly accredited, will call upon all from whom aid is expected. That a permanent record of all those who will do their duty to Ireland at so important a crisis as this may be kept for future purposes, as well as those who by their non-action wish it to be recorded as their opinion that our race at last is conquered, the committees instructed to collect arms, war material, and money, for the use of the Irish republican army, will hand in their lists weekly, at the Central Office, 19 Chatham street, in this city. In the name of liberty, justice, and humanity, we appeal to all, on behalf of a suffering but noble-minded people, to subscribe liberally, and at once."

The determined spirit of the Fenian Brotherhood, and of all lovers of Irish

freedom, in the United States, to go forward at all hazards with their undertaking, to engage in active hostilities in Ireland against the British Government and authorities, and to secure the independence and nationality of the Green Isle of the Ocean, was further roused by an eloquent and scathing review of "English Misrule in Ireland," from Father Vaughan, of County Clare. This reverend gentleman delivered a lecture on the above topic at Cooper Institute, New York, on the evening of November 21st, 1866. We give, from one of the journals of the day, the report of his earnest setting forth of the wrongs done to his native land by the foreigner and oppressor in the past as well as the present.

A large audience was gathered, to whom Father Vaughan said, that "it afforded him great delight to meet and address, on the present occasion, so numerous and respectable a body of his countrymen. It convinced him that they still regarded their native land with earnest and deep-seated devotion. The very fact that they were able to assemble together in such respectable numbers, likewise assured him that the purpose of England in driving them out had been defeated. England had hoped that, exiled to this country, they would soon become absorbed in the elements around them—that they would cease to be Irish—and, as a matter of course, cease to be an object of terror or annoyance. He saw with pleasure, however, that in this country they had



preserved their nationality, and that they were still Irish to the heart's core; that they were a powerful element in their adopted land, and were still a just cause of fear to the robber-Saxon. The time might come, and he hoped would soon come, when, as they had been driven out with a vengeance, they would go back with a vengeance. (Up-roarious applause, and cheers for Stephens).

"It had always caused him pain to behold a fine race, such as that they belonged to, burned and branded like the first murderer, Cain, and driven forth to wander like vagabonds over the earth. If the soil of Ireland were barren and the climate unnatural, then indeed he might reconcile himself to the exodus and banishment of such a people; but taking into account the fertility of the island, the physical endurance and industrial energy of the inhabitants, their banishment from their native land must be a source of deep and bitter regret to every Irishman.

"The Irish people would have been prosperous at home, if just and good government had permitted them to have a fair field for the development of their energies. In this country, in every branch of civil and commercial life, Irishmen excelled all other races of people. There was no more fertile land under the sun than Ireland. If it were compared with any equal portion of this country, it would be found that it far excelled it in fertility. And yet, although here the people obtained

with ease an ample subsistence, the people of Ireland were steeped in the deepest poverty and clad in rags. The reason of the difference was plain. Ireland was an oppressed and enslaved land. The whole rule of England in Ireland, from the first invasion of the robber-murderer Saxon to the present time, had been one of misrule. The evils with which the Irish people had been cursed by the English rule were as numerous as the evils contained in Pandora's box. He would notice first the misrule of English legislation.

"There was nothing that stamped its moral grandeur upon a people like the laws that governed it. If the laws were mild and just and merciful, then the people reflected faithfully their beneficent character. If, on the other hand, the laws were cruel and unjust, their malignant influence also imprinted itself in the life of the people. The ancient laws of Ireland, before the Saxon planted his foot upon her soil, were eminently wise and just. They enforced the practice of hospitality, the cultivation of music, poetry, and literature, and exhibited a jealous regard for the security of property and the honor of women. To such a degree was the popular mind of Ireland dignified and elevated by the enforcement of these wise laws, that when St. Patrick came to Ireland and appeared before its senators, and presented to them the Gospel of Christ, they immediately recognized the truth of his teachings, and in an incredibly short space of time the whole



island was converted. But since England had usurped dominion over Ireland, that unhappy country had been cursed with the vilest code of laws that ever disgraced a human government. There were three things which just laws would ever guard with jealous care—the security of life, of property, and of female honor. The English had never given them laws securing either.

“Father Vaughan then read an extract from an address to Pope John XXII., appealing to him for protection against the merciless oppression of their Saxon masters. The address depicted vividly the terrible condition of the country at that time, and stated that it was a doctrine then universally accepted by Englishmen, and one which had even been taught from the pulpit by English ecclesiastics, that it was no crime to kill an Irishman.

“Father Vaughan continued by saying, that a trial had actually taken place in which two Englishmen, convicted of having committed a rape, were released because the victim was only an Irishwoman. Any Englishman could legally drive away an Irishman from his land and settle on it himself. It was a crime to have any commercial relations with Irishmen. It was high treason to marry an Irishwoman or to employ an Irish nurse. So terrible were the sufferings of the Irish people under this state of things, that they offered a thousand marks—a very large sum in those days—to be admitted to the rights of English citizenship, but

were refused equal justice even on those terms. And when at last, in the reign of Henry IV., the poor Irish people began to leave the country, a law was enacted prohibiting “the further departure of the Irish enemy.” In the course of centuries these unnatural laws have been, to a certain extent, modified, as civilization and enlightenment have advanced; but, though not enforced, many of them may yet be found unrepealed on the English statute books.

“You may think it bad taste in me, perhaps, to be reviving these barbarous outrages upon justice and humanity; but at the present hour there is a code of law regulating the lives and liberties of the Irish people, and imposed by English misrule, as iniquitous and cruel as ever disgraced the annals of manhood.

“The reverend lecturer here explained the present law of ejectment, which he stated had swept three hundred and twenty-six thousand families, comprising two millions of people, out of Ireland, from the year 1846 to the present time. That was a fair illustration of the monstrous, revolting, and diabolical character of English rule in Ireland. Under such circumstances it was the duty of every Irishman to combine and revolt against such infamous legislation. It was wonderful to remark the slight effect centuries of wickedly unjust and cruel government had produced on the Irish character. He believed that none but the Celtic race



could have withstood such withering influences for so long a period. It was only owing to the tenacity of the Celtic nature, that they possessed at the present time a greater amount of public and private virtue than any other people. Let them take, for instance, the Irishwoman—in single life as pure as the driven snow; in married life, like Cæsar's wife, above suspicion. Let them take, again, the Irish character for generosity. It was considered a crime in Ireland for a man to dine with his doors closed. Then, again, let them take the fact that the Irishmen in this country, in 1862, transmitted to friends in the old country the enormous sum of £300,000. What volumes that fact spoke for their sense of filial duty! And, in the recent struggle between the North and the South, the Irishmen had nobly vindicated the strength of their devotion to their adopted land. He hoped, before God, that they would soon give as unmistakable proof in their own country of their love of liberty. (Immense applause.)

“Father Vaughan then gave a sketch of the famines which have so frequently desolated Ireland, and referred particularly to that of '47 and '48, of which he was himself an eye-witness. He said that the frequent recurrence of these famines was an irrefutable proof of British misrule; and, so long as the English despotism remained dominant in Ireland, famines would occur every eight or ten years. In 1862 there had been great distress in Connaught, and

that section of the country. Sir Robert Peel, then Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, made a journey to examine into the condition of affairs. Instead of telling the truth, as he had seen it, he openly denied in the British Parliament that there was any suffering among the people, and mocked at their sufferings. (Hisses.) If that man had insulted the people of any other country in that manner, they would have stabbed him to the heart. When Charlotte Corday stabbed Marat, she did not rid mankind of a greater monster than he. (Applause.) He (the speaker) declared before God, angels, and men, that such a state of things as now exists in Ireland is revolting to human nature, and a blasphemy against God. Every worthy impulse of the human heart, every good instinct planted by God in the mind of man, impelled him to direct all his energies to remove so deplorable a condition of affairs at once—(applause)—to remove the cause of it, and to rise up like men and crush out the infamous rule that had brought such calamities upon mankind. (Tremendous cheering.)

“The reverend lecturer closed with an expression of his firm belief that the Irish people, if united, were in a position to secure their independence and freedom.”

Direct news, at the close of November, 1866, so far as it could be learned through the press, seemed to point clearly to the fact that the outbreak was actually entered upon; and there



was intense excitement in England at the prospect. Additional troops were ordered to Ireland; the Government exerted itself in every way to meet the emergency; and the tone of the press, and of the English authorities and people, was bitter and severe in the extreme. The London Times, in a violent article, said that the rebellion "must be stamped out with an iron heel;" and the journals throughout Great Britain echoed the sentiments of the Times, and urged the putting down, in the most effectual manner, every attempt to sever Ireland from its present subjection to the British Crown.

The Government, however, was considerably embarrassed in its plans and operation by a knowledge of the fact that the Fenian organization was largely numerous in England as well as in Ireland; and it was found necessary to proceed with caution and prudent regard for the feelings of the thousands of Irishmen in various parts of England. It was not deemed expedient to deprive Liverpool and other important places of their garrisons, or weaken their military strength; for the Fenians threatened, if the "stamping out" process was inaugurated, to resort to retaliation on British soil of such a kind as would be swift and effective. At the same time there was no halting in regard to the settled purpose, which we have noted on a previous page (p. 790), that there should never be permitted to be a dismemberment of the empire at any time, or under any

circumstances, so long as England could prevent it; and it was determined to bring to bear the entire military and naval force of the country to put down any insurrection, or any change of the relation which existed since the Union between the several portions of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

Stephens, the "C. O. I. R.," that is, "Chief Organizer of the Irish Republic," claimed that there were 250,000 men on Irish soil, and some 70,000 in England, on whom he could implicitly rely. Of these, in Ireland, he asserted that 50,000 were thoroughly drilled soldiers, and under the command of officers who had served and gained experience in the American army. With such a force, and with the expected supplies and increase of men from the United States and elsewhere, Stephens was confident of success in being able to drive out the oppressor, and place Ireland upon a footing of equality with any nation in the world. Conscious of the strength of the Fenian organization, and its thorough discipline and efficiency, and assured that all the wealth of England could not buy the secrets of the Brotherhood, or corrupt its members, Stephens and his compatriots pushed forward their movements with zeal and energy. They were greatly encouraged so to do by the hearty sympathy of members in America, by large subscriptions of money, and by the enlistment of many of those who had served in



the United States army, and were ready to go to Ireland at a moment's warning. Frequent addresses, too, and publications of various descriptions, kept alive the spirit and enterprise of the Fenians in America. Mr. Warren, an officer in the military organization of the Brotherhood, issued a war manifesto at New York, November 30th, 1866, addressed to "Irishmen, Brothers, and Lovers of Universal Liberty." Acknowledging that the invasion of Canada had not resulted in any benefit to the cause, Mr. Warren concluded his address in the following terms:—

"Let us look at this matter dispassionately as the crisis requires. We have hitherto advanced in theory. Now is the time to be practical. All the arms and munitions held by both sections of the Brotherhood on this continent, obtained by means of the contributions of our devoted people, are necessary for the Irish army. What right have men who are merely the custodians of them to withhold them now? Let there be no mistake about it; the man or men who are the cause of depriving our compatriots of the means intended for them are trifling with their lives. Is there a man in America prepared to undertake that terrible responsibility? I much fear it. Why will not an indignant people rise up in their majesty, forgetting the past, and seeing in the distance their brothers appealing to them for arms, dear to them as their heart's blood, and not insist that material collected

for Irish purposes be used for these purposes alone. The curse of Cain was not half so black or heavy as that which will follow every man who, through his official position, refuses the privilege of arming his countrymen to meet the foe. He and his posterity deserve to be pointed at with the finger of scorn; and whether victory or defeat be the result of our efforts, the leaders here who counsel non-co-operation deserve to be branded with eternal infamy. Irishmen in America, the tocsin of war is about being sounded. Our compatriots are about taking the field. In God's name, then, unite. Rally round them as one man. Purchase arms for those who want them. Let not the unnecessary blood spilled, which exertion on your part could have saved, rise up in judgment against you like an accusing demon. I feel that the moment is pregnant for good or evil to our country. Let him who doubts my sincerity come with me to prove it on the green hills of Ireland."

One of the Irish papers of the same date, published in New York, used language of similar import, and spoke in tones of the most earnest encouragement as to the present and the future. "The crisis to which the great effort now near culmination has been made is approaching, and very nigh. The sky will ere long be aglare with rockets signalizing the movement of men—Irishmen—which will, we devotedly hope, give liberty to the home of our birth. Gone and outgoing are those



whose liberty and whose lives are staked upon the great attempt. Shall not all partisanship, all jealousy and personal pique, where any may exist, be now laid aside, and one calmly-considered, hopeful, but determined and sustained effort, be made to aid and succor the 'men in the gap' in ways which you will understand?"

The same journal, in an editorial of considerable length, discussed the position of affairs, and the ability of England to put down the revolt in Ireland, in language which displayed the utmost assurance of final success to the cause it was advocating. "As regards the entire world—subjected to the maritime despotism of England, placed in the alternative of ceasing all commercial competition with that power, or of crushing the workingman, according to her example, beneath the grindstone of capital, to extract both work and vice from him at a cheap rate—it will utter a long sigh of joy on the day when that power will disappear from the surface of the earth, leaving no void and bearing away no regret. On that day public conscience will be delivered of a great weight.

"What are the forces in presence? On the one hand, the secret organization of Ireland comprises 200,000 men, who are organized and have taken the oath, out of whom 50,000, who are killed in the use of arms, and are armed, will form the first band, the first rising. These are insignificant men, peasants, barefooted men for the most

part, it is true; but the *sans-culottes* of Valmy and Jemmappes, who made the best armies in Europe recoil, were not very well shod. They had to avenge the same offence, to defend the same cause as the Irish. They fought for liberty and their country, as the Irish will soon fight also; victory smiled then upon the republicans of France, as it will smile to-morrow upon the republicans of Ireland. What can England oppose to this army of patriots, determined to vanquish or perish? 20,000 men, mercenary troops. We all know how recruiting is done in England. If these 20,000 men are not sufficient, England can, by stripping the rest of her kingdom of troops, send, in two or three weeks, about fifteen thousand more men. Will she dare do this in the presence of the revolution about to break out? Did she dare do it, the fact of being reduced to that step would prove the strength of the insurrection. The fact of sending re-enforcements at so critical a moment, will make the force of Ireland morally and materially tenfold. On the day when the hatred piled up against England sees a gleam of success in vengeance, it will rush forth to take part in the hounds' fee. We admit that, these second re-enforcements not being sufficient, new ones may be necessary. By recalling her forces from the Mediterranean and the Atlantic, England can, in the space of three months, bring 20,000 more men upon the Irish soil; but in order to do this,



two things must be admitted: the first, that the naval power of England should have received no injury in her ports; the second, that she can, without danger, leave her colonies to themselves. A last resource remains to her; she can, in the space of six months, bring 25,000 men from India. To any man accustomed to matters of war, it is easy to see the strategical danger to which the English army is exposed. While she would be receiving her reinforcements in detachments, the insurrection, concentrated, acts by masses, having for it the entire country, its resources and its sympathies. In a rich and hilly country, like Ireland, this is no small advantage. When every stone, every tree, every hedge shelters an enemy and sends forth death; when an entire nation is resolved to vanquish or to die, to have the natal soil or to leave it to none, to make the vacuum of death around the stranger, something else is wanted besides reinforcements of 15,000 men, spread over weeks or months of distance, to crush or annihilate it; for, as to submission or subjugation, there is no question of it this time. It is a duel to the death.

“Ireland has in her behalf the undeniable right to existence; she has for her a race of men especially warlike; she has for her a rich soil fitted for insurrection. Divided in America, she is united in Europe; and what has been wanting to her up to this day—*organization*, which permits unity in

action—is no longer wanting now. We believe and hope in her resurrection and approaching triumph.”

These hopeful auguries were not borne out by subsequent events. Owing to the emphatic declarations of James Stephens in New York, Ireland was in a fever of expectation during the closing months of 1866, for he had sworn that the “rising” should take place before the first day of January, 1867. But he lost heart in his ability to fulfill his pledges, and suddenly retired from public view and from his post of active leadership. The chimes which ushered in the new year without being preceded by the tocsin of battle, forever shattered the prestige of the C. O. I. R., enabled the Government to breathe a sigh of relief, and necessarily produced a most disheartening effect in Fenian circles.

The echoing peals of derision with which this fiasco was greeted cut like daggers to the hearts of the men on either side of the Atlantic who had pledged themselves to an armed conflict, spurring them at the same time to redeem their promise in the face of all difficulties and hazards. The military leaders of the Brotherhood took no thought of quailing from the forlorn hope because Stephens had shrunk from the ordeal. Calling a secret council of delegates in Dublin, February 12th was fixed on as the date for a simultaneous rising. A day or two before the appointed time, it was decided to delay the outbreak until



March 5th. The countermand failed to reach the captain in command at Caherciveen, and on the 13th of February the tidings were flashed along the wires that West Kerry was up in arms. Among the loyalists of the South the news spread consternation and panic; a thousand tongues exaggerated the dimensions of the incident and wove lurid reports of the atrocities committed by the insurgents—who, as a matter of fact, failing to meet the other organizations at the appointed rendezvous, suspected their mistake and immediately dispersed.

