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Lectures for Master Students of Language and Culture

# British Civilization

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## General Introduction

Teaching the civilization of a foreign language is considered as a fifth skill for teaching foreign languages. Language and civilisation are inseparable and they can never be detached from each other. Thus, teaching British civilization aims not only to awake curiosity to discover and explore deeper in history and culture of the British society but also to improve and enhance language skills of the target language.

Language and culture is a master degree designed for graduated students in English language. The main goal is to train students to master the cultural and linguistic aspects of English-speaking countries. One of the fundamental units of this programme is British civilisation module. This module emphasises on the development of the English society from the Middle Ages to the Industrial Revolution. Thus, this programme is divided into three semesters.

The first one which covers the period (43 AD - 1453 AD) traces back the historical background of the British society and its cultural life. It focuses on the impacts of the Normans on the English culture. It also gives importance to the Middle Ages with its economic and political systems, the role of the Church, the Wars, the infectious diseases and of course the contribution of the royal families in the development of British society.

The second semester emphasizes on the Renaissance period by sheding light on the most important events that marked the beginning of the English Renaissance such as the works of writers, as well as the social transformation, the reaction of the religious institutions and the contribution of the royal families. The second part of this semester is devoted only to the coming of the Stuarts royal family.

The last semester focuses on the period of the Industrial Revolution in Great Britain. First, it attempts to clarify the concept and why it is a

"Revolution". Second, it analyses the causes that led to such a Revolution. After that, a great part of this semester is given to the effects of Industrialization on society and the standards of living (Women and Children).

Finally, this course is concerned with the acquisition of general historical facts and events of the British civilisation. The pedagogical method used is a lecture including analysis of sources, texts, images and audio-visual documents. Students are encouraged to participate actively in the discussions and debates that will occupy an important place in class.

In British civilization exam, questions are based on the course tests. During the semester, the teacher has to ask the students or test their understanding through questions on the lecture. The students have to answer these questions by using correct and consistent sentences as they would do in an essay. The aim of these questions is to test the students' ability to integrate all the knowledge they have acquired from their weekly readings, class participation and extra reading materials in their writing.

# SEMESTER ONE

## Historical Background:
## Early Conquests and Medieval Society in England
## (43 AD /1485)


### Objectives:

At the end of this semester, students *must* be *able* to assimilate new knowledge about this period of time and answer these types of questions:

- What is meant by Civilisation?
- Who were the Rormans?
- What did the Romans bring to England?
- Who were the Normans?
- What did the Norman Conquest bring to England?
- What is meant by the medieval period in England?
- Why it was called the Dark Ages?
- How was the role of the Church?
- What is meant by the Balck Death

### Introduction

- **What does the Concept "Civilisation" Imply ?**

A civilization (UK and US) or civilisation (British English variant) is any complex society characterized by urban development, social stratification, symbolic communication forms (typically, writing systems), and a perceived separation from and domination over the natural environment by a cultural elite. Civilizations are intimately associated with and often further defined by other socio-politico-economic characteristics, including centralization, the domestication of both humans and other organisms, specialization of labour,

culturally ingrained ideologies of progress and supremacism, monumental architecture, taxation, societal dependence upon farming as an agricultural practice, and expansionism. [1]

The previous paragraph implies that civilisation refers to an advanced development in all aspects of society, such as economy, science, littaeratur, technology...etc and of course religious tolerance.

Historically, a *civilization* was a so-called "advanced" culture in contrast to more supposedly primitive cultures. In this broad sense, a civilization contrasts with non-centralized tribal societies, including the cultures of nomadic pastoralists, egalitarian horticultural[2] subsistence Neolithic societies or hunter-gatherers. As an uncountable noun, *civilization* also refers to the process of a society developing into a centralized, urbanized, stratified structure[3].

- ***After clarifying the concept by the teacher and the students, the second section is devoted to what the Romans and Nomrans brought to the English society.***

## I. Roman Britain, 43 AD

With the Roman Conquest in 43 AD came the first written records of England's history. Julius Caesar[4] had of course paid earlier visits to Britain in 55 and 54 BC however these had only been to please his adoring public back home in Rome (political

[1] https://www.ancient.eu/civilization
[2] Horticulture is the branch of agriculture that deals with the art, science, technology, and business of growing plants. https://www.cnrtl.fr/definition/horticulture. Entry : **Horticulture**
[3] Ibid. Entry : **Civilisation**
[4] Julius Caesar ( 12 July 100 BC – 15 March 44 BC), better known by his nomen gentilicium and cognomen Julius Caesar, was a Roman dictator, politician, and military general who played a critical role in the events that led to the demise of the Roman Republic and the rise of the Roman Empire. He was also a historian and wrote Latin prose. Ibid., Entry : **Julius Caesar**

propaganda!) In 43 AD, the Emperor Claudius resumed the work of Caesar by ordering the invasion of Britain under the command of Aulus Plautius[5].

The Romans quickly established control over the tribes of present day southeastern England. One British chieftain of the Catuvallauni tribe known as Caractacus, who initially fled from Camulodunum (Colchester) to present day south Wales, stirred up some resistance until his defeat and capture in 51 AD. Dispatched off to Rome, he obviously made friends in high places, appearing in Claudius' triumphal procession. He was later released in recognition of his courage and died in Rome. Resistance to Roman rule continued in what is now Wales, particularly inspired by the Druids, the priests of the native Celtic peoples.

All was relatively quiet in Britannia for ten years or so until Prasutagus the king of the Iceni tribe, died. His queen, Boudica, a little upset at having her lands taken from her by the Romans and her two daughters raped, opted for affirmative action rather than the diplomatic approach. Under Boudica's leadership the Iceni together with their southern neighbours the Trinovantes revolted, burning to the ground Londinium (London), Verulamium (St. Albans) and Camulodunum (Colchester). Boudica poisoned herself after her army was virtually annihilated by Roman legions returning from active service in North Wales. They had again been attempting to quell the Druids in Anglesey.

During the 70's and 80's the Romans, under the command of Gnaeus Julius Agricola extended their control into northern and western England. Legions were located at York, Chester and Caerleon marking the limits of the 'Civil Zone'. Agricola moved northwards defeating the Caledonian tribes under the leadership of Calgacus at the battle of Mons Graupius in present day northeastern Scotland. The Romans gradually gave up their conquests in Scotland until in 122 AD the emperor Hadrian ordered the construction of a wall from the west coast of Britain to the east[6].

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[5] Aulus Plautius Aulus Plautius was a Roman politician and general of the mid-1st century. He began the Roman conquest of Britain in 43, and became the first governor of the new province, serving from 43 to 46. Entry : Aulus Plautius

[6] https://www.ancient.eu/civilization.rome

Hadrian's Wall ran for eighty miles from Newcastle in the east to Carlisle in the west. Designed to mark the boundaries of the Roman Empire, much of the great monument can still be seen today. When Hadrian died in 138 AD his successor Antonius Pius abandoned the newly completed wall and again pushed northwards. A new frontier, the Antonine Wall was established between the Forth and Clyde rivers in Scotland. Around 160 AD the Antonine Wall was abandoned and thereafter Hadrian's Wall again became the northern boundary of the Roman Empire in Britain.

The Romans never did succeed in subduing all of Britain. They always had to maintain a significant military presence to control the threat from the unconquered tribes. But most people in southern Britain settled down to Roman order and discipline. Towns appeared for the first time across the country, including York, Chester, St. Albans, Bath, Lincoln, Gloucester and Colchester. All of these major centres are still linked today by the system of Roman military roads radiating from the great port of London such as Ermine Street, Watling Street and the Fosse Way. These roads also allowed for the distribution of Roman luxuries such as spices, wines, glass etc. brought in from other regions of the Empire.

It is likely that the Romanisation of Britain principally affected only the rich. This aristocracy may have increased status by adopting Roman ways and practices such as regular bathing. The vast majority of the populace would remain relatively untouched by Roman civilisation, living off the land and eking out a living[7].

## II. Norman Conquest

Norman Conquest, the military conquest of England by William, duke of Normandy[8], primarily effected by his decisive victory at the Battle of Hastings (October 14, 1066) and resulting ultimately in profound political, administrative, and social changes in the British Isles.

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[7]Ibid., Entry : **Romans**

[8] William I (c. 1028 – 9 September 1087), usually known as William the Conqueror and sometimes William the Bastard, was the first Norman King of England, reigning from 1066 until his death in 1087. https://www.bbc.com. Entry : **William the Conqueror**

# 1. The Invasion of England

The conquest was the final act of a complicated drama that had begun years earlier, in the reign of Edward the Confessor, last king of the Anglo-Saxon royal line. Edward, who had almost certainly designated William as his successor in 1051, was involved in a childless marriage and used his lack of an heir as a diplomatic tool, promising the throne to different parties throughout his reign, including Harold Godwineson[9], later Harold II, the powerful earl of Wessex.

The exiled Tostig, who was Harold's brother, and Harald III Hardraade, king of Norway, also had designs on the throne and threatened invasion. Amid this welter of conflicting claims, Edward from his deathbed named Harold his successor on January 5, 1066, and Harold was crowned king the following day. However, Harold's position was compromised, according to the Bayeux Tapestry[10] and other Norman sources, because in 1064 he had sworn an oath, in William's presence, to defend William's right to the throne.

From almost the beginning of his reign, Harold faced challenges to his authority. Tostig began raiding the southern and eastern coasts of England in May, eventually joining forces with Harald III. Harold was able to keep his militia on guard throughout the summer but dismissed it early in September, when he ran out of supplies and his peasant soldiers needed to return to their fields for the harvest.

This left the south without defenses, exposing it to invasion by William. Before William arrived, however, Harald III and Tostig invaded in the north;

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[9] Harold Godwineson (c. 1022 – 14 October 1066), often called Harold II, was the last crowned Anglo-Saxonking of England. Harold reigned from 6 January 1066 until his death at the Battle of Hastings, fighting the Normaninvaders led by William the Conqueror during the Norman conquest of England.Ibid., Entry : **Harold Godwineson**

[10] The Bayeux Tapestry is a magnificent piece of artwork that has attracted the attention of audiences for centuries, and it's easy to see why. Not only does the Bayeux Tapestry depict an astonishing amount of Norman and Saxon history, its sheer size is magnificent to behold. Ibid., Entry : **The Bayeux Tapestry**

Harold hastened to Yorkshire, where at Stamford Bridge (September 25) he won a smashing victory in which both Harald III and Tostig perished[11].

Meanwhile, on the Continent, William had secured support for his invasion from both the Norman aristocracy and the papacy. By August 1066 he had assembled a force of 4,000–7,000 knights and foot soldiers, but unfavourable winds detained his transports for eight weeks. Finally, on September 27, while Harold was occupied in the north, the winds changed, and William crossed the Channel immediately.

Landing in Pevensey on September 28, he moved directly to Hastings. Harold, hurrying southward with about 7,000 men, approached Hastings on October 13. Surprised by William at dawn on October 14, Harold drew up his army on a ridge 10 miles (16 km) to the northwest.

Harold's wall of highly trained infantry held firm in the face of William's mounted assault; failing to breach the English lines and panicked by the rumour of William's death, the Norman cavalry fled in disorder. But William, removing his helmet to show he was alive, rallied his troops, who turned and killed many English soldiers. As the battle continued, the English were gradually worn down; late in the afternoon, Harold was killed (by an arrow in the eye, according to the Bayeux Tapestry), and by nightfall the remaining English had scattered and fled.

William then made a sweeping advance to isolate London, and at Berkhamstead the major English leaders submitted to him. He was crowned in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day, 1066. Sporadic indigenous revolts continued until 1071; the most serious, in Northumbria (1069–70), was suppressed by William himself, who then devastated vast tracts of the north. The

[11] https://www.britannica.com/event/Norman-Conquest. Entry: **Consequences of the Conquest**

subjection of the country was completed by the rapid building of a great number of castles[12].

## 2. Consequences of the Conquest

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.

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 mesne (intermediate) tenants, all holding their fiefs by knigh 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.

Anglo-Saxon England had developed a highly organized central and local government and an effective judicial system. All these were retained and utilized by William, whose coronation oath showed his intention of continuing in the English royal tradition. The old administrative divisions were not superseded by the new fiefs, nor did feudal justice normally usurp the customary jurisdiction of shire and hundred courts.

In them and in the king's court, the common law of England continued to be administered. Innovations included the new but restricted body of "forest law" and the introduction in criminal cases of the Norman trial by combat alongside the old Saxon ordeals. Increasing use was made of the inquest procedure, the sworn testimony of neighbours, both for administrative purposes and in judicial

[12] Ibid.

cases. A major change was William's removal of ecclesiastical cases from the secular courts, which allowed the subsequent introduction into England of the then rapidly growing canon law.[13]

William also transformed the structure and character of the church in England. He replaced all the Anglo-Saxon bishops, except Wulfstan of Dorchester, with Norman bishops. Most notably, he secured the deposition of Stigand, the archbishop of Canterbury, who held his see irregularly and had probably been excommunicated by Pope Leo IX, and appointed in his place Lanfranc of Bec, a respected scholar and one of William's close advisers. Seeking to impose a more orderly structure on the English episcopacy, the king supported Lanfranc's claims for the primacy of Canterbury in the English church.

