

Săvescu Georgiana Mona

A Brief History of the UK

(with class activities)

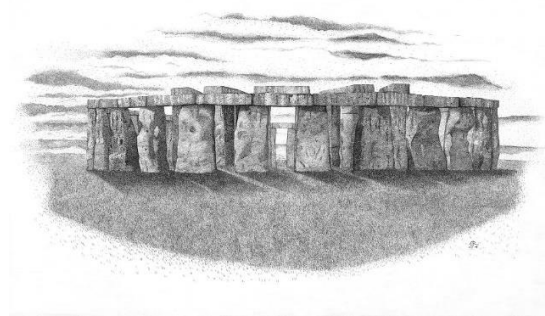


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A Timeline of British Monarchs

HOUSE OF WESSEX

ALFRED THE GREAT (AD 871-899)

EDWARD THE MARTYR (AD 975-78)

ANGLO-DANES

CNUT (1016-1035)

HAROLD I (1037-1040) – the second son of Cnut

EDWARD THE CONFESSOR (1042-1066) – son of Ethelred; stepson of Cnut (Emma, his mother married him after the death of Ethelred)

HAROLD II (1066) – the brother of Edward's wife.

HOUSE OF NORMANDY (1066-1154)

WILLIAM I THE CONQUEROR (1066-1087) – Duke of Normandy

WILLIAM II RUFUS (1087-1100) – the 4th son of William

HENRY I (1100-1135) – brother of Rufus

STEPHEN (1135-1154) – Henry's nephew

HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET (1154-1485) – there were 14 kings, belonging to different houses: Anjou, Plantagenet, York, Lancaster. The name dates back to the time of Geoffrey of Anjou who used to fasten to his helmet a sprig of broom. The Latin name of this plant is *Planta genista*.

HENRY II (1154-1189) – son of Geoffrey, Count of Anjou and Empress Matilda, the daughter of Henry I

RICHARD I (1189-1199) – son of Henry II

JOHN (1199-1216) – the youngest son of Henry II

HENRY III (1216-1272) – the eldest son of King John

EDWARD I (1272-1307) – son of Henry III

EDWARD II (1307-1327) – the 13th child of Edward I

EDWARD III (1327-1377) - the eldest son of Edward II

RICHARD II (1377-1399) – the second son of Edward the Black Prince, grandson of Edward III

HOUSE OF LANCASTER – a branch of the Plantagenet line. It originated in 1267 when the younger son of Henry III, Edmund was created Earl of Lancaster.

HENRY IV (1399-1413) – the grandson of Edward III; cousin of Richard II

HENRY V (1413-1422) – son of Henry IV

HENRY VI (1422-61; 1470-71) – son of Henry V and Catherine of Valois, daughter of the French King

HOUSE OF YORK – York's challenge for the throne came up against the Lancastrian Henry VI, through kinship with Edward III: Richard, Duke of York was the descendant of Clarence, the third son of Edward III

EDWARD IV(1462-70; 1471-83) – the eldest son of Richard, Duke of York

EDWARD V (1483) – son of Edward IV; together with his brother, he was sent to the tower by his uncle Richard III

RICAHRD III (1483-1485) – brother of Edward IV

HOUSE OF TUDOR – a house of Welsh origins. The first Tudor, Henry VII killed Richard III at Bosworth in 1485

HENRY VII (1485-1509) – descendant of the Lancastrians

HENRY VIII (1509-1547) – the 2nd son of Henry VII

EDWARD VI (1547-1553) – the only son born to Henry VIII and his third wife, Jane Seymour

LADY JANE GREY (1553) – a distant cousin of Edward VI. She was queen for 9 days and she was imprisoned by Mary I.

MARY I (1553-1558) – daughter of Henry VIII and Catherine of Aragon

ELIZABETH I (1558-1603) – daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn

HOUSE OF STUART - a Scottish dynasty which ruled for most of the 17th century.

JAMES VI (JAMES I OF ENGLAND) (1567-1625) – Elizabeth I named him her successor

CHARLES I (1625-1649) – the 2nd son of James I

INTERREGNUM (1649-1660) – Charles I was beheaded; during the 12 years that followed England was a republic, under the Protectorate of Oliver Cromwell

CHARLES II (1660-1685) – son of Charles I ; he was invited to take the English throne in 1660 (the Restoration)

JAMES II (1685-1688) – the child of Charles I ; brother of Charles II

MARY II (1689-1694) – daughter of James II

WILLIAM III (1694-1702) – also known as William of Orange (born in Holland), he was the nephew of Charles II and the grandson of Charles I. He married his cousin Queen Mary II. After her death, he reigned alone.

ANNE (1702-1714) – William's sister-in-law; Mary's sister

HOUSE OF HANOVER (1714-1901) – Sophia and her son George (of the House of Hanover) were declared Anne's successors by the Act of Settlement. They were direct descendants of James I.

GEORGE I (1714-1727) – Anne's second cousin

GEORGE II (1727-1760) – the son of George I

GEORGE III (1760-1820) – George II had no heirs; George III was the son of the Prince of Wales. His father, Frederick was George III's brother.

GEORGE IV (1820-1830) – the eldest son of George III

WILLIAM IV (1830-1837) – George IV's brother

VICTORIA (1837-1901) – William IV's niece; daughter of the Duke of Kent and his wife Victoria of Saxe-Coburg

HOUSE OF SAXE-COBURG-GOTHA – the name comes from Queen Victoria's husband, Prince Albert

EDWARD VII (1901-1910) – son of Queen Victoria and Prince Albert

HOUSE OF WINDSOR - the present-day dynasty came into being in 1917. Previously known as the House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, during WWI this title was embarrassing for the reigning monarch, George V. Thus he opted to change his name to Windsor, after England's best-known castle.

GEORGE V (1910-1936) – the second son of Edward

EDWARD VIII (1936) – son of George V; he abdicated in order to marry a divorced woman

GEORGE VI (1936-1952) – Edward VIII's brother

ELIZABETH, THE QUEEN MOTHER - the wife of George VI

ELIZABETH II (since 1952).



Ancient Britain

Britain (or more accurately, Great Britain) is the name of the largest of the British Isles, which lie off the northwest coast of continental **Europe**. The name is probably **Celtic** and derives from a word meaning 'white'; this is usually assumed to be a reference to the famous white Cliffs of Dover, which any new arrival to the country by sea can hardly miss. The first mention of the island was by the **Greek** navigator Pytheas, who explored the island's coastline, c. 325 BC.

During the early **Neolithic** Age (c. 4400 BC – c. 3300 BC), many long barrows (burial mounds) were constructed on the island, many of which can still be seen today. In the late Neolithic (c. 2900 BC – c.2200 BC), large stone circles called “hengese” appeared, the most famous of which is **Stonehenge**. They were religious, political and economic power centres. In about 1300 BC, the henges civilization was replaced by a settled, farming class.

Before **Roman** occupation the island was inhabited by a diverse number of tribes that are generally believed to be of Celtic origin, collectively known as Britons. **The Celts** are believed to have come from Russia and Central Europe and they are the ancestors of the people in Highland Scotland, Wales, Ireland and Cornwall. Much of what is known about the Celts refers to their occupations (agriculture, iron technology, advanced ploughing methods), clothing (shirts, breeches and striped or checked cloaks), tribal hierarchy (they were organized in clans and their priests, DRUIDS, played a very important role) and women’s role (the last tribal chief to put up a resistance against the Romans was QUEEN BOADICCA – 61 AD – who fought from her chariot, but was eventually defeated and killed herself). The Romans knew the island as **Britannia**, calling the population inhabiting it PRETANI.

It enters recorded history in the military reports of **Julius Caesar**, who crossed to the

island from **Gaul** (France) in both 55 and 54 BCE. The Romans invaded the island in 43 AD, on the orders of emperor **Claudius**. The main reasons for the Roman Invasion were:

1. The Celts were working with the Celts of Gaul against them, with the British Celts offering food and shelter to those of Gaul;
2. Britain was an important food producer and the Romans could therefore make use of British food for their own army fighting in Gaul.

Subsequent Roman emperors made forays into **Scotland** (Caledonia), but although northern Britain was never conquered, they left behind the great fortifications, **Hadrian's Wall** (c. 120 AD), towns and the city of Londinium, as well as infrastructure. At the end of the 4th century AD, the Roman presence in Britain was threatened by "barbarian" forces. The **Picts** (from present-day Scotland) and the **Scoti** (from **Ireland**) were raiding the coast, while the **Saxons** and the **Angles** from northern Germany were invading southern and eastern Britain. By 410 AD the **Roman army** had withdrawn. After struggles with the Britons, the Angles and the Saxons emerged as victors and established themselves as rulers in much of Britain during the Dark Ages (c. 450 - c. 800 AD).

STUDENT ACTIVITY CORNER

1. Which are the most important events and moment in this period? With your pair, complete the following table, like in the example:

When?	What?
325 BC	<i>Pytheas, a Greek sailor, sailed to the British Isles.</i>

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CASE STUDY: FAMOUS PEOPLE AND EVENTS

- ✚ In pairs/small groups, do some research about the following important people/events in the period and present your conclusions to the class.**

STONEHENGE

THE ROMAN WAY OF LIFE



The Invaders

The Anglo-Saxons

The Romans had been troubled by serious barbarian raids since around AD 360. Picts (northern Celts) from Scotland, Scots from Ireland (until AD 1400 the word 'Scot' meant an Irishman) and Saxons from Germany, all came to plunder the accumulated wealth of Roman Britain. The Roman legions began to withdraw from Britain in AD 383 to secure the Empire's borders elsewhere in mainland Europe. By AD 410 all Roman troops had been withdrawn, leaving the cities of Britain and the remaining Romano-British to fend for themselves.

As the Romans departed, so did the source of any major written historical data. For the rest of **the fifth century** and **early sixth century**, England entered what is now referred to as a period of time known as **the Dark Ages**.