Chester Castle in England contained at this time 20,000 stand of arms with ammunition and equipments, and was garrisoned with a mere handful of troops. An American officer, Capt. McCafferty, conceived the daring scheme to capture the Castle, cut the telegraph wires, and seize trains and steamers enough to transport all the arms and munitions to Ireland *via* the neighboring port of Holyhead. Every detail of the audacious attempt was carefully planned, and it is generally conceded that it would have been successful if not betrayed by the informer Corydon. His tale was at first received with incredulity, and it was actually only a few hours before the time fixed for the attack that troops were poured into Chester and the Castle was put in a state of siege. Throughout Ireland the jails continued to be packed with suspects, and what caused more chilling discouragement

than all else was the certainty that some one high in position was betraying the secrets and leaders of the Brotherhood. Corydon was the spy in the camp who kept the authorities posted as to the designs and arrangements of the insurgents. With ardor thus damped, it is no wonder that when the signal was given on the night of March 4, 1867, only Cork, Tipperary, Dublin, Louth, Limerick, Clare and Waterford, responded in any marked degree to the call. The men who took the field were wretchedly equipped, without commissary stores or means of shelter, and, to complete their hard fortune, a snow-storm of unexampled severity and duration set in for five days from the date of the rising. Tory journals jubilantly affirmed that the elements were again serving England as in the days of the Armada and the Hoche expedition. A few unimportant skirmishes marked the collapse of the Fenian insurrection.

When the electric message was flashed over land and under ocean that hostilities had actually broken out, sympathizers in America, believing that the attempt could not at once be suppressed, exerted themselves to redeem their promise of sending officers and arms to Ireland. American newspapers teemed with sensational accounts of the situation in Ireland, representing a large part of the country as being in possession of the aggressive Fenians, and the pressure for prompt assistance was consequent



ly intense. On the 12th of April, 1867, a party of nearly fifty men, including Gens. Kerrigan and Kavanagh, Cols. Tresilian, Warren and Nagle, and their subordinate officers, boarded the brigantine "Jacknell" at Sandy Hook without noise or parade. The vessel had already received her cargo of pianos, sewing-machines and wines in cask, consigned to a firm in Cuba, but the packing cases and casks contained 5,000 stand of small arms, three pieces of field artillery, and 200,000 rounds of cartridges. The "Jacknell's" prow was turned East instead of South, and on April 29 (Easter Sunday) sealed orders were opened, commissions given out, the flag of the Irish Republic hoisted to the mast-head, and the vessel rechristened the "Erin's Hope." An audacious enterprise it was to sail the little craft thus freighted across a thousand leagues of sea to effect a hostile landing on a coast patrolled at every accessible point by British frigates and gunboats. Sligo Bay, the chosen destination, was reached on the 20th of May, and the "Jacknell" beat about the vicinity for a couple of days until boarded by an agent from friends ashore. Then the true state of affairs was learned for the first time, as was also the impossibility of effecting a landing at that point. A council was held, and it was concluded to put the material ashore somewhere along the coast, if possible, and deposit it in reliable hands for some future emergency.

For the succeeding two weeks the "Jacknell" had to run the gauntlet of the gunboats now hotly in quest of her, for the authorities had received notification that a suspicious-looking craft had been seen hovering along the Western coast. After repeated reconnaissances, the attempt to land the arms was abandoned, and the supplies growing scarce aboard the "Jacknell," now nine weeks out, it was decided that she should return to the United States with about twenty of the party, while the others would land and take the chances in order to leave the food-stores adequate for those who would make the return voyage. Those who went ashore were quickly arrested, tried and imprisoned; but the trial, owing to Col. Warren's demand as an American citizen to be tried by a jury of mixed nationality, was productive of far-reaching consequences. It led to an international issue from which England emerged only by changing her law of "perpetual allegiance" and accepting the American doctrine that the citizen can discard allegiance and obligation toward one government by formally acquiring the protection of another. This single outcome of the Fenian movement is a triumph of far greater value than it would appear to a superficial observer; it crowns and completes what America's victories in the War of 1812 only begun.

With one other tragic episode closes the checkered record of the ill-fated Fenian insurrection, which embraced



so many heroic elements, yet was doomed to recurring disaster. After the arrest, escape and flight of Stephens, his place was taken by Col. Thomas J. Kelly, who remained faithfully at his post even when the collapse of March, '67, seemed to make further hope synonymous with madness. In the following September he crossed to Manchester to attend a council of the English "Centers," and was arrested in company with Captain Deasy. While being borne from police court to prison in a closely guarded van, the vehicle was surprised, the police escort dispersed, and the officer (Sergeant Brett) guarding the prisoners within was accidentally killed by a pistol shot fired to explode the lock as he stooped to peer through the keyhole. The leaders thus liberated were never recaptured, and all England was at once aflame with passion. The national pride was wounded, the national authority invaded, and a universal furious howl for blood was raised. If such an offense as this was to go unpunished and unavenged, would any man's life be safe? That was the argument which rang all over the land, and the police were given to understand that they must promptly vindicate the law. Arrests were quickly made by wholesale, on suspicion, and a batch of five—Allen, Larkin, O'Brien, Condon and Maguire—against whom the weight of preliminary evidence most strongly pointed, were at once brought to trial before a special

commission, and summarily convicted in order to appease the popular clamor for blood.

The mingled rage and panic which possessed England at that time are not to be wondered at. They were quite natural if not justifiable. But this does not alter the fact that the trial of the Manchester rescuers was a brutal travesty upon justice. Certainly every man who participated in the attack upon the prison van took his life in his hands and must abide the consequences, but this responsibility does not affect the scandalous character of the judicial proceedings. The testimony against the prisoners was demonstrably perjured, the most material parts of it having been fabricated by a zealous detective and put into the mouth of a dissolute, dissipated woman. The five men were tried upon a single indictment, not separately. Between the time of sentence and the date set for execution, it was shown beyond dispute that Maguire was a loyal ex-soldier of her Majesty who was leagues away from Manchester at the time of the rescue, but who had been seized on account of his Irish name. Accordingly he was "pardoned." A telegram from the Secretary of State at Washington caused the commutation of Condon's sentence, he being an American citizen. (After this reprieve his case was neglected by the United States authorities, and he was released a few years ago, his health completely shattered by rigorous confinement and hard



labor.) Measured by any legal standard, the demonstration of Maguire's innocence invalidated the whole proceedings; but England thirsted for vengeance and clamored that somebody should be hanged—no matter who. In deference to this demand, and in defiance of earnest protest from many dispassionate Englishmen as well as observant foreigners, O'Brien, Larkin and Allen were hanged at Manchester, Nov. 23d, 1867. To mark their abhorrence of what is now universally conceded to have been a judicial murder, the Irish in every land paid solemn funeral honors to the memory of the Martyred Three, whose last words on the scaffold, as in the dock, have since become a national watchword—"God Save Ireland!"

Throughout all the excitement and tumult of the events recorded in this chapter, the prisons of Great Britain received constant accessions of tenants from among the men convicted or suspected of complicity in Fenian enterprises. The treatment of these politi-

cal prisoners was nothing short of barbarous, numbers of them being driven to insanity or death by the slow torture to which they were subjected. Even under the pressure of remonstrances from humane men and women in every civilized nation, amnesty was tardily and ungraciously extended by degrees to the civilian prisoners; while every appeal in behalf of the incarcerated soldiers—ex-members of the British army—was flatly and curtly repulsed. Of the latter, ghastly examples must be made, to deter her Majesty's troops from disloyalty in the future. The warning lost its force, however, when half a dozen of these offenders were carried off from Australia, in 1876, under the direction of J. J. Breslin, in the American brig *Catalpa* which was chartered for the purpose by Irish-American sympathizers. Apprehending similar rescues at home, the British Government thereupon abruptly fell into a merciful mood and began to make arrangements for the release of the remaining prisoners









CHARLES STEWART PARNELL, M. P.



## CHAPTER LIII.

### DISESTABLISHMENT AND HOME RULE.

Defeated but not Despondent—Lord Brougham's Testimony—Ministers without a Policy—Efforts to Revive an Alliance between English and Irish Liberalism—"The Greatest Ecclesiastical Enormity in Europe"—Disestablishment of the Irish Church Proposed—Difficulties in the Way—The First Bulwark Broken down in the Abolition of Obnoxious Oaths—*Fuit Ilum*—How Protestants regarded the Measure—Significant Elections in Tipperary and Longford—The Federal Home-Rule Movement—Protestant Conservatives Foremost in Promoting it—The Bilton Hotel Meeting—Frank Avowals—The First Resolutions—Arguments *pro* and *con*—The Rotunda Conference and its Platform—The Eighth Article—John Mitchel in the Field—Parliamentary Strategy and what it achieved.

(1866—1879.)

**D**URING the last volcanic ebullitions of Fenianism, reflecting men in England began to realize the historic truth that a people can never be thus chronically disaffected and convulsed without having real grievances at the bottom of their discontent. In Ireland, too, many upright and influential men, friends of the British connection and virulently opposed to the separatist movement, grew to feel a genuine respect for those who had so heroically though fruitlessly struggled against such desperate odds. They clearly perceived that a policy of brutal repression dealt with effects, not with causes, and their voices began to be gradually but firmly raised in behalf of economic and administrative reforms.

Years previously Lord Brougham had uttered this solemn remonstrance

and warning: "Ireland, with a territory of immense extent, with a soil of almost unrivalled fertility, with a climate more genial than our own, with a vast population of strongly built, hardy laborers, men suited alike to fill up the ranks of our armies in war or for employment at home in the works of agriculture and manufactures—Ireland, with all these blessings which Providence has so profusely showered in her lap, has been under our stewardship, but our solicitude for her has appeared only in those hours of danger when we apprehended the possibility of her joining our enemies, or when, having no enemy abroad to contend with, she raised her standard, perhaps in despair, and we trembled for our own existence! It cannot be denied that the sole object of England has been to render Ireland a safe neighbor.



We have been stewards over her for this long period of time. I repeat that we shall one day have to give an account of our stewardship—a black account it will be, but it must be forthcoming. What have we done for the country which we are bound to aid, to protect and to cherish? In our hands her population seems a curse to her rather than a blessing; they are starving in the midst of plenty. In England, justice is delayed, but, thank Heaven! it can never be sold. In Ireland, it is sold to the rich, refused to the poor, and delayed to all. It is in vain to disguise the fact; it is in vain to shun the disclosures of the truth. We stand, as regards Ireland, on the brink of a precipice! *We are driving six millions of people to despair, to madness! The greatest mockery of all, the most intolerable insult, the course of peculiar exasperation against which I chiefly caution the House, is the undertaking to cure the distress under which she labors by anything in the shape of new penal enactments. It is in these enactments alone that we have ever shown our liberality to Ireland!* She has received penal laws from the hands of England almost as plentifully as she has received blessings from the hands of Providence. What have these laws done? Checked turbulence, but not stifled it. The grievance remaining perpetual, the complaint can be only postponed. We may load her with chains, but in doing so we shall not better her condition. By coercion we

may goad her on to fury, but by coercion we shall never break her spirit. She will rise up and break the fetters we impose, and arm herself for deadly violence with the fragments."

Events having amply vindicated the truth of these predictions, other circumstances now contributed to encourage an effort for some modification of the coercive policy. When the Russell-Gladstone Ministry went out of office in 1866, an interval of party disintegration and vacillation ensued. The Tory party was upheld by no great issue of domestic or foreign interest, but the Liberals, weakened by discord and defection, were in a worse plight and impotent to displace their clever rivals. At this juncture, individual members of the English Liberal School began to tentatively discuss the feasibility and opportuneness of disestablishing the Irish Protestant Church. The breach between the popular parliamentary faction in Ireland and the British Liberals had never been fully healed since the Keogh-Sadleir episode of 1852. Now it was believed that a reconciliation could be effected in an aggressive campaign against the Establishment. This standing memorial of conquest and confiscation enjoyed princely revenues wrung from the entire population, and enjoyed by a petty minority of less than ten per cent. of the people. Hence it was argued that this initial reform would win the earnest support of both Catholics and Dissenters.



The Irish Established Church had been nominally disendowed in 1838 as a consequence of the tithe-war. It was an adroit piece of legislative legerdemain, the *direct* tax being transferred from the tenant to the landlord, and then promptly reimposed upon the tenant in the form of increased rent. Disestablishment was a more serious matter, for it meant a total deprivation of State support, and the compelling of the long-favored minority to sustain their Church system by voluntary contributions after the lapse of a definite period. Of this institution Mr. Clancy says in his trenchant work on the social and economic condition of Ireland: "In a country where human beings in droves perished annually of sheer starvation, the Anglican Archbishop of Armagh pocketed \$75,000 a year, the Bishop of Derry \$50,000, and so on down to their poorest Episcopal colleague who had to preach the gospel of poverty and self-denial on a pittance of \$12,000, with house free and various perquisites thrown in. This Church of an alien coterie took \$2,500,000 yearly straight from the pockets of an impoverished people who rejected its tenets and loathed its practices. Every parish had its rector, salaried and tithed, although in hundreds of parishes the congregations varied in number from a dozen souls down to the rector's self, his wife and the sexton. No wonder that Mr. Roebuck, M. P., denounced it as 'the greatest ecclesiastical enormity in Europe,' or

that essayist Macaulay described it as 'the most utterly absurd and indefensible of all the institutions now existing in the civilized world.' No wonder, either, that seven Anglican bishops bequeathed nearly \$10,000,000 in ready money to their relatives!"

The English Liberals being, as already stated, in quest of an issue which would restore them to power, inaugurated an exchange of views with Cardinal Cullen and other members of the Irish Catholic hierarchy, as well as with prominent Irish laymen, Protestant and Catholic, who were known to be in sympathy with the proposal for disestablishment; the object of the negotiations being to effect a new alliance between English and Irish Liberalism, to amalgamate the parliamentary strength of both bodies, and to pacify Ireland by means of a tardy concession.

Owing mainly to the efforts of W. J. O'Neill Daunt and Sir John Gray, (the latter a Protestant, and proprietor of the *Dublin Freeman's Journal*), the Disestablishment agitation struck deep root in Ireland and rapidly won converts in Great Britain. It was not fated, however, to escape hostility. The beneficiaries of the Establishment very naturally exerted themselves to ward off the blow which menaced their emoluments and privileges; nor were they without sympathizers beyond the Irish Sea who apprehended that the downfall of the State Church in one section of the United Kingdom would



logically lead to its overthrow in the other sections. The Orange fraternity fumed and threatened hysterically, some lodges going so far as to pledge themselves to kick her Majesty's crown into the Boyne; while the Nationalists, as a matter of principle, not only held aloof from, but antagonized, a renewal of parliamentary methods of agitation.

Some Irish Catholic officials having openly avowed their advocacy of Disestablishment, the charge of infidelity to their oath of office was hotly hurled at them by Tory organs, and the incident was productive of unforeseen results. Every Irish Catholic in assuming public office had to subscribe to this insulting oath: "I do hereby disclaim, disavow and solemnly abjure any intention to subvert the present Church Establishment as settled by law within this realm; and I do solemnly swear that I never will exercise any privilege, to which I am or may become entitled, to disturb or weaken the Protestant religion or Protestant Government in the United Kingdom." Protestants were required to take no oath at all. In January, 1865, the outgoing Lord Mayor of Dublin, Mr. MacSwiney, was accused of having violated the relic of the Penal Code above quoted, and at once a movement began all over the country for the repeal of "Obnoxious Oaths." Over this issue, from 1865 to 1867, was fought on a small scale the battle for and against the Established Church. The Oaths were

palpably indefensible, and Mr. Disraeli knew it, virtually admitted it; but he and his party knew also that these Oaths were the outposts of the Establishment, and that, with their fall, would come the deluge. So their abolition was twice prevented in the House of Lords after having been decreed by the Commons; but the whole position was undermined, though still apparently intact.

The votes in the House of Commons impressed Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues who had long been wavering and coquetting with the Irish problem; and at last, on March 16, 1868, the Liberal leader took heart to proclaim openly the doom of the Irish Church Establishment, and therewith overthrew the Disraeli Ministry. The new elections took place at the close of the year, resulting in a sweeping Liberal victory. On March 1, 1869, Mr. Gladstone introduced his bill, which on May 31, passed its third reading by a vote of 361 to 247. The House of Lords yielded to the inevitable, and on July 26, 1869, the Act received the royal assent, sweeping away the Obnoxious Oaths and the Irish State Church simultaneously. Due consideration was of course extended to the vested rights of the incumbents, which were secured on a generous scale. They either received pensions or compounded their claims for a lump sum varying in proportion to their annual incomes. When the collapse of the institution was seen to be assured, a host of eager



youth plunged into holy orders precipitately in season to be entitled to a share of the "spoils," and then retired with their capital to more congenial fields of employment.

In the fifth Article of the Act of Union it had been explicitly stipulated that the maintenance of the Irish Church Establishment should be a "fundamental and essential" condition of the Union. The covenant was solemn and perpetual as language could make it; yet here, now, it was flagrantly broken by the Imperial Parliament. Abiding by the strict letter of the compact, it is no wonder that many Irish Protestants were wrathful and did not conceal their belief that the whole Act of Union was voided by the violation of a "fundamental and essential" provision. In fact, the declaration was frequently heard that, but for the dread of Catholic ascendancy, the Protestants of Ireland would once more lead a movement for home government. They professed to be apprehensive that the Catholic voters would vote black white, or *vice versa*, at the bidding of the priests. This bugaboo was destined to be soon and summarily smashed to fragments.

During the summer of 1869, O'Donovan Rossa, then a convict in an English prison, was elected M. P. for Tipperary, to emphasize the demand for amnesty to the political prisoners. Immediately afterwards came a vacancy in Longford, and there was serious thought of putting forward Thomas

Clarke Luby, another "convict," for the seat. For thirty years before, Longford had been practically in the gift of the Catholic clergy, and had been given over to the Greville-Nugents, a very worthy family, of local Protestant landowners, but not pronounced enough to suit the National element. In order not to alienate any factor of expected strength, the idea of nominating Mr. Luby was abandoned, and John Martin, then absent in America, was chosen in his stead. The priests of Longford undertook to put down the opposition with a high hand, and the result was an exceptionally bitter canvass in which Catholic laymen of the moderate school became the most fervid supporters of the Young Ireland candidate in order to show their political independence. John Martin was rejected for the time, owing to the limitations of the suffrage—only 1,889 votes were polled in the county—yet the object striven for was accomplished, and the clergy who then most strenuously asserted their own dictatorial right in the matter, soon afterwards realized their mistake and rejoiced in the earnestness with which they were opposed. This Longford struggle convinced the Irish Protestants that their dread of "priestly ascendancy" was groundless, and thus paved a way for

#### THE HOME RULE MOVEMENT.

From the moment that Mr. Gladstone knocked away the keystone of State support from the Irish Estab-



lished Church, the members of that communion, realizing that they had been sacrificed to an English party emergency, fully as much as to any prompting of justice, began to discover that their own personal comfort was now much more closely bound up with the welfare of Ireland than with that of England, and they began to give more heed to the cause and cure of abuses visible around them. Of course the vast bulk of them would lend no countenance to a Separatist movement, nor would they renew the Repeal agitation which had lost prestige through failure. Reforms must be sought in some new direction; and the obvious difficulties of the situation were ingeniously overcome in the scheme of Federal Home Rule devised by Isaac Butt.