William also presided over a number of church councils, which were held far more frequently than under his predecessors, and introduced legislation against simony (the selling of clerical offices) and clerical marriage. A supporter of monastic reform while duke of Normandy, William introduced the latest reforming trends to England by replacing Anglo-Saxon abbots with Norman ones and by importing numerous monks. Although he founded only a small number of monasteries, including Battle Abbey (in honour of his victory at Hastings), William's other measures contributed to the quickening of monastic life in England.

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.[14]



[13] https://www.britannica.com/event/Norman-Conquest. Entry: **Consequences of the Conquest**

[14] Ibid., Entry: **Norman Conquest**

## III. The Medieval Period

Life in the Middle Ages was very different from the way we live today. The majority of the population lived in rural areas, with some people such as merchants and lawyers living in medieval towns. Wealthy and powerful nobles, such as kings and lords, ruled society during this time.

These nobles gave pieces of land to less important nobles, such as lords and knights. In return for land, the lords and knights provided the powerful nobles with loyalty and military assistance. This area of land was known as a fief, and was under rule of the lord. Peasants were at the bottom of the social ladder, and rented land from the lesser nobles.

In order to pay their rent, peasants gave the lord crops or livestock as well as worked in the lord's fields a few days a week. Peasants composed around 90 percent of society during the medieval period. The daily lives of nobles and peasants during the Middle Ages differ from daily life today.[15]

The history of Europe, the Middle Ages (or medieval period) lasted from the 5th to the 15th century. It began with the fall of the Western Roman Empire and merged into the Renaissance and the Age of Discovery. The Middle Ages is the middle period of the three traditional divisions of Western history: classical antiquity, the medieval period, and the modern period. The medieval period is itself subdivided into the Early, High, and Late Middle Ages[16].

The history of class system in England is connected to the history of the nation during the remote Middle Ages. The Norman invasion by William the

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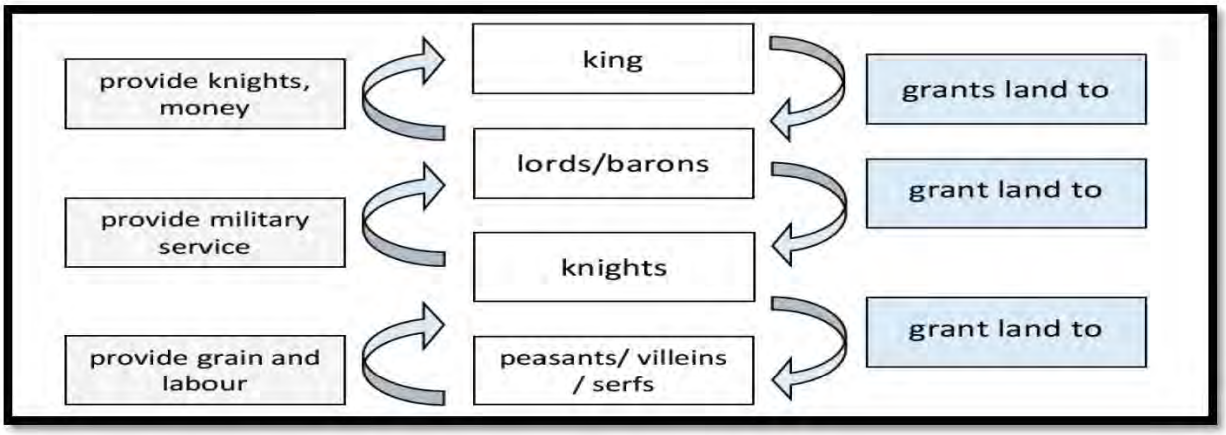
[15] Cowan, Edward J. and Lizanne Henderson, eds, A History of Everyday Life in Medieval Scotland, 1000 to 1600. Edinburgh, Edinburgh University Press Ltd, 2011, p.124

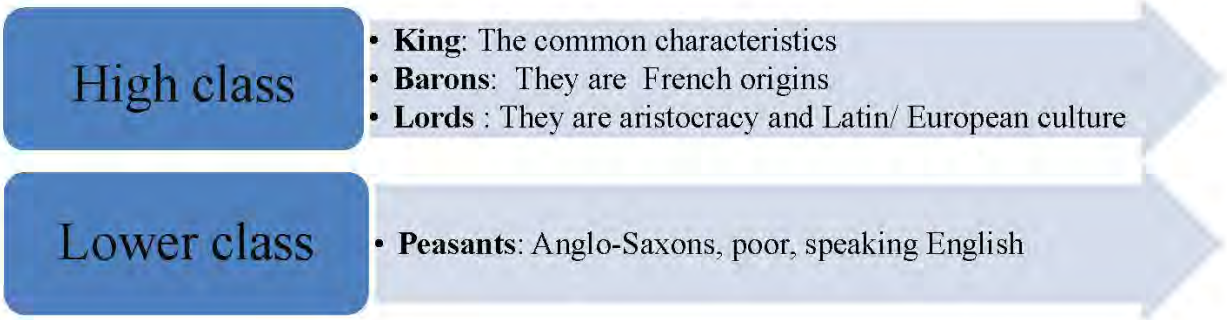
[16] Historians typically regard the Early Middle Ages or Early Medieval Period, sometimes referred to as the Dark Ages, as lasting from the 5th or 6th century to the 10th century. The High Middle Ages, or High Medieval Period, was the period of European history that commenced around 1000 and lasted until around 1250. The Late Middle Ages or Late Medieval Period was the period of European history lasting from 1250 to 1500 AD. https://www.britannica.com/event/middle ages

Conqueror (1066) set the basis of social class division. With his « Feudal system » at first he divided the British into two classes, establishing it on the social owning of lands, i.e the more lands you possess, the closer you are to the upper class and belonging to it[17].




This paragraph hints to the emergence of Feudalism, which refers a structure where people held their land in return for promising loyalty, known as doing homage, and providing services such as working or fighting for their lord.

The first English social division under the Feudal system was as follows:

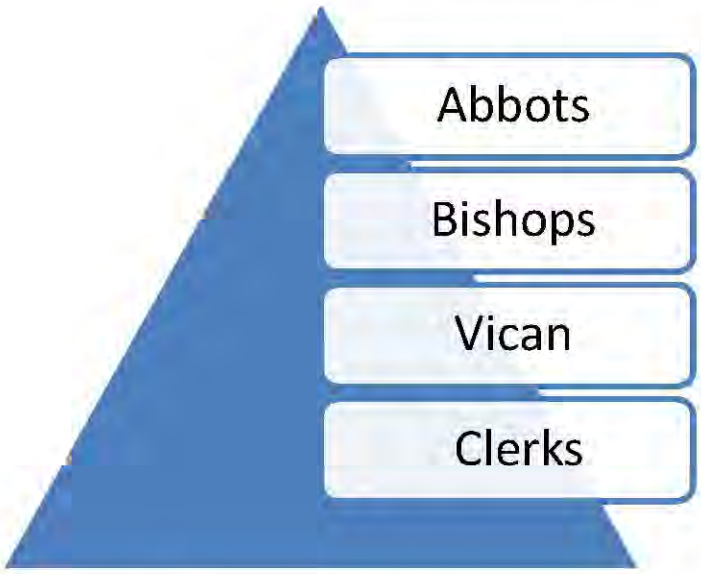



## 1. The Feudal System

The relationship between the Aristocrates and peasants was based on *the share crop system*, which meant that the peasants worked in the aristocrates lands (owners of the land) and in return, they give them 1/5 of the crops.

[17] Ibid.

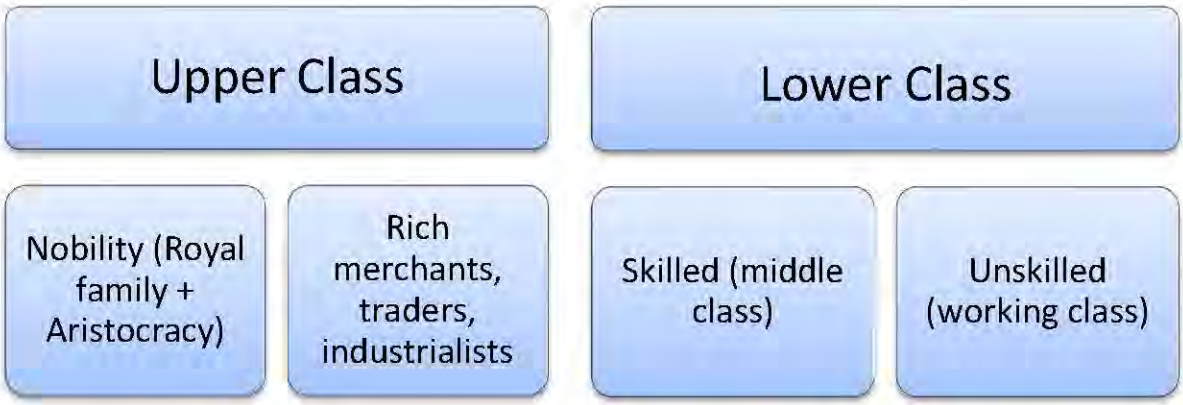
Hence, *the Feudal system* brought England from the dark ages to the Middle Ages, but brought also a social organisation based on injustice and unequality. Similarly, there was another class division brought by another institution in the country which is the Church[18]. Under the control of the Roman Catholic Church at first, but even after their separation the church social division remained the same as follows:




The share of lands 4/5 was divided between the Church and Aristocracy. Both acumulated wealth and luxuries which paved the way to the emergance of a new social class made of merchants and investors. This latter, marked a shift from Feudalism to Mercantalism that needed open spieces, a motive which enabled Britain to became U.K and then an Empire setting the bases of Imperialism.

The 18th century brought new changes with the disappearance of Marchantalism and the appearance of Industrialism. A result of which, there was a radical change in all aspects of the British life affecting the classes themselves which is called the « Social Split »:

[18] Cowan, Edward J. and Lizanne Henderson, eds,opcit., p.129




Hence, the English society had evolved through time, from feudalism to merchantalism which shifted to imperialism then to industrialism which gave the way to democracy which reduced consequently social class division. English society now is no more based on wealth but only individual's competence, education and ability and the royal family is only a symbol of unity of the nation.

Eventhough the new tandency of the British erosing the social class system, however You can easily identify which class people belong to by the way they speak (accent), their clothes, their interests, the way that they educate their children, or even the type of food they eat.[19]

## 2. Men in the Medieval Period

Within the fief he owned, the Lord had nearly total authority. He was the judge and jury whenever a dispute needed to be settled. Men held most jobs in daily medieval life, both inside and outside of a castle. There was little social mobility during the medieval period, so men were typically born into their position and occupation in the medieval world. However it was not impossible for a lower born person to move up through the ranks, say from squire to knight, as long as they had the money to equip themselves.[20]

[19] Ibid., Entry : **The Feudal System**
[20] Ibid., Entry: **Women in the Medieval Period**

This drawing shows two men threshing wheat c.1330.

## 3. Women in the Medieval Period

A woman's job in the Middle Ages was to have children and to take care of the household. She was responsible for the upbringing of the children, and to help with cooking and cleaning. More upper-class women spent their time in 'womanly pursuits', such as embroidery. Women were not educated at this time, and were expected to be subordinate members of society. Sometimes fathers taught their daughters the skills of their trade, so that they might support themselves if orphaned. Noblewomen had no rights and they were the property of their husband. They were expected to be prudent, loving, and wise. It was necessary that women love and honour their husband at all times, and humble herself to him in word and deed[21].

Women in the middle ages had only two possible choices for their futures: they could either choose to marry or to 'take the veil' and become a nun. Most women were married, usually when they were teenagers. Because noblewomen did not have rights, they were not allowed to choose their own husbands. Their fathers chose their husbands for them. If widowed, the woman could continue her husband's business. Widows could therefore achieve a degree of independence

[21] Ibid.

that married women lacked.[22] For this reason, many widows with property refused to remarry and lose control over their estates.

A woman cooks over an open fire in this illustration from the 14th century.

## 4. Children in the Medieval Period

The lives of children, including where they lived and the education they received, were dependent upon their parents' places in society. Young children played with toys, including hobbyhorses and puppets. Games like chess were also popular forms of childhood entertainment. Starting at the age of seven, children had lessons to learn and chores to do.

Boys began to study to become knights. Girls did not have lessons, and instead learned how to manage the household and how to behave like a lady. Between the ages of twelve and fourteen, children became young adults', and were expected to work. Peasant children spent their days helping their parents and doing chores.

[22] Cowan, Edward J. and Lizanne Henderson, eds,opcit., p.54

## 5. Religion during the Medieval Period

The Catholic Church was the most important institution in medieval life. It extended its influence over many different aspects of the village, including ones that were traditionally secular. For example, the calendar was based on religious festivals and obligations. The most popular medieval legends, or stories about famous people that are often exaggerated, were about Christian saints.

The Church was very serious in its collecting of tithes from the medieval people, and withholding of tithes was considered an extreme offence. Chapels, including Rosslyn Chapel, were built by castle owners for use as private family churches. Sermons were given daily by parish priests in small rooms called chapels. Prayer was a big part of every day. The church had to approve what you did and how you behaved, or you would be punished, sometimes with your life. The church had great power, and did not hesitate to use it.