A time of legend, a time perhaps of a great hero and war leader of the Britain's – **King Arthur**. Possibly a Romano-Celtic leader defending his lands from the pagan Anglo-Saxon invaders. It was during these Dark Ages that **the Anglo-Saxons** became established in eastern Britain.

The Romans had employed the mercenary services of the Saxons for hundreds of years, preferring to fight alongside them rather than against these fierce warriors. An arrangement, which probably worked well with the Roman military in place to control their numbers, using their mercenary services as required basis. Without the Romans in place at the ports of entry to issue visas and stamp passports however, immigration numbers appear to have got a little out of hand.

First Saxon warriors raided England's south and east coasts. Little mercy was shown as men, women and children were slaughtered. A British monk Adomnan, suggested a Law of Innocents to protect the women and children. The Saxons appear to have rejected this strange and foreign concept! Following these early Saxon raids, from around AD 430 a host of **Germanic migrants** arrived in east and southeast England. The main groups were **Jutes** from the Jutland peninsula (modern Denmark); **Angles** from Angeln in southwest Jutland and the **Saxons** from northwest Germany. Much fighting followed over the next hundred years or so as the invading kings and their armies established their kingdoms.

Most of these kingdoms survive to this day, and are perhaps better known as the English counties: Kent (Jutes), Sussex (south Saxons), Wessex (west Saxons), Middlesex (middle Saxons), East Anglia (east Angles).



The mighty Midlands kingdom of Mercia (west Angles) grew in importance with its warlike King Offa (757-96), established as Bretwalda, or “Britain Ruler” (King of Kings)! On the subject of King of Kings, **Christianity** also returned to the shores of southern England with the arrival of Saint Augustine in Kent in AD 597. The Kentish King Ethelbert was converted to the faith.

The **legacy** of the Anglo-Saxons is mainly to be seen in the names of settlements: *-ing* (=folk, family): Reading, Hastings; *-ham* (=farm): Birmingham, Nottingham; *-ton* (=settlement): Southampton.

The Vikings

From AD 793 a new prayer could be heard across England, “*Save us, Lord, from the fury of the Northmen!*” The Northmen, or Vikings came from **Scandinavia**. Like the Saxons before them, the Viking onslaught first started with a few bloody raids. The first recorded raids include the sacking of the monasteries at Lindisfarne, Jarrow, and Iona. A Great Army of Heathen Danes landed in East Anglia in AD 865. Within nine years the Vikings had attacked and established their rule, or *Danelaw*, over the kingdoms of Northumbria and East Anglia, their former Anglo-Saxon kings having been put to the sword.

Alfred (The Great) the Saxon king of Wessex (AD 871-99) recognised the opportunity to establish himself as Bretwalda. He added southeast Mercia as well as London and the Thames Valley to his territories and organised Anglo-Saxon resistance to the Viking onslaught. Between AD 912 and AD 954 Anglo-Saxon Wessex conquered *Danelaw* and the Viking Kingdom of York. For the first time, the England of both Vikings and Saxons was united as a country, under the rule of Athelston, grandson of Alfred.

The good times ended with arrival on the throne of **Aethelred the Unready**. He agreed to pay the Vikings a tax to make them stop raiding westwards. It was the beginning of a regular tax system. This protection money, or **Danegeld** as it was called, was obviously much easier to obtain from a frightened weak king than from a strong one. Aethelred must have been very frightened, as more Saxon coinage has to date been found in Scandinavia than has been found in England. Smelling weakness from the other side of the North Sea, an army of King Sweyn Forkbeard of Denmark conquered England in 1009. Anticipating that he may have upset Sweyn a little, by having Sweyn's sister killed a few years earlier, Aethelred fled abroad.

Sweyn, was followed by his son **Canute**, and subsequently his son **Harthcanute – The Three Danish Kings of England**.

When Harthcanute died in 1042, **Edward (later known as The Confessor)** was chosen as king. Edward was a Saxon – his real father was Aethelred the Unready.

As established previously, anything to do with Aethelred was generally considered 'bad news' for England. Edward's mother was from Normandy in northern France. The area had been gifted to the *Nor(th)men* or Vikings by the king of France, some 150 years earlier. Edward had spent much of his youth in Normandy, and Norman influence was evident in his London court.

Amongst many Norman visitors to Edwards's court came the Duke of Normandy himself, a red haired man named William. It was during this visit in 1052 that Edward the Confessor is said to have promised the Crown of England to William.

On the 5th January 1066 Edward died. The Witan (a council of high ranking men), elected **Harold Godwin, Earl of Wessex**, to be the next king of England. Back at home in Normandy, William had some problems in coming to terms with this decision. As a result, he decided to challenge Harold's right to the throne. The latter had to march to Yorkshire to defeat the Danes and William took advantage of the situation and landed in England. Near **Hastings** (1066), Harold's tired army was defeated by William, Duke of

Normandy, who had better organized soldiers mounted on horses. Thus, he became **William, the Conqueror**.

The Norman Conquest

William, the Conqueror was crowned in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day, 1066. Sporadic revolts continued until 1071; the most serious, in Northumbria (1069–70), was suppressed by William himself. The subjection of the country was completed by the rapid building of a great number of castles.

The extent and desirability of the changes brought about by the conquest have long been disputed by historians. Certainly, in political terms, William's victory destroyed England's links with Scandinavia, bringing the country instead into close contact with the Continent, especially France. Inside England the most radical change was the introduction of **land tenure** and **military service**. The **Feudal system** ensured William's supremacy over all lords, for all the land was owned by the king and only given to his lords to administer in return for military service and products. The two main principles of Feudalism were: *every man had a lord* and *every lord had land*. While tenure of land in return for services had existed in England before the conquest, William revolutionized the upper ranks of English society by dividing the country among about 180 Norman tenants-in-chief and innumerable intermediate tenants, all holding their fiefs or estates by knight service. The result, the almost total replacement of the English aristocracy with a Norman one, was paralleled by similar changes of personnel among the upper clergy and administrative officers. He replaced all the Anglo-Saxon bishops, except Wulfstan of Dorchester, with Norman bishops.

Probably the most regrettable effect of the conquest was the total eclipse of the English vernacular as the language of literature, law, and administration. Superseded in official documents and other records by Latin and then increasingly in all areas by Anglo-Norman, written English hardly reappeared until the 13th century.

STUDENT ACTIVITY CORNER

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KING ALFRED THE GREAT

KING ARTHUR

THE VIKING GODS

THE BAYEUX TAPESTRY



The Early Middle Ages

Ruling family	English King	Dates
HOUSE OF NORMANDY	William I	1066-1087
	William II	1087-1100
	Henry I	1100-1135
HOUSE OF BLOIS	Stephen	1135-1154
HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET	Henry II	1154-1189
	Richard I	1189-1199
	John	1199-1216
	Henry III	1216-1272

In the early Middle Ages, there was little or no idea of nationalism. Even if William ruled over Normandy and England, for him it made no difference that the people he ruled were both French and English. He only wanted to know exactly what his new kingdom consisted of, so he commissioned **The Domesday Book (1085)**, which recorded all of William's English possessions, and which was, in effect, the first national census.

When William died (1087), he left Normandy to his elder son, **Robert**, and England to his second son, **William Rufus** (lat. Red – he had red hair). He ruled between 1087-1100. While his brother Robert was fighting the Muslims in the Holy Land, he left William II Rufus in charge of Normandy too. In 1100 William died in a hunting accident and, as he had no wife or children, his younger brother, **Henry** (1100-1135), knowing that Robert was away in the Holy Land, acted quickly and was crowned king three days later at Westminster.

Robert was very angry and prepared to invade, but it took him a year to gather an army. The nobles chose to support Henry, the crowned king. As a result, Robert's invasion was

a failure and he was paid to return to Normandy. In 1106, Henry invaded Normandy, captured Robert and reunited England and Normandy under the same ruler. His dream was to pass on both countries to his successor. Since his son drowned while still a child, Henry was succeeded by his daughter, **Matilda**, who was married to a great noble in France, Geoffrey Plantagenet, heir to Anjou (region in France to the south-west of Normandy). Just before his death, Henry quarreled with Geoffrey and left succession in question.

As Matilda was with her husband in France, **Stephen de Blois** (1135-1154), Henry's nephew, raced to England and claimed the throne. Matilda invaded four years later, but in the ensuing battle neither side won, so in 1153 they reached an agreement: Stephen could be king if Matilda's son was to be his successor. When Stephen died the next year, Henry II (1154-1189), Matilda's son became king. He ruled over the largest empire to be held by a British ruler in the Middle Ages: England and Normandy (inherited from his mother, Matilda), Anjou (inherited from his father, Geoffrey Plantagenet) and Aquitaine (lands south of Anjou, owned by his wife, Eleanor). Although in France he recognized the French king as overlord, in practice he owned more territories than the former.

Henry II quarrelled with his wife and two sons, Richard and John, both of whom succeeded him to the throne.

Richard, the Lionheart (1189-1199) was a brave and popular king, who embodied the perfect feudal king. He fought the Muslims in the Holy Land, but on his way back he was captured by the Duke of Austria, with whom he had quarrelled in Jerusalem. It took the English two years to pay the money the Duke had asked in order to let Richard go. When he died, the French king took parts of the lands he owned in France.

As Richard had no heirs, **John** (1199-1216) followed him. Because of his greed, though, he was very unpopular. John asked for more money than it was usual to pay for a noble's daughter to marry or for a noble's son to inherit his father when the latter died. He also taxed merchants at a higher level than before.

In 1204, when the French king invaded Normandy, John failed to protect his nobles' lands there. In 1209, he quarrelled with the Pope over who should be Archbishop of Canterbury. These acts lost him the trust of his nobles, and in 1215, at Runnymede, outside London, King John was forced by a council of nobles to sign **The Magna Carta**, a document which restricted the absolute powers of the monarch.