An Ulster Protestant and an ex-professor of Trinity, Mr. Butt had commenced his political career by energetically combatting Repeal; but he was a man of too fine sensibilities and too broad a sympathy to remain forever bedded in the rigid shell of Toryism. Conspicuous among the intellectual giants of the Irish Bar, when the leading Fenians were arraigned for trial, he was invited to conduct their defense, and to their cause he devoted his time and energy for several years, growing more and more to share the feelings of his clients as the days flew by. Under his guidance was established the Amnesty Association to secure royal clemency for the political

felons, and almost unconsciously he found himself filling the part of a popular leader. The transition from this state of affairs to another Constitutional movement was easy and natural.

Having succeeded so well in removing the politico-ecclesiastical grievance, Mr. Gladstone deemed the time ripe to follow up his advantage by grappling with the vexed problem of Irish land tenure. Accordingly he framed a bill which was passed in 1870, designed to ameliorate the condition of the Irish tenant farmer. We postpone to the next chapter a consideration of the merits and defects of this measure.

On Thursday, May 19, 1870, a number of the leading merchants and professional men of Dublin met by invitation at the Bilton Hotel in that city. It was a remarkable assemblage, as A. M. Sullivan says, for here were men of the most opposite parties, who never met in politics before save as irreconcilable foes. Here were Orangemen and Ultramontane, Conservative and Liberal, Repealer and Unionist, Fenian and Loyalist—in fact, such a gathering as had hitherto been axiomatically held to be impossible in Ireland. After a full and free interchange of opinion, the prevailing sentiment was found to be that the existing relations between England and Ireland were prolific of peril to the one and ruin to the vital interests of the other. The substance of the views expressed on that occasion by Conservative Protestant gentlemen has been preserved as follows:



“It is impossible for us to view the events of recent years without feeling it incumbent on us, as we value the welfare of our country and regard the safety and security of all we possess, to make some step toward a reconciliation or agreement with the National sentiment. In that sentiment, as we understand it, there is much we can never assent to; some of the designs associated with it shall ever encounter our resistance. But we have never concealed from ourselves, and indeed have never denied, that in the main, the aspiration for national autonomy is one which has sound reason and justice, as well as historical right, behind it. We wish to be frank and clear, we will have no part in disloyal plans; we will have no separation from England. But we feel that the scheme of one parliament for all purposes, imperial and local, has been a failure; that the attempt to force consolidation on the Irish people, to destroy their national individuality, has been simply disastrous. However attractive in theory for imperial statesmen, that project has utterly broken down in fact and reality. It has cost us perpetual insecurity, recurrent insurrection. It may suit English politicians to cling to the experiment still

and pursue it through another fifty years, always ‘just going to succeed this time;’ but for us Irish Protestants, whose lot is cast in this country, and whose all in the world is within these seas, it is time to think whether we cannot take into our own hands the solution of this problem. We want peace, we want security, we want loyalty to the throne, we want connection with England; but we will no longer have our domestic affairs committed to a London parliament. The question is whether we can agree upon an arrangement that would harmonize those national aspirations with that imperial connection which we desire to retain.’

At the close of this informal yet significant discussion, Mr. Butt proposed a resolution “that it is the opinion of this meeting that the true remedy for the evils of Ireland is the establishment of an Irish parliament with full control over our domestic affairs.” It was carried by a ringing “Aye!” without a solitary dissentient voice, and then the meeting burst into a spontaneous cheer of mingled joy and surprise over its own unanimity. A committee was appointed to frame resolutions, and in due time reported a plan\* for organizing “The Home Government Association of Ireland.”

\* The resolutions read as follows :

‘ I.—This Association is formed for the purpose of obtaining for Ireland the right of self-government by means of a national parliament.

‘ II.—It is hereby declared, as the essential principle of this Association, that the objects and THE ONLY OBJECTS, contemplated by its organization are—

“To obtain for our country the right and privilege of managing our own affairs, by a parliament assembled in Ireland, composed of her Majesty the sovereign, and her successors, and the Lords and Commons of Ireland ;

“To secure for that parliament, under a federal arrangement, the right of legislating for and regu-



By the advocates of the scheme thus formulated, it was contended that by endeavoring to procure for Ireland a status analogous to that of Hungary in the Austrian Empire, or a State in the American Union, and voluntarily surrendering all control over imperial revenues and imperial questions, they had drafted a basis of settlement to which England could not reasonably object, and which would gain for Ireland great and substantial benefits. On the other hand, critics were not wanting who declared that the programme was vague, contradictory, impracticable; that the London parliament would never consent to see any Irish affair in any other light than as an imperial affair; and that, despite the moderation and proven loyalty of its organizers, the Association would never receive even a fair hearing for its demands at Westminster.

Mr. Butt and his associates, however, placed great faith in the justice and reasonableness of their platform,

and began to make rapid headway among the people. The Nationalists, although consistently disapproving of parliamentary agitation in any guise, had too much respect for Mr. Butt and his colleagues to flatly antagonize the movement. Whatever might be its ultimate fate, every observant man was sagacious enough to perceive the immense good it had effected at the very outset by uniting men of all creeds and classes in testifying to the injuries inflicted upon Ireland by alien rule. For a time most of the Catholic bishops and clergy, grateful to Mr. Gladstone for what he had just accomplished, held aloof from the new Society and even proceeded to lay the foundations of a counter-movement which should give precedence to Catholic education over all other political or economic issues. This threatened diversion was effectually checked by four "bye-elections" which occurred in 1871—John Martin for Meath, Mitchell-Henry for Galway, P. J. Smyth

lating all matters relating to the internal affairs of Ireland, and control over Irish resources and revenues, subject to the obligation of contributing our just proportion of the imperial expenditures;

"To leave to an imperial parliament the power of dealing with all questions affecting the imperial crown and government, legislation regarding the colonies and other dependencies of the crown, the relations of the United Empire with foreign states, and all matters appertaining to the defense and the stability of the Empire at large.

"To attain such an adjustment of the relations between the two countries, without any interference with the prerogatives of the crown, or any disturbance of the principles of the Constitution.

"III.—The Association invites the co-operation of all Irishmen who are willing to join in seeking for Ireland

a Federal arrangement based upon these general principles.

"IV.—The Association will endeavor to forward the object it has in view, by using all legitimate means of influencing public sentiment both in Ireland and Great Britain, by taking all opportunities of instructing and informing public opinion, and by seeking to unite Irishmen of all creeds and classes in one national movement in support of the great national object hereby contemplated.

"V.—It is declared to be an essential principle of the Association that, while every member is understood by joining it to concur in its general object and plan of action, no person so joining is committed to any political opinion except the advisability of seeking for Ireland the amount of self-government contemplated in the objects of the Association."



for Westmeath, and Isaac Butt for Limerick, being triumphantly returned as representatives of the Home Rule aspiration. The Kerry election of February, 1872, left no doubt of how the tide was running—the Home Rule candidate, after a hard-fought battle, defeating the nominee of the Earl of Kenmare who had long held the county in his pocket, and who was reinforced on this occasion by the landlords in a body with the Catholic bishop, Dr. Moriarty, at their head. Undeterred by his lordship's example, the priests of the diocese went with the people and defeated the Catholic Liberal nominee. This was the last "open vote" electoral contest in Ireland. Five months later—July 13, 1872—the Ballot Act went into effect, striking a vengeful blow at landlord intimidation.

Conventions of any kind being stringently prohibited in Ireland, and the people being forbidden to elect delegates to represent them, except in Parliament, it was by no means an easy task to give unity and coherency or a representative character to the new movement. This difficulty was finally overcome by the issue of a requisition, which was signed by twenty-five thousand persons of position and influence throughout the country inviting a "Conference" to be held at such time and place as might be found most generally convenient, to consider the best and most expedient means of carrying into effect the principles of the Home

Government Association. By tacit consent, without any formal rule of procedure, the local delegates were chosen, and on Nov. 18, 1873, the Conference assembled in the hall of the Rotunda, Dublin—the scene of the memorable Convention of the Irish Volunteers in 1783. After four days of earnest yet harmonious discussion, the platform was modified to read as follows:

#### THE FEDERAL HOME-RULE PLATFORM.

"I. That, as the basis of the proceedings of this Conference, we declare our conviction that it is essentially necessary to the peace and prosperity of Ireland that the right of domestic legislation on all Irish affairs should be restored to our country.

"II. That, solemnly reasserting the inalienable right of the Irish people to self-government, we declare that the time in our opinion has come when a combined and energetic effort should be made to obtain the restoration of that right.

"III. That, in accordance with the ancient and constitutional rights of the Irish Nation, we claim the privilege of managing our own affairs by a Parliament assembled in Ireland, and composed of the Sovereign, the Lords, and the Commons of Ireland.

"IV. That in claiming these rights and privileges for our country, we adopt the principle of a Federal arrangement, which would secure to the



Irish Parliament the right of legislating for and regulating all matters relating to the internal affairs of Ireland, while leaving to the Imperial Parliament the power of dealing with all questions affecting the Imperial Crown and Government, legislation regarding the colonies and other dependencies of the Crown, the relations of the Empire with Foreign States, and all matters appertaining to the defense and stability of the Empire at large, as well as the power of granting and providing the supplies necessary for Imperial purposes.

“V. That such an arrangement does not involve any change in the existing constitution of the Imperial Parliament, or any interference with the prerogatives of the Crown, or disturbance of the principles of the Constitution.

“VI. That, to secure to the Irish people the advantages of constitutional government, it is essential that there should be in Ireland an administration for Irish affairs, controlled, according to constitutional principles, by the Irish Parliament, and conducted by ministers constitutionally responsible to that Parliament.

“VII. That, in the opinion of this Conference, A FEDERAL ARRANGEMENT, based upon these principles, would consolidate the strength and maintain the integrity of the Empire, and add to the dignity and power of the Imperial crown.

“VIII. That, while we believe that

in an Irish Parliament the rights and liberties of all classes of our countrymen would find their best and surest protection, we are willing that there should be incorporated in the Federal Constitution, articles supplying the amplest guarantees *that no change shall be made by that Parliament in the present settlement of property in Ireland*, and that no legislation shall be adopted to establish any religious ascendancy in Ireland, or to subject any person to disabilities on account of his religious opinions.”

With whatever amount of toleration earnest Irishmen were disposed to regard the other articles of this declaration, they were quick to perceive the mischievous and indefensible character of the Eighth Article, and vehement in their repudiation of it. Beyond question it was framed with the best intention, to allay the apprehensions of Irish landholders and attract them, if possible, to approve the Home Rule agitation. Nevertheless, it was very clear that the words above italicized, no matter how intended, were fairly construable into an abandonment of the claims of Irish tenants; and the whole scheme, if legalized, would have been the strongest bulwark of Landlordism. Of course the authors of the passage merely designed it as a guarantee against what were termed at the time “revolution” and “confiscation;” but it was not at all a strained interpretation which discovered therein a solemn pledge against meddling



in any way with the most vital "local affairs" of Ireland—the oppression of tenants by landlords.

When the Home Rule Programme was thus fully and authoritatively defined, it encountered strong opposition from the Nationalist element, which characterized it as a covert attempt to barter away the National birthright for a mess of pottage. In the United States especially, the programme was received with mingled distrust and indignation, Irish-Americans generally having no faith in any agitation to be conducted within the walls of the London Parliament. To antagonize what was thus deemed a ruinous misdirection of Irish popular energy and purpose, John Mitchel, the unpardoned felon of '48, crossed the Atlantic and appealed to the voters of Tipperary with the assurance that, if elected, he would not enter Parliament at all! He was triumphantly elected, and was preparing to contest other vacancies in the same manner when death suddenly struck him down, and released both the British Parliament and the Federalist party from a very formidable complication.

The Home Rulers struggled on in their appointed path, submitted motion after motion, resolution after resolution, at Westminster, which were invariably received with coarse ridicule and rejected with contemptuous lack of ceremony, the British ministry maintaining—and very logically, it must be confessed—that any half-way conces-

sions, instead of satisfying the Irish people, would only place them in a position to enlarge and strengthen their demands for more. Failing to secure any adequate hearing for the scheme of a Federal arrangement, the Irish parliamentary contingent next endeavored to obtain a redress of various galling grievances—among which the land question held the foremost place. Bill after bill was flung out with such insolent indifference that at length the more ardent and high-spirited of the Home-Rule members, indignant at the bullying arrogance with which they were met at every turn, invented and put in force the policy of Obstruction. Taking advantage of the innumerable facilities which parliamentary rules afford to a resolute and clever minority, they proceeded to block all business in the House of Commons, and they turned that assemblage into a howling bear garden down to the time when the failure of the Irish crops, for three successive years, gave a new impulse and new direction to Irish agitation.

One substantial result of the Home movement was, that by reason of the brutal reception and repulse which all its proposals encountered in the London Legislature, many moderate and conscientious men who previously had been hopeful advocates of a dual government under a single head, were irresistibly forced into the Separatist ranks.



## CHAPTER LIV.

## THE LAND LEAGUE.

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“WORSE off by Two Millions than a Desert Island!”—A Nation in the Plight of Tantalus—Ballycohey and its Lesson—The Land Act of 1870, its Aims and Defects—Its best Provisions Evaded and Nullified—Amendatory Bills from 1871 to 1880 all Rejected—“The Three F’s”—A new Gospel Propagated—Failure of the Potato Crops—A Crisis and an Opportunity—“No Rents!” No Evictions!” Agitation—Michael Davitt—Suggestive Figures—The Land League Founded—C. S. Parnell and his Colleagues—How a Famine Slaughter was Averted—Arguments and Precedents for the Abolition of Landlordism—Boycotting—Coercion and Arbitrary Arrests—Treasurer Egan—Carrying the War into Africa—The New Land Act and what it is Expected to Accomplish.

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(1879—1881.)

**D**URING the interval of thirty years from 1830 to 1870, Ireland lost two and a half millions of the flower of her manhood and womanhood by emigration, and more than another million through artificial famine and its concomitant diseases. A few years ago Major O’Gorman convulsed the House of Commons with the declaration that “Ireland was worse off by two millions than a desert island.” But what the assemblage took to be a “bull” was really a mathematical truth expressed in somewhat paradoxical form. The population of England and Wales has increased nearly 200 per cent. since 1801; the population of Scotland has increased 125 per cent. since 1801, the population of Ireland is literally less to-day than it was at the beginning of the century! Encouraged or permitted to cultivate their own resources, the Irish in Ireland would now be twelve millions instead of five—which verifies Major O’Gorman’s startling assertion.

Of the 20,808,271 acres which constitute the area of the island, it will be seen by the statistical tables at the end of this volume that fully fourteen million acres are cultivable, and they are not surpassed in the world for average richness and fertility. Upwards of four million acres more are stated in official surveys to be reclaimable. Hence the highest authorities in Europe, British as well as foreign, affirm that the natural resources of the island are fully adequate to the support of from twenty to twenty-five million souls in abundance and comfort; yet this land, so lavishly endowed by nature, is decimated, decade after decade, by periodic famines, the peculiarity of



which is that they do not arise from any absolute lack of food in the country, but from the fact that three-fourths of the produce have always been confiscated in the shape of rents and taxes. Any portion of the crop failing, landlord and tax-gatherer exacted their full tribute without compunction, and the wretched cultivator was left to starve.

It would be superfluous to dwell at any length upon the iniquitous character of the land system that has prevailed in Ireland for generations. Its injustice is familiar to the civilized world in its results. Recent researches by those interested in its reform show that Belgium sustains a population of one to every acre, and every other continental nation, excepting Russia, shows an approximate percentage, while Ireland, with the most prolific soil of any, affords but a precarious subsistence to the bulk of five million people on an acreage of twenty millions. This glaring anomaly, however, is not a new discovery; it has always been luridly apparent, and from the days of O'Connell there have not been wanting thoughtful and humane men to impress it upon the attention of the British parliament in the hope of mitigating its pernicious effects. Session after session, a long roll of Irish leaders, beginning with Sharman Crawford, had introduced Tenant Right bills, procured the appointment of Royal Commissions, strenuously labored to obtain some protection or guarantee for the harassed Irish farmers—but

without avail. The landlord Commissions invariably inclined to the conclusion that Ireland was "over-populated" and could best be relieved by emigration. It was only when thoroughly scared by the extent and intensity of the Fenian conspiracy, that British public opinion began to appreciate the necessity of doing something to redress the grievances of Irish tenants. When he succeeded in disestablishing the Irish Church, Mr. Gladstone deemed the occasion opportune for grappling with the problem of Irish land tenures, and his purpose received a most helpful impetus from the Ballycohey episode.

Ballycohey is a townland situated a few miles distant from the town of Tipperary. It had been occupied for more than a century by kindly, peaceable and industrious tenants, who were startled in 1865 by learning that the estate had been purchased by William Scully, a landlord who enjoyed a most unenviable reputation for arrogance and tyrannous exactions. Their fears were fully justified by events. Scully promptly notified them that he wished to give them *leases*. The tenants, suspicious of this generosity, avoided his presence and paid their rents by messenger. The nature of the proffered leases soon leaked out. Scully had drawn up an ironclad document by which every tenant should pledge himself to pay all his own and the landlord's rates, cess, taxes and duties whatsoever, (except quit-rent and



tithe-rent which were fixed by statute on the landlord); to pay all rents and taxes quarterly in advance; to surrender all existing leases or contracts; *to abandon all claim to compensation and to give up all crops in the ground* whenever the landlord should see fit to demand it after giving twenty-one days' notice; and to bind himself to a multitude of other obligations too tedious to be here enumerated.