Medieval people believed that in order to get to heaven, they needed to follow the teachings of the Bible. Because the common people at the time could not read or write, the village priest read them the Bible and instructed them on how to behave. Churches and chapels of the time used carvings and stained glass windows to illustrate important biblical lessons.[23]

### 5.1. The Catholic Church in the Middle Ages

After the fall of Rome, no single state or government united the people who lived on the European continent. Instead, the Catholic Church became the most powerful institution of the medieval period. Kings, queens and other leaders derived much of their power from their alliances with and protection of the Church.

[23] Ibid., Entry: **The Church during the Middle Ages**

In 800 CE, for example, Pope Leo III named the Frankish king Charlemagne the "Emperor of the Romans"–the first since that empire's fall more than 300 years before. Over time, Charlemagne's realm became the Holy Roman Empire, one of several political entities in Europe whose interests tended to align with those of the Church. Ordinary people across Europe had to "tithe" 10 percent of their earnings each year to the Church; at the same time, the Church was mostly exempt from taxation. These policies helped it to amass a great deal of money and power.

## 5.2. The Rise of Islam

Meanwhile, the Islamic world was growing larger and more powerful. After the prophet Muhammad's death in 632 CE, Muslim armies conquered large parts of the Middle East, uniting them under the rule of a single caliph. At its height, the medieval Islamic world was more than three times bigger than all of Christendom.

Under the caliphs, great cities such as Cairo, Baghdad and Damascus fostered a vibrant intellectual and cultural life. Poets, scientists and philosophers wrote thousands of books (on paper, a Chinese invention that had made its way into the Islamic world by the 8th century). Scholars translated Greek, Iranian and Indian texts into Arabic. Inventors devised technologies like the pinhole camera, soap, windmills, surgical instruments, an early flying machine and the system of numerals that we use today. And religious scholars and mystics translated, interpreted and taught the Quran and other scriptural texts to people across the Middle East[24].

[24] Ibid., Entry: **The Rise of Islam**

## 5.3. The Crusades

Toward the end of the 11th century, the Catholic Church began to authorize military expeditions, or Crusades, to expel Muslim "infidels" from the Holy Land. Crusaders, who wore red crosses on their coats to advertise their status, believed that their service would guarantee the remission of their sins and ensure that they could spend all eternity in Heaven. (They also received more worldly rewards, such as papal protection of their property and forgiveness of some kinds of loan payments.)

The Crusades began in 1095, when Pope Urban summoned a Christian army to fight its way to Jerusalem, and continued on and off until the end of the 15th century. In 1099, Christian armies captured Jerusalem from Muslim control, and groups of pilgrims from across Western Europe started visiting the Holy Land. Many of them, however, were robbed and killed as they crossed through Muslim-controlled territories during their journey.

Around 1118, a French knight named Hugues de Payens created a military order along with eight relatives and acquaintances that became the Knights Templar, and they won the eventual support of the pope and a reputation for being fearsome fighters. The Fall of Acre in 1291 marked the destruction of the last remaining Crusader refuge in the Holy Land, and Pope Clement V dissolved the Knights Templar in 1312.

No one "won" the Crusades; in fact, many thousands of people from both sides lost their lives. They did make ordinary Catholics across Christendom feel like they had a common purpose, and they inspired waves of religious enthusiasm among people who might otherwise have felt alienated from the official Church. They also exposed Crusaders to Islamic literature, science and technology– exposure that would have a lasting effect on European intellectual life[25].

[25] **Ibid., Entry**: The Crusades

## Conclusion

The Middle Ages were Dark Ages, an age of Feudalism, an age of Faith and Golden Ages, for different reasons. They were Dark Ages because of the high rate of illiteracy and the vicious and savage wars called the Crusades. They were an age of Feudalism because Feudalism was the preferred legal system during that time. They were ages of Faith because many elaborate Cathedrals were built during the Middle Ages. In addition, the Middle Ages were a Golden Age because of how much learning was revered and valued. There was also lots of majestic architecture that was built during the Middle Ages. But, while the Middle Ages were all of these things, they were above all Dark Ages. No matter how many advances that you make, if you are still failing your citizens (illiteracy rate), it does not matter how many advances you make. It is a "Dark Age" more than any of the other categories.

To complete the image of the Middle Ages in the mind of the students, it is important to clarify the following concepts.

**N.B.** The teacher must write two concepts on the board during each lecture.

## ▪ Glossary of the Period

**1. The Romans:** The Romans lived in Rome, a city in the centre of the country of Italy. One day, some years before Jesus Christ was born, the Romans came to Britain.

**2. Britain before the Romans (The Celts)**

➢ **Who were the Celts?**

From around 750 BC to 12 BC, the Celts were the most powerful people in central and northern Europe. There were many groups (tribes) of Celts, speaking a vaguely common language. The word Celt comes from the Greek word, ***Keltoi***, which means barbarians and is properly pronounced as "Kelt".

- **Romans invasions**

➢ **First invasion** - Caesar's first raid

In August 55 B.C. (55 years before Jesus was born), the Roman general, Emperor Julius Caesar invaded Britain. He took with him two Roman legions. After winning several battles against the Celtic tribes (Britons) in south-east England he returned to France.

➢ **Second invasion** - Caesar's second raid

The following summer (in 54 B.C.), Caesar came to Britain again landing at Walmer near Deal in Kent. This time he brought with him no fewer than five legions (30,000 foot soldiers) and 2,000 cavalrymen (horse riders). This time the Romans crossed the River Thames. After more fighting, the British tribes

promised to pay tribute to Rome and were then left in peace for nearly a century.

- **Third and final invasion**

Nearly one hundred years later, in 43 A.D. (43 years after Jesus was born), Emperor Claudius organised the final and successful Roman invasion of Britain. General Aulus Plautius led four legions with 25,000 men, plus an equal number of auxiliary soldiers. They crossed the Channel in three divisions, landing at Richborough, Dover, and Lympne. The biggest battle was fought on the banks of the River Medway, close to Rochester. It went on for two days before the Celtic tribes retreated. Many tribes tried to resist the Romans. It took about four years for the invaders to finally gain control over southern England, and another 30 years for them to conquer all of the West Country and the mountains and valleys of Wales. The battle for Yorkshire and the remainder of northern England was still underway in AD 70.

## 3. The Bayeux Tapestry

The Bayeux Tapestry is a magnificent piece of artwork that has attracted the attention of audiences for centuries, and it's easy to see why. Not only does the Bayeux Tapestry depict an astonishing amount of Norman and Saxon history, its sheer size is magnificent to behold. At more than 70 metres (or 230 feet) long, this incredible artistic masterpiece would be an impressive production of today's standards. However, the Bayeux Tapestry was produced centuries ago, and has managed, with modern preservation, to withstand the test of time.

## 4. The Black Death

The Black Death, formerly known as the Bubonic Plague, is by far one of the most horrifying and yet the most fascinating subjects toed to the Middle Ages. Perhaps it is both the ferocity of the disease and the gruesome nature in which

patients would die that captivates our morbid fascination with this killer disease.

5. **The Magna Carta**

   The Magna Carta, also known as the Great Charter, the Magna Carta Libertatum and The Great Charter of the Liberties of England, is a document that was signed by King John in 1215. He signed the document under duress after facing ongoing rebellion from his barons. In signing the Magna Carta King John forever changed the power of the monarchy, the rights of an English citizen and the influence Parliament had on the country. The Magna Carta, like the Domesday Book, is considered one of the most important documents to have been written during the Middle Ages, and it has since had a great impact on English law and the society. A copy of the Magna Carta can be found and read online today.

6. **The Battle of Hastings**

   On Saturday 14th October 1066 King Harold II of England was defeated by William, Duke of Normandy (also known as William the Conqueror) at what is now known as the Battle of Hastings. The battle was was fought on Senlac Hill, a location that's approximately seven miles from Hastings, England. By the end of the bloody day King Harold had been killed. Legend says that Harold was killed by an arrow in the eye, although this may be more folklore than fact. Henry and his forces were destroyed by William and his Norman army, and Harold was the last Anglo-Saxon king of England.

7. **The Black Death**

   The Black Death, formerly known as the Bubonic Plague, is by far one of the most horrifying and yet the most fascinating subjects toed to the Middle Ages. Perhaps it is both the ferocity of the disease and the gruesome nature in which patients would die that captivates our morbid fascination with this killer disease.

8. **The Great Schism**

The Great Schism is the name given to the division of the Roman Catholic Church in which rival popes sat in both Rome and Avignon. It is also called the Great Schism in Western Christendom and the Great Western Schism. This is to help identify between this rift in the church and an earlier schism which occurred in 1054. This divide within the church started in 1378 and ended in 1417.

9. **The Wars of the Roses**

The Wars of the Roses is the name given to a series of civil wars that occurred over a space of three decades in England during the Middle Ages. The Wars of the Roses were fought between two opposing houses, the House of Lancaster (also known as Lancastrians) and the House of York (also known as Yorkists).

10. **The Peasants' Revolt**

Medieval England experienced a surprisingly few number of revolts, especially given the constant threat of war and the rising taxes pushed on peasants to fund the feuds. However, one of the most serious and most notable revolts was the Peasants' Revolt which occurred during June 1381.

11. **The Domesday Book**

The Domesday Book is one of the most renowned, respected and revered public records ever to have been published. It is also the oldest public record to have survived through the ages. Unlike the modern census records, the Domesday Book was designed not to count the numbers of the population; it was instead designed to record the ownership of land and resources (such as livestock).

12. **Middle Ages Battles**

The Middle Ages was a particularly violent and bloody period in English history. The Middle Ages is a period that is full of warfare and violence, and

in this article we will look at some of the most notable wars. There are a number of key battles and campaigns during the Middle Ages. These include:

- The Battle of Hastings
- The Crusades
- The Barons War
- The Hundred Years War
- The Wars of the Roses

These battles, although bloody, led to key developments in technology, weaponry s well as advancements in both defensive and offensive structures and weaponry, changes to law and much more.

**13. The Protestant Reformation**

The Protestant Reformation, a religious movement that aimed to reform the Roman Catholic Church and resulted in the establishment of Protestant churches, began in the early sixteenth century when German monk Martin Luther (1483–1546) publicized his objections to the practices of the Catholic Church. Luther believed that faith in Christ, not the intervention of the church, was the route to salvation (deliverance from the results of sin). Luther argued that the Bible—not the Catholic Church—was the sole spiritual authority. He was particularly disgusted by the sale of papal indulgences, or free passes issued by the pope to wealthy people, allowing them to sin and then pay to be forgiven. Luther believed only God could forgive sins.

**14. The First Barons' War**

The First Barons' War (1215–1217) was a civil war in the Kingdom of England in which a group of rebellious major landowners (commonly referred to as barons) led by Robert Fitzwalter with a French army under the future Louis VIII of France, waged war against King John of England. The war resulted from King John's refusal to accept and abide by *Magna Carta*, which he had sealed on 15 June 1215.

## Evaluation

At the end of this semester the student will be able to answer these types of questions:

1. **Discuss the following passages**.

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*"Medieval society was characterized by the domination of the Church, which has become an important, political, economic, spiritual and cultural force in Europe."*

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*"During the Middle Ages, life was harsh, uncertain and dangerous. For safety and defense, people formed small communities around a central lord or master".*

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*"In literature, Medieval life seems heroic, entertaining and romantic. Nevertheless, life was harsh and dangerous, and people could not live without the protection of their superiors or lords".*

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*"...Medieval Kingship relied on a strong ruler who could balance the demands of the leading magnates and either keep taxation low or have success in military endeavours, with all the benefits of victory, to justify excessive expense. Notwithstanding a bitter civil war over the succession - the Anarchy - this had broadly been achieved by the first Kings following the Norman invasion. However the rule of King John (1199-1216) led to a re-evaluation of the relationship between monarch and the Barons...."*

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*"The Protestant Reformation was the 16th-century religious, political, intellectual and cultural upheaval that splintered Catholic Europe, setting in place the structures and beliefs that would define the continent in the modern era."*

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*"The Wars of the Roses were a series of bloody civil wars for the throne of England between two competing royal families: the House of York and the House of Lancaster, both members of the age-old royal Plantagenet family."*

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*"The Great Schism of 1054 marked the first major split in the history of Christianity, separating the Orthodox Church in the East from the Roman Catholic Church in the West. Until this time, all of Christendom existed under one body, but the churches in the East were developing distinct cultural and theological differences from those in the West."*

2. **Answer the following Questions:**

- **Why did the Romans invade Britain?**

Why the Romans came to Britain is not quite certain? Two reasons have been suggested:

1. The Romans were cross with Britain for helping the Gauls (now called the French) fight against the Roman general Julius Caesar.
2. They came to Britain looking for riches - land, slaves, and most of all, iron, lead, zinc, copper, silver and gold.

- **How long did the Romans stay in Britain?**

  The Romans remained in Britain from 43 AD to 410 AD. That is almost four hundred years (four centuries).

- **Why did the Romans leave Britain?**

  Their homes in Italy were being attacked by fierce tribes and every soldier was needed.