The Magna Carta (1215)

It was the first formal document stating that a King had to follow the laws of the land and it guaranteed the rights of individuals against the wishes of the King. This meant people could not be arrested, imprisoned or have their possessions taken away except by the judgement of his equals and/or the law of the land. This laid the way for trial by jury which means people are tried by their peers and guaranteed the civil rights of the individual.

The Magna Carta established the principle that the people of England, at this stage represented by the Barons, could limit the power of a King, if he was doing things that were not good for the country. A committee of 24 nobles was established for this purpose.

Another important aspect was that by recognizing the nobles as a class, it marked the collapse of Feudalism.

The Beginnings of Parliament

Henry III (1216 - 1272) was not a soldierly king. His half-hearted campaigns in France were unsuccessful in regaining lands lost by his father, John. By the Treaty of Paris (1259) he admitted failure and secured remote Gascony by giving up claims to lands in northern France, including iconic Normandy. When he became king, he was only 9, so he had to rule under the control of the nobles and tied by the Magna Carta. At the age of 25, he wanted to rule by himself, but the nobles were upset with his heavy spending and foreign advisors. Therefore, in 1258, they elected a Council of nobles, under the leadership of **Simon de Montfort**, which they called *parliament* or *parlement* (French word for "discussion meeting"). Its tasks were to make laws and political decisions. As the parliament was supported by the masses, it managed to make Henry get rid of his advisors and take control of the treasury.

With the help of some nobles who remained loyal to the king, Henry managed to kill Simon in 1265 and regain full authority.

In 1275, Henry's son, **Edward I** brought together the first real Parliament. This was in fact a representative institution, which could provide the money the king needed. It became the "House of Commons" and it contained a mixture of "gentry" (knights and freemen from the shires) and merchants. These were the two classes of people who produced and controlled wealth. Each shire and each town sent a representative, whether they wanted to or not, as no one dared to challenge Edward and face the consequences of his anger. Even if the parliament was formed of people who were unwillingly sent there, it still was the beginning of the idea that there should be no taxation without representation. During

the next 150 years, the agreement of the Commons was necessary for the making of all statutes and for all special taxation, additional to regular taxes.

Law and Justice

The king was responsible for law and justice. He was helped in the territory by nobles, while the king tried more serious offences.

Henry I appointed a number of judges to travel from place to place and to administer justice. At first, these judges had no special training or knowledge, being mainly nobles or bishops. This situation lasted only until the end of the 12th century. The law they administered was known as **COMMON LAW**, as it was used everywhere. The system was based on custom, comparisons and previous cases of decisions. From Anglo-Saxon times, there were two other ways of deciding more difficult cases: *trial by ordeal* and *trial by combat*. The former was replaced with *trial by jury* at the end of the 12th century.

Language. Literature. Culture

The 12th century marked the beginning of a cultural movement in Italy, which spread to England, too – **The Renaissance**. It was a revolution in ideas that promoted reason instead of religious beliefs. The Renaissance marked the start of modern England as modern towns began to emerge. Libraries were established and art became more appreciated.

Schools of learning were established in many towns. All of them taught Latin. The universities of Oxford (1096) and Cambridge (1209) were established in the period.

STUDENT ACTIVITY CORNER

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CASE STUDY: FAMOUS PEOPLE AND EVENTS

- ✚ In pairs/small groups, do some research about the following important people/events in the period and present your conclusions to the class.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST – The French in England

ROBIN HOOD – The legend



NO FREE MAN
SHALL BE SEIZED
OR IMPRISONED...
EXCEPT BY THE
LAWFUL JUDGEMENT
OF HIS EQUALS OR BY
THE LAW OF THE LAND.
MAGNA CARTA, 1215



MAGNA CARTA, 1215 ~ FOUNDATION OF LIBERTY



The Late Middle Ages

HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET	Edward I (son of Henry III)	1272-1307
	Edward II	1307-1327
	Edward III	1327-1377
	Richard II (grandson of Edward III – son of The Black Prince)	1377-1399
HOUSE OF LANCASTER	Henry IV (grandson of Edward III – son of John of Gaunt)	1399-1413
	Henry V	1413-1422
	Henry VI	1422-1461
HOUSE OF YORK	Edward IV (youngest son of Edward III)	1461-1483
	Edward V	1483
	Richard III	1483-1485

Famine and Plagues

England in the middle ages was overcome by several famines and plagues that ruined the societal, economic and political achievements. Between 1300 and 1485, climate changes characterized by wet summers and cold winters precipitated **the Great Famine** of 1315 – 1322, in which millions of people died.

The Black Death was yet another catastrophe that served to sweep out almost half of Europe's population in a single year. In both England and Ireland, the population was about 8 million, but by the end of the plague, the population had dwindled to 3 million. It broke out in 1348 and spread all over Britain in one year.

The Hundred Years War (1337-1453)

The Hundred Years' War, an intermittent struggle between England and France in the 14th–15th century over a series of disputes, including the question of the legitimate succession to the French crown. The struggle involved several generations of English and French claimants to the crown and actually occupied a period of more than 100 years. By convention it is said to have started in **1337** and ended in **1453**, but there had been periodic fighting over the question of English fiefs in France going back to the 12th century.

Small disputes and battles had been going on between the French and the English for years. However, in 1337, King Edward III of England claimed that he was the rightful king of France. This began the long battle between the two countries.

Other disputes kept the fighting going for over one hundred years. These included the control of the valuable wool trade, disputes over certain areas of land, and the support for Scotland by the French.

Edward III: King Edward III believed that he was the rightful heir to the French crown through his mother Isabella. He first laid claim to the throne when he was fifteen years old and King Charles IV of France died without a male heir. Instead of Edward, the French chose Philip to be their king.

When King Philip VI of France took control of Aquitaine from the English in 1337, King Edward III decided to fight back. He decided to invade France and reassert his right to the French throne.

The Black Prince: in the 1350s, the army of King Edward III was led by his son, the valiant Edward the "Black Prince". The Black Prince became a famous hero to the English and was known for his chivalry. The Black Prince led the English to major victories over the French. At the battle of Poitiers (1356), the Black Prince captured King John II, the current King of France.

King Edward agreed to release King John II for a ransom of three million crowns and some additional land. When King Edward died, the son of the Black Prince, **Richard II** became King. He was only 10 years old. There was a period of relative peace between England and France.

The Battle of Agincourt: when King **Henry V** became king of England in 1413, he once again laid claim to the throne of France. He invaded France and won a decisive battle at Agincourt where, with only around 6,000 soldiers he defeated a much larger French force of around 25,000. Eventually, the French gave in and King Charles VI named

Henry as the heir to the throne.

Joan of Arc: many of the people in southern France did not accept English rule. In 1428 the English began to invade southern France. They began a siege of the city of Orleans. However, a young peasant girl by the name of Joan of Arc took leadership of the French army. She claimed to have seen a vision from God. She led the French to a victory at Orleans in 1429. She led the French to several more victories before she was captured by the English and burned at the stake.

End of the War: the French were inspired by Joan of Arc's leadership and sacrifice. They continued to fight back. They pushed the English army out of France, taking Bordeaux in 1453, signaling the end of the Hundred Years War. Britain lost all its French possessions, except for Calais.

The Crisis Years

During **Richard II's** reign (1377-1399), who became king at only 11 upon the death of his father, Edward, the Black Prince, a tax was introduced, to be paid by all people over the age of 15. This tax increased three times in 1381. For this reason, and because the landlords wanted to force the peasants back into serfdom, a rebellion started in East Anglia and Kent. It was known as **the Peasant's Revolt** and it was led by Wat Tyler. The rebellion was put out after only four weeks and their leader was killed.

The War of the Roses (1460-1485)

Fought between the **Houses of Lancaster and York** for the English throne, the wars were named many years afterward from the supposed badges of the contending parties: the white rose of York and the red of Lancaster. Both houses claimed the throne through descent from the sons of Edward III. The Plantaganet **King Henry VI** was a weak king, married to an ambitious French princess, Margaret of Anjou. At this time, there was a complex series of rivalries and jealousies at court between powerful noble families. The Queen and her circle of nobles were known as **Lancastrians** after Henry's surname of Lancaster. The party of nobles who opposed the Queen and the Lancastrians was led by **Richard, Duke of York**, Henry's cousin, who was also descended from King Edward III and therefore also had a claim to the throne of England. They were known as **Yorkists**. Henry VI suffered from periods of insanity. During one of these periods in 1454, Richard of York was appointed 'Protector of the Realm'. His first act was to dismiss some of the

Queen's Lancastrian advisors, which caused great bad feeling. The King recovered some months later and York was summarily dismissed. Henry VI was eventually forced to abdicate in 1461 and died ten years later in prison, possibly murdered. In his place ruled **Edward IV** of the house of York who managed to get his dubious claim to the throne legitimized by Parliament. When Edward died in 1483 his son, **Edward V**, aged twelve, followed him. In light of his youth Edward's uncle **Richard, Duke of Gloucester**, acted as regent. Traditional history, written by later Tudor historians seeking to legitimize their masters' past, has painted Richard as the archetypal wicked uncle. The truth may not be so clear cut. Some things are known, or assumed, to be true. Edward and his younger brother were put in the Tower of London, ostensibly for their own protection. Richard had the "Princes in the Tower" declared illegitimate, which may possibly have been true. He then got himself declared king. He may have been in the right, and certainly England needed a strong and able king. But it all changed when the princes disappeared and were rumoured to have been murdered by his orders.

The Battle of Bosworth Field: Henry, a distant challenger, descendant of John of Gaunt, came from Wales, seizing the opportunity, and defeated and killed Richard at the Battle of Bosworth Field (1485). The crown is said to have been found hanging upon a bush, and it was placed on Henry's head there on the field of battle. Bosworth marked the end of the Wars of the Roses. There was no one else left to fight. It also marked the end of the feudal period of English history. With the death of Richard III the crown passed from the Plantagenet line to the new **House of Tudor**, and a new era of history began.