Failing to induce the tenants to sign this phenomenal lease, Scully took out ejectment processes, which had to be either served on the occupier in person or left at the house when some member of the family was within. Videttes were posted along the outskirts of Ballycohey, and when Scully was seen approaching with a cordon of armed police and bailiffs, every house was abandoned. Next day he returned to the attack, and tried unsuccessfully to surprise the village. As before, the approach was signalled, and this time the tenants, brought to bay in the fields and on the highways, displayed so stern and hostile a mood that the police commandant advised a prompt retreat. They had to march back with bayonets fixed, and when the danger of an open collision seemed over, the infuriated landlord resolved to make a final attempt upon the house of a tenant named Dwyer, near by. They were met by a volley of musketry which killed two men and wounded several others, including Scully himself who escaped death only through

the protection of a concealed coat of chain-mail. After riddling the house with rifle-bullets an entrance was at length effected, but the defenders had disappeared.

Scully's persecution of his tenants was everywhere condemned and deprecated, even in the verdict of the coroner's jury upon the men who fell in his raid; but Scully had a triumphant answer for all censures and criticisms—he was acting within the limits of the powers conferred upon him by law! His assertion could not be disputed. Then public opinion in Great Britain began to concede that such law evidently required some modification; and thus the Ballycohey incident contributed to pass the Irish Land Act of 1870. Coming at a critical moment, it supplied the decisive impulse.

The land in Ireland, as everywhere else, derives the greater part of its value from the improvements of the cultivators who drain, fence and enrich it and build upon it. Prior to 1870, all such improvements inured to the benefit of the landlords, who constantly raised their rents to the ultimate penny that the tenant could pay. No wonder that tillage in Ireland has been slovenly and unprogressive, when, as John Stuart Mill says, the tiller had nothing to gain from being prudent and industrious. If he by hard toil increased the productiveness of his farm fifty per cent., the rent was simultaneously raised fifty per cent., so that he derived no profit from his



labor; and then he was liable to be cast out at any moment, whether he paid his rent or not, all the improvements being thus confiscated by an accidental proprietor holding the land under a military warrant from Oliver Cromwell.

The purpose of the Gladstone Land Act, broadly stated, was to put a stop to capricious evictions and the confiscation of tenant property. In so far as it recognized any property right on the part of the tenant, the measure was a tremendous stride in advance of all previous legislation. In its practical operation it fell woefully short of what was expected from it; nevertheless the spirit of the enactment and the principles embodied in it furnished an invaluable basis for future operations. Concisely summarized, the Act provided that agricultural tenants should, *when evicted*, receive compensation for improvements effected in and on the soil, and also that capricious evictions should be punishable by fines adjusted on a sliding scale. At the outset the measure was inherently defective inasmuch as it perpetuated the right to evict, and sought only to provide evicted tenants with enough money to carry them abroad; its original shortcomings were multiplied and aggravated by the machinery provided for its enforcement. The tenant, when dispossessed, could recover compensation only by going to law, engaging valuers, etc.—and the courts established for this purpose operated alto-

gether in the landlord interest. A parliamentary report issued at the close of 1875 shows that, of every one hundred suits brought for compensation under the Gladstone Act, seventy went in favor of the landlord. In the other thirty per cent. various small sums were recovered—sometimes not enough to defray the costs of litigation.

Then, too, the right of evading the Act by special contract was explicitly recognized, and the great landholders promptly took advantage of the fact to frame leases, somewhat on the Scully plan, by which the tenants contracted themselves outside the provisions of the Gladstone Act. Finally, a tenant evicted for non-payment of rent had no redress, and of course nothing was easier than to raise the rent until the tenant was hopelessly in arrears. Some rather complex causes for assisting tenants to purchase portions of encumbered estates were incorporated in the statute at the suggestion of Mr. Bright; but they were surrounded with conditions that to a great extent nullified them.

The imperfections of the Act were soon apparent, when submitted to the test of practical working, and the Home Rule members zealously essayed year after year to procure its amendment. From 1871 to 1880, twenty eight distinct land bills were introduced by Irish representatives, but all were pigeon-holed or strangled in turn. Parliament declared that it had already



gone to revolutionary lengths in 1870; that the Irish were eternally growling, never satisfied; and that they must now be content with the ameliorations they had received. The more advanced wing of the Irish contingent condensed their demands into "the Three F's"—namely, Fair rents, Fixity of Tenure and Free Sale—based on the Ulster Custom. Meantime a much broader doctrine had been enunciated for years in the United States and had found a propaganda in Ireland through the medium of the "Irish World" newspaper which was scattered widely through both countries. The new gospel advocated the total abolition of landlordism and the establishment of a tenant proprietary—reforms introduced either peacefully or violently in every Continental nation, from the time when the tempest of Revolution swept away the Seigneurs and created six million proprietors in France, down to the time when the Czar of Russia emancipated the serfs and rooted them in the soil as owners. The new teaching naturally captivated the Irish farmers; they reflected upon it, gave

allegiance to it, but could not see how to apply it. Circumstances soon provided an opportunity.

In the years 1877 and 1878, the Irish potato-crop was a partial failure, and in 1879 a total failure. In the destruction of this single food product there was no reasonable cause for the precipitation of a famine. But the other crops had gone to pay exorbitant rents, and the tenants had been saved only by long credits with the retail merchants and shopkeepers. Now the latter were depleted, and black clouds hovered over all alike. Public meetings had been held, clamoring for reductions and suspensions of rents, but a deaf ear was turned to the universal petition. The landlords, as a rule, denied that the harvests had failed or that any unusual distress existed; while the tenants throughout a large portion of the island found themselves not only unable to pay their exorbitant rents, but menaced with starvation on the one hand and eviction on the other.

A crucial ordeal had come, and Michael Davitt\* stepped forth to meet

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\* Michael Davitt was born about thirty-five years ago in Straide, a small village in County Mayo. His father was a tenant farmer, and an eviction scene is one of Davitt's earliest recollections. He was but five years of age when his father and brother and two sisters were turned out of their home. Davitt's father then went to England and settled down as an insurance agent in Haslingden, Lancashire. The son first obtained employment as a boy in a mill, and it was while attending some machinery that he lost one of his arms. Thus employed at an early age, he had not much time for education on week days; but he made up for this by being an assiduous attendant

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at a Sunday-school. His brightness recommended him to some of the authorities of the local Post-office, and he obtained employment there as a clerk.

From an early age he took an interest in Irish politics, and when the Fenian movement was advocated in the "Irish People," he contributed some spirit-stirring ballads. Prominent in his time in Irish demonstrations, he was brought into contact with the revolutionary leaders, and soon became a bold, prominent and active member of the "Irish Republican Brotherhood." In 1870 he was arrested in London: and was tried in the Central Criminal Court on the charge of distributing arms for









MICHAEL DAVITT.



it with a new weapon in his grasp. He rung out the keynote of the Land League *agitation*: "Pay no more rents, and combine to resist eviction!" The new departure was openly formulated at a meeting held in April, 1879, at Irishtown in Mayo county. Its salient features were that the time had come for the Irish tenants to work out their own salvation; that their condition could not be much worse than it was; that they should therefore hold the harvest at all hazards and demand the abolition of landlordism; pledging themselves meanwhile that no man should be allowed to occupy or cultivate the farm from which another had been ejected. To this electric appeal the tenants everywhere responded, and thus were laid the foundations of the Land League.

It is a significant fact that, in proportion to the badness of the harvest, the statistics of Irish evictions have always increased. In 1876, when the value of the potato crop was £12,000,000, there were 1,269 evictions. In 1877, with the value of the crop fallen

to £5,000,000 the evictions rose to 1,323. In 1878, with a still worse crop, they advanced to 1,749; and in 1879, when the crop had almost entirely failed, the evictions reached 2,667. The obvious inference to be deduced from these tell-tale figures is that the landlords, instead of compassionating the miseries of the people, avail themselves of popular distress to root out the helpless cultivators.

The resolutions passed at all the earlier meetings of the Land movement demanded only reductions and extensions of rent, the tenants expressing their willingness to pay on the basis of the official survey and valuation made for the Government by Sir Richard Griffith. This proffer was so contemptuously spurned, and the distress meanwhile grew so alarmingly, that in October, 1879, Mr. Parnell and his most spirited colleagues, including Dillon, Davitt, Brennan, Kettle, Sexton, and others, met in Dublin, and formally established the Irish National Land League for the avowed purpose of abolishing landlordism. This con-

purposes of rebellion. The chief witness against him was the informer Corydon. He was convicted, and sentenced to fifteen years' penal servitude. In spite of several amnesties and the powerful and constant exertions of many friends outside, he remained in prison for many years. His case was frequently brought before the House of Commons by the small group of Irish members known in the last Parliament as the "active section." Some letters which he had managed to transmit surreptitiously to Mr. O'Connor Power, M. P., were read in the House on one of the famous debates on the Prison Bill; and the complaint he made of his treatment produced a marked impression on the members, and helped Mr. Power and Mr. Parnell to have amend-

ments in prison treatment admitted into the bill, and finally led to Davitt's own release. This release came seven years and eight months after his sentence. One of the first things he did after his liberation was to attend a lecture given by Mr. O'Connor Power at Liverpool. He spoke on this occasion, and with great vigor; but his health was so feeble that he fainted immediately after the meeting, and remained for a couple of hours in a state of semi-unconsciousness. The rigors of prison discipline had afflicted him with a serious affection of the heart. He about the same time paid a visit to his relatives in the County of Mayo, and the misery he there saw led to the conception of the Land League movement.



ference gave to the movement a definite status and authority, and its object was explicitly affirmed—the liberation of the peasant from landlord despotism, by obtaining for him through Constitutional agitation, the ownership of the soil he cultivated, with the tender of fair compensation to the landlord for the extinction of his claims therein.

Just when the agitation was thus decisively inaugurated, it was temporarily pushed into the background by the imminence of famine. From three-fourths of the island came urgent appeals for food, stating that without some extraordinary measures of relief, the dismal tragedies of '47 and '48 would be re-enacted. The imperative nature of the case was laid before the Government, and its aid solicited—not in the shape of alms, but in a decree suspending evictions and granting a loan of public funds wherewith to prosecute necessary public works which would afford employment at moder-

ate wages to the gaunt host of small farmers. "The Government," says an American writer in a review of that period, "appointed the usual Commission, and thereafter industriously did nothing." In so cruel an emergency no alternative was left to the Irish people but to throw themselves at the feet of foreign nations and beg for bread. From America, from continental Europe, from Australia and New Zealand, from South Africa, and from many parts of Asia, came a generous response. Food and money poured in with bounteous profusion, though not more than was needful; and then the resolution of the Irish leaders grew more vehement than ever, that their people would deserve to perish if they again allowed themselves to be reduced to such a strait. They should in future hold their own, instead of vexing the world's ears with the piteous whine of mendicants."

Mr. Parnell,\* the chosen leader of

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\*On the paternal side Charles Stuart Parnell is descended from an English clergyman who settled in Ireland about the middle of the 17th century, and who was the father of the poet, Thomas Parnell. The stock never degenerated into sycophants or placemen, although several of them held high positions under the Irish Government. One of them was the last Chancellor of the Irish Exchequer, and was named "the Incorruptible" for spurning the proffered bribe of Castlereagh, when the infamous Union was consummated. The grand uncle of the Land League leader was a member of the Melbourne cabinet and a consistent advocate of Catholic emancipation; he was raised to the peerage under the title of Baron Congleton, and this branch of the family survives in England.

On the maternal side, the Irish leader inherits healthy American blood, his mother being the only daughter of the gallant Irish American, Commodore Stewart—"Old

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Ironsides." Her hand was won at Washington by John Henry Parnell while traveling here, and they fixed their abode at his residence, Avondale, County Wicklow, where their son, Charles Stewart, was born in June, 1846. He has four sisters and two brothers living, besides his honored mother, to whose republican instincts and teachings are largely due, no doubt, the determination of her son's character. She and her accomplished daughters have been tireless in sustaining and propagating Land League principles. No small share of the success of the movement in America, is directly attributable to their zeal, in company with Miss Ford, sister of the editor of the *Irish World*, in enlisting the aid of Irish-American ladies.

Educated in England, a graduate of Cambridge University, with property, wealth, high lineage and aristocratic connections behind him, Charles Stewart Parnell had an inviting path open through which to achieve



the movement, came to the United States, where his cogent advocacy was instrumental not only in securing an amount of relief which averted famine in Ireland, but also in establishing here an auxiliary Land League organization, which supplies the greater part of the funds by which the agitation at home is sustained. There can be no doubt that the intensity of feeling in the United States, as manifested in a very substantial way, has been one of the most vital factors in the problem, even as viewed by the British Government.

The Land Leaguers had a powerful magazine of argument ready at their hands, drawn from the lessons of history and the dicta of the foremost European publicists. France's marvel-

case and tinsel honors among the British oligarchy. But he was a man of reflective mood, high spirit, extensive travel, and generous, though not effusive, sympathies. The execution of the Fenian prisoners at Manchester (Nov. 1867) produced a profound effect upon him as upon so many other Irish Moderates. A subsequent tour through a large portion of the United States led him to compare the comfort and freedom of the American people with the misery and depression which afflicted the Irish, and he had pretty accurately diagnosed the disease of the latter when, in 1875, he was elected by Meath to the vacant seat of John Martin.

Entering the House of Commons, and essaying to discharge what he deemed his duty there, all the latent fire in Parnell's nature was fanned into activity by the brutal impatience with which every proposal for reform of any sort in Ireland was invariably scoffed at and flung aside. Failing to secure a respectful hearing or consideration by respectfully addressing the House, he, with Mr. Biggar, revolted against its stilted formalities, and, kicking over the traces of Mr. Butt's submissive tactics, inaugurated the policy of deliberate obstruction. Every measure introduced by the Government was not only subjected to the most rigorous scrutiny and pitiless criticism, but was impeded at every step with dilatory motions, debates against time, and the other manifold obstacles that a clever and resolute minority can always

ous prosperity was confessedly due to the nationalization of her soil during the Revolution, and no Government had dared to undo what was then accomplished. In Prussia, after the peace of Tilsit, the great landlord proprietors were compulsorily expropriated, receiving State bonds to an amount equal to the official valuation of their estates, which were then partitioned among the cultivators. A similar reform had accompanied the Emancipation of the serfs in Russia. Here were examples and precedents in plenty; moreover, the principle was expressly recognized in the Land Act of 1870. Then, if testimony were required as to the urgent need and opportuneness of the change, John Bright had said in

build upon the convenient foundations of parliamentary rules and usages. Mr. O'Connor Power and several other members quickly wheeled into line, and their bull-baiting was persisted in until both Whigs and Tories, alike exasperated, voted a few weeks ago to abolish free speech in the British legislature and gag minorities, in order to escape the unrelenting pursuit of the little band of earnest Irish members.

In 1876, Mr. Parnell and Mr. O'Connor Power brought to the United States the greeting of the Irish people upon the occasion of the centennial celebration of the Republic's independence. The objections raised by the British Minister at Washington, and the consequent refusal of President Grant to formally receive the address, only gave to the incident a wider advertisement and a deeper significance. The failure of the crops in 1877, '78, and '79 satisfied Mr. Parnell that a bolder policy yet must be adopted. Slow to select a line of action, but unswerving in his purpose when once adopted, his subsequent history is identified with the progress of the Land League. Carrying on a warfare of passive resistance, he is keenly alive to the influence exerted by public opinion in these days of steam and electricity. Hence, he has taken especial pains to place the wrongs and claims of his country fairly before the intelligent judgment of America and Europe.—*Land League Manual*.



1876: "One half of Scotland is owned by forty-one landlords. One great noble there holds as much soil as three millions of his poorer countrymen. Six thousand persons own the whole land of Ireland. Five thousand own the whole land of England and Wales, so that fourteen thousand persons own all the land of England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland, amounting to about ninety millions of acres. *This is the power that makes and administers the laws. It is a power which has been for generations a curse in this country, which is enormous now, and with which, whenever it chooses to act in Parliament—in spite of your household suffrage in boroughs—there is an end of your opinion; for it carries any measure it thinks necessary to its own interests.*"

Mr. Gladstone had said, in November, 1879: "There are some persons, for whom I have a great respect, who think that the difficulties of our agriculture may be got over by a fundamental change in the land-holding system of our country. I mean those who think that, if you can cut up the land of a country into a multitude of small properties, that of itself will solve the difficulty. To a proposal of that kind, I, for one, am not going to object that it would be inconsistent with the privileges of landed proprietors, if it is going to be for the welfare of the community at large. *The Legislature are perfectly entitled to buy up the landed proprietors, for the pur-*

*pose of dividing the country into small lots. In principle, no objection can be taken to it.* Those persons who possess large portions of the earth's space are not altogether in the same position as the possessors of mere personalty. Personalty does not impose limitations on the action and industry of man and the well-being of the community, as possession of land does; and, therefore, I freely own that compulsory expropriation is a thing which is admissible, and even sound in principle."

James Anthony Froude, the historian, had written: "The English deliberately determined to keep Ireland poor and miserable, as the readiest means to prevent it being troublesome. They destroyed Irish trade and shipping by navigation laws. They extinguished Irish manufactures by differential duties. They laid disabilities even on the wretched agriculture, for fear that Irish importations might injure the English farmer. . . . Of all the fatal gifts which we bestowed upon our unhappy possession, the greatest was the English system of owning land. Land, properly speaking, cannot be owned by any man—it belongs to the human race. Laws have to be made to secure the profits of their industry to those who cultivate it; but the private property of this or that person, which he is entitled to deal with as he pleases, land never ought to be, and never strictly is."