- **What did the Romans call London?**

  The Romans called London '**Londinium**'. The River Thames was quick way to transport goods between Britain and the Continent. The Romans saw this and built the town of Londinium around the river's main crossing point.

- **What was religion like in medieval England?**

  In Europe, during the Medieval times, the only recognised religion was Christianity, in the form of the Catholic religion. Life of the medieval people was dominated by the church.

- **What is the medieval period in England?**

  England in the Middle Ages concerns the history of England during the medieval period, from the end of the 5th century through to the start of the Early Modern period in 1485. When England emerged from the collapse of

the Roman Empire, the economy was in tatters and many of the towns abandoned.

- **What were the consequences of the "Black Death"?**

The Black Death had a catastrophic impact as it swept across Europe in the 1340s. Approximately 30-60% of people in Europe where killed and when it arrived in England it was no more merciful.

- **What is meant by the manor system?**

The manorial system, or seignorial system, was an economic and social system of medieval Europe. All legal and economic power belonged to the lord of the manor, who was supported economically from his land and from contributions from the peasant population under his authority.

- **What led to the outbreak of the Hundred Years War?**

England, torn by the Wars of the Roses, made no further attempt to conquer France. The Hundred Years War inflicted untold misery on France. Farmlands were laid waste, the population was decimated by war, famine, and the Black Death

- **How did the Hundred Years War contributed to the rise of modern Europe?**

The cause for the Hundred Year war was that The Duke of Normandy claimed to be the rightful king of England. The Hundred years war contributed to the rise of modern Europe because they developed new technologies during this time. After the war, European trade and towns grew throughout the Middle Ages.

- **Why is it called the Dark Ages?**

The Dark Ages is a term often used synonymously with the Middle Ages. It refers to the period of time between the fall of the Roman Empire and the beginning of the Italian Renaissance and the Age of Discovery. The term 'Dark Ages' was coined by an Italian scholar named Francesco Petrarch.

**3. Select the Right Definition**

- **Late Middle Ages refers to**

**a)** A period of time from the 11th century to the 13th century

**b)** A period of time from the 05th century to the 10th century

**c)** A period of time from the 14th century to the 15th century

**d)** A period of time from the 05th century to the 15th century

- **Vassal refers to:**

**a)** A ruler below the King in the feudal system.

**b)** A ruler below the Baron in the feudal system

**c)** A ruler below the Knight in the feudal system

**d)** A person granted the use of land, in return for rendering homage and fealty to the lord.

- **Feudalism refers to**

**a)** A political and economic system, where all land is owned by the King.

**b)** A political and economic system, where all people share the same rights and duties.

**c)** A political and religious system, where all people contribute in the development of their society

**d)** A political theory which explains the role of the King in the development of his/her society.

**4.** Are these statements **"True"** or **"False"**

- All human Civilizations have depended on force for subsistence (.....)
- Between 1348 and 1350 almost one third of the population of Europe migrated to urban places.(.....)
- Feudal society was characterized by a hierarchical system of relationships and obligations (.....)
- Feudalism was introduced to England by the Normans. (.....)

- Oligarchy is a form of government in which sovereignty is actually or normally embodied in a single individual (.....)
- Over the time, Civilization has depended on technology and class discrimination. (.....)
- Serfs were those who provided food to the Knights. (.....)
- The Crusades were political conflicts between the Catholics and the Protestants. (.....)
- The Crusades were undertaken to reform the Medieval church.(.....)
- The Domesday Book was a religious manuscript that records some verses of the Bible. (.....)
- The driving forces of any civilization are its religious and secular education. (.....)
- The manor was the parcel of land leased to a baron by the King. (.....)
- Villeins were also known as vassals. (.....)
- William the Rufus was the King of France, who defeated William the Conqueror. (.....)

**6. Arrange these events in chronological order:**

- The Black Death ravages England.
- Emperor Claudius conquers Britain.
- Duke William defeats King Harold at Hasting.
- The Hundred Years War ends.
- Christianity reaches England.
- King John grants his barons the Great Charter of Liberties.
- The Wars of the Roses end.
- The peasants' Revolt breaks out.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |

# SEMESTER TWO

## Early Modern Britain:
## The English Renaissance
## (The Tudors 1485-1603 and the Stuarts 1603-1714)

### Objectives:

At the end of this semester, students must be able to assimilate new knowledge about this period of time and answer these types of questions:

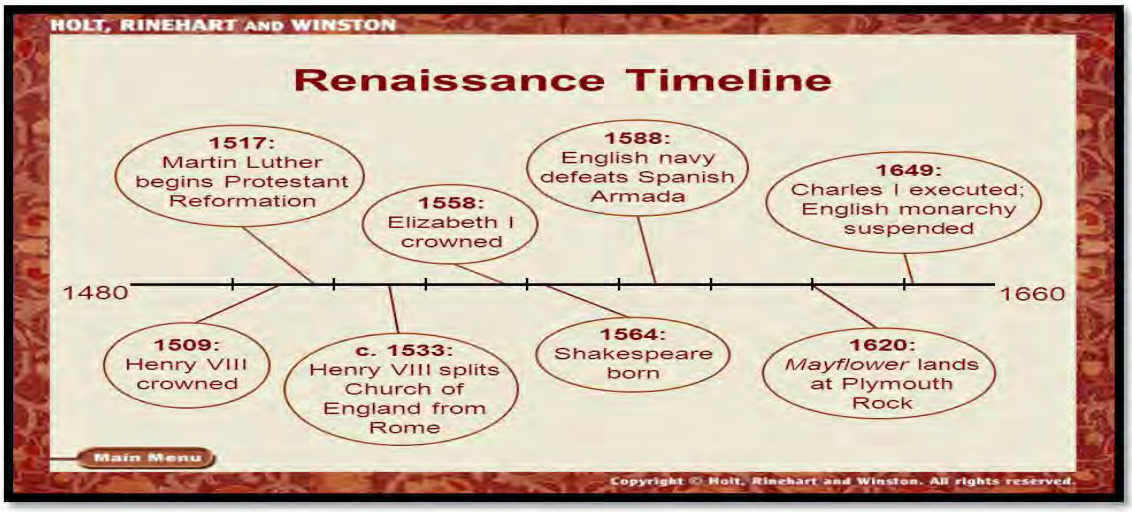
- When did the early modern period begin?
- Who ruled Britain in the 17th century?
- What is the 1600 era called?
- Who were the Tudors?
- Who were the Stuarts?
- What is meant by the English Renaissance?

### Introduction

The English Renaissance was a cultural and artistic movement in England dating from the late 15th century to the early 17th century. It is associated with the pan-European Renaissance that is usually regarded as beginning in Italy in the late 14th century. As in most of the rest of northern Europe, England saw little of these developments until more than a century later.

The beginning of the English Renaissance is often taken, as a convenience, to be 1485, when the Battle of Boswort Field ended the Wars of the Roses and inaugurated the Tudor Dynasty. Renaissance style and ideas, however, were slow to penetrate England, and the Elizabethan era in the second half of the 16th century is usually regarded as the height of the English Renaissance.

The English Renaissance is different from the Italian Renaissance in several ways. The dominant art forms of the English Renaissance were literature and music. Visual arts in the English Renaissance were much less significant than in the Italian Renaissance. The English period began far later than the Italian, which was moving into Mannerism and the Baroque by the 1550s or earlier. In contrast, the English Renaissance can only truly be said to begin, shakily, in the 1520s, and it continued until perhaps 1620.[26]




## I. The Tudors Dynasty

**Henry VII (1485-1509)**

**Henry VIII (1509-1547)**

**Edward VI (1147-1553)**

**Mary I 'Bloody Mary' (1553-1558)**

**Elizabeth I (1558-1603)**

Henry VII presided over a strengthened monarchy which exercised increasingly centralised control over the country. However, he and his successors were dogged by the questionable legitimacy of their dynasty.

[26] https://www.britannica.com/art/English-literature/The-Renaissance-period-1550-1660. Entry : **The Renaissance in England**

As king, Henry was styled by the Grace of God, King of England and France and Lord of Ireland. On his succession, Henry became entitled to bear the Royal Arms of England. After his marriage, Henry used the red and white rose as his emblem, which became known as the Tudor rose.

The problem came to a head in Henry VIII's reign because of his repeated failure to produce a male heir. Henry attempted to remarry, but the Pope refused to dissolve his marriage to Catherine of Aragon. This led Henry to break away from the Catholic Church. After multiple marriages, he did produce a son, the sickly Edward VI, who died six years into his reign[27].

Henry VIII (28 June 1491 – 28 January 1547) was King of England from 1509 until his death in 1547. He was the second Tudor monarch, succeeding his father Henry VII. Henry is best known for his six marriages, in particular his efforts to have his first marriage (to Catherine of Aragon) annulled. His disagreement with the Pope on the question of such an annulment led Henry to initiate the English Reformation, separating the Church of England from papal authority. He appointed himself the Supreme Head of the Church of England and dissolved convents and monasteries, for which he was excommunicated. Henry is also known as "the father of the Royal Navy"; he invested heavily in the Navy, increasing its size greatly from a few to more than 50 ships.

He was succeeded by his elder half-sister Mary I. Mary was the wife of King Philip II of Spain, a staunchly Catholic monarch, and England was immediately riven into pro-Catholic and pro- Protestant camps, where religious and political divisions were inseparable. However, at Mary's death, she was succeeded by her Protestant half-sister Elizabeth I.

[27] https://www.thoughtco.com/tudors-introduction-to-a-royal-dynasty. Entry: **The Tudors**

Mary I (18 February 1516 – 17 November 1558), also known as Mary Tudor, was the Queen of England and Ireland from July 1553 until her death. She is best known for her aggressive attempt to reverse the English Reformation, which had begun during the reign of her father, Henry VIII. The executions that marked her pursuit of the restoration of Roman Catholicism in England and Ireland led to her denunciation as "Bloody Mary" by her Protestant opponents.

Elizabeth never married and died without an heir in 1603. Her designated heir was James VI of Scotland, the son of Mary Queen of Scots (1542-1567). Mary was the granddaughter of Henry VIII's sister Margaret, who had married into the Stuart dynasty of Scotland (she was the wife of James IV). Thus Mary was always a potential claimant of the English throne, and Elizabeth was eventually forced to execute her in 1587. However, by making Mary's son her heir, Elizabeth secured an easy succession for the Scottish king and an easy transition from the Tudor to the Stuart dynasty[28].

Elizabeth I (7 September 1533 – 24 March 1603) was Queen of England and Ireland from 17 November 1558 until her death on 24 March 1603. Sometimes called The Virgin Queen, Gloriana or Good Queen Bess, Elizabeth was the last of the five monarchs of the House of Tudor.

## 1. Henry VIII and the Uncertain Succession

The Tudor dynasty oversaw the gradual disappearance of the old feudal organisation of England. The process accelerated when Henry VIII broke from Rome and made himself Supreme Head of the English Church. He had the Catholic monasteries dissolved and re-distributed their vast wealth to his courtiers in exchange for their political support. The same process encouraged the further development of courtly culture, as people gathered around the king in order to secure their political advancement.



[28] Ibid.

Henry's son (by his third wife, Jane Seymour) was Edward VI. During his short reign the religious principles of the Church of England were given a strong doctrinal basis and formalised in 1553. However, his successor was the half-Spanish Mary I (daughter of Henry VIII's first wife Catherine of Aragon), who was married to Philip II of Spain. Mary tried to reverse the doctrinal changes which had taken place under her father and half-brother, and many of the leading Protestants were forced to flee to the Continent or were burned at the stake. Mary's accession had been opposed by leading politicians and she had to deal with rebellion throughout her reign. At her death, her half-sister Elizabeth I (daughter of Henry VIII's third wife, Anne Boleyn) restored Protestant rule[29].

King Henry VIII (1491-1547) ruled England for 36 years, presiding over sweeping changes that brought his nation into the Protestant Reformation. He famously married a series of six wives in his search for political alliance, marital bliss and a healthy male heir.

## 2. Elizabeth I

Although Elizabeth did not eliminate the religious tensions of the preceding twenty years, they retreated to a simmering undercurrent under her strong rule. Although neither Catholics nor reformists were satisfied with her doctrinal reforms, the majority of the population looked to the monarch as the prime source of authority in religion. Under Elizabeth, much of the power held by the monarch became invested in Elizabeth herself, creating a cult of personality which touched nearly every aspect of Elizabethan society[30].

Elizabeth the first is one of the most famous queens in English history. Under her reign, England prospered. The Elizabethan era is often referred to as the Golden age. She was a moderate protestant who reconciled between the catholics and the Protestants. Elizabeth I ruled over England and Ireland for a period of 44 years and 127 days from November 17, 1558 until her death on March 24, 1603. She is the ninth longest reigning British monarch. Among females, her reign is the third longest after Elizabeth II and Queen Victoria.