STUDENT ACTIVITY CORNER

1. Which are the most important events and moment in this period? With your pair, complete the following table, like in the example:

When?	What?
325 BC	<i>Pytheas, a Greek sailor, sailed to the British Isles.</i>

CASE STUDY: FAMOUS PEOPLE AND EVENTS

- ✚ In pairs/small groups, do some research about the following important people/events in the period and present your conclusions to the class.

THE BLACK DEATH



The House of Tudors

(1485-1603)

Henry VII (1485-1509): having defeated Richard III at the Battle of Bosworth Field, gained parliamentary approval and married a member of his rival family (Elizabeth of York), Henry was crowned king. He took part in diplomatic negotiations to secure his position, making agreements both at home and abroad, before instituting a reform of government, increasing royal administrative control and improving the royal finances. On his death, he left a stable kingdom and a wealthy monarchy. Henry VII believed trade and business were good for the country, while war was not and he understood earlier than everyone that England's future would depend on international trade. For this reason he built ships for a merchant fleet. He fought hard politically to establish himself and his family against the doubters and bring England together behind him. He has to go down as a major success, but one totally overshadowed by his son and grandchildren.

Henry VIII (1509-1547): the most famous English monarch of all, Henry VIII is best known for his six wives, the result of a desperate drive to produce healthy male heirs to carry the Tudor dynasty forward. Another consequence of this need was **the English Reformation**, as Henry split the English Church away from the Pope and Catholicism in order to divorce. The Reformation's roots were both political and religious. Henry VIII, incensed by Pope Clement VII's refusal to grant him an annulment of his marriage with Catherine of Aragon, repudiated papal authority and in 1534 established **the Anglican Church** with the king as the supreme head. In spite of its political implications, the reorganization of the church permitted the beginning of religious change in England, which included the preparation of a liturgy in English and the Book of Common Prayer. However, Henry's break with The Catholic Church was more of a political and financial decision than a religious one. Henry himself had been a true Catholic believer, having been named by the Pope FIDEI DEFENSOR, for his belief in the Catholic faith. But his desire to divorce and become Head of the Church of England in order to gain more power over the church possessions was greater than his initial faith, which prompted his break with the Catholic Church.

Once he became Head of the Church by the Act of Supremacy (1534), together with his chief minister Thomas Cromwell, he made a survey of the Church properties and closed down 500 monasteries between 1536-1539, in order to confiscate their wealth. Henry's reign also saw the emergence of the Royal Navy as a powerful force, changes in government which bound the monarch tighter to parliament, and perhaps the apogee of personal rule in England. When he died, he left behind his sixth wife, Catherine Parr and his three children: Mary (daughter of Catherine of Aragon), Elizabeth (daughter of Anne Boleyn) and Edward, his only surviving son from his wife Jane Seymour.

Edward VI (1547-1553): the son which Henry VIII much desired, Edward inherited the throne as a boy and died only six years later, his reign having been dominated by two ruling councilors, Edward Seymour and John Dudley. They carried on the Protestant Reformation and introduced a new prayer book in 1552.

Lady Jane Grey (1553): the great tragic figure of the Tudor era. Thanks to the machinations of John Dudley, Edward VI was initially succeeded by Lady Jane Grey, fifteen-year-old great-granddaughter of Henry VII and devout Protestant. However, Mary, although Catholic, had far greater support, and Lady Jane's supporters swiftly changed their allegiances. She was executed in 1554, having done little personally beyond being used by others as a figurehead.

Mary I (1553-1558): was the first queen to rule England in her own right. A pawn of potential marriage alliances in her youth, although none came to fruition, she was also declared illegitimate when her father, Henry VIII, divorced her mother Catherine, and was only later brought back into the succession. On taking the throne, Mary took part in an unpopular marriage to Philip II of Spain and returned England to the Catholic faith. Her actions in bringing back the heresy laws and executing 300 Protestants earned her the nickname Bloody Mary. But Mary's life isn't just a tale of religious killing. She was desperate for an heir, resulting in a false but very advanced pregnancy, and as a woman fighting to rule a nation, broke the barriers Elizabeth later walked through.

Elizabeth I (1558-1603): Henry VIII's youngest daughter, Elizabeth was one of the nation's most highly regarded monarchs. Elizabeth returned the country to the Protestant faith, fought wars against Spain and Spanish-backed forces to protect England and other Protestant nations, and cultivated a powerful image of herself as a virgin queen wedded to her nation. The most important achievements of her reign were:

- She encouraged merchant expansion. Spain was England's major trade rival also became its worst enemy. When Spain came to control The Netherlands, England supported the latter, defeating the famous Spanish fleet Armada in 1588.

- She encouraged settlers to form colonies in The New World. Sir Walter Raleigh established the colony of Virginia. During her reign, slave trade to the colonies was initiated.
- She established “charters” – companies to which she granted the right to do all business in a trade or in a region, in return for shares of the profit: The East India Company (spices), The Levant Company (trade with The Ottoman Empire), The Africa Company (slaves).


When Elizabeth I died, she was the last of the Tudor monarchs. She was followed by James Stuart from Scotland, the first of **the Stuart dynasty** and a descendant of Henry VIII’s eldest sister, Margaret.

STUDENT ACTIVITY CORNER

1. Which are the most important events and moment in this period? With your pair, complete the following table, like in the example:

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CASE STUDY: FAMOUS PEOPLE AND EVENTS

 In pairs/small groups, do some research about the following important people/events in the period and present your conclusions to the class.

HENRY VIII – What is he famous for?

ELIZABETH I – The Virgin Queen

The House of Stuarts

(1603-1714)

The Stuarts were the first kings of **the United Kingdom**. King James I of England who began the period was also King James VI of Scotland, thus combining the two thrones for the first time.

The Stuart dynasty reigned in England and Scotland from **1603 to 1714**, a period which saw a flourishing Court culture but also much upheaval and instability, plague, fire and war. The most important aspects of the period were:

- an age of intense religious debate and radical politics. Both contributed to a bloody civil war in the mid-seventeenth century between Crown and Parliament (the Cavaliers and the Roundheads), resulting in a parliamentary victory for Oliver Cromwell and the dramatic execution of King Charles I.
- there was a short-lived republic, the first time that the country had experienced such an event (1649-1660).
- the Restoration of the Crown was soon followed by another 'Glorious' Revolution. William and Mary of Orange ascended to the throne as joint monarchs and defenders of Protestantism, followed by Queen Anne, the second of James II's daughters.
- the end of the Stuart line with the death of Queen Anne led to the drawing up of the **Act of Settlement** in 1701, which provided that only Protestants could hold the throne.
- the next in line according to the provisions of this act was **George of Hanover**.

James I (r. 1603-1625): had been King of Scotland for 36 years when he became King of England. He ordered a new translation of the Bible which became known as **King James's Version of the Bible**. James was fairly tolerant in terms of religious faith, but **the Gunpowder Plot** (an attempt by Guy Fawkes and other Roman Catholic conspirators to blow up the Houses of Parliament) in 1605 resulted in the reimposition of strict penalties on Roman Catholics.

He believed that kings took their authority from God, but he accepted that his actions were subject to the law. Unable, like many of his predecessors, to put royal finances on a sound footing, James was often in dispute with his Parliaments. The outbreak of the Thirty Years War 1618-48 in Europe and financial pressures forced James in 1621 to

summon Parliament, but when the House of Commons tried to debate wider aspects of foreign policy and asserted their right to discuss any subject, James dissolved it.

Charles I (r. 1625-1649): was the second son of James VI of Scotland (from 1603 also James I of England) and Anne of Denmark. He became heir to the throne on the death of his brother, Prince Henry, in 1612. He succeeded, as the second Stuart King of England, in 1625. Controversy and disputes marked Charles' reign. They eventually led to civil wars, first with the Scots from 1637 and later in England (1642-46 and 1648). The wars deeply divided people at the time, and historians still disagree about the real causes of the conflict, but it is clear that Charles was not a successful ruler.

He married a Roman Catholic, Henrietta Maria of France, and this only made matters worse.

Although he had inherited disagreements with Parliament from his father, his own actions (particularly engaging in ill-fated wars with France and Spain at the same time) eventually brought about a crisis in 1628-29. The tensions between the King and Parliament centred around finances and were made worse by the costs of war abroad, and by religious suspicions at home. As a consequence, he dismissed his fourth Parliament in March 1629 and decided to make do without either its advice or the taxes, which it alone could grant legally. However, finally he was forced to call another Parliament in November 1640. The King agreed that Parliament could not be dissolved without its own consent, and the **Triennial Act** of 1641 meant that no more than three years could elapse between Parliaments.

The Irish uprising of October 1641 raised tensions between the King and Parliament over the command of the Army. **The Civil War** (1642-1645) had begun. In this military conflict, the king's army – The Royalists – and the army of the Parliament – The Parliamentarians or The Roundheads – confronted. Charles' men were underpaid and defeated by the other side in 1645. The Army, concluding that permanent peace was impossible whilst Charles lived, decided that the King must be put on trial and executed (1649), as he was guilty of "making war against his country and the Parliament". The Civil War was essentially a confrontation between the monarchy and Parliament over the definitions of the powers of the monarchy and Parliament's authority.

Interregnum (1649-1660): **Oliver Cromwell's** convincing military successes at Drogheda in Ireland (1649), Dunbar in Scotland (1650) and Worcester in England (1651) forced Charles I's son, Charles, into foreign exile despite being accepted as King in Scotland. From 1649 to 1660, England was therefore a **republic** during a period known as the Interregnum ('between reigns'). A series of political experiments followed, as the country's rulers tried to redefine and establish a workable constitution without a monarchy. Cromwell's relationship with Parliament was a troubled one, with tensions over the nature of the constitution and the issue of supremacy, control of the armed forces and debate over religious toleration. In 1653 Parliament was dissolved, and under the

Instrument of Government, Oliver Cromwell became **Lord Protector**, later refusing the offer of the throne. After Cromwell's death in 1658, and the failure of his son Richard's short-lived Protectorate, the army under General Monk invited Charles I's son, Charles, to become King (**The Restoration of the Monarchy**).