England's ablest economic writer, John Stuart Mill, had testified: "Re-



turning nothing to the soil, they [the landlords] consume its whole produce, minus the potatoes strictly necessary to keep the inhabitants from dying of famine; and, when they have any purpose of 'improvement,' the preparatory step usually consists in not leaving even this pittance, but turning out the people to beggary, if not to starvation.

When landed property has placed itself on this footing, it ceases to be defensible; and the time has come for making some new arrangement in the matter.

When the sacredness of property is talked of, it should always be remembered that any such sacredness does

not belong in the same degree to landed property. NO MAN MADE THE LAND; *it is the original inheritance of the whole species. Its appropriation is a question of general expediency.*

*When private property is not expedient, it is unjust.* It is no hardship to any man to be excluded from what others have produced."

England's leading organ of opinion, the *London Times*, had proclaimed: "The people of England have most culpably connived at a national iniquity. . . . Property ruled with savage and tyrannical sway. It exercised its rights with a hand of iron, and renounced its duties with a front of brass. The fat of the land, the flour of its wheat, its milk and its honey, flowed from its shores in tribute to the ruthless absentee, or his less guilty cousin the usurious lender. It was all drain and no return. But, if strength

and industry fared but ill in a land where capital was in perpetual flux and decay, how much more poverty and weakness! In an integral part of the British Empire, on the soil trodden by a British sovereign, the landowner was allowed to sweep away the produce of the earth, without leaving even a gleanings for them that were about to perish. And they did perish, year by year, continually, from sheer destitution. The whole Irish people were debased by the spectacle and contact of licensed mendicancy and recognized starvation. England stupidly winked at this tyranny."

Similarly conclusive testimonies by the score were compiled and turned to good account by the Land League speakers and agitators. In order, however, to give effect to their aims, some means were necessary to coerce their opponents without violating the law, and to resist eviction by preventing the occupancy of vacated holdings. The requisite agency was discovered in the system known as Boycotting from the name of the party against whom it was first exercised, and which means rigorous non-intercourse. "A Boycotted proprietor could find nobody to sell to him or buy from him, to tend his herds or harvest his crops, or render service in his household."

Under the potent influence of this weapon, the Land League rapidly became paramount in Ireland, establishing its own courts, enforcing its own decrees, and literally possessing itself



of all the ordinary functions of government. The spectacle was an extraordinary one. Impotent and wrathful, the landlord interest clamored for the enforcement of "law," representing the country to be convulsed with agrarian violence and crime. As a matter of fact and record, the country was never so free from serious crime. Hoping to divert or impede the current of public sentiment, measures were taken to prosecute a number of prominent Land Leaguers for speeches "inciting to sedition and breaches of the peace." The traversers quietly predicted that not even in Dublin, famous for packed juries, could a jury be found to convict them; and this confidence was justified by the event. The jury disagreed, a majority of its members voting for acquittal.\*

Discomfited in the courts, the panic of the landlord interest grew more intense and contagious than ever, and extended to the Government. Yielding to the views of Forster and Vernon-Harcourt, the Cabinet resolved that Ireland's prime need was Coercion—reforms could be discussed later on! Session after session, when out of office, Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Bright, and their

Liberal lieutenants had thundered at the Tory majority that force was not the remedy for Irish discontent; yet here now were Messrs. Gladstone and Bright, and Dilke, and Fawcett clamoring for force as the most imperative need of the moment for a country singularly free from crime, and for a people whose self-control was exciting the wonder of the world. The parliamentary mill was set vigorously to work, and a bill was introduced by the Ministry, not only suspending the Habeas Corpus Act, but providing that anybody might be summarily arrested and imprisoned, without trial, on account of words spoken prior to the passage of this enactment, and which words were perfectly lawful when uttered!

The obvious intent of such *ex post facto* legislation was to intimidate the Land League, and, if possible, disrupt it by scaring some of the weaker members into the payment of rent; hence it need hardly be said that the measure was resolutely opposed by Parnell and his associates in Parliament. Owing to their obstructive tactics, slow progress was made until the Ministry precipitated a crisis by arresting Davitt,† in the hope, some say, of provoking

\* In the course of this trial it was shown that the correspondence of the leading Land Leaguers had been systematically "Grahamized" in the post office. This violation of the presumed sanctity of the mails was shortly after avowed in the House of Commons, and "sustained with loud cheers" by both Whigs and Tories.

† Davitt had been in the United States for nearly a year previously, organizing auxiliary branches of the League, and was advised not to return to Ireland as his

health was precarious, and he would be among the first arrested when his services were so valuable to the cause. No arguments, however, could restrain him from going to the front when danger menaced. The Government had previously undertaken to prosecute him, and then withdrew the prosecution, thereby tacitly admitting that he had violated no British statute; but he was a dangerous man to leave at liberty, and so he was abruptly thrown into jail by a revocation of his pardon. The Sunday prior to his arrest, he spoke at a public meeting



armed revolt in Ireland. The British landlord interest, supreme in the legislative assembly, was thoroughly frightened at the possibility of the agitation extending to England and Scotland, and the rival parties and factions all combined to alter their own rules of procedure so as to gag minorities, preclude obstruction, and pass the Coercion Act with a rush—to be followed in due course by a supplementary Arms Act.

Meantime the military arm of the Government had not been quiescent. Brigade after brigade of troops was hurried into Ireland, thoroughly equipped for mountain warfare, and Sir Garnet Wolseley, though sorely needed at the Cape, was detained in London to be in readiness for the apprehended emergency in Ireland. For the brave Boers of the Transvaal, at all events, it proved an opportune diversion.\*

Prior to the final reading of the Coercion Act, Mr. Egan, the Treasurer of the Land League,† removed to Paris with the funds of the organization to

insure against their possible seizure. This prudential step gave undisguised pleasure to the landlord partisans who interpreted it as a sign of weakness, instead of essential caution. The English press was jubilant, and when Parnell, Dillon and their colleagues crossed the Channel to perfect business arrangements or solicit French aid, the concerted hue-and-cry was raised that they had fled to avoid arrest. The insulting canards, however, recoiled upon their authors, for nobody ran away, and though some thirty arrests were made in Ireland, the process did not produce the effects intended. The League did not dissolve; the leaders did not run away; and as fast as one man was arrested, another stepped forward to fill his place and continue his work.

Throughout this exciting procession of events, a Land bill was always promised, but nothing definite could be learned concerning its scope or the time when it would be ready. The pacification of Ireland must precede

as follows: "Do you believe for a moment that if this contest lay in another field than that of peaceful agitation, or that the weapons in our hands were other than those of ideas, we should strike our colors at the first look of danger and fly from the enemy? Should we not rather swear, face to face with our enemies, that every sod beneath our feet should be a soldier's sepulchre rather than that victory should be snatched from our grasp? We have every encouragement now. We have the support of the public opinion of the civilized world sustaining us in this just and moral struggle, and far over the rolling waves of the Atlantic we have a New Ireland of our banished kindred—those who were driven from Ireland by Irish landlordism—now stretching its generous hands across the ocean to help us drive from Ireland,

once and forever, that code of infamous land laws which drove them from Ireland in the past."

\*The brilliant military operations of the Boers were largely directed by the exiled Fenian Aylward. England, after several sanguinary reverses, was rendered only more fixed in her resolve to crush the Transvaal farmers, until she learned that they had organized a corps of picked sharpshooters to pink all her officers in the next engagement. Then the warlike fervor of the aristocracy simmered down and a peace was arranged.

† Patrick Egan, one of Dublin's leading merchants, attests the sincerity of his patriotism by neglecting his immense private business and devoting his whole time without fee or salary to the care of the League's finances.



any concessions. The Irish leaders retaliated by "carrying the war into Africa." They established a propaganda in England to explain their aims to the English democracy, and at the very first parliamentary vacancy that occurred, they held the balance of power and returned a Tory M. P. in what had erewhile been a Liberal stronghold. This significant warning made a deep impression on the Ministry, and Thursday, April 7, 1881, witnessed the introduction of Mr. Gladstone's new Land Bill in the House of Commons—the Premier solemnly announcing that "Justice is to be the principle to guide England in regard to Ireland."

"The Land Law of Ireland, Act of 1881," as its official caption reads, is in substance a measure designed to enlarge the scope of the Act of 1870 and to give effective force to its inoperative provisions. Its salient features may be summarized as follows:

1. It guarantees the tenants' right to compensation for improvements.

2. It institutes an improved system of courts to arbitrate between conflicting interests. The tribunals to which disputes touching the amount of rent justly assessable, or the reasonableness of a landlord's refusal to accept the purchaser of a tenant right, are still to be referred, as they were under the Land act of 1870, are the county courts. The objection to these tribunals, that tenants, as a class, were most imperfectly represented in them, has been

recognized, and to a certain extent neutralized, by Mr. Gladstone, who makes them merely courts of the first instance, and authorizes an appeal to a board consisting of three persons, and to be known as the Land Commission. With a view, apparently, to diminish the delays and costs involved in an appeal, the appellant board is empowered to delegate sub-commissioners, who can review questions of fact in the locality where they arise. These restrictions upon the action of the county court are designed to strip landlords of the influence they have too frequently exerted upon local tribunals.

3. Only tenants paying £150 rent and over can contract themselves out of the provisions of the bill. Excepting in these cases, leases and contracts inconsistent with its provisions are declared void. Under the Land act of 1870, compensation for disturbance and compensation for improvements were only made compulsory in the case of tenants whose rentals fell below £50. All others were permitted to waive these guarantees against the destruction of their interest, by contract with their landlords, and of course the latter were not slow to take advantage of the opening thus left for imposing ironclad contracts.

4. It is provided that the Land Commission, out of the money in their hands for the purpose, may, if satisfied with the security, advance sums to tenants for the purpose of enabling them



to purchase their holdings where landlords are willing to sell. Such an advance is not to exceed three-fourths of the principal sum. Where, on the other hand, a landlord, instead of conveying a farm in fee, is willing to convert the present occupancy into a copyhold, in consideration of the tenant paying down a gross sum by way of fine, and engaging to pay a perpetual fixed ground rent, in such a case the Commission may advance a sum equal to one-half the fine. Advances to the tenant in ordinary cases are limited to a sum of £3,000. In extraordinary cases the limit is placed at £5,000. Provision is also made to enable the Commission to give purchasing tenants a parliamentary title at a fixed scale of costs in order to avoid the heavy legal expenses which attend the sale and transfer of landed property under the ordinary law. Tenants can repay the principal and interest by annual payment of £5 per £100, clearing the debt in thirty-five years.

5. The Treasury may authorize the Board of Works to advance money to companies for the reclamation or improvement of waste lands on proper security.

6. The Land Commission may, from time to time, with the sanction of the Treasury, enter into agreement with any person or body of persons having authority to contract on behalf of the Dominion of Canada or of any province thereof, or on behalf of any British colony or dependency, or any State or

other district in such Dominion, province or dependency, or on behalf of any public company or other public body, with whose security the Land Commission may be satisfied, for the advance, by the commission by way of a loan out of the moneys in their hands, of such sums as the commission may think it desirable to expend in promoting emigration from Ireland. Such agreements shall contain such provisions relative to the mode of application of loans and the securing and repayment thereof to the commission and for other purposes as the commission thinks fit.

The first fruit of the bill was to evoke the resignation of a member of the Cabinet, the Duke of Argyle, who declined to share responsibility for what he regarded as an outrageous assault upon the rights of property. This incident showed the inherent difficulty of Gladstone's position. Anxious to pass as good a law as possible, it must be passed, if at all, by a House of Commons and a House of Lords, composed almost wholly of landlords, naturally averse to diminishing their own powers and privileges except in the last extremity.

On the other hand, while the Land Leaguers were prompt to recognize the meritorious features of the measure, they were also quick to discern its imperfections and suggest amendments. It was urged, in the first place, that the perpetuation of the county courts, which had done so much to



nullify the Act of 1870, was a grave mistake, as such machinery was cumbersome and expensive as well as prejudiced against the tenants. The provisions encouraging emigration were also roundly denounced, as they embodied the old fallacy of "over-population." Many other defects of a more or less grave character were pointed out. Nevertheless, far though the bill fell short of the Land League standard, the Irish members resolved to throw no factious obstacle in its way, but to amend it if possible, and, accepting what benefits it secured, make these a stepping-stone to something better.

The Landlord interest, on the other hand, was not slow to utter its remonstrance; and as a consequence of this fire from two directions, more than eleven hundred notices of amendment were recorded on the order-book of the House of Commons!

Neither the prospects of the Bill nor the condition of the country were at all improved by the arbitrary arrest of John Dillon, M. P.,\* at Portarlington, May 2, on the charge of inciting to breaches of the peace. Mr. Dillon had been speaking very plain truths to his constituents, yet the manner of

his arrest fairly warrants the inference that his words were not actionable under the ordinary forms of law. The seizure and imprisonment of a member of Parliament under such circumstances is a precedent fraught with grave peril, not so much to Ireland as to the British system of government.

In the other arrests subsequently made during the same month, especially that of Rev. Father Sheehy and that of Thomas Brennan, Secretary of the Land League, public opinion in Ireland discerned a deliberate purpose to inflame popular passion and precipitate a hostile collision.

After the Bill had passed the House of Commons it was mutilated and mangled by the Lords, whose amendments lopped away many of its best features. The Ministry had threatened that no radical alterations would be permitted even if the Premier were compelled to create enough peers to pass it in the form approved by the House. When the issue was made, however, the hereditary chamber worked its will upon the measure without serious opposition. Simultaneously both Houses voted for an ironclad Coercion Act dictated by "Buckshot" Forster, Chief

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\* Mr. Dillon is the worthy son of a patriot sire, John B. Dillon, one of the leaders of the young Ireland movement. The elder Dillon owned considerable property in Mayo and supplied the funds to establish the *Dublin Nation*. Engaging in the abortive insurrection of 1848, he escaped to America and practised law with Richard O'Gorman, in New York. Afterwards, he returned to Ireland and became M. P. for Tipperary, dying in 1867. His son, who at present represents the same spirited

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constituency, though quite a young man, has taken a very active part in both the Home Rule and Land agitations. He never minced his speech either in or outside Parliament, nor hesitated to declare that he would follow the flag of armed revolt if he saw a chance of success. His uncompromising attitude and earnestness won for him the distinction of arbitrary arrest, the Irish capital being "proclaimed" in order to facilitate the deed.



Secretary for Ireland, authorizing wholesale and arbitrary arrests on suspicion. In vain the Irish members protested; Forster's rugged personality dominated the whole Cabinet, and when the Land League contingent in Parliament resorted to obstructive tactics, even Gladstone and Bright grew reckless. February 2, 1881, witnessed a stormy scene in the House. Next day Michael Davitt was rearrested, and the police in Ireland were instructed to inaugurate a vigorous campaign against the League branches throughout Ireland by seizing the local leaders.

Parnell and his colleagues objected to the amended Gladstone Act that it would lead to interminable litigation, that it contained no provision for settling arrears of rent, and that it would not put a stop to evictions. In the autumn these criticisms were met by the summary arrest of Parnell, Sexton, O'Kelly and other Irish members of Parliament who were cast into Kilmainham. The Irish jails were crammed with suspects, and the fiat of Foster went forth, that he would suppress the Land League at all hazards.

Suddenly from behind the iron doors of Kilmainham came a laconic manifesto. It consisted of only two words, *No Rent!* to which were attached the names of Parnell, Dillon and the other incarcerated leaders. It flew from end to end of the island on lightning wings. More than this, it commanded an instantaneous, almost

universal obedience never accorded to an English statute. As a London paper expressed it, this concise edict, issued from a jail, "suspended British law in Ireland."

With more than 50,000 troops to carry out his behests in a disarmed country, and with no constitutional restraints to impede or embarrass him, Forster exerted his worst energies—and was baffled. His police and soldiery assisted at evictions, but the harassed tenants did not pay the rents. After several months of brutal persistency the Cabinet realized in the spring of 1882 that the repressive policy was a failure. Forster was called to a reckoning and resigned his office. The Land League was master of the situation and the Liberal Ministry was anxious to win back Irish votes.

The prison doors were abruptly thrown open. Mr. Gladstone, once more asserting that force was no remedy, announced that he would introduce measures to improve the Land Act and meet the problem of rent arrears; yet with shining inconsistency he proclaimed that his conciliatory policy would be accompanied with a renewal of the Coercion Act! Lord Frederick Cavendish was sent over to Dublin in Forster's stead to inaugurate the new dispensation. On the very evening he assumed the insignia of his office, both he and Under-Secretary Bourke were assassinated in the Phoenix Park, within a stone's throw of the Viceregal Lodge and the Military



Depot, by four men who coolly rode off, leaving no trace of their identity.

It was a crime which by its audacity and thoroughness recalled the most daring exploits of the Russian Nihilists, startled the whole civilized world, and threw England into a frenzy of rage and terror. Despite its instant repudiation of the deed, the Land League was charged with having incited it, and threats were openly made in England that Mr. Parnell and others of the Irish leaders would be assassinated as a measure of retaliation. For some time it was actually deemed prudent to maintain a strict surveillance over the public movements of Parnell and his most prominent lieutenants. Many months elapsed before it dawned upon the British mind that the League had much to lose and nothing to gain by the lamentable tragedy. The deed itself created less consternation than did the absence of every clue to its authorship; and the secrecy enshrouding it indicated it to be the act of some new organization of Terrorists who had closely studied the methods of Italian and Russian schools. Apprehensive of attack in other quarters, the opening Summer of 1882 beheld every high official in England as well as in Ireland constantly guarded by soldiery or armed detectives.