[29] https://www.britannica.com/biography/Henry-VIII-king-of-England. Entry: **Henry VIII**
[30] Ibid., Entry: **Elizabeth I**

Internally, the Queen's courtiers struggled to gain her favour, and, externally, England was able to sway the balance of power in Europe between Spain and France. In particular, her ability to manipulate her many suitors without ever marrying had the effect of concentrating the glory of the realm more fully in her person, so that she eventually insisted that England itself was her spouse, and her persona as the Virgin Queen became the object of almost religious adulation. English nationalism and adoration of its queen became one and the same. Despite the growing power of England, Spain had become the most powerful nation in Europe. In 1556 Philip II (1556-1598) had inherited the possessions of the Hapsburg dynasty in the Netherlands and nearly half of Italy, as well as Spanish holdings in the New World[31].

The defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588 has long been held as one of England's greatest military achievements. The successful defence of the kingdom against invasion on such an unprecedented scale boosted the prestige of England's Queen Elizabeth I and encouraged a sense of English pride and nationalism.

England inevitably fostered anti-Spanish rebellions by Protestants in the Netherlands, and piracy against Spanish activities in the Americas. Although the Queen took no responsibility for the activities of English 'privateers', she sponsored them financially and rewarded them well. Most famous amongst the English privateers was Sir Francis Drake, who between1577-1580 pillaged Spanish towns on the Pacific as far north as San Francisco, sailing around South America and returning with £1 million of booty.

Philip II sent an invasion force against Elizabeth in 1588, but the overwhelming defeat of the Spanish Armada secured Elizabeth's position. However, at this stage, most English activity in the New World consisted of privateering. English colonial efforts were focused on Ireland, where a

[31] Ibid.

combination of expansionism, nationalism, and religious intolerance led to a subjugation of the Roman Catholic populace and its Celtic culture[32].

The accomplishments and achievements of Queen Elizabeth I have given her the reputation of the greatest monarch of England. The Elizabethan era is often referred to as the Golden Age.

Tudor England had two of the strongest monarchs ever to sit on the English throne: Henry VIII and his daughter Elizabeth I. The Tudors ruled England from 1485 to 1603. The first Tudor king was Henry Vll. He became king after the battle of Bosworth field, which ended the War of the Roses.

- **How did the Tudors live?**

Life in Tudor Britain was harsh - the average life expectancy was just 35 years. ... Tudor England was a farming society. Most of the population (over 90 %) lived in small villages and made their living from farming. Under Tudor rule England became a more peaceful and richer place

## II. The Stuarts Dynasty

- **James VI of Scotland (1567-1625) and I of England (1603-1625)**
- **Charles I (1625-1649), executed**
- **Charles II (1649-1685), reigned 1660-1685**
- **James II (1685-1688), deposedWilliam III (1689-1702) and Mary II (1689-1694), Joint**
- **Anne (1702-1714)**

### 1. The Union of the Crowns

When James VI of Scotland became James I of England, the Stuart dynasty took over from the Tudors with little opposition. James was a Protestant and therefore there was no great cultural break between Elizabethan and Jacobean England (from Jacobus, the Latin form of James). However, James did not inherit Elizabeth's personality cult. During Elizabeth's reign social and religious

[32] https://www.bbc.com/timelines/tudors. Entry: **Tudors**

grievances were muted by her immense authority and effective politicking; however, James could not contain discontent in the same way, and unrest steadily grew, particularly against the authority of the king and the Church hierarchy[33].

The tensions nearly toppled the kingdom in the failed Gunpowder Plot of 1605, an attempt by Catholic extremists to blow up Parliament and the king. Against the backdrop of such discontent, James turned to the traditional notion of the divine right of kings to rule, only he interpreted this to mean that his policies could not be challenged by his subjects. This brought him into increasing conflict with Parliament. Still, he fostered tremendous cultural achievements, the patronage of Shakespeare's theatre and the publication of the King James Bible in 1611, as well as the settlement of Jamestown, Virginia in 1607.

The arrival of Puritan settlers at Plymouth, Massachusetts occurred at the end of his reign, in 1620. Whilst the English spread to the New World, there was great ambiguity between Scotland and England, which had the same king but separate Parliaments, religious institutions, and systems of taxation[34].

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

James I was king of Scotland (as James VI) before he became king of both England and Scotland. He acceded to the English throne upon the death of the heirless Queen Elizabeth I in 1603. James's ensuing reign was a controversial one, in part because of many political decisions that Parliament and the public found vexing: he spent lavishly; summoned Parliament only once between 1612 and 1622, levied an unpopular tax on imports and exports without Parliament's consent, and tried to forge an alliance with Spain, a kingdom regarded with enmity by most in England.

[33] Ibid.
[34] https://www.parliament.uk/unionofthe crowns. Entry:**The union of the crowns**

## 2. Charles I and the Civil War

The discontent of Elizabeth's and James's reigns came to a head under Charles I. Puritan preachers agitated all sectors of society, eventually taking Parliament into direct conflict with the King in 1642. Thus began the English Civil War. Parliamentary forces (called the Roundheads after the shape of the helmets they wore) gradually gained the upper hand against the royalists (known as the Cavaliers), and they captured, tried, and executed Charles in 1649.

England was declared a Commonwealth (later a Protectorate) under the rule of Oliver Cromwell[35], who commanded the forces of the Roundheads.Cromwell, was, if anything, a more authoritarian ruler than Charles was, and religious intolerance increased. The theatres were closed, the press restricted, and peace was maintained by military force. When Cromwell died in 1658, his son Richard briefly succeeded him. But no stable form of government had evolved, and Charles II was recalled from exile in 1660 to take back his father's throne.

Charles I (19 November 1600 – 30 January 1649) was the monarch over the three kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland from 27 March 1625 until his execution in 1649.

The English Civil War has many causes but the personality of Charles I must be counted as one of the major reasons. ... As with many wars, there are long and short term causes. Long term causes: The status of the monarchy had started to decline under the reign of James I. He was known as the "wisest fool in Christendom".

The Commonwealth (sometimes called the English Republic) was the period from 1649 to 1660 when England and Wales, later along with Ireland and Scotland, were ruled as a republic following the end of the Second English Civil War and the trial and execution of Charles I.

[35] Oliver Cromwell (25 April 1599 – 3 September 1658) was an English military and political leader. He served as Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland "and of the dominions thereto belonging" from 1653 until his death, acting simultaneously as head of state and head of government of the new republic. Ibid., Entry : **Oliver Cromwell**

## 3. Charles II and the Restoration

When Charles II[36] came to the throne strict limits were placed on his authority over Parliament. While this did not completely eliminate his power or influence, it did much to assuage the fears of authoritarian rule which had characterised the earlier Stuart period. The period of Charles' reign is known as the Restoration period, but at the time people looked to Charles to bring a new period of English glory to rival the greatest days of the Roman Empire under Caesar Augustus. For this reason, England during the period is often known as Augustan England. Even the Great Fire of London of 1666[37], which destroyed three-quarters of the town, including St Paul's Cathedral, failed to dampen the enthusiasm.

The theatres were re-opened, and the King sponsored intellectual groups, most notably, the Royal Society, an organisation established to bring together the greatest scientific scholars in England. However, not all the tensions of the past were eliminated. Charles harboured Catholic sympathies, which he hid until his death for the sake of the peace of his realm. However, his brother, later James II, made no secret of his desire to return England to Catholicism, and people began to take sides well before Charles' death.

When James became king, the Dutch Protestant William of Orange, who was married to James' daughter Mary, was invited to invade. In the so-called Glorious Revolution of 1688[38] William crushed James' forces and sent the king into exile. Thereafter, William and Mary ruled as Joint Sovereigns. Mary died in

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[36] Charles II (29 May 1630 – 6 February 1685) was king of England, Scotland, and Ireland. He was king of Scotland from 1649 until his deposition in 1651, and king of England, Scotland and Ireland from the 1660 Restoration of the monarchy until his death. https://www.universalis.fr/dictionnaire.Entry: **Charles II**

[37] The Great Fire of London was a major conflagration that swept through the central parts of the English city of London from Sunday, 2 September to Thursday, 6 September 1666. Ibid., Entry: **The Great Fire of London**

[38] The Glorious Revolution of 1688-1689 replaced the reigning king, James II, with the joint monarchy of his protestant daughter Mary and her Dutch husband, William of Orange. It was the keystone of the Whig (those opposed to a Catholic succession) history of Britain. Ibid., Entry: **The Glorious Revolution of 1688-1689**

1694, and William in 1702, to be succeeded by Mary's sister Anne, the last of the Stuart monarchs.

> In 1650, Charles did a deal with the Scots and was proclaimed king. With a Scottish army he invaded England but was defeated by Cromwell at the Battle of Worcester in 1651. He again escaped into exile and it was not until 1660 that he was invited back to England to reclaim his throne.

## 4. Social and Economic Developments

The period from the sixteenth to the early eighteenth century is often referred to as the Early Modern Period because it coincides with the colonization of the New World and the development of new technologies which shaped the world as we know it. The introduction of the printing press to England by William Caxton in 1476 gradually brought about a more literate and print-oriented culture. The period also saw accelerating urbanization and an economy in which monetary wealth was less synonymous with the ownership of land. This had the effect of encouraging social mobility, both geographically and hierarchically. As a result, many ideas about social institutions which had been inherited from the Middle Ages were actively questioned and debated at a level not seen before.

These ideas were not abandoned completely, but they were inevitably transformed. Most notably, the emphasis which the medieval Catholic Church had placed on the salvation of the soul after death gave way to an interest in human virtue and morality in this world. This movement, which had its roots in the Middle Ages but drew much of its influence from the Classical past, is known as Humanism[39]. It sought to understand the principles of human behaviour and human societies, giving great attention to public and political affairs.

[39] Humanism is a rationalist outlook or system of thought attaching prime importance to human rather than divine or supernatural matters. It refers also to a Renaissance cultural movement which turned away from medieval scholasticism and revived interest in ancient Greek and Roman thought. Ibid., Entry: **Humanism**

Humanism also tended employ empirical methodologies to understand the world, as opposed the more theoretical ones taught in medieval universities. For inspiration, people turned to the Classical Greece and Rome, and much of the aesthetics of the Early Modern Period thus consciously imitates the past. The renewed interest in the study of the Classical learning (aided by the new ease of acquiring printed editions of ancient texts), led people to think that they were experiencing a re-birth, or renaissance, of knowledge and wisdom which they believed had been lost in the Middle Ages. For this reason, the period, particularly from about 1500-1650, has become known as the Renaissance.

During the Renaissance, the European economy grew dramatically, particularly in the area of trade. Developments such as population growth, improvements in banking, expanding trade routes, and new manufacturing systems led to an overall increase in commercial activity.

## 5. Religious Developments

The single, greatest development of the period is the Reformation, the process by which some Christians in Western Europe left the Church of Rome to found their own Protestant churches. The process happened in different ways in different countries, but the English Reformation is a direct result of Henry VIII's conflict with the Pope. Whilst this led to the establishment of the Church of England, it is important to realise that the established Church did not satisfy all the calls for religious reform in the Early Modern period. Protestants known as dissenters objected to the hierarchical nature of the Church of England, and many insisted that there should be no intermediary between man and God, save the Bible. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, most extreme of these dissenters ere called Puritans[40]. However, throughout the period, other sects came into

[40] Puritans are members of a group of English Protestants of the late 16th and 17th, a Puritan is a person with censorious moral beliefs, especially about self-indulgence and sex. https://www.dictionary.com/browse/puritan. Entry: **The Puritans**

being, particularly the Presbyterians[41], the Anabaptists[42], and the Quakers[43]. Hence English society became religiously fragmented. In many cases, religious fundamentalists lined themselves up against the new humanist thinking, and religious fervour was often closely linked with superstition, as a result. Witch trials rare occurrences in the Middle Ages became common, one of the later examples being those in Salem, Massachusetts during the 1690s.

## III. The Restoration and the Eighteenth Century

### 1. The Restoration

- ***What does the concept Restoration imply?***

The Restoration period of English literature roughly lasts from 1660 to 1688. It begins with Charles II returning to the throne following the rule of various republican governments that ruled England from 1649 to 1659 after Charles I was executed.

- ***What happened during the Restoration period?***

Restoration, Restoration of the monarchy in England in 1660. It marked the return of Charles II as king (1660–85) following the period of Oliver Cromwell's Commonwealth. The bishops were restored to Parliament, which established a strict Anglican orthodoxy.

- ***Why was the Restoration period called that?***

It began in 1660 when the English, Scottish and Irish monarchies were all restored under King Charles II. ... The term "Restoration" is used to describe both the actual event by which the monarchy was restored, and the period of several years afterwards in which a new political settlement was established.

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[41] Presbyterians means belonging or relating to a Protestant church, found especially in Scotland or the United States, which is governed by a body of official people all of equal rank. Ibid., Entry: **The Presbyterians**

[42] Anabaptists are Protestants sectarian of a radical movement arising in the 16th century and advocating the baptism and church membership of adult believers only, nonresistance, and the separation of church and state. Ibid., Entry: **The Anabaptists**

[43] Quakers, also called Friends, are a historically Christian group of religious movements formally known as the Religious Society of Friends, Society of Friends or Friends Church. Members of the various Quaker movements are all generally united in a belief in the ability of each human being to experientially access the light within, or "that of God in every one". Ibid., Entry: **The Quakers**

Many believed that Charles II would bring order, peace, and freedom under law back to the country after the Civil War. However, in 1665, England was struck by an outbreak of the plague[44], which many considered to be a divine punishment for the death of Charles I. In September of 1666, the Great Fire of London raged for four days, destroying a large part of the City, leaving about two-thirds of its population homeless (and inadvertently eradicating the plague). Nevertheless, the nation prospered and embarked on a process of empire building.