Charles II (r. 1660-1685): pursued a policy of political tolerance and power-sharing. He intended to put an end to religious disagreements between Catholics and Protestants, but was not supported by the Parliament, which passed a law in 1673, stating that no Catholic could hold high positions in the state. The early years of Charles's reign saw an appalling plague which hit the country in 1665 with 70,000 dying in London alone, and the Great Fire of London in 1666 which destroyed St Paul's amongst other buildings. Another misfortune was the second Dutch war of 1665 (born of English and Dutch commercial and colonial rivalry). Although the Dutch settlement of New Amsterdam was overrun and renamed New York before the war started, by 1666 France and Denmark had allied with the Dutch.

During his reign 2 **political parties** emerged:

- **The Whigs** (nickname coming from the rude word for cattle drivers): they were afraid of absolute monarchs and advocated for religious freedom (more liberal in thinking). They were against Catholics and wanted to prevent Charles' brother, James, a Catholic, from succeeding him to the throne.
- **The Tories** (Irish name for thieves): they supported the Crown and the Church (more conservative).

Charles died in 1685, becoming a Roman Catholic on his deathbed.

James II (r. 1685-1688): was the Roman Catholic brother of Charles II. He ruled without Parliament. He attempted to promote the Roman Catholic cause. When his second (Roman Catholic) wife, Mary of Modena, gave birth on 10 June 1688 to a son (James Stuart), it seemed that a Roman Catholic dynasty would be established. **William of Orange**, Protestant husband of James's elder daughter, **Mary** (by James's first and Protestant wife, Anne Hyde), was therefore welcomed when he **invaded on 5 November 1688**. The Army and the Navy (disaffected despite James's investment in them) deserted to William, and James fled to France. James's attempt to regain the throne by taking a French army to Ireland failed - he was defeated at the **Battle of the Boyne** in 1690. James spent the rest of his life in exile in France, dying there in 1701.

William III (r. 1689-1702) and Mary II (r. 1689-1694): in 1689 Parliament declared that James had abdicated by deserting his kingdom. William (reigned 1689-1702) and Mary (reigned 1689-94) were offered the throne as joint monarchs (this act makes the Parliament the most important force in the state, by being able to choose the monarch). The event was called **The Glorious Revolution** (1688). They accepted a Declaration of Rights (later a Bill), drawn up by a Convention of Parliament, which limited the Sovereign's power, reaffirmed Parliament's claim to control taxation and legislation, and

provided guarantees against the abuses of power which James II and the other Stuart Kings had committed. The exclusion of James II and his heirs was extended to exclude all Catholics from the throne. Such was the power of the Parliament that the Sovereign was not allowed to interfere with elections or freedom of speech, and was required to summon Parliament frequently; Parliament tightened control over the King's expenditure; the King was forbidden to maintain a standing army in time of peace without Parliament's consent. However, the Sovereign could still summon and dissolve Parliament, appoint and dismiss Ministers, veto legislation and declare war.

The result of the "Glorious Revolution" (1688) was a permanent shift in power; although the monarchy remained of central importance, Parliament had become a permanent feature of political life. After 1688 there was a rapid development of party. Although the Tories had fully supported the Revolution, it was the Whigs (traditional critics of the monarchy) who supported William and consolidated their position.

The Act of Settlement of 1701 was designed to secure the Protestant succession to the throne, and to strengthen the guarantees for ensuring a parliamentary system of government. According to this law, only Protestants could inherit the throne.

Mary died of smallpox in 1694, aged 32, and without children. William died as a result of complications from a fall whilst riding at Hampton Court in 1702.

Queen Anne (r. 1702-1714): on William's death in 1702, his sister-in-law Anne (Protestant younger daughter of James II and his first wife) succeeded him. Party politics became more significant throughout Anne's reign, with Whigs (who supported limited monarchy, and whose support tended to come from religious dissenters) and Tories (who favoured strong monarchy and the religious status quo embodied in the Church of England) competing for power. **In 1707 the two Parliaments (of England and Scotland) agreed to unite – The Act of Union.** Henceforth one British Parliament would sit at Westminster, and there would be a common flag and coinage. Scotland would, however, retain its own established Church and its legal and educational systems.

Anne died childless in 1714 and succession appointed Sophia of Hanover, niece of Charles I, according to the Act of Settlement.

STUDENT ACTIVITY CORNER

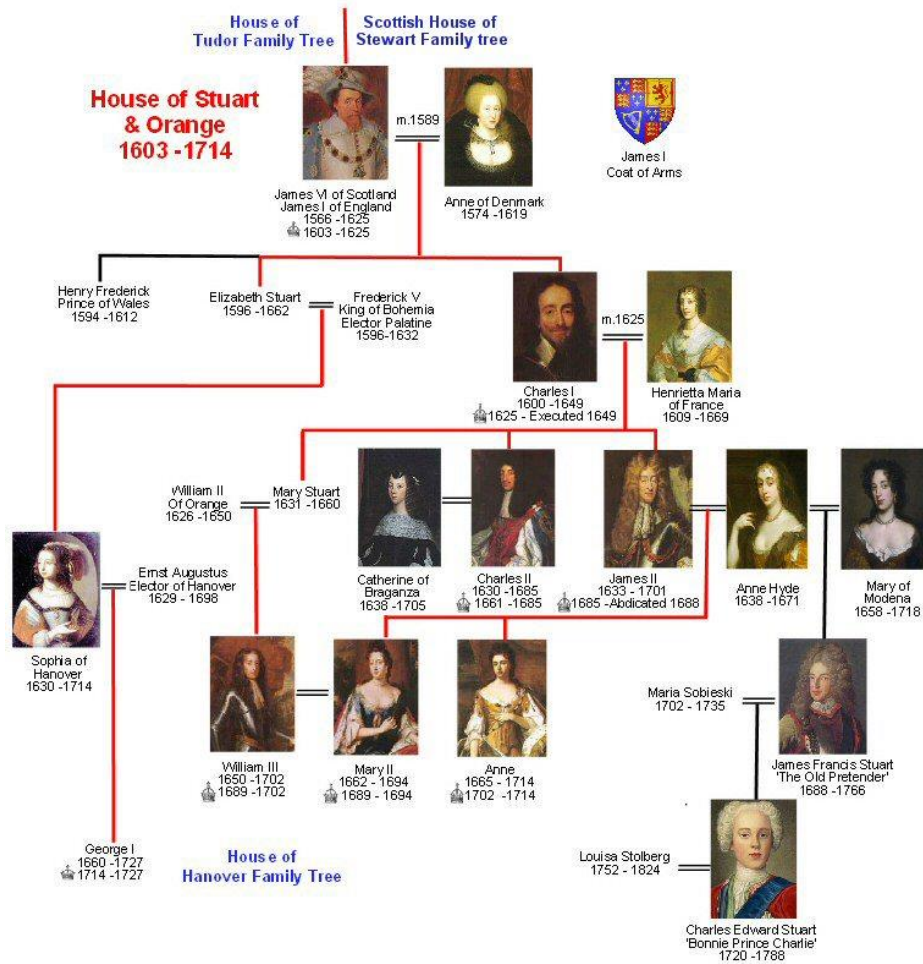
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CASE STUDY: FAMOUS PEOPLE AND EVENTS

- In pairs/small groups, do some research about the following important people/events in the period and present your conclusions to the class.

THE FALL OF THE MONARCHY – OLIVER CROMWELL



The 18th Century and The House of Hanover (1714-1837)

The Hanoverians

George I	Protestant heir	1714-1727
George II	Son of George I	1727-1760
George III	Grandson of George II	1760-1820
George IV	Son of George III	1820-1830
William IV	Brother of George IV	1830-1837
Victoria	Niece of William IV	1837-1901

- the Hanoverians came to power in difficult circumstances that looked set to undermine the stability of British society.
- the first of their Kings, **George I**, was only 52nd in line to the throne, but the nearest Protestant according to the Act of Settlement. Two descendants of James II, the deposed Stuart king, threatened to take the throne, and were supported by a number of 'Jacobites' throughout the realm.
- for all that, the Hanoverian period was remarkably stable, not least because of the longevity of its kings. From 1714 through to 1837, there were only **five monarchs**, one of whom, George III, remains the longest reigning king in British History.
- the period was also one of political stability, and the development of **constitutional monarchy**. For vast tracts of the eighteenth century, great Whig families dominated politics, while the early nineteenth century saw Tory domination.
- **Britain's first 'Prime' Minister, Robert Walpole**, dates from this period, and income tax was introduced. Towards the end of the Hanoverian period, the Great Reform Act was passed, which amongst other things widened the electorate.

- it was also in this period that Britain came to acquire much of her **overseas empire**, despite the loss of the American colonies, largely through foreign conquest in the various wars of the century. By the end of the Hanoverian period, the British Empire covered a third of the globe.
- the theme of longevity was set to continue, as the second longest reigning monarch in British history, Queen Victoria, prepared to take the throne

George I (r.1714-1727): Sophia, Electress of Hanover, died two months before Queen Anne (who died in 1714). Sophia's eldest son George, Elector of Hanover, inherited the throne under the Act of Settlement (there were some 50 Roman Catholic relatives with stronger claims). His claim was **challenged by James Stuart**, Roman Catholic son of James II, who landed in Scotland in 1715, following a rising of Scottish clans on his behalf; this was unsuccessful and he soon withdrew.

George I spoke German and French and a little English; he regularly visited Hanover to fulfil his duties there. In 1719 and 1720, and during most of the King's absences in Hanover, power was delegated to a **Regency Council** and not to the Prince of Wales (George I's son) because of family tensions (George I had imprisoned his wife). Unfamiliar with the customs of the country and lacking fluent English, George was dependent on his ministers - the Whigs dominated Parliament during his reign. After 1717, George rarely attended Cabinet meetings. This allowed the Cabinet to act collectively and formulate policies, which, provided they were backed by a majority in the Commons, the king was usually powerless to resist.