Coercion had produced its normal fruit. The people of Ireland had been angered and a sentiment in favor of violent reprisals fostered by a long succession of arbitrary arrests and per-

secutions. During the preceding six months, nearly a thousand persons, women as well as men, \* had been cast into jail for participating in the anti-famine movement; newspapers had been suppressed and the editors imprisoned for upholding the popular cause; 3,415 families had been evicted in the year 1881, and 519 in the four weeks of April, 1882, preceding Earl Cowper's resignation of the Lord Lieutenancy; many Counties had been proclaimed under martial law; children had been arrested in the streets for whistling Irish tunes; John Dillon's health was rapidly breaking down in prison; and Davitt who, although a "felon," had been elected to succeed Sullivan as member for Meath, was permitted to see only one friendly face in six months. All these and many kindred incidents had sufficed to revive the spirit of secret conspiracy which found an outlet in the assassination of Burke and Cavendish.

The second convention of the League in America was held at Washington April 12, 1882, and its echoes crossing the ocean a few weeks later helped to hasten the introduction of Gladstone's Repression Bill. All pretence of Con-

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\* Among the ladies summarily imprisoned were the officers of the Drumcollagher (Limerick) and of the Roscommon branches of the Ladies' Land League; Miss O'Connor, sister of the M. P. for Galway; Mrs. Moore of Dublin; Miss Reynolds of Birr; and three members of the Tralee Ladies' League. To add insult to injury they were imprisoned as "Bad Characters" under a long obsolete statute of the reign of Edward III.



stitutional government was now flung to the winds, and the abolition of trial by jury in Ireland was made the central principle of the new Act. So uncalled for and outrageous was the remedy proposed, that even her Majesty's Judges in Ireland formally condemned and protested against it, and in the beginning of June, Baron Fitzgerald resigned rather than administer it. The Irish National members strenuously opposed its passage, and on the first day of July were suspended in a body for obstructing it. Nevertheless it received the approval of Lords and Commons ten days later. Even the Quaker statesman John Bright accepted it, although he resigned his Cabinet office next day on account of what he deemed an unduly aggressive British policy in Egypt! Under the provisions of the Act, the Counties of Cavan, Leitrim, Longford, Mayo, Sligo, Roscommon, Westmeath, Tipperary, Kilkenny, Cork, Clare, Limerick, Waterford, Kerry, Louth and Dublin, with portions of Galway, Monaghan, and Armagh, were at once proclaimed. The Arrears of Rent bill passed the House of Commons, July 19, one day before the lamented Miss Fannie Parnell died suddenly of a heart affection at her ancestral home in Bordentown, N. J.

Meantime, amid all the vicissitudes of public affairs the Land League had maintained its efforts and widened its aims for the amelioration of the Country. The condition of the agri-

cultural laborers had attracted attention and study, and the revival of home manufactures was extensively agitated. As a result of the latter aspiration, an Industrial Exhibition was opened in Dublin and a statue of O'Connell unveiled August 15, 1882, in presence of 100,000 people. Thus gradually the foundations were laid for extending the scope of the National movement so as to embrace not only land reform, but every other element of the country's progress.

No light had yet been thrown on the Phoenix Park tragedy of May 6th; the perpetrators had not been secured; hence the offended majesty of Britain was thirsty for vengeance, and it went hard with any Irishman accused of agrarian outrage or murder. Judge Lawson, inheriting the mantle of Norbury and Keogh, won infamy as a "hanging Judge." Before him at Galway, Francis Hynes and Patrick Walsh were found guilty of murder on the flimsiest evidence and were in due time hanged as examples. There is now no doubt that both men were innocent, yet for exposing the worthlessness of the proofs on which they were convicted, and endeavoring to prevent their judicial murder, E. Dwyer Gray, M. P., High Sheriff of Dublin and proprietor of the *Freeman's Journal*, was sentenced to three months imprisonment and a fine of £500! The closing Summer of 1882 witnessed the death (Aug. 22) of the genial poet and patriot, Charles J. Kickham, and the



strike (Sept.1) of the Dublin Metropolitan Police for higher pay. Gladstone's Coercion Law expired Sept. 30, only to make room for the operation of the still more sweeping Repression Act.

On Oct. 17, 1882, a National Conference was held in Dublin; the Treasurer of the Land League Fund gave an account of his stewardship, and the Land League was transformed into the Irish National League, with the broader and more comprehensive aims suggested in the new title. Much had been gained in the struggle for the possession of the soil; effort was now to be directed towards other equally worthy objects, such as the acquisition of the right of self-government, the improvement of the condition of laborers and artisans, and the promotion of distinctively Irish industries. On Nov. 24, the old Home Rule League held its last meeting and melted into the new movement. The end of the year found the Government devising measures to "assist" and encourage emigration from Ireland which the League promptly and strenuously antagonized.

As the strength of the National movement centred largely in its methods of organizing and educating the people through newspapers and public meetings, the Lord Lieutenant was invested with sweeping powers to suppress obnoxious journals and prohibit or proclaim popular assemblages. The authority was not allowed to rust for lack of exercise; nevertheless the meetings continued to be held

and the newspapers persisted in telling unpleasant truths. Acute distress still prevailed in many parts of the island, more especially in the North and West. After men and women had literally died of starvation, the emigration clause of the Land Act was put in operation, and load after load of pauperized tenants was shipped to Canada and the United States, most of them being cast penniless on the shores of the New World. The subject was handled without gloves in the convention of the American-Irish League at Philadelphia, April 26 and 27, 1883, and the representations made to the Federal authorities at Washington resulted in action which gave a decided set-back to Mr. Tuke's deportation scheme.

On the 12th day of January, 1883, James Carey, a member of the Dublin Municipal Council, and a score of other persons were arrested on the charge of being implicated in the Phoenix Park murders. At first it was thought that the police had merely got upon the trail of some secret society; but gradually the fears of several of the prisoners were worked upon and through their confessions was revealed a most dramatic and almost incredible conspiracy. Michael Farrell and William Lamie became informers at the preliminary examination, disclosing the existence of the Society of Irish Invincibles, the members of which were picked men sworn to obey the orders of a mysterious leader known to them only as "Number One." He, they said,



had decreed the slaying of Burke and Cavendish, and the sentence had been executed by some of the men under arrest. February 10, Michael Kavanagh gave evidence for the Crown, admitting that he drove the jaunting-car on which the murderers entered and left Phoenix Park, and identified Joe Brady, Daniel Curley, James Carey, Michael Fagan, Thomas Caffrey and Timothy Kelly as the principals engaged in the act.

The evidence thus far secured was damaging, but not decisive, when, on February 17, James Carey stepped to the witness-stand as an informer and revealed the whole inside history of the tragedy. In the most cold-blooded, matter-of-fact way he recited how he himself had been the local leader and organizer of the Invincibles in Dublin. He had initiated the men now before him in the dock, and he had directed the assassination of the previous year, even to the giving of the signal in the Park. The original intention had been, he stated, to kill Burke alone, but Cavendish had interposed to protect his companion and met the same fate. The witness proved himself to be so utterly despicable a scoundrel as to win the execration of the whole civilized world; but his partners in the sanguinary exploit were loyal to each other; and the authorities, in order to procure the necessary evidence, promised him, the leader, immunity from punishment. Brady, Curley, Fagan and Caffrey were

quickly convicted and duly hanged. Kelly, a lad of nineteen years, was thrice tried before a jury could be found to convict him. Like the others, he met death unflinchingly. Several of their companions were sentenced to penal servitude.

England spared no effort to find and secure "Number One." Carey could not himself disclose the identity of the mysterious individual, and there were strong suspicions that the informer had invented the shadowy unknown. From Carey's disclosures, however, suspicion was successively directed against P. J. Sheridan, John Walsh and Peter Tynan, and unusual efforts were made to procure their extradition either from France or the United States. Had any of them been surrendered, there is little doubt that he would have been hanged, but no evidence was offered that could satisfy a French or American tribunal of their complicity in the crime. Detective ingenuity and skill were actively brought into play to smuggle Carey away to some place of safety. He was secretly shipped to South Africa, but was shot dead (July 30, '83) on the steamer *Melrose*, near Port Elizabeth, by Patrick O'Donnell, an Irish-American who had penetrated his disguise. O'Donnell was brought to London for trial. A large fund was subscribed in the United States for his defense, and Congress even passed a resolution designed to procure a respite for him. He was, however, found guilty, (Dec.1)



and hanged with unusual and indecent haste (Dec. 17). In November, Joseph Poole was found guilty in Dublin of killing informer Kenny, and he was hanged the day after O'Donnell's execution.

While these events were in progress, England had been disturbed by another spectre of Irish hatred. On the night of March 15, 1883, the Local Government Board offices, close beside the Parliament House in London, were shattered with dynamite. Two weeks later twelve members of a so-called "Assassination Society" were convicted on the testimony of an informer at Armagh and sentenced to varying terms of penal servitude. On April 5, Dr. Gallagher, Whitehead, Wilson and Curtin were arrested in London, on information furnished by a co-worker named Norman, as dynamite conspirators, and large quantities of the explosive seized in their rooms. Norman excepted, they were sentenced to penal servitude for life. A severe anti-explosive law was run hurriedly through Parliament. In August, Featherstone, Deasy, Flanagan and Dalton received similar sentences at Liverpool. They were shown to have been the betrayed dupes of a notorious Irish-American adventurer, James McDermott, who had hung around the verge of every patriotic movement since John O'Mahony's time. He had a narrow escape from death in New York when his treachery was first suspected, but con-

trived to escape to the protection of the British police.

An Industrial Exhibition was opened in Cork, July 3, and gave a helpful impetus to the manufactures of the South of Ireland.

In Ulster the usual Orange parades passed off without producing disturbance or bad blood. The spectacle was not grateful to Tory statesmanship; so Sir Stafford Northcote went over to Belfast in September and deliberately proceeded to fan the slumbering embers of religious hate which the National League had long and earnestly labored to quench. In a speech at Carrickfergus he so inflamed the passions of his auditors that a number of them returning homeward, full of "loyalty" and whiskey, attacked the convent at Ballynafeigh, riddling it with paving stones and so terrifying the inmates that one Sister died next day. This incident provoked indignation and recrimination; and, like fire among dry stubble, it awoke the fanaticism of the whole Order in Ulster. Lord Rossmore assumed command of their forces and even applied to the Government for arms and ammunition to supply all the lodges and suppress League meetings. Thus the new year 1884, opened with the old sectarian feud revived in all its bitterness and the Government employing its Orange dupes to antagonize the Nationalists.

Through the vicissitudes and triumphs of the Land League movement,



the leader, Mr. Parnell, had incurred a great deal of expense, which had to be paid out of a modest income. — When, therefore, it was learned that his outlay had encumbered his estate his compatriots in Ireland, Great Britain, Australia and the United States subscribed a testimonial purse which was presented to him at a banquet in Dublin, Dec. 11, 1883. Had he himself not been rather averse to the project, America's contribution ( \$30,000 ), would have been thrice as large. Ultimately he accepted the gift, and the first use to which a part of it was devoted, was the starting of quarries and a saw-mill to give employment to laborers in Wicklow.

Parliament reassembled Feb. 5, 1884, with abundant omens of trouble for the Gladstone Ministry, which had resolved to bring in a Suffrage Extension Bill making every house-holder in Counties a voter. Whether a redistribution of seats should form an integral portion of the bill or be left for a subsequent and separate measure was a

point on which Liberal opinion was divided. The Irish members in conference determined to abide and watch events, confident that in any case they could elect 75 or 76 Nationalist Members, should the bill either pass or lead to a dissolution of Parliament. The latter contingency was deemed not at all remote, owing to the loss of British prestige resulting from Gladstone's policy in Egypt, where a fanatic leader, El Mahdi, had gathered the tribes of the Soudan around him, defied the Khedive and the British Protectorate, and annihilated two expeditions under English officers sent out to subjugate him. Popular discontent with the vacillating policy of the Government made it almost certain that the Irish contingent would hold the balance of power. Should they elect to vote with the Tories and precipitate a general election, they were assured of coming back with their numerical strength redoubled. Such was the situation at the opening of Parliament in the first week of February, 1884.







## THE MISSION OF THE LAND LEAGUE.

By CHARLES STEWART PARNELL, M. P. for Cork, and Leader of the Irish National Land League.

"PROPERTY is made for man, and not man for property."

IT is on this axiom that we base our present movement, which is directed—not against property or its rights—but against the abuse of those rights.

When Madame Roland said, as, passing to her doom, she looked up at the statue of Liberty, "Oh, Liberty, how many crimes have been committed in thy name!" it was not because she loved or revered liberty the less; it was against the abuses perpetrated under its ensign that she protested. So now do we protest against the system which has turned an institution that was founded for the well-being of the greatest number, and of the most industrious classes, into a mere instrument for the benefit of the smallest number and of the idlest class in society.

The idea that property is so sacred a thing in itself that its rights must not be infringed upon, even to prevent the decay and death of a nation, is not an idea that is to be found in law, or in jurisprudence, or in political economy, or in ethics, or in the Bible. The precise contrary of this idea is inculcated in all the leading works of

political economy, from Adam Smith up, and also by the principal writers on law and jurisprudence. I need not say anything about the Bible, for one of the most notorious outcries of the freethinkers of the present day against the teachings of the Gospel is, that they are rank communism, and that our Lord was utterly ignorant of political economy in all its branches.

The idea, therefore, of the divine rights of property has had its growth, not amongst educated minds, but amongst what I must call, for want of a better term, the "*uneducated section*" of the upper classes. These are, some of them, property holders. Some of them own no property except debts; but both kinds are alike ignorant. They have heard from babyhood up that the world exists but for them and the rest of fashionable society. They have heard that all the outside world is "rabble." If they possess property, they believe it is their own innate superiority that has placed it in their hands. If they don't possess it, why, they believe they will soon get it by a rich marriage, or by some lucky haul in Wall Street, or by some legacy from an apoplectic uncle. In any case,



property, once theirs, brings no duties with it, and may be used as seemeth good unto their eyes.

When I say that this section of the upper classes is uneducated and ignorant, I do not mean to say that they do not know how to read or write, or that they have not, once upon a time, learned enough about history to know that there was once a man named George Washington, who ruined the country by separating it from England; but I mean that their minds are wholly undeveloped, that their powers of reasoning are in an embryo condition, that they have never had any intellectual training, and that they worship one God, and that God is their Class. Gentlemen and cads is their division of the world. For the million or so of "gentlemen," everything. For the fifty millions of cads, nothing. Such persons are always very rampant in opposition to all reforms. Their influence, however, is limited to a certain portion of the press, and to a portion of fashionable society. It is upheld for a time by the vaporings of the mighty army of toadies, who surround the charmed inclosure of high life, and leave no stone unturned to gain ever so slight a footing therein. In England when a man has retired from some plebeian occupation, his first care is to get a hanging-on-place on the outer rail of high society. To do this he joins the Tories, and becomes more Tory than the Tories themselves. We see precisely the same thing under changed

conditions here. A few ignorant or selfish persons belonging to the "upper crust," a few newspapers which are the toadies of these persons, and a great number of would-be-aristocrats—such is the poor material of which the opposition to reforms in favor of the masses is usually composed. From such antagonists we have nothing to fear.

We hold that there is no such thing as absolute property in land. Many people go farther, and say that there is no such thing as property in land at all—that land cannot be bought and sold, because no man has a right to anything in it except what he produces. Obviously, if we adopted this theory, we should not hold that landlords should be compensated for their land, nor that it should be made as easy to buy and sell a piece of land as if it were a bale of cotton, nor that a farmer's proprietary should be established. We do, however, uphold these things, because we think they are the only practical notions for our present state of society, because the adoption of the communal system of land, whether it be in itself good or bad, could not be accomplished without the most tremendous revolution that has ever taken place in the world, and because, leaving opinions aside, a farmer's proprietary has been found to work well—quite well enough for any country—and we think it is a good thing to leave well alone. I would suggest in connection with this that the Prussian system of issuing bonds to the land-



lords would be far better than paying them in cash, and that of course the credit of the English government being so good, it ought not to be necessary for the Irish peasant to pay nearly as much interest as the German peasant was obliged to do.

CHAS. STEWART PARNELL.

## NATIONALIZING THE SOIL.

By MICHAEL DAVITT, the Founder of the Land League.

IRELAND is indisputably the most heavily taxed country in Europe. Once rid of Landlordism, her other taxes would be immensely lightened. In order to meet every legitimate public charge without levying a penny of it upon the non-agricultural classes—that is, exempting all classes from both the direct and indirect taxation that is now imposed for Imperial and local government purposes—we should only have to abolish landlordism and rent for land, and place such a tax upon all land values as would meet the public expenditure as just specified. Ten per cent. on the gross annual agricultural produce of Ireland, or half what is now paid to the landlords in rent and lost to the country, would, under the national land system, carry on the civil government of Ireland, save the tenant-farmer half of what he now pays in rent, remove all the taxes that now fall upon the mercantile, commercial professions and industrial classes, and take off those duties from the commodities of daily life that burden the lives of the artisan and laboring classes, and deprive the masses of healthy and sufficient food. The State would simply be the steward of the national property. For the use of that property and the protection that would be given to the farmers and laborers who worked it from the confiscation of their interest in the same, a tax of say ten per cent. upon the estimated annual produce would be levied. This tax, instead of going into the pockets of a class, and being lost to the country, would be expended in the interests of the country and would augment the national prosperity. The former would have absolute security of tenure from the State, subject to the payment of this nominal tax, while the property which his capital and industry would create in the land which he cultivated would be his to dispose of when he pleased as tenant-right is now sold, or disposed of when farmers so desired—such tenant-right or property created in the soil by improvements not to be interfered with or taken by



the State without a full equivalent compensation being given in return by the same, agricultural laborers to be secured the occupancy of such plots of land by the State as would be sufficient to supply themselves with the independency and comforts that are claimed for them. Under the peasant proprietary plan the professional and trading classes would be exempt from direct taxes, the great industrial and laboring classes would be freed from all the tribute that is now levied upon their earnings in the shape of borough and county rates; while those duties which place nearly all the comforts and luxuries of life beyond the reach of the poorer industrial orders could be entirely removed to the direct gain of the whole community. Thus the non-agricultural classes would receive a dividend out of the annual produce of the land equivalent to what they now pay out of their earnings for the carrying on of the general and local government of the country, the education of the people, and the support of the destitute and infirm; while the farmers would possess all the security that a peasant proprietary could offer, without having to provide the purchase money which such a scheme would require them to pay for the fee simple of the land. They, like the rest of the community, would also be free from the taxes, rates and duties upon articles of consumption that now fall upon the public generally. This is what I mean by "the Land for the People."