The Royal Navy was built up, and after a series of wars with the Dutch and French between 1680 and 1763, England acquired dominions that stretched from Canada to India. With the king, the established Church was also restored, and legislation was soon passed against Dissenters[45] which filled the prisons with nonconformist preachers (like John Bunyan). This culminated in the Test Act of 1673 which required all holders of civil and military offices to receive the sacrament according to the Anglican rite and declare their disbelief in transubstantiation.

Both Protestant Dissenters and Catholics were effectively excluded from public life and frequently accused of treason. Charles II secretly hid his own Catholic sympathies and, although he held absolutist views typical of the Stuarts, was too astute a politician to provoke a crisis. The only major political crisis of his reign was the Popish Plot (1678-81), an unsuccessful attempt to get him to exclude his Catholic brother James from the succession. In the turmoil surrounding the Popish Plot, two clearly defined political parties emerged for the first time.

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[44] The Great Plague, lasting from 1665 to 1666, was the last major epidemic of the bubonic plague to occur in England. The Great Plague killed an estimated 100,000 people, almost a quarter of London's population, in 18 months. https://www.historic-uk.com. Entry : **The Great Plague**

[45] English Dissenters or English Separatists were Protestant Christians who separated from the Church of England in the 17th and 18th centuries. Ibid., Entry: **English Dissenters**

The king's supporters were known as the Tories, and his opponents were called the Whigs. In the subsequent years the two factions developed opposed attitudes on other important issues. The Tories tended to draw their support from the landed gentry and the country clergy; they were conservative and tended to support the Crown and the established church. The Whigs tended to consist of powerful nobles who were jealous of the powers of the Crown, merchants and financiers in London, a number of bishops, and the Dissenters, all people who tended to be united by religious toleration and support of commerce[46].

After the Restoration, England, Scotland and Whales were united as Great Britain. Commercial prosperity and global trade increased for Britain. Literacy expanded to include the middle classes and even some of the poor.

## 2. The Glorious Revolution and the Reign of Queen Anne

In 1685, James II came to the throne and immediately tried to advance the cause of Catholicism. In 1687, he suspended the Test Act[47] and began filling the government and army with Catholics and Dissenters. Secret negotiation ensued to bring William of Orange[48], the leading Protestant on the Continent and husband of James' daughter Mary[49] to the throne. He invaded in 1688 and James was forced to flee to France. From then on, James and his descendants would be a source of anxiety for the English government. The accession of William and Mary to the throne (as Joint Sovereigns) is known as the Glorious Revolution.

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[46] https://www.britannica.com/Restoration., Entry: **The Restoration**

[47] The Test Acts were a series of English penal laws that served as a religious test for public office and imposed various civil disabilities on Roman Catholics and nonconformists. Ibid., Entry : **The Test Acts**

[48] William III (November 4, 1650 –March 8, 1702) also widely known as William of Orange. As King of Scotland, he is known as William II. He is sometimes informally known as "King Billy" in Northern Ireland and Scotland, where his victory at the Battle of the Boyne in 1690 is still commemorated by Unionists and Ulster loyalists. Ibid., Entry : **William of Orange**

[49] Mary II was born on April 30, 1662, London- Dec. 28, 1694, London), queen of England, Scotland, and Ireland (1689–94) and wife of King William III. As the daughter of King James II, she made it possible for her Dutch husband to become co-ruler of England after he had overthrown James's government. Ibid., Entry : **Mary II**

The major importance of the Glorious Revolution was to destroy any chance that England would have an absolute monarchy like that of France. Instead, the Glorious Revolution ensured that England would have a constitutional monarchy in which Parliament had the majority of the power.

It was followed by the Bill of Rights (1689), which limited the powers of the Crown and reaffirmed the supremacy of Parliament. The Toleration Act secured freedom of worship for Dissenters, although it did not abolish the Test Act. When Anne came to the throne England embarked upon a war with France and Spain between 1702 and 1713. The war was supported by Whig lords and merchants who grew fabulously wealthy off of war profits and the growing empire which soon stretched from Canada to India.

Only at the end of Anne's reign did the power shift towards the Tories, largely because Anne refused to undermine the position of the established church. The other important event of the reign is the Act of Union between England and Scotland (1707). This removed the trade barriers between the two countries and merged their parliaments, with the Parliament of Great Britain in London. Many prominent British writers of the eighteenth century came from Scotland or Ireland, suggesting that cultural life was becoming increasingly diverse[50].

Anne (6 February 1665 – 1 August 1714) was the Queen of England, Scotland and Ireland between 8 March 1702 and 1 May 1707. She continued to reign as Queen of Great Britain and Ireland until her death in 1714. Anne was born in the reign of her uncle Charles II, who had no legitimate children. Queen Anne (1665–1714) was the last of the Stuart monarchs, remembered for achieving the union of England and Scotland in 1707 and for bringing the War of the Spanish Succession to a conclusion.

## IV. The Hanoverian Succession: The Enlightenment

- **The Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland:**

George I (r. 1714–1727) (Georg Ludwig = George Louis)

George II (r. 1727–1760) (Georg August = George Augustus)

[50] https://www.historyonthenet.com/what-was-the-glorious., Entry : **The Glorious Revolution**

George III (r. 1760–1820)

- **The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland:**

  George III (r. 1760–1820)

  George IV (r. 1820–1830)

  William IV (r. 1830–1837)

  Victoria (r. 1837–1901).

Queen Anne had no heir, so the succession passed to Sophia of Hanover (in Germany), the granddaughter of James I, who was Anne's closest Protestant relative. Sophia died before Anne, so her son George I became king. Both George I and George II were largely unconcerned with British affairs and spoke broken English at best. Hence the modern system of ministerial government began to develop at this time.

The German-speaking monarchs had little interest in patronising literature[51], and writers were forced to turn to publishers for their livelihoods and cater for an expanding readership. Thus began a great age of journalistic writing and periodical literature. Britain grew increasingly prosperous through war, trade, and the beginnings of industrialism. However, it was constantly plagued by the exiled descendants of James II, who still had many supporters loyal to the house of Stuart in England and Scotland (the supporters were known as Jacobites after the name Jacobus, Latin for James). Jacobite uprisings occurred in 1715 and 1745, until James' grandson Charles Edward Stuart (Bonnie Prince Charlie) was decicively defeated at the Battle of Culloden in 1746[52].

George III's reign was dominated largely by Britain's increasing colonial power and by movements towards a new social order which spread the wealth down to the working classes. Calls for greater democracy ushered in piecemeal

[51] https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/patronize

[52] The **Battle of Culloden** was the final confrontation of the Jacobite rising of 1745. On 16 April 1746, the Jacobite army of Charles Edward Stuart was decisively defeated by a British government force under William Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, on Drummossie Moor near Inverness in the Scottis Highlands: it was the last pitched battle fought on British soil. Ibid.

reforms, as Britain wavered between loyalty to old traditions and newer principles based on liberty and human rights. The implications of these calls went largely unnoticed when Britain lost the American colonies in the 1780s, but they could no longer be ignored when Britons were faced with the French Revolution (1789) just a few miles away.

**House of Hanover**, British royal house of German origin, descended from George Louis, elector of Hanover, who succeeded to the British crown, as George I, in 1714. The dynasty provided six monarchs: George I (reigned 1714–27), George II (reigned 1727–60), George III (reigned 1760–1820), George IV (reigned 1820–30), William IV (reigned 1830–37), and Victoria (reigned 1837–1901). It was succeeded by the house of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, which was renamed in 1917 the house of Windsor.

## ▪ The Enlightenment

### ▪ When and where did the Enlightenment take place?

Historians place the Enlightenment in Europe (with a strong emphasis on France) during the late 17th and the 18th centuries, or, more comprehensively, between the Glorious Revolution in 1688 and the French Revolution of 1789. It represents a phase in the intellectual history of Europe and also programs of reform, inspired by a belief in the possibility of a better world, that outlined specific targets for criticism and programs of action.

### ▪ What led to the Enlightenment?

The roots of the Enlightenment can be found in the humanism of the Renaissance, with its emphasis on the study of Classical literature. The Protestant Reformation, with its antipathy toward received religious dogma, was another precursor. Perhaps the most important sources of what became the Enlightenment were the complementary rational and empirical methods of discovering truth that were introduced by the scientific revolution.

It was thought during the Enlightenment that human reasoning could discover truths about the world, religion, and politics and could be used to improve the lives of humankind. Skepticism about received wisdom was another important idea; everything was to be subjected to testing and rational analysis. Religious tolerance and the idea that individuals should be free from coercion in their personal lives and consciences were also Enlightenment ideas.

The term 'Enlightenment' refers to a series of changes in European thought and letters. When the writers, philosophers and scientists of the eighteenth century referred to their activities as the 'Enlightenment', they meant that they were breaking from the past and replacing the obscurity, darkness, and ignorance of European thought with the 'light' of truth. The main components of Enlightenment thought are as follows[53]:

1. The universe is fundamentally rational, that is, it can be understood through the use of reason alone;
2. Truth can be arrived at through empirical observation, the use of reason, and systematic doubt;
3. Human experience is the foundation of human understanding of truth; authority is not to be preferred over experience;
4. All human life, both social and individual, can be understood in the same way the natural world can be understood; once understood, human life, both social and individual, can be manipulated or engineered in the same way the natural world can be manipulated or engineered;
5. Human history is largely a history of progress;
6. Human beings can be improved through education and the development of their rational facilities;
7. Religious doctrines have no place in the understanding of the physical and human worlds.

There are two distinct developments in Enlightenment thought: the scientific revolution which resulted in new systems of understanding the physical world and the redeployment of the human sciences that apply scientific thinking

[53] https://www.history.com/topics/british. Entry: **Enlightenment**

to what were normally interpretive sciences. In the first, the two great innovations were the development of empirical thought and the mechanistic world view.

Empiricism is based on the notion that human observation is a reliable indicator of the nature of phenomena; repeated human observation can produce reasonable expectations about future natural events. In the second, the universe is regarded as a machine. It functions by natural and predictable rules; although God created the universe, he does not interfere in its day-to-day runnings. Once the world is understood as a machine, it can be manipulated and engineered for the benefit of humanity in the same way as machines are[54].

- **What were the results of the Enlightenment?**

The French Revolution and the American Revolution were almost direct results of Enlightenment thinking. The idea that society is a social contract between the government and the governed stemmed from the Enlightenment as well. Widespread education for children and the founding of universities and libraries also came about as a result. However, there was a countermovement that followed the Enlightenment in the late 18th and mid-19th centuries.

## Conclusion:

The 18th century was characterised by numerous major wars, especially with France, with the growth and collapse of the First British Empire, with the origins of the Second British Empire, and with steady economic and social growth at home. Peace between England and the Netherlands in 1688 meant that the two countries entered the Nine Years' War as allies, but the conflict – waged in Europe and overseas between France, Spain and the Anglo-Dutch alliance – left the English a stronger colonial power than the Dutch, who were forced to devote a larger proportion of their military budget on the costly land war in Europe. The 18th century would see England (after 1707, Great Britain) rise to be the world's dominant colonial power, and France becoming its main rival on the

[54] Ibid.

imperial stage. In 1701, England, Portugal and the Netherlands sided with the Holy Roman Empire against Spain and France in the War of the Spanish Succession. The conflict, which France and Spain were to lose, lasted until 1714. The British Empire was territorially enlarged: from France, gaining Newfoundland and Acadia, and from Spain, Gibraltar and Menorca. Gibraltar, which is still a British overseas territory to this day, became a critical naval base and allowed Britain to control the Atlantic entry and exit point to the Mediterranean.

To complete the image of the Middle Ages in the mind of the students, it is important to clarify the following concepts.

**N.B.** The teacher must write two concepts on the board during each lecture.

## Glossary of the period

- **Early Renaissance**: A period from 1400 to 1479 where artists tried to emulate the classical artists of Ancient Rome and Greece.
- **Age of Exploration**: A period of time when many European countries sent out explorers such as Christopher Columbus to map and discover the world.
- **Classical art**: Painting and sculpture from Ancient Rome and Greece. It was studied by the artists of the Renaissance.
- **Early Renaissance**: A period from 1400 to 1479 where artists tried to emulate the classical artists of Ancient Rome and Greece.
- **High Renaissance**: A period from 1475 to 1525 where art became more realistic with a focus on perspective and space.
- **Humanism**: A philosophy of the Renaissance that valued human thoughts and ideas. It pushed the study of classical writings and art.
- **Realism**: A style of art that involved techniques to make the art appear as realistic as possible.
- **Apprentice**: in the middle ages and the Renaissance, someone who agreed to live with and work for another for a specific period, in return for instruction in a trade or raft.
- **Basilica**: a Christian church building, often in the shape of a cross
- **Diplomat**: one who represents a government in its relationships with other governments
- **Guild**: a union of people who practice a certain craft or make a product. They agree to certain standards, expectations and guides.