After the South Sea Bubble crisis of 1720 (when the South Sea Company, with heavy government and royal investments, crashed), **Robert Walpole** took over. The most able of George's ministers, and known as the first 'Prime Minister', Walpole's was the longest running administration in British history (1721-42). Robert Walpole developed the idea of the ministers working together in a Cabinet. He also limited the powers of the monarch, who could not be a Catholic, could not remove or change laws and was dependent on the Parliament for financial issues and the army. Robert Walpole's Cabinet also put taxes on goods such as tea, coffee, chocolate.

George died in 1727, during a visit to Hanover.

George II (r. 1727-1760): like his father, for much of his reign, George's political options were limited by the strength of **the Jacobite cause** (James Stuart, the Old Pretender, and then his son, Charles Edward Stuart – Bonny Prince Charlie), with which many of the Tories were linked. Thus, his reign was threatened in 1745 when Charles Edward Stuart, the Young Pretender, landed in Scotland. After some initial success, Charles was defeated at the Battle of Culloden in April 1746 and the Jacobite threat was over.

The foundations of **the industrial revolution** were laid during George's reign, with new levels of production in industries such as coal and shipbuilding and also in agriculture, together with a rapid rise in population. Overseas, **trade** was boosted by success. Walpole's enemy was **William Pitt**, Lord Chatham, who strongly disagreed with

Walpole, considering that trade made a country powerful. As a result, he decided to go to war against France – The Seven Years War (1756-1763) – and challenge their main trade rival. The war took place all over the world (Canada, India), wherever the two powers had trading interests. What is more, Britain captured French-held Quebec in 1759 (part of a successful campaign which transferred Canada with its wealthy trade in fish and fur from French to British rule).

The King's eldest son, Frederick, died in 1751. George's grandson therefore inherited the throne, on George's death in 1760.

George III (r. 1760-1820): was the first Hanoverian monarch to be **born in England** and to use English as his first language. He decided the war against France was too much of a financial effort and made peace. He is known as the king who **lost the American colonies**. The **declaration of American independence on 4 July 1776**, the end of the war with the surrender by British forces in 1782, and the defeat which the loss of the American colonies represented, could have threatened the Hanoverian throne. However, George's strong defense of what he saw as the national interest and the prospect of long war with revolutionary France made him, if anything, more popular than before.

The Napoleonic Wars: by the end of the 18th century, Napoleon controlled much of Europe. Admiral Horatio Nelson destroyed the French fleet at Trafalgar (1805) and Wellington defeated the French army at Waterloo, in Belgium, in 1815.

George became permanently deranged in 1810. He was **mentally unfit to rule** in the last decade of his reign; his eldest son - the later George IV - acted as Prince Regent from 1811.

George IV (r.1820-1830): was 48 when he became Regent in 1811, as a result of the illness of his father, George III. Because of debts, George was in a weak position in relation to his Cabinet of ministers. In 1829, George IV was forced by his ministers, much against his will and his interpretation of his coronation oath, to agree to Catholic Emancipation. By reducing religious discrimination, this emancipation enabled the monarchy to play a more national role.

William IV (r. 1830-1837): was the third son of George III and the brother of George IV. He had to sign **the Great Reform Bill** which abolished some of the worst abuses of the electoral system (for example, representation for so called 'rotten boroughs', which had long ceased to be of any importance, was stopped, and new industrial towns obtained representation). It also introduced standardised rules for the franchise (different boroughs had previously had varying voting rules) and, by extending the franchise/the right to vote to the middle classes, greatly increased the role of public opinion in the political process. He was succeeded by his niece, Victoria.

The Industrial Revolution

Increased food production meant that large populations could be fed in towns. Villagers who had lost their lands moved to towns, became workers, created goods and also bought them.

Simple machines were invented, which enabled **mass production** and **the division of labour**. Water canals and roads were built, so goods could be transported more easily. In 1802, the **FACTORY ACT** limited child labour to 12 hours/day and in 1819, law forbade the employment of children under the age of 9.

The main features involved in the Industrial Revolution were technological, socio-economic, and cultural. The technological changes included the following:

- (1) the use of new basic materials, chiefly iron and steel,
- (2) the use of new energy sources, including both fuels and motive power, such as coal, the steam engine, electricity, petroleum, and the internal-combustion engine,
- (3) the invention of new machines that permitted increased production with a smaller expenditure of human energy,
- (4) a new organization of work known as the factory system, which entailed increased division of labour and specialization of function,
- (5) important developments in transportation and communication, including the steam locomotive, steamship, automobile, airplane, telegraph, and radio,
- (6) the increasing application of science to industry.

Workers acquired new and distinctive skills, and their relation to their tasks shifted; instead of being craftsmen working with hand tools, they became machine operators, subject to factory discipline. Finally, there was a psychological change: confidence in the ability to use resources and to master machines.

STUDENT ACTIVITY CORNER

1. Which are the most important events and moment in this period? With your pair, complete the following table, like in the example:

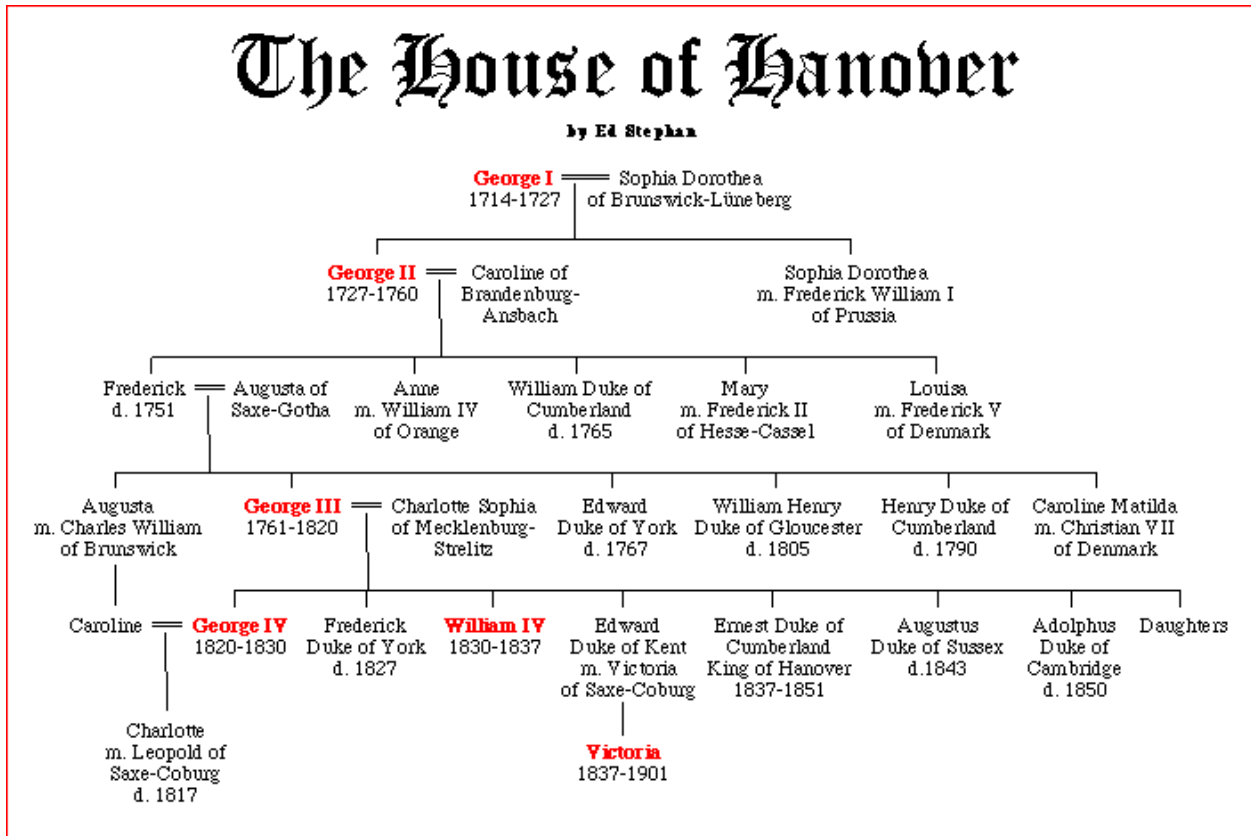
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CASE STUDY: FAMOUS PEOPLE AND EVENTS

- In pairs/small groups, do some research about the following important people/events in the period and present your conclusions to the class.

WHO WERE THE HANOVERIANS?

GEORGE III – The Mad King



The 19th Century

General characteristics of the period

- during this century Britain was most powerful and confident.
- British factories were producing more than any country in the world.
- Britain controlled large areas of the world, which gave the people a feeling of their own importance.
- there was a rapid growth of the middle class as a result of an enormous rise in population: 1825 -13 million people; 1871 – 26 million people; 1914 – 40 million people.
- at the end of the century most men had the right to vote.
- Britain was a force in Europe after the defeat of Napoleon because of its industry, trade and navy. Its policy was to control world traffic and world markets.
- in foreign policy Britain's greatest fear was that Russia would try to expand southwards and reach the Mediterranean by taking over the Slavic parts of Turkey's Balkan possessions. Therefore it did its best to support Turkey against Russian expansion.

Queen Victoria (r.1837-1901): was born at Kensington Palace, London, on 24 May 1819. She was the only daughter of Edward, Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III. Her father died shortly after her birth and she became heir to the throne because the three uncles who were ahead of her in succession - George IV, Frederick Duke of York, and William IV - had no legitimate children who survived. She has the second longest reign in history, and she ruled over most of the 19th century. Her reign was characterized by the following aspects:

- Britain's great age of **industrial expansion, economic progress** and, especially, **empire**. At her death, it was said, Britain had a worldwide empire on which the sun never set.
- 1840: **married Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg (Germany)**. Her marriage to Prince Albert brought nine children between 1840 and 1857. Most of her children married into other Royal families of Europe. Victoria was deeply attached to her husband and she sank into depression after he died, aged 42, in 1861. She had lost a devoted

husband and her principal trusted advisor in affairs of state. For the rest of her reign she wore black and lived in seclusion, which brought her harsh criticism.