## IRELAND'S APPEAL TO AMERICA.

BY MISS FANNY PARNELL.

"Upon the question, What is the worst bread which is eaten? one answered, in the respect of the coarseness thereof, bread made of beans. Another said, bread made of acorns. But the third hit the truth and said, bread taken out of other men's mouths, who are the proprietors thereof."

IT is a fact well known to everybody that for many years great misery has existed in a chronic form amongst the agricultural classes of Ireland. The laborer has been but a hair's-breadth better off than the pig he feeds on the refuse he himself finds it impossible to eat, and the farmer has been but a hair's-breadth better off than the laborer he employs. Hopeless, voiceless poverty, whose only care has been to save by every imaginable kind of stinting a few pennies to educate the children of the hovel, and to contribute to the support of the peasant's only consolation — his religion — has been the lot for generations upon generations of the great mass of Ireland's population.

Until lately, however, this poverty, frightful as it is, has excited but little sympathy even amongst the most liberal nations, and amongst the people that rule Ireland, and are consequently responsible for her condition, it has met chiefly with contemptuous sneers, and the assertion, repeated so often and so loudly that England has in-

duced almost every other country under the sun to believe it, that the whole root of the evil lay in the Irish character, in the natural inferiority of the Celt to the Anglo-Saxon, in the utter incapacity for progress, and the hopeless inability to help themselves, improve themselves, or govern themselves, inherent in this unfortunate race.

Now, it is an unhappy fact in human nature, that if any individual or people, who by a combination of certain qualities of hardness, toughness, selfishness, and thorough unscrupulousness, has achieved showy material successes, only insists positively enough, and blatantly enough, that the sky is black and not blue, and that the sun is the source of darkness and not of light, presently, one by one, every other individual or people begins to think that there must be something in it, or such a successful, and consequently superior individual or people would not proclaim it so incessantly; and the calumniated sky and sun having only facts in their favor,



and those counting for little against assertions when made by certain distinguished beings, it will soon become an article of universal belief that the sky is black, and that the sun does *not* give light, and a black cloud passing across the sky, or a spot in the sun, will be pointed to as incontestable proofs of the theory.

Of similar nature has been the immeasurable twaddle talked about the causes of Irish poverty, the nature of the Irish character, the radical difference between Celt and Saxon — no doubt existing, but a difference of kind and not of degree — and finally the ineradicable tendencies of the Irish to crime and pauperism.

In judging of the effects of landlordism in Ireland there are two truths in political economy to be borne in mind. The first is, that the reason the evils of the landlord system have not been felt acutely until recently in a country like England, is to be found in the fact that industry and enterprise of every sort, untrammelled by hostile legislation from aliens, have been so flourishing that no large class of the population has been at any time thrown on agriculture for its sole subsistence. There being numberless gates open for the labor, the brains, or the money of an individual, no one would rent land unless he was sure of obtaining from it a rate of remuneration similar to what he would obtain in any other employment for which he was fitted; and having rented land, no one

would invest money in improving it unless he was sure of a rate of profit equal to the general rate of profits to be obtained in other industries. This, of course, always acted as a natural check on the raising of rents, for if the landlord attempted to raise his rent beyond what the price of produce and the cost of farming warranted, the tenant had but to throw up his farm and devote his labor or his capital to some other kind of business. Not, of course, that this was always easy, but it was always at least practicable, and the effect has been, as I have said, that until within the last few years the rents in England have been at no time exorbitantly high, and the farmer has therefore lived at peace with his landlord. Contrast with this the situation of the Irish farmer. A long series of iniquitous laws, which any one who chooses may make himself acquainted with in any history of Ireland, have crushed out the industries and manufactures of the country, from its woollen and linen trades even down to its mining industries. It is true that most of the prohibitions placed on every branch of trade have been removed, but it will take many years of diligent fostering and liberal pecuniary aid from the Government, such as is bestowed freely on Scotch industries, but which Ireland unfortunately does not seem likely to get, to repair the mischief which has been done. Even now, Ireland suffers from certain unreasonable prohibitions made in the



interest of English revenues. The cultivation of tobacco, to which her soil and climate are peculiarly adapted, is forbidden by law, and, though it is also forbidden in England, as tobacco would not grow under any circumstances in the latter country, this prohibition is no hardship to the English, while it cuts off a fruitful source of wealth in Ireland. The germinating of wheat is also forbidden to Irish farmers, and while the fear of illicit distilling is made the pretext, it is not forbidden to English and Scotch farmers, amongst whom illicit distilling also prevails, especially amongst the latter. The jealousy of English manufacturers is ever on the alert, just as much as it was seventy or eighty years ago, to nip in the bud all Irish enterprises. If a factory is started in Ireland, an English company at once steps in, buys it out, and then—quietly shuts it up. With the present small minority of Irish members in the House of Commons, systematically voted down by an immense majority of English and Scotch members leagued against them, there is always danger that the influence in Parliament would be sufficient to force through it some form of hostile legislation to crush any rising industry in Ireland that promised well and excited the fears of English manufacturers. Ireland will never be safe from such legislation till she has her own parliament, and till then, the risk attending the investment of capital in Irish enterprises, both from the natural

discontent and rebellious feeling in a country that is governed against its will and held down in the position of a mere province when it ought to be a nation, and from the danger of this unfriendly legislation, will be too great to allow money to be drawn out which can be invested elsewhere with so much greater safety.

The ablest authorities have come to the conclusion that there is but one remedy for this special form of Ireland's misery. It is the establishment of a peasant proprietary. Stein and Hardenberg considered that it was the only remedy for a similar state of things in Germany, and time has shown how right they were. When Gladstone's Land Act was passed, it was thought that what are called the Bright clauses in it, providing for the extension of government aid to those tenants who wished to buy their land, would gradually lead to the establishment of a large body of peasant proprietors, similar to the English yeomanry of former times, all over the country. Unfortunately these clauses have turned out a delusion and a snare. Landlords, following their old traditions, prefer selling their estates to one person, rather than to many. Some time ago, a large estate called the Harenc estate, was put up for sale, and the tenants, who happened to be a little more comfortably off than usual, made a bid for it, exceeding by £15,000 any previous bid. Instead of accepting their bid, however, the trustee, for



reasons best known to himself, handed over the estate to a land speculator, with whom he had made a private bargain, at a lower price than that offered by the tenants.

The landlord interest rules, and is likely to rule for many years yet, in the House of Commons. In a year or two the landlords will see that their best interest lies in selling their land to the Government. Once this truth has become firmly impressed on the landlord brain, it will be but a short step to passing a bill through Parliament for raising a loan to buy up the land in Ireland. Such a loan could be raised with the greatest ease. The purchase of the whole of Ireland would cost but little more than two or three of those little wars which England so delights in. The money could be advanced to the tenants at four per cent., and interest and installments would be cheerfully paid, for though the greatest pinching and saving might be necessary for a few years, there is no pinching that would not seem easy and delightful to the peasant, spurred on by the hope of becoming a proprietor.

I have not yet sketched too roseate a prospect. Some years ago some of the lands of the Irish Church were sold by the Government to the tenants occupying them, whereby four thousand farmers were made proprietors *in futuro*, and through the misery and hardship of the last three years, these tenants have all readily paid their

interest and their installments. They have an object to pinch and suffer for. The tenant-at-will has none.

Fixity of tenure, at fair rents settled by arbitration, was a favorite scheme with that able statesman, Dr. Isaac Butt, and a bill to that effect has been brought forward by the Irish members year after year in Parliament. It has this much to be said for it (and that is a great deal), that such a system, while by no means crushing the evil of land monopoly, or providing a radical remedy for the destitution in Ireland, might still enable an increased number of farmers to lay by something every year, and thus constitute the nucleus for a fund which might, after many years, put them in some sort of position to purchase their holdings. The very slow and gradual improvement it might cause, combined with the disgust of the landlords at finding their power so much curtailed, and their consequent increased willingness to part with their estates, would probably operate so as to bring about finally the establishment of a peasant proprietary; but the process would take too long. We need a remedy that works more quickly than this—need it not only because the tenants are miserable, though this is in itself a sufficient reason, for if one important section of a community is sick, the community itself cannot be in a healthy state, but because the condition of the whole nation imperatively requires it. Every single man, woman,



and child in a country is vitally interested in the question as to whether the laws of that country are such as allow the soil to be cultivated in the most productive manner. The great game preserves and private parks of the aristocracy are directly injurious to every man, woman, and child in the land, for they cut off so much soil that should be used in producing food or raw material for manufactures. The immense quantity of waste lands is directly injurious for the same reason, and so long as the laws are such as to render it unprofitable to the farmer to reclaim these lands, by not securing to him the fruits of his industry, so long will those lands not be reclaimed, for the Irish landlords themselves make no attempts at reclamation. Again, so long as the highest incentive to industry, the magic influence of proprietorship, is withdrawn from the cultivator, so long will the ground not be cultivated in the best way, nor with the greatest painstaking; so long, therefore, will it be less productive than it ought to be. All these conditions are found in their most aggravated forms in Ireland, and as they keep the farming or laboring classes, the great buying classes, in poverty, so do they necessarily hurt and impoverish all the other producing classes. The farmer who can make no profits from his farm, and who has no standard of comfort, and the laborer to whom he pays starvation wages, are both unable to buy from the manufacturer, and manufactures of all kinds decline. There is no market for anything, prices fall, and we see what has been the scandal of the last few years, landlords raising their rents in the face of a continued fall in the price of agricultural produce. As, however, the tenants cannot go on paying these rents, the general poverty soon reacts on the landlords also, and hence the shrieks of the landlord class, now heard from one end to the other of Ireland. All, therefore, inevitably become poor together, and as there is no road to improvement open, the depression grows worse and worse, till some such crisis as a famine, by causing tremendous mortality and wholesale emigration, depopulates the country, and apparently makes things a little better for the survivors. Such a momentary gleam, however, is unreal, being founded on what can never be anything but a misfortune to any country, viz., depopulation. The politico-economical quacks of the present day prescribe emigration in much the same way as the medical quacks used to prescribe blood-letting. It is of course possible that there may be a plethora of population in a country, though China is about the only nation in which we see an apparent plethora, and that would seem to be chiefly the effect of the Chinese government's refusal to develop the internal resources of the country; but in the whole history of Ireland there never has been any excess of population. 8,000,000 of



inhabitants has been her highest total, while, if the land were properly cultivated, and if manufacturing industries were flourishing, she could support with ease from 15,000,000 to 20,000,000. Meanwhile emigration, like blood-letting, produces an apparent temporary improvement, soon followed by a worse state of things than ever. The nation, as its life-blood oozes slowly away from it, becomes exhausted and despairing. Only one thing remains alive forever, and that is the spirit of hatred and rebellion.

One word before I finish I would say to America. I would ask her to remember the words of Benjamin Franklin: "I found the people of Ireland disposed to be friends of America, in which I endeavored to confirm them, with the expectation that our growing weight might in time be thrown into their scale, and justice be obtained for them likewise." Franklin was wiser in his generation than the Know-Nothings and toadies of England of the present day. I have heard many Americans say, "Yes, we used to sympathize with Ireland, but since we have had a rebellion of our own, and suppressed it, we have no longer any sympathy with rebelliously inclined people." It would seem almost superfluous to point out to any person of intelligence the radical difference between the rebellion of the South against the central government of the United States, and the rebellions of Ireland against England.

Without entering at all into the question of the merits of America's civil war, it should yet be remembered, that the South endeavored to secede from a Union into which it had voluntarily entered, and to shake off an authority which it had itself helped to establish, and which it had always, up to that time, recognized. At no period of her history, on the other hand, did Ireland voluntarily unite herself with England. She was conquered by force of arms, and the English power is to this day kept up by a large military garrison. The consent of the people themselves was never asked to any union, and to this day the members returned by Ireland to the Imperial Parliament are outvoted in everything, and can only obtain the most trifling concessions by a system of the most determined obstruction. It is thus evident that there is no analogy whatever between the Southern rebel and the Irish one. The Southerners fought against their own government as the Puritans did in the time of Charles the First, and as the American colonists did in 1776; the Irish fought against a foreign government, imposed on them by force. The real fact is, however, that America is now so far away from her own days of suffering and feebleness, her own bitter struggle against oppression has become so much a mere matter of ancient history with her, that she has forgotten how sweet sympathy seemed to her in those days. Not in those



days did she scornfully reject friendly and sympathetic addresses from other nations, at the bidding of the English ambassador. Rebellion seemed righteous enough to her then, though it was against her own mother country. Then she was grateful for the boon of a few kind words. Irishmen led her armies to the field, fulminated against England in her legislative assemblies, and affixed their names to her Declaration of Independence. But the splendid republican heat of those days has cooled down. Patriotic Americans are not ashamed to wish out loud for a monarchy and an aristocracy. There is a class growing up, which if it could only constitute itself into a titled nobility, would throw overboard every republican principle that their forefathers have inscribed with their blood on the pages of American history. It may yet turn out that it is not hoodlums, greenbackers, or communists that will be the worst enemies of the republic, but those who ought to be its bulwarks—the respectable and monied classes.

Meanwhile to the men and women who form the backbone of this country—those who cling to the stern old political faith of Milton and Hampden, of Patrick Henry and George Washington—I appeal for sympathy for my prostrate country. To them I look for right judgment and for cheering

words to the men who are conducting our life and death struggle inside and outside the walls of Westminster. Words are but little to ask, but words from a power like America resound all over the world, and can plead, trumpet-tongued, for a down-trodden cause. Many a time when I have read churlish words of ridicule or abuse written against us by an American pen, I have said, And thou too, Brutus! England exults when she sees the nation, which from its history should be our greatest friend, stand in the ranks of those who rail at us. One of these days, however, our long agony will be ended. We shall be a free and prosperous nation, for on the road on which we have set our feet, we shall not turn back. Bloodlessly, we trust and believe, but in some way or other we mean to wrest our national autonomy from the grasp of the robber. Doubtless we shall then have sympathy and friendship “galore” extended to us, but our gratitude and our love will be to those who have spoken kindly things to us now, or who have even abstained from reviling us. It will be an opportunity for nobleness lost to the greatest nation that has ever existed, if it refuses us now the easy favor of a little charitable speech.

FANNY PARNELL.



# STATISTICAL APPENDIX.

FIGURES, if often arid, are sometimes eloquent. The subjoined tables, collated from the latest official documents within reach, will be found interesting and valuable for purposes of reference, and will afford no inconsiderable assistance towards acquiring a correct knowledge of Ireland's recent progress and present condition.

## 1.—AREA—

The area of Ireland is differently stated in different surveys, according to the allowance made for shore-line, etc. ; the following is a generally accepted table :

	Acres.
Leinster.....	4,876,211
Munster.....	6,064,579
Ulster.....	5,475,438
Connaught.....	4,392,043
Total .....	20,808,271

## 2. DISTRIBUTION—

	Acres.	Percentage.
Arable.....	13,464,300	64.7
Uncultivated.....	6,295,735	30.3
Plantations.....	374,482	1.7
Towns... ..	42,929	0.3
Water.....	630,825	3.0
Total.....	20,808,271	100.