- **The six women who were married to Henry VIII, in chronological order:**

| No. | Name | Marriage dates and length | Fate of marriage | Fate of wife and issue |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1** | Catherine of Aragon | 11 June 1509 – 23 May 1533 (23 years, 11 months and 12 days) | Annulled | Died 7 January 1536. Mother of Queen Mary I. |
| **2** | Anne Boleyn | 28 May 1533 – 17 May 1536 (2 years, 11 months and 19 days) | Annulled, then beheaded | Died 19 May 1536. Beheaded at the Tower of London. Mother of Queen Elizabeth I. |
| **3** | Jane Seymour | 30 May 1536 – 24 October 1537 (1 year, 4 months and 24 days) | Died | Died 24 October 1537, twelve days after giving birth due to complications. Mother of King Edward VI. |
| **4** | Anne of Cleves | 6 January 1540 – 9 July 1540 (6 months and 3 days) | Annulled | Died 16 July 1557, possibly of cancer. |
| **5** | Catherine Howard | 28 July 1540 – 23 November 1541 (1 year, 3 months and 26 days) | Beheaded | Died 13 February 1542. Beheaded at the Tower of London. |
| **6** | Catherine Parr | 12 July 1543 – 28 January 1547 (3 years, 6 months and 16 days) | Survived | Survived Henry VIII. Later remarried to Thomas Seymour. Died 7 September 1548. |

## Evaluation

At the end of this semester the student will be able to answer these types of questions:

- **Discuss the following passages**.

*".....Over the centuries, the English Parliament progressively limited the power of the English monarchy which arguably culminated in the English Civil War and the trial and execution of Charles I in 1649". (Study the process of the English Parliament after the reign of Charles I.)*

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*".....The Elizabethan period was a golden age in English history during the reign of Elizabeth I..."(Analyze and study the era of Queen Elizabeth I and how she contributed in the rise of Renaissance in England and the welfare of the English folks).*

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*English colonial efforts were focused on Ireland, where a combination of expansionism, nationalism, and religious intolerance led to a subjugation of the Roman Catholic populace and its Celtic culture*

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*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, of plague, fire and war.*

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*The English Civil War has many causes but the personality of Charles I must be counted as one of the major reasons. ... As with many wars, there are long and short term causes. Long term causes: The status of the monarchy had started to decline under the reign of James I. He was known as the "wisest fool in Christendom".*

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*During the Renaissance, the European economy grew dramatically, particularly in the area of trade. Developments such as population growth, improvements in banking, expanding trade routes, and new manufacturing systems led to an overall increase in commercial activity.*

- **Answer the following Questions:**

- Which of Henry VIII's six wives was the mother of Edward VI?

.....

- With which future queen of England Anne Boleyn was heavily pregnant at the time of her coronation in May 1533?

.....

- What were the consequences of the "Black Death"?

.....

- What is meant by the manor system?

.....

- What led to the outbreak of the Hundred Years War?

.....

- Who were the Tudors?

.....

- When did they rule England?

.....

- Why are they so famous?

.....

- What did they accomplish?

.....

- Can you give me a brief history of Tudor England?

.....

- Where can I view the Tudor family tree?

.....

- Where can I look at portraits of the Tudors?

.....

- **Match the following kings and Queens' names given in Column A with what he/she did in Column B.**

| Column A | Column B |
|---|---|
| **1. Henry VII** | **a)** Attended to restore Catholicism |
| **2. Henry VIII** | **b)** Advance exploration and patron of Art |
| **3. Edward VI** | **c)** Defeated Richard III |
| **4. Mary I** | **d)** Supreme Head of the Church |
| **5. Elizabeth I** | **e)** The Church of England expanded while he was King |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| …. | …. | …. | …. | …. |

# SEMESTER THREE

## The Impacts of the Industrial Revolution on British Society

### Objectives:

At the end of this semester, students must be able to assimilate new knowledge about this period of time and answer these types of questions:

- What was the Industrial Revolution?
- Where did the Industrial Revolution start?
- What are the long term consequences of the Industrial Revolution?
- What kind of work environment did factories supply?
- What type of economy did the Industrial Revolution lead us in to?
- What conditions did people who worked in factories live in?
- Why is the Industrial Revolution important to history?

### Introduction

Industrial Revolution, in modern history, refers to the process of change from an agrarian and handicraft economy to one dominated by industry and machine manufacturing. This process began in Britain in the 18th century and from there spread to other parts of the world. Although used earlier by French writers, the term Industrial Revolution was first popularized by the English economic historian Arnold Toynbee[55] (1852–83) to describe Britain's economic development from 1760 to 1840. Since Toynbee's time, the term has been more broadly applied.

[55] Arnold Toynbee English economist and social reformer noted for his public service activities on behalf of the working class. https://www.britannica.com/biography. Entry: **Arnold Toynbee**

- **Why did the Industrial Revolution began in England?**

There were several factors that combined to make Great Britain an ideal place for industrialization. First, the Agricultural Revolution of the 18th century created a favorable climate for industrialization. ... Britain had a vast supply of mineral resources used to run industrial machines, such as coal.

- **How did the Industrial Revolution affect England?**

Changes in social and living conditions……The industrial and economic developments of the Industrial Revolution brought significant social changes. Industrialization resulted in an increase in population and the phenomenon of urbanization, as a growing number of people moved to urban centres in search of employment.

# I. Origins and meaning of the Industrial Revolution

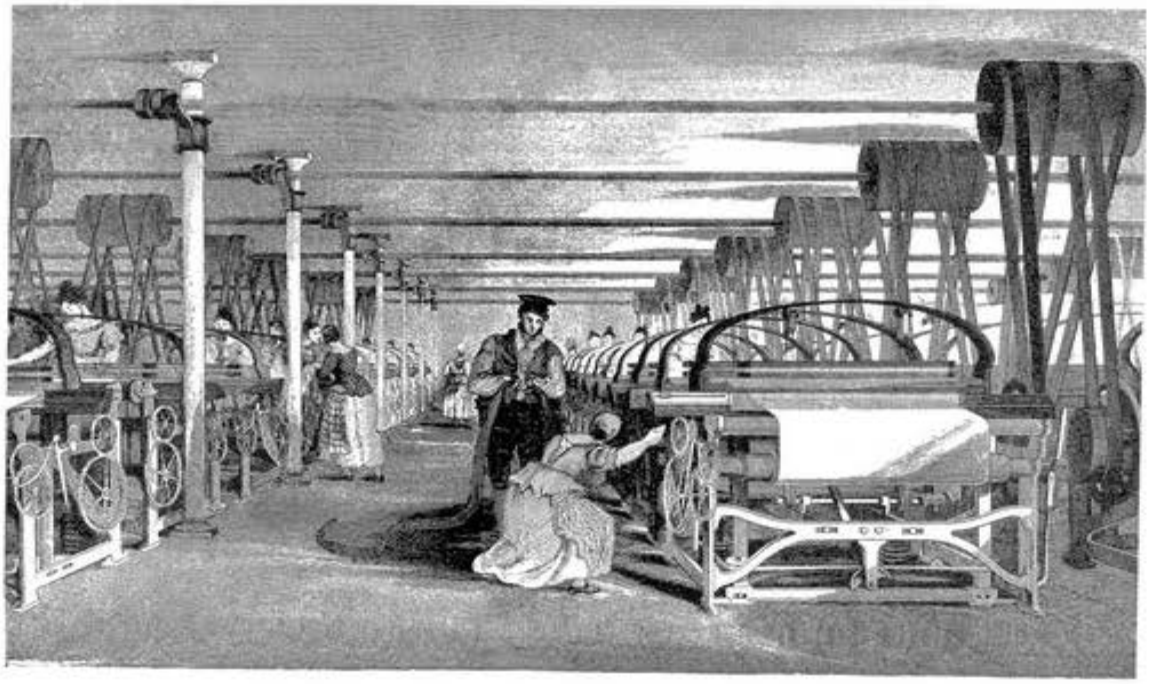
The Industrial Revolution, a term usually applied to the social and economic changes that mark the transition from a stable agricultural and commercial society to a modern industrial society relying on complex machinery rather than tools. It is used historically to refer primarily to the period in British history from the middle of the 18th century to the middle of the 19th century.

There was no single cause of the Industrial Revolution. Rather a number of different factors came together. But we can make certain assumptions about what we need to explain.

- Primarily, we know that working people are quite conservative about work. It required a high degree of social mobility on the part of the population to even allow the Industrial Revolution.
- Secondly, we know that people with money had to be willing to invest in new ventures. We need to know where this money came from, and why people were willing to invest[56].

[56] G, West, Education and the Industrial Revolution, New York, Harper Company, 1975. p.10.

We will find that stable government, economic freedom, available capital and mobile labour - all encourage growth and all came together in 18th-century Britain



A Roberts loom in a weaving shed in 1835. Textiles were the leading industry of the Industrial Revolution, and mechanized factories, powered by a central water wheel or steam engine, were the new workplace.

## 1. Nature of the Industrial Revolution

There has been much objection to the term because the word *revolution* suggests sudden, violent, unparalleled change, whereas the transformation was, to a great extent, gradual. Some historians argue that the 13th and 16th century were also periods of revolutionary economic change. However, in view of the magnitude of change between 1750 and 1850, the term seems useful.

Dramatic changes in the social and economic structure took place as inventions and technological innovations created the factory system of large-scale machine production and greater economic specialization, and as the labouring population, formerly employed predominantly in agriculture (in which production had also increased as a result of technological improvements), increasingly

gathered in great urban factory centres. The same process occurred at later times and in changed tempo in other countries[57].

## 2. The Industrial Revolution in Great Britain

During the 1700s and early 1800s, great changes took place in the lives and work of people in several parts of the world. These changes resulted from the development of industrialization. The term Industrial Revolution refers both to the changes that occurred and to the period itself.

The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain during the 1700s. It started spreading to other parts of Europe and to North America in the early 1800s. By the mid-1800s, industrialization had become widespread in Western Europe and the northeastern United States.

The Industrial Revolution created an enormous increase in the production of many kinds of goods. Some of this increase in production resulted from the introduction of power-driven machinery and the development of factory organization. Before the revolution, manufacturing was done by hand or simple machines. Most people worked at home in rural areas. A few worked in shops in towns as part of associations called guilds. The Industrial Revolution eventually took manufacturing out of the home and workshop. Power-driven machines replaced handwork, and factories developed as the best way of bringing together the machines and the workers to operate them.

As the Industrial Revolution grew, private investors and financial institutions were needed to provide money for the further expansion of industrialization. Financiers and banks thus became as important as industrialists and factories in the growth of the revolution. For the first time in European history, wealthy business leaders called capitalists took over the control and organization of manufacturing.

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[57] Ibid., p.45

Historians have disagreed on the significance of the Industrial Revolution. Some have emphasized that the importance of the revolution was in the great increase in the production of goods. They argue that this increase did more during the 1800s to raise people's standard of living than all the actions of legislatures and trade unions. Other historians have stressed the negative parts of the revolution. They point to the overcrowded and unsanitary housing and the terrible working conditions created by rapid industrialization in the cities.

Some historians have even denied that the Industrial Revolution was revolutionary-that is, a period of great and sudden changes. These scholars insist that the basic elements of the Industrial Revolution can be traced back to developments in Europe hundreds of years before the 1700s.

Today, most historians agree that the Industrial Revolution was a great turning point in the history of the world. It changed the Western world from a basically rural and agricultural society to a basically urban and industrial society. Industrialization brought many material benefits, but it also created a large number of problems that still remain critical in the modern world. For example, most industrial countries face problems of air and water pollution[58].

## II. Socio-Economic and Political Changes

The rise of the industrial spirit among people brought about new ways of thinking, a new ideology of living and a new system of education. Children of the nineteenth-century working class in England had rare prospects of acquiring more than a few scraps of education. The early nineteenth century offered no organized educational system. The government provided no support and volunteer efforts were ineffective at best. As social problems arose and educational desires grew, the government of England slowly developed a free educational system for all children. Most working class children in the 19th

[58] Ibid.

century, however, were subject to a poor quality education that plagued England for generations.[59]

So, what did the nineteenth century add to the evolution of Education in England? What type of education was offered to the industrial working class? And what were the most important reasons that pushed the English Parliament to accept the idea of the establishment of a national system of education in England?

The Industrial Revolution refers to the changes in methods of production and the resulting tremendous increase in the production of goods which took place in Great Britain at the end of the 18th century and the beginning of the 19th century. The improved production methods made a greater range of products available to the people at cheaper prices. The population of industrial cities grew, and this created more communication of ideas.

The important reforms made in education, health, and working conditions in factories were, in fact, a result of the Industrial Revolution. These reforms helped to improve the uliving standards of a large number of people. It is certain that the impact of the changes on people differed from one social class to the other. As a whole, the benefits outweighed the problems of the Industrial Revolution.

So, what problems and what benefits did the Industrial Revolution bring to the British society? Were the people better or worse off with the changes it brought about?

In the early days of the Industrial Revolution, labour abuse was prevalent. The abuses included child labour, unsafe conditions, overworking, and underpayment. Child labour was one of the harrowing aspects of 19th

[59] Ibid.

century history.[60] Reformers highlighted stories of the horrific treatment of children in mills and down the mines to get employment reform acts passed.