- the introduction of **the secret ballot** in 1872
- the growth of **the two-party (Liberal and Conservative) system**
- **transport improvements**; the spread of **newspapers** and the invention of **photography**.
- in 1837 Britain attacked China to force it to allow the British trade in opium from India to China. **The Opium Wars** were one of the most shameful events in British colonial history.
- led by fear of growing European competition, Britain went to **war against Russia** (the war in Afghanistan, 1839-1842, in which one army was destroyed) in order to prevent it from advancing southwards towards India. In the Russian-Ottoman war, Britain took the Ottoman Empire's part (1854) to stop Russian expansion to Asia and the Black Sea areas.
- due to unwise treatment of Indian soldiers in British pay, **the Indian Mutiny (1857)** broke out and it became a national movement against foreign rule. This was the first step towards the Indian independence in the 20th century.
- in Africa, Britain's interest was mainly in **slave trade**. Such explorers as David Livingstone (a Scottish doctor) opened Africa to Christianity, European ideas and trade, thus increasing European interest in the continent to such an extent that in the treaty of 1890 the governments of Europe divided Africa into "areas of interest". By the end of the century several European countries had taken large areas of Africa; Britain succeeded in taking most.
- after the 1840s **settlement in Australia, New Zealand and Canada** followed. The white colonies in these parts of the world were soon allowed to govern themselves and no longer depended on Britain. They still, however, accepted the British monarch as their head of state (e.g. Canada from 1837)
- by the end of the 19th century, controlling the oceans and much of the land areas of the world, most British strongly believed in their right to an empire and were willing to defend it against the least of threats. This state of mind was known as **Jingoism** (after a famous song in 1878), defined as a state of extreme nationalism. However, the empire spent more money than the British could take from it, which led to its destruction in the 20th century.

STUDENT ACTIVITY CORNER

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CASE STUDY: FAMOUS PEOPLE AND EVENTS

- ✚ In pairs/small groups, do some research about the following important people/events in the period and present your conclusions to the class.

VICTORIA AND ALBERT

VICTORIA'S REIGN AFTER ALBERT'S DEATH



The 20th Century and Recent History

At the beginning of the 20th century Britain was the greatest world power. In the middle of the century Britain was one of the “Big Three”, after the US and the Soviet Union. By the end of the ‘70s Britain was no longer a power at all; it no longer was among the richest European powers. There were at least three reasons for this:

1. the cost of the two World Wars
2. the cost of keeping up an empire
3. the weakness in Britain’s industrial power and its failure to spend as much as other industrial nations in developing its industry.

World War I

In June 1914: Austria-Hungary declared war on its neighbour Serbia, following the murder of a senior Austrian Archduke, Franz Ferdinand, in Sarajevo. Russia, having promised to defend Serbia, declared war on Austria-Hungary. Germany had promised to stand by Austria-Hungary. Therefore Russia was at war with Germany as well. In August 1914 Germany’s attack on France took its army through Belgium. Britain immediately declared war since it had promised to guarantee Belgium’s neutrality by the treaty of 1838. During the first weeks of war Germany nearly defeated France and Britain (**the Allies**) with its better trained soldiers, better equipment and clear plan of attack. At the River Marne, Britain and France held back the German army. Four years of fighting followed, both armies living in trenches.

On July, 1st 1916, Britain attacked Germany on the River Somme. It lost 20,000 people and 40,000 were wounded. In the Middle East the British fought against the Turkish troops in Iraq and Palestine and at Gallipoli on the Dardanelles. In 1917 the British were able to drive back the Turks.

The war at sea was also important: German submarine attacks on neutral shipping drew America into war against Germany. Germany was forced to surrender in November 1918. France and Britain met to discuss peace at Versailles in 1920.

The consequences of WWI:

The cost of war caused taxation to increase from 6% of the income in 1914 to 25% in 1918. Many serious strikes were broken by soldiers who forced the men back to work. In 1926 there was a general strike by all workers, followed by the coalminers' strike. Businessmen were allowed to make quick profits and Britain was inevitably affected by the "depression" in Europe and America, especially between 1930-1933, when over 3 million people were unemployed. The depression in Germany destroyed Britain's second most important market before the war. For fear that Germany under Hitler would try to regain its position in Europe by force, Britain had no choice but to rebuild its armed forces. With the help of money from the USA, by 1937 the British industry was producing weapons, aircraft and equipment for wars.

The rise of the labour party: the political developments during the war led to the rapid growth of the Labour party. Having begun as part of the trade union movement, the Labour Party gained its partisans and in 1924 the first Labour government was created. Its leaders were members of the middle classes. They did not believe in social revolution, but wanted to develop a kind of socialism that would fit the situation in Britain.

The rights of women: in 1918, some women over 30 gained the right to vote. Up to that moment, women were forced to work like slaves in factories; until 1891 husbands were still allowed to beat their wives with a stick "no thicker than a man's thumb" and to lock them up in a room if they wished.

In 1897 women started to demand the right to vote. These women were called "**the suffragettes**" and they became famous for the extreme methods they were willing to use in order to fight for their cause.

During WWI, women had to take men's place in factories. They had to be given the right to vote. In 1928 the voting age of women came down to 21, equal with men.

Ireland: before the war the British government agreed to home rule for Ireland, but delayed its introduction and called on Irishmen to join the British army. Many did, but there was a group who did not see why they should die for Britain. They rose at **Easter 1916**, in Dublin, for their independence. They were called the republicans and even if

their rebellion was defeated, they gained such popularity that in the 1918 elections they won in almost all areas except for Ulster. They met in their own Parliament, the Dail in Dublin, and announced that Ireland was now a republic. This is how the guerrilla started fighting against the British. In 1921, after having decided to make peace, Britain agreed to the independence of Southern Ireland and insisted that Ulster (Northern Ireland) should remain united with Britain. **The Anglo-Irish Treaty of 1921** led to Civil War between the Irish themselves. Although Southern Ireland still accepted British sovereignty, it all changed in 1937 when the Republican Prime Minister declared S Ireland a republic.

World War II

After WWI, in 1920, the Allies created the **League of Nations**, which was supposed to enable nations to co-operate with each other. The League members agreed to respect and provide the borders and territory of all the other members. But in 1935 Italy invaded Abyssinia (Ethiopia), a fellow member of the league. Britain and France, anxious to win Italy's co-operation against Hitler, decided against taking action against Italy. Italy's Fascist leader, Mussolini understood this failure of Britain and France to comply with the league's rules as weakness and together with Germany and their ally in the Far East, Japan, took advantage of this weakness to take territory of interest to them.

In 1938, in order to avoid war, the British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain accepted and co-operated in the takeover of German speaking parts of Czechoslovakia by Germany. Six months later, Germany occupied the rest of Czechoslovakia. Britain, realizing that war was inevitable, gave a guarantee of support to Poland if Germany invaded.

In September 1939, Germany invaded Poland and Britain entered the war.

In May 1940, Germany attacked and defeated the French in a few days and drove the British army into the sea. At Dunkirk the British were saved by private boats crossing the English Channel. Britain's Prime Minister at the time, Winston Churchill, persuaded his people not to surrender. The British air force won an important battle against Germany in the air over Britain, but the German air force bombed the towns of Britain. The war which had begun as a traditional European struggle became worldwide. Japan attacked Britain's colonial's possessions, including Malaysia, Burma and India and this resulted in Britain's surrendering Singapore to Japan, described by Churchill as the worst surrender in British history.

In 1941, Germany attacked the Soviet Union and Japan attacked the USA. These mistakes cost them the war. By 1943, the Soviet Union pushed Germany out of the USSR. Britain had driven the German and Italian troops out of N Africa. In July 1943 Italy surrendered.

In 1944, Britain and the USA invaded German-occupied France and started to bomb German cities, causing greater destruction than any war had ever caused before: e.g. Dresden was destroyed in one night in 1945. In May 1945, Germany surrendered. The USA used the atomic bomb to destroy Nagasaki and Hiroshima (August 6 and 9, 1945) – the war had ended. WWII cost Britain 303,000 soldiers and 60,000 civilians.

After war Britain and the new international order

The victorious Allies created the **UNITED NATIONS**, which represented “a security council” that hoped to carry into peacetime the success of the wartime alliance. This depended on a feeling of common purpose which no longer existed. In fact Europe became divided into two: **the eastern part**, under communist Soviet control, and **the western part** under a capitalist system protected by the US power.

In 1948-9 the Soviet Union tried to capture West Berlin by stopping all road and rail traffic to it. West Berlin was saved by supplies from the West. As a result of the struggle for West Berlin opposing alliances were formed:

1. **the North Atlantic Treaty Organization** of the Western Nations
2. **the Warsaw Pact** of the Eastern Block.

In 1950 the UN faced difficulties in the Far East: North Korea (under Soviet control) invaded South Korea (US control). British troops formed part of the UN force which defended South Korea.

Britain wanted to secure its position in relation to the US and the European countries, as well as to the new **Commonwealth** (an association of the former British possessions) and it was helped in this endeavour by the fact that it held leadership in nuclear power and nuclear weapons (1956 – the first nuclear energy power station in the world was built in Britain).

During the early 1960s, Britain was interested in joining the new European community, as it had lost political power internationally and it now desired to play a greater part in European politics.

In Egypt, Britain's weakening international position was most obvious. In 1956 Britain lost the Suez Canal. As a result many weaker countries in Asia and Africa began to challenge Britain's authority more openly.

The Welfare State

In the attempt "to create a noble future" (Churchill), a great number of reforms were introduced:

1. 1944 – free secondary education for all
2. 1946 – the National Health Service gave everyone the right to free medical treatment
3. 1948 – the National Assistance Act : financial help for the old, the unemployed and for those unable to work through sickness, for mothers and children
4. the people demanded social rights such as the right to work and to proper health care
5. the government took control of the bank of England, of power (coal, iron, steel) and of transport (railways and airlines). This process was called nationalization.