## 3. CULTIVATION (1882)—

	Acres.
Wheat.....	152,720
Oats.....	1,397,204
Barley, Bere and Rye.....	195,577
Beans and Peas.....	11,218
Potatoes.....	837,919
Turnips.....	293,978
Other Green Crops.....	117,057
Flax.....	113,502
Meadow and Clover.....	1,964,773
Fallow.....	5,081,048

## 4. LIVE STOCK (1880)—

	No.
Cattle.....	3,921,026
Sheep.....	3,561,361
Pigs.....	849,046
Horses and Mules.....	565,717
Value, (including goats and poultry).....	£35,847,311

## 5. AGRICULTURAL HOLDINGS (1870)—

Tenants at Will.....	526,628
Leaseholders.....	115,115
Proprietary Occupants.....	20,217

## 6. SIZE OF HOLDINGS—

	1877.	1880.
Under 1 acre.....	51,910.....	50,613
Above and under 5 acres.....	66,637.....	64,292
“ 5 “ 15 “ .....	164,917.....	161,335
“ 15 “ 30 “ .....	137,791.....	136,518
“ 30 “ 50 “ .....	73,024.....	72,923
“ 50 “ 100 “ .....	55,867.....	56,229
“ 100 “ 200 “ .....	22,141.....	22,413
“ 200 “ 500 “ .....	8,158.....	8,340
“ 500 acres.....	1,518.....	1,559



## 7. WASTE LANDS—

On the authority of Mr. Griffith the quantity of uncultivated land in Ireland is stated in an official report to be, approximately, 6,290,000 acres, of which the improvable and unimprovable portions are as follows :

Improvable for tillage.....	1,425,000
“ “ pasture.....	2,330,000
Unimprovable.....	2,535,000

## 8. POPULATION—

In 1841.....	8,196,597
“ 1851.....	6,574,278
“ 1861.....	5,798,967
“ 1871.....	5,412,377
“ 1881.....	5,159,839

## 9. RATIO OF SEXES (in 1881)—

Males.....	2,522,804
Females.....	2,637,035

## 10. POPULATION BY PROVINCES—

Year,	Leinster.	Munster.	Ulster.	Connaught.
1841.....	1,982,169	2,404,460	2,389,263	1,420,705
1851.....	1,682,320	1,865,600	2,013,879	1,012,479
1861.....	1,457,635	1,513,558	1,914,236	913,135
1871.....	1,335,966	1,390,402	1,830,398	845,993
1881.....	1,275,989	1,321,118	1,741,075	821,627

## 11. RELIGIOUS PROFESSIONS—

	1871.	1881.
Roman Catholics.....	4,146,940.....	3,951,888
Protestant Episcopalians.....	685,315.....	635,670
Presbyterians and Methodists.....	559,938.....	533,172
Other Christian Denominations....	19,926.....	37,512
Jews.....	258.....	453

## 12. VITAL STATISTICS—

Year,	Births.	Deaths.	Marriages.
1869.....	145,912	90,039	27,364
1870.....	150,151	90,695	28,835
1871.....	151,665	88,720	28,960
1872.....	149,292	97,577	27,114
1873.....	144,377	97,537	26,270
1874.....	141,288	91,961	24,481
1875.....	138,320	98,114	24,037
1876.....	140,438	92,499	26,503
1877.....	139,498	93,509	25,078
1878.....	134,117	99,629	25,284
1879.....	135,408	105,432	25,254
1880.....	128,010	102,955	20,390
1881.....	125,840	90,085	21,762

## 13. PAUPERISM—

Year.	In-door Paupers.	Out-door Paupers.	Total.
1868.....	56,663	15,830	72,925
1869.....	56,934	17,320	74,743
1870.....	53,687	19,729	73,921
1871.....	50,815	23,877	74,692
1872.....	48,738	26,056	75,743
1873.....	49,856	29,232	79,649
1874.....	49,193	29,857	79,633
1875.....	49,805	30,631	80,993
1876.....	46,214	31,078	77,913
1877.....	45,762	32,128	78,528
1878.....	49,365	35,500	84,865
1879.....	51,764	39,335	91,099
1880.....	57,455	42,735	100,190
1881.....	55,304	53,638	108,942
1882.....	53,731	58,358	112,089



14. REGISTERED EMIGRATION.—

1851.....	152,060	1868.....	61,018
1852.....	190,322	1869.....	66,568
1853.....	173,148	1870.....	74,855
1854.....	140,555	1871.....	71,240
1855.....	91,914	1872.....	78,102
1856.....	90,781	1873.....	90,149
1857.....	95,081	1874.....	73,184
1858.....	64,337	1875.....	51,462
1859.....	80,599	1876.....	38,315
1860.....	84,621	1877.....	41,255
1861.....	64,292	1878.....	41,712
1862.....	70,117	1879.....	47,065
1863.....	117,229	1880.....	95,517
1864.....	114,169	1881.....	78,417
1865.....	101,497	1882 (estimated).....	101,500
1866.....	99,467	1883 ".....	115,000
1867.....	80,624		

The total registered emigration of natives of Ireland, from May 1, 1851, to December 31, 1881, was 2,715,604.

15. DWELLINGS—

The Census Commissioners of 1841 divided the dwellings of the people into four classes. The fourth and lowest class comprised mud hovels consisting of only one room ; the third class embraced a better description of cabin, built of mud, but varying from two to four rooms with windows ; the second class was composed of good farm-houses, or, in towns, houses having from five to nine rooms ; the first class included all dwellings of a better description. The following table shows the house accommodation in Ireland for four decades :

	1841.	1851.	1861.	1871.	1881.
Fourth Class.....	491,278	135,589	89,374	155,675	40,665
Third ".....	533,297	541,712	489,668	357,126	384,475
Second ".....	264,184	318,758	360,698	387,660	422,241
First ".....	40,080	50,164	55,416	60,919	66,727

16. EDUCATION—

	Number.	Pupils.
National Schools.....	7,668	596,531
Christian Brothers and other Catholic primary Schools.....	177	32,106
Protestant Episcopal Parochial.....	501	15,015
Other Societies or Boards.....	515	23,468
Private Schools.....	276	7,366
Orphanages.....	14	580
Superior Schools.....	489	20,567
Colleges.....	15	4,126

17. RAILWAYS—

	1871.	1881.
Number of Miles of Railroad in Ireland.....	1,988	2,441
Passengers carried.....	15,547,934	17,643,260
Merchandise, Minerals and Live Stock carried (tons).....	2,913,615	3,572,658
Gross Receipts.....	£2,272,386	£2,636,277

18. TERRITORIAL DIVISIONS—

MUNSTER.

Counties and Counties of Cities and Towns.	No. of Baronies.	No. of Parishes.	Acreable Extent.
1. Clare.....	11	80	827,994
2. Cork.....	23	251	1,846,333
3. " City.....	—	—	—
4. Kerry.....	8	87	1,186,126
5. Limerick.....	13	131	680,842
6. " City.....	—	—	—
7. Tipperary.....	12	193	1,061,731
8. Waterford.....	8	82	461,553
9. " City.....	—	—	—
Total.....	75	824	6,064,579



## LEINSTER.

Counties, and Counties of Cities and Towns.	No. of Baronies.	No. of Parishes.	Acreable Extent.
1. Carlow.....	7	47	221,342
2. Drogheda, Town.....	—	—	—
3. Dublin.....	10	99	226,414
4. " City.....	—	—	—
5. Kildare.....	14	116	418,436
6. Kilkenny.....	11	140	509,732
7. " City.....	—	—	—
8. Kings.....	12	51	493,985
9. Longford.....	6	26	269,409
10. Louth.....	6	64	201,906
11. Meath.....	18	146	579,899
12. Queens.....	11	53	424,854
13. Westmeath.....	12	63	453,468
14. Wexford.....	9	144	576,588
15. Wicklow.....	8	59	500,178
Total.....	124	1,008	4,876,211

## ULSTER.

Counties, and Counties of Cities and Towns.	No. of Baronies.	No. of Parishes.	Acreable Extent.
1. Antrim.....	15	75	761,877
2. Armagh.....	8	28	328,076
3. Carrickfergus. Town.....	—	—	—
4. Cavan.....	8	36	477,360
5. Donegal.....	6	51	1,193,443
6. Down.....	10	70	612,495
7. Fermanagh.....	8	23	457,195
8. Londonderry.....	6	43	518,595
9. Monaghan.....	5	23	319,757
10. Tyrone.....	4	42	806,640
Total.....	70	391	5,475,438

## CONNAUGHT.

Counties, and Counties of Cities and Towns.	No. of Baronies.	No. of Parishes.	Acreable Extent.
1. Galway.....	18	120	1,566,354
2. " Town.....	—	—	—
3. Leitrim.....	5	17	392,363
4. Mayo.....	9	73	1,363,882
5. Roscommon.....	9	58	607,691
6. Sligo.....	6	41	461,753
Total.....	47	309	4,392,043
Grand Total.....	316	2,532	20,808,271

## 19. REPRESENTATION—

Ireland is represented in the British Parliament by 4 spiritual and 28 temporal Peers and by 103 Commoners.

The House of Lords consists of 465 members; the House of Commons, 650. Thirty-two Irish counties elect 46 members; thirty-one cities and boroughs elect 37 members; (Cashel and Sligo having been disfranchised for corrupt practices); and the Dublin University elects 2.

At the last general election the 66 constituencies numbered, 231,265 qualified voters.



20. CITIES AND TOWNS WHICH ELECT MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT—

	Members	Population.		Members.	Population.
Armagh.....	1	8,952	Enniskillen.....	1	5,906
Athlone.....	1	6,617	Galway.....	2	19,820
Bandon.....	1	6,074	Kilkenny.....	1	15,609
Belfast.....	2	174,394	Kinsale.....	1	5,248
Carlow.....	1	7,773	Limerick.....	2	49,670
Carrickfergus.....	1	9,452	Lisburn.....	1	9,319
Clonmel.....	1	9,484	Londonderry.....	1	24,328
Coleraine.....	1	6,236	Mallow.....	1	4,150
Cork.....	2	97,887	New Ross.....	1	6,813
Downpatrick.....	1	4,154	Newry.....	1	14,181
Drogheda.....	1	16,135	Portarlington.....	1	2,788
Dublin.....	2	265,668	Tralee.....	1	9,701
Dundalk.....	1	10,893	Waterford.....	2	29,843
Dungannon.....	1	3,955	Wexford.....	1	11,857
Dungarvan.....	1	7,700	Youghal.....	1	6,090
Ennis.....	1	6,101			

PARLIAMENTS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

	Assembled.	Dissolved.	Duration.		Assembled.	Dissolved.	Duration.
	GEORGE III.		Yrs. m. d.		WILLIAM IV.		Yrs. m. d.
1	Sept. 27, 1796*	June 29, 1802	5 9 2	11	Jan. 29, 1833	Dec. 30, 1834	1 11 1
2	Oct. 29, 1802	Oct. 25, 1806	3 11 27	12	Feb. 19, 1835	July 17, 1837	2 4 28
3	Dec. 15, 1806	April 29, 1807	0 4 14		VICTORIA.		
4	June 22, 1807	Sept. 29, 1812	5 3 7	13	Nov. 15, 1837	June 23, 1841	3 7 8
5	Nov. 24, 1812	June 10, 1818	5 6 16	14	Aug. 19, 1841	July 23, 1847	5 11 4
6	Jan. 14, 1819	Feb. 29, 1820	1 1 15	15	Nov. 18, 1847	July 1, 1852	4 7 13
	GEORGE IV.			16	Nov. 4, 1852	Mar. 21, 1857	4 4 17
7	April 23, 1820	June 2, 1826	6 1 9	17	April 30, 1857	April 23, 1859	1 11 23
8	Nov. 14, 1826	July 24, 1830	3 8 10	18	May 31, 1859	July 6, 1865	6 1 6
	WILLIAM IV.			19	Feb. 1, 1866	Nov. 11, 1868	2 9 10
9	Oct. 26, 1830	April 22, 1831	0 5 27	20	Dec. 10, 1868	Jan. 26, 1874	5 1 16
10	June 14, 1831	Dec. 3, 1832	1 5 9	21	Mar. 5, 1874	Mar. 25, 1880	6 0 20
				22	Apr. 29, 1880	The Present Parliament.	

\* Parliament first met after the Union with Ireland, Jan. 22, 1801.



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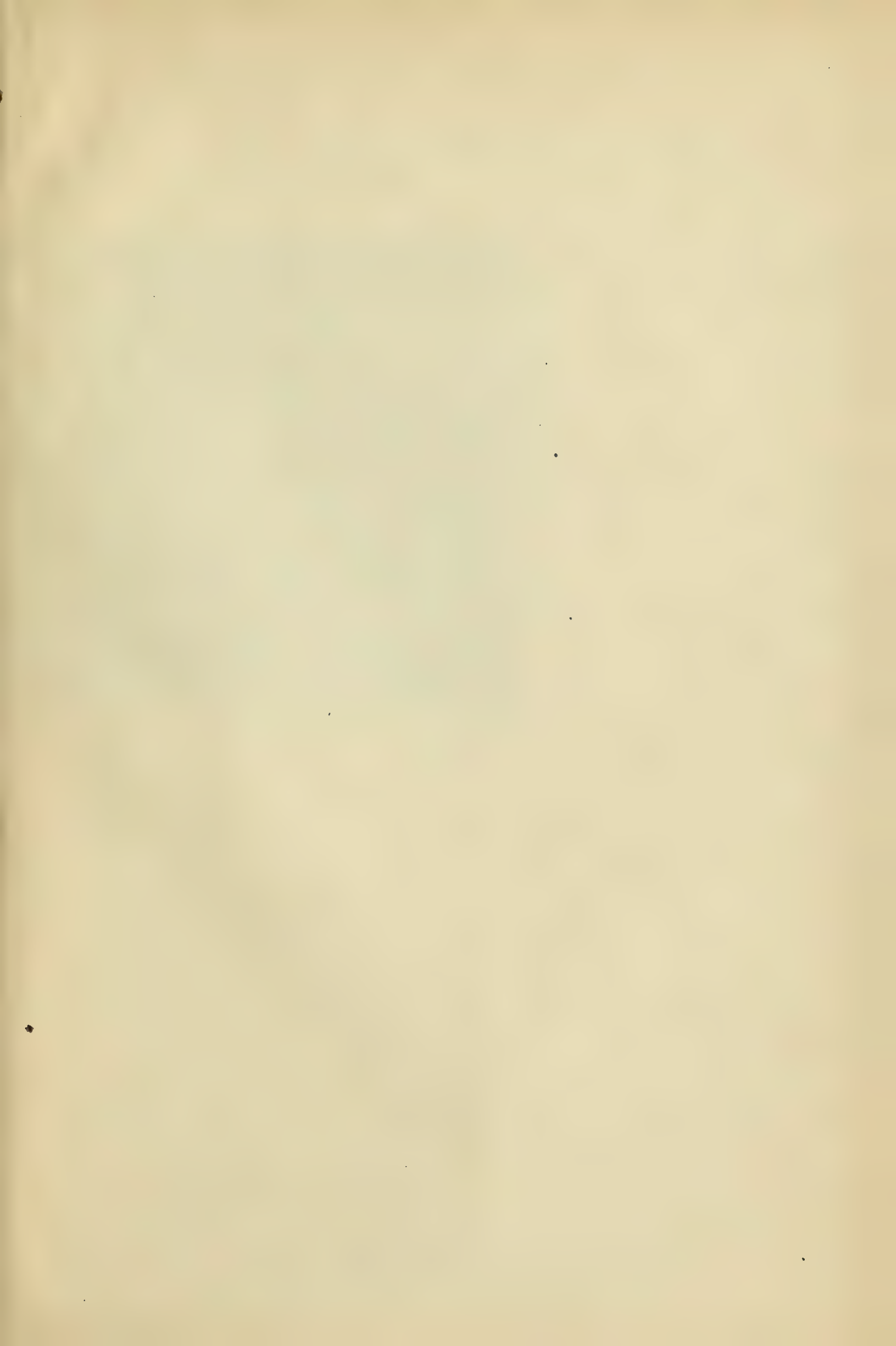
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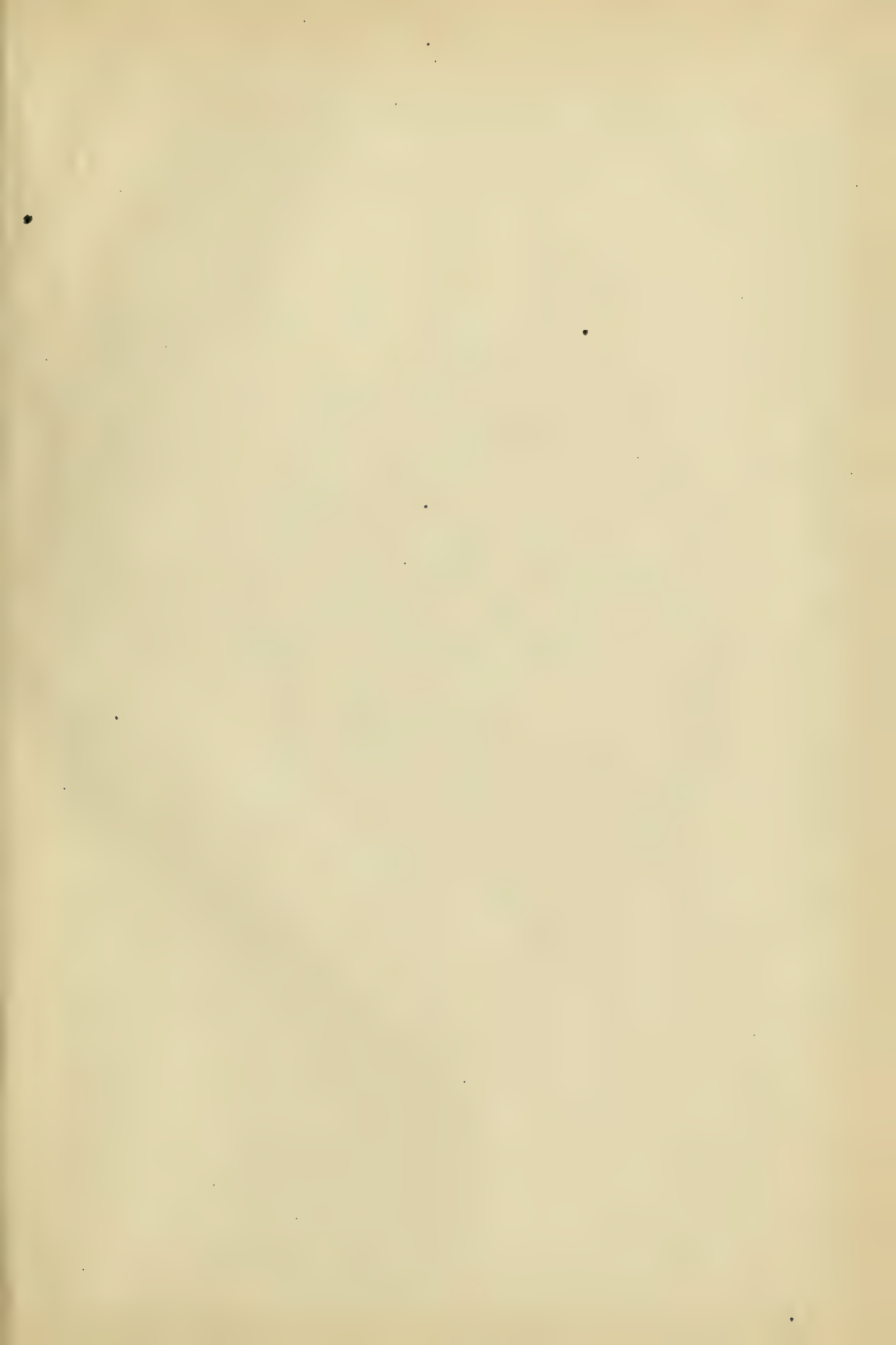


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