These changes gave importance to people's happiness and wellbeing. The government was known as "the welfare state". Britain became a social democracy.

The Loss of the Empire

At the end of WWI Germany's colonies of Africa, Iraq and Palestine were added to Britain's area of control. Britain's empire covered a quarter of the entire land surface of the world. In 1945, the UN Charter called for progress towards self-government. Starting from the 1920s and the 1930s, **India** became difficult to rule, due to misunderstandings between the colonists and the Indian people and due to the nationalist movement skillfully led by Mahatma Gandhi. In 1947, the British left India, which divided into a Hindu State and a Muslim State, Pakistan.

Britain also left **Palestine** and before 1945 **Iraq**. **Ceylon** became independent in 1948. After **Suez** (1956), Britain began to give up other colonies as well, allowing them to become self-governing. By 1985, Britain had few of its old colonies left and those it still had were claimed by other countries: Hong Kong by China, Gibraltar by Spain, the Falklands and the Malvinas by Argentina. In 1982 Britain led a war against Argentina to recapture the Falklands.

The Years of Discontent

During the 1950s and the 1960s, Britain was a European leader, politically and economically. If in 1964 Britain's production was the 2nd in Europe, in 1977 only Italy produced less than Britain. However, among the social problems faced by the country in this period, we must mention:

- 1950s – the first Black immigrants started to arrive. By 1960 there were 250,000 of them and problems started.
- later on Asian immigrants started to arrive; they lived in poor areas of large cities.
- unemployment grew especially among immigrants. In 1958, 3.5 million people were unemployed.
- inflation grew: between 1954-1984 prices multiplied by 6.

The New Politics

Many people blamed the problems of the 1980s on the Conservative Government and on **the first woman Prime Minister, Margaret Thatcher**. She was elected in 1979 and she was the longest serving Prime Minister in the 20th century. She returned nationalized industries to the private sector in her attempt to reduce government protection and interference. Thus she broke the power of trade unions. The most common accusation against the Thatcher government was that the Prime Minister created two nations: a wealthy one and a poor one. People also saw a divide between the north and the south, with the north being poor as compared to the "comfortable" south. In 1984, the Conservatives and Thatcher won again. She served as Prime Minister until 1990, when she was succeeded by John Major

The Premiership of Tony Blair: it began on 2 May 1997 and ended on 27 June 2007. Blair is both credited with and criticised for moving the Labour Party towards the centre of British politics, using the term "New Labour" to distinguish his pro-market policies from the more collectivist policies which the party had espoused in the past. In domestic government policy, Blair significantly increased public spending on health and education while also introducing controversial market-based reforms in these areas. In addition Blair's tenure saw the introduction of a minimum wage, tuition fees for higher education, constitutional reform such as devolution (the granting of powers to the local government) in Scotland and Wales, and progress in the Northern Ireland peace process. Blair strongly

supported US foreign policy, notably by participating in the invasions of Afghanistan in 2001 and Iraq in 2003.

On 10 May 2007 he announced his intention to resign as Prime Minister on 27 June 2007. On the 27th of June began the premiership of **Gordon Brown**. He was succeeded in office by **David Cameron** (2010-2106), the leader of the Conservative Party. He resigned after the BREXIT and the current Prime Minister is **Theresa May**, as of 2016.

The Brexit

Brexit is an abbreviation for "British exit," referring to the UK's decision in a June 23, 2016 referendum to leave the European Union (EU). The vote's result defied expectations and roiled global markets, causing the British pound to fall to its lowest level against the dollar in 30 years. Prime Minister David Cameron, who called the referendum and campaigned for Britain to remain in the EU, resigned the following month. Home Secretary **Theresa May** replaced him as leader of the Conservative party and as Prime Minister. "Leave" won the June 2016 referendum with 51.9% of the ballot, or 17.4 million votes; "Remain" received 48.1%, or 16.1 million. Turnout was 72.2%. The exit is set to become effective on March 29, 2019.

Monarchy

The House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha

- the name Saxe-Coburg-Gotha came to the British Royal Family in 1840 with the marriage of Queen Victoria to Prince Albert, son of Ernst, Duke of Saxe-Coburg & Gotha. Queen Victoria herself remained a member of the House of Hanover.
- the only British monarch of the House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha was King Edward VII, who reigned for nine years at the beginning of the modern age in the early years of the twentieth century.
- King George V replaced the German-sounding title with that of **Windsor** during the First World War. The name Saxe-Coburg-Gotha survived in other European monarchies, including the current Belgian Royal Family and the former monarchies of Portugal and Bulgaria.

Edward VII (r.1901-1910)

- ✓ brought up strictly under a very rigorous educational regime by his parents, who had unrealistic expectations of his abilities.
- ✓ during his mother's reign (Queen Victoria), he undertook public duties

- ✓ was 59 when he became king, having been heir apparent for longer than anyone else in British history.
- ✓ Edward's main interests lay in foreign affairs, and military and naval matters.

The House of Windsor

- ✓ came into being in **1917**, when the name was adopted as the British Royal Family's official name by a proclamation of King George V, replacing the historic name of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. It remains the family name of the current Royal Family.
- ✓ one of the most important roles of the royal family has been acting as national figureheads lifting public morale during the devastating wars of 1914-18 and 1939-1945.
- ✓ British monarchs have also played a vital part in promoting international relations. The Queen retains close links with former colonies in her role as Head of the Commonwealth.

George V (r.1910-1936)

- ✓ visited India in 1911, the only King-Emperor to do so. He was accompanied by his wife, Queen Mary.
- ✓ in 1914 the First World War broke out. The King made over 450 visits to troops and over 300 visits to hospitals visiting wounded servicemen
- ✓ in 1917 anti-German feeling led him to adopt the family name of Windsor (after the Castle of the same name).
- ✓ the 1916 Easter Rising in Dublin, and subsequent civil war, resulted in the setting up of the Irish Free State (later to become the Irish Republic) in 1922, while the six northern counties remained part of the United Kingdom.
- ✓ readily accepted the first Labour government in 1924. Following the world slump of 1929, the King persuaded the Labour leader to head a National Government composed of all parties, which won the election of 1931.
- ✓ started the annual Christmas Broadcast by the sovereign to the Empire (more recently to the Commonwealth), the first being transmitted in 1932
- ✓ died in 1936 and his son Edward succeeded to the throne.

Edward VIII (r. Jan-Dec 1936)

- ✓ as Prince of Wales, Edward VIII had successfully carried out a number of regional visits (including areas hit by economic depression) and other official engagements. These visits and his official tours overseas, together with his good war record and genuine care for the underprivileged, had made him popular.
- ✓ in 1930, the Prince, who had already had a number of affairs, had met and fallen in love with a married American woman, **Mrs. Wallis Simpson**. Concern about Edward's private life grew in the Cabinet when Mrs. Simpson obtained a divorce in 1936 and it was clear that Edward was determined to marry her. Eventually

Edward realised he had to choose between the Crown and Mrs. Simpson who, as a twice-divorced woman, would not have been acceptable as Queen.

- ✓ on 10 December 1936, Edward VIII executed an **Instrument of Abdication** which was given legal effect the following day, when Edward gave Royal Assent to His Majesty's Declaration of Abdication Act, by which Edward VIII and any children he might have were excluded from succession to the throne.
- ✓ in 1937, Edward was created Duke of Windsor and married Wallis Simpson in a ceremony in France.
- ✓ during the Second World War, the Duke of Windsor was appointed Governor of the Bahamas, a position he held until 1945.
- ✓ his brother Albert became King, using his last name George.

George VI (r. 1936-1952)

- ✓ George VI became King unexpectedly following the abdication of his brother, King Edward VIII, in 1936.
- ✓ worked hard to adapt to the role into which he was suddenly thrown. Reserved by nature, and of deep religious belief, he was helped in his work by his wife. He had married Lady Elizabeth Bowes-Lyon in 1923.
- ✓ paid State Visits Canada and the United States in 1939 (he was the first British monarch to enter the United States).
- ✓ his greatest achievements came during the Second World War, when he remained for most of the time at Buckingham Palace (the Palace was bombed nine times during the war). He and his wife, Queen Elizabeth, visited severely bombed areas in the East End of London and elsewhere in the country, gained him great popularity.
- ✓ developed a close working relationship with his wartime Prime Minister, Winston Churchill, as most of Europe fell to Nazi Germany.
- ✓ when India and Pakistan became independent in 1947, George ceased to be Emperor of India.

Queen Elizabeth II (r. 1952-)

- ✓ Queen Elizabeth II's duties:
 - there are inward duties, with The Queen playing a part in State functions in Britain. Parliament must be opened, Orders in Council have to be approved, Acts of Parliament must be signed, and meetings with the Prime Minister must be held;
 - there are also outward duties of State, when The Queen represents Britain to the rest of the world. For example, The Queen receives foreign

ambassadors and high commissioners, entertains visiting Heads of State, and makes State visits overseas to other countries, in support of diplomatic and economic relations.

- ✓ The Queen's role is to:
 - perform the ceremonial and official duties of Head of State, including representing Britain to the rest of the world;
 - provide a focus for national identity and unity; provide stability and continuity in times of change;
 - recognise achievement and excellence;
 - encourage public and voluntary service.

STUDENT ACTIVITY CORNER

1. Which are the most important events and moment in this period? With your pair, complete the following table, like in the example:

When?	What?
325 BC	<i>Pytheas, a Greek sailor, sailed to the British Isles.</i>

CASE STUDY: FAMOUS PEOPLE AND EVENTS

✚ In pairs/small groups, do some research about the following important people/events in the period and present your conclusions to the class.

EDWARD VIII AND WALLIS SIMPSON

GEORGE VI

ELIZABETH II

WINSTON CHURCHILL

THE SUCCESSION TO THE THRONE

THE BREXIT

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