Were all children receiving any education? Were all children treated badly? Were all working children unhappy and unhealthy? Another question that needs to be addressed is how many children actually worked in these industries.

During the Industrial Revolution, the social structure of English society changed drastically. Before the Industrial Revolution, most people lived in small villages, working either in agriculture or as skilled craftsmen and received no education. They lived and often worked as a family, doing everything by hand. In fact, three quarters of Great Britain's population lived in the countryside, and farming was the predominant occupation.[61] With the advent of industrialization, however, everything changed.

The new enclosure laws from 1845 to 1882 which required that all grazing grounds be fenced in at the owner's expense had left many poor farmers bankrupt and unemployed, and machines capable of huge outputs made small hand weavers redundant. As a result, there were many people who were forced to work at the new factories. This required them to move to towns and cities so that they could be close to their new jobs.

**What role did women and children play in the Industrial Revolution?**

Women mostly found jobs in domestic service, textile factories, and piece work shops. They also worked in the coal mines. For some, the Industrial Revolution provided independent wages, mobility and a better standard of living.

As a result, women and children were sent out to work. Families were forced to do this since they desperately needed money, while factory owners

[60] N. J. Richards, "Religious Controversy and the School Boards 1870-1902", British Journal of Educational Studies, Vol. 18, No. 2 , 1970, pp. 180-196

[61] G. M, Trevelyan, A Shortened History of England, London, Penguin, 1987. p. 446

were happy to employ women and children for a number of reasons. First of all, women and children could be paid very little, and children could be controlled more easily than adults, generally through violent beating.[62] Children also had smaller hands, which were often needed to reach in among the parts of a machine. Furthermore, employers found that children were more malleable and adapted to the new methods much better than adults.

Children were also sent to work in mines. They could also be forced to work as long as eighteen hours each day. For these reasons, children as young as eight years old were sent to factories not to school, usually those which manufactured textiles, where they became part of a growing and profitable business. These social, political and economic transformations served to reveal the complete inadequacy of England's educational provision.[63]

**What effect did the Industrial Revolution have on women and children?**

During the Industrial Revolution, it was common for children to work in factories, mines, and other industrial occupations. Children as young as four commonly worked. Among families in extreme poverty, it was expected that children work in order to help the family out.

Some working activities attracted the attention of reformers more than others. The working conditions in the cotton mills were extremely bad. Nevertheless, before the Factory Acts began to take effect, there were only 26,000 children employed in the textile mills. The welfare of children in factories and workshops depended, to a large extent, on the employer. Some

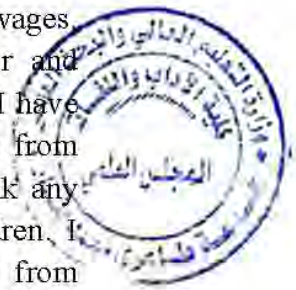
[62] Patrick K. O'Brien and R. Quinault, The Industrial Revolution and British Society, London, Cambridge University Press, 1993. p. 229

[63] Ibid., p. 156

mill owners, such as Robert Owen,[64] were enlightened and made good provision for the needs of the employees.[65]

Owen, for example, provided shops, schools, and housing. Other owners were less inclined to consider the health and welfare of the workers. In 1842, Henry Morton,[66] Agent for the Countess of Durham's Collieries believed that the work of children in factories was more beneficial, and all the working conditions were not dangerous for their health. In this context, he said:

> I believe that employing children in coal mines is perfectly consistent with good health. They earn good wages. Working on the night shift does no harm, the air and ventilation are the same at one period as at another. I have never heard of boys injuring themselves down pits from the nature of work, only by accidents. I do not think any change in the hours of work is necessary for children. I would not object to a law preventing children from working before ten years old but would rather ave it to the manager to accept or refuse them. Any such law would be unfair on parents with large families.[67]



Another deeply abhorrent and dangerous occupation for very young or small boys was climbing. Chimney sweeps often employed climbing boys to climb up into chimneys to clean them out. Breathing the soot caused cancer and the boys life expectancy was severely diminished. Even though it is thought that no more than about 4,000 boys were employed as chimney sweepers at any time.

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[64] Robert Owen was born on 14 May 1771. He was a Welsh socialist and social reformer. He was considered as the father of the cooperative movement. After serving in a draper's shop for some years, he settled in Manchester. He died at his native town on 17 November 1858. Encyclopaedia Britannica, CD-ROM, Great Britain, 2008, the Entry: **Robert Owen**.

[65] E. G, West, Education and the Industrial Revolution, op. cit., p. 45

[66] Sir Henry Morton Stanley was born on January 28, 1841 and died on May 10, 1904). Stanley was an American journalist and explorer, famous for his exploration of Africa and his search for David Livingstone. Encyclopaedia Britannica, CD-ROM, Great Britain, 2008, the Entry: **Sir Henry Morton Stanley.**

[67] Eric Midwinter, Nineteenth Century Education, Great Britain, Longman, 1970. p. 30

The job was so horrific that already in 1778 attempts were made to have a law passed banning the use of boys for climbing.[68] The laissez-faire approach taken by the government and advocated by Adam Smith[69] allowed capitalism to flourish. There were few or no government regulations imposed upon factory policies, and this allowed the wealthy, middle-class owners to pursue whichever path was most profitable, regardless of the safety and well being of their workers. This relentless pursuit of money caused another important social change, which was the breakdown of the family unit.[70]

**What did children do in the Industrial Revolution?**

Children performed all sorts of jobs including working on machines in factories, selling newspapers on street corners, breaking up coal at the coal mines, and as chimney sweeps. Sometimes children were preferred to adults because they were small and could easily fit between machines and into small spaces.

Since workers, especially women and children, were labouring for up to eighteen hours each day, there was very little family contact, and the only time that one was at home was spent sleeping. People also had to share housing with other families, which further contributed to the breakdown of the family unit. As a result, children received very little education, had stunted growth, and were sickly. They also grew up quite maladjusted, having never been taught how to behave properly.[71] The living conditions were indeed horrible; working families often lived in slums with little sanitation, and infant mortality skyrocketed.

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[68] Anne, Digby and Peter Searby, Children, School and Society in Nineteenth Century England, London, Macmillan, 1981. p. 28.

[69] Adam Smith was born on 5 June 1723. He was a Scottish moral philosopher and a pioneering political economist. He was one of the key figures of the intellectual movement known as the Scottish Enlightenment. He died at on 17 July 1790. Encyclopaedia Britannica, CD-ROM, the Entry: **Adam Smith.**

[70] Maurice Bruce, The Coming of the Welfare State, Great Britain, Routledge and Kegan P, 1965, p. 32

[71] Ibid., p. 35

The fast-growing populations in cities such as London gave rise to many problems. The social conditions, which were brought about by the Industrial Revolution, were improved by reforms. Factory and public health reforms were made. Under the Public Health Act of 1848, cities were to build sewers, keep streets cleaned, install lighting, and build houses with drains and connect them to water supplies. The great changes that happened as part of the Industrial Revolution had many positive effects on the lives of the British people. They received many opportunities and freedoms that they previously could not have, and Great Britain was better off after these changes.[72]

**What did the Public Health Act of 1848 do?**

After much campaigning by the Health of Towns Association, and another severe outbreak of cholera in 1848, the government was forced to act, and the Public Health Act of 1848 was passed. ... The Act established a Central Board of Health, but this had limited powers and no money.

The wages and conditions of many workers improved with the reforms. More people were allowed to vote after the 1867 Reform Act. It was not until 1875 that Parliament passed an act which stated that all chimney sweeps had to be licensed and licenses were only issued to sweeps not using climbing boys.

During the Industrial Revolution, the availability of food, clothing and shelter, opportunities for education, access to health care, fair wages and more political, economic and religious freedoms made living conditions in Great Britain better than it was. The impacts of the Industrial Revolution were not seen only at the social level, but also at the political one in relation to education.

[72] Ibid., p. 44

As industrial strength grew along with a more forcible middle class, electoral reform was a necessity to balance the new society's power structure.[73] Before 1832, only 6% of the male population could vote, represented by aristocrats who owned large plots of land in the countryside and other property.[74] By 1832, the middle class factory owners wanted political power to match their new-found economic punch. This resulted in the Reform Bill of 1832 which enfranchised 20% of the male population. The Reform Bill also redistributed electoral districts to better reflect the large populations of city centres.[75]

The dissent and insubordination of the English workingmen reached their peak in the mid-nineteenth century with the rise of Chartism,[76] an ideology that called for political reform in the country. Its name was based on the People's Charter, a document written in 1838 by William Lovett[77] and other radicals of the London Working Men's Association, and adopted at a national convention of workingmen's organizations in August of that year.

The Charter called for several changes in the Parliamentary system: Universal male suffrage, annual parliaments, vote by ballot, abolition of the property qualification for MPs, payment of MPs, and equal electoral constituencies. Chartism rapidly gained support among the poorer classes and in Northern England where economic depression was common and the

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[73] Anne, Digby and Peter Searby, op. cit., p. 25

[74] Maurice Bruce, The Coming of the Welfare State, op. cit., p. 59

[75] Ibid., p. 312

[76] Chartism was a movement for social and political reform in the United Kingdom during the mid-19th century. It takes its name from the *People's Charter* of 1838, which stipulated the six main aims of the movement. It was possibly the first mass working class movement in the world. Encyclopaedia Britannica, CD-ROM, Great Britain, 2008, the Entry: **Chartism.**

[77] William Lovett was born in 1800 and died in 1877. He was a British activist and the leader of the political movement Chartism, derived from Radicalism. Lovett was a leading radical and was amongst those who urged arming in self-defense in anticipation of expected attack. Ibid., the Entry: **William Lovett.**

people were upset about the new Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834.[78] William Lovett died in 1877, having spent his life since the years of the Chartist Movement promoting working-class education.

The public opinion was largely heard thanks to Feargus O'Connor,[79] a fervent radical with excellent oratory skills. However, the movement soon lost its force when its leaders became divided over the methods. A petition to Parliament was rejected in July 1839, and most of the movement's leaders were arrested by the end of the year after the November clash between Chartists and the military at Newport, Wales.

O'Connor attempted to revive Chartism in 1840 by founding the National Charter Association, but the people had generally lost interest. The unsuccessful demonstration and procession planned for London during the economic crisis of 1848 weakened the Chartist movement. Decades later, in 1884, the majority of males were finally granted the right to vote.

In general, Chartism was a powerful assertion of the rights of working people, creating in them a long-term self-confidence and self-reliance. After the end of the movement, most of the Chartist demands were passed into law, and undoubtedly the Chartist issues of democratic inclusion and the rights of citizenship remain highly relevant. This, in fact, paved the way to the spread of education.

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[78] The Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834 was an Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom passed by the Whig government of Earl Grey that reformed the country's poverty relief system. Ibid., The Entry: **The Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834.**

[79] Feargus Edward O'Connor (1794 – August 30, 1855) was an Irish Chartist leader and advocate of the Land Plan. He was born into a Protestant family, the son of Irish Nationalist Politician Roger O'Connor (1762-1834) and nephew of Arthur O'Connor (1753-1852), the agent in France for Robert Emmet's rebellion; both of whom famous for belonging to the United Irishmen. Ibid., the Tntry: **Feargus Edward O'Connor.**

The introduction of liberalism[80] in the 18th century was also an important fact that participated in the development of education in England. It meant a new age to the British political scene, which continued through the Industrial Revolution. The old Tory and Whig parties became the Conservative and Liberal parties respectively, reflecting the new era in Great Britain.

The liberal party emphasized rationalism and gave importance to the happiness of the individual. Under the policy of the Liberal party, the role of State was to protect the freedom and rights of the individual, and they believed that human rights would be lost if government intervened. In fact, this party reflected views of the middle class. In contrast, the Conservative party believed in the value of traditional life, and according to them, government is necessary to control society and preserve general order. This party had a less optimistic view of human nature than liberals.

This party reflected views of the landed upper class.[81] Gladstone (a Liberal) and Disraeli (a Conservative) were two of the most influential political leaders of the late Industrial Revolution era. Both of them were strongly associated with the Prime Minister Sir Robert Peel[82] before the split in the Tory party in the 1830s. Both advocated the reform of social structure.[31]

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[80] Liberalism refers to a broad array of related doctrines, ideologies, philosophical views, and political traditions which hold that individual liberty is the primary political value. Liberalism has its roots in the Western Age of Enlightenment, but the term has taken on different meanings in different time periods. Ibid., the Entry: **Liberalism**

[81] G. M, Trevelyan, A Shortened History of England, op. cit., p. 398

[82] Sir Robert Peel, 2nd Baronet was born on February 5, 1788. He was a British Conservative statesman, who served as prime minister of the United Kingdom from 10 December, 1834 to 8 April, 1835. He died onJuly 2, 1850. Encyclopaedia Britannica, CD-ROM, Great Britain, 2008, the Entry: **Sir Robert Peel.**

The political spectrum was also closely linked to the idea of Joseph Lancaster[83] and Andrew Bell[84] who asked for educating the masses; this in fact, was an ideological phenomenon that grew during the Industrial Revolution and a tool for gaining more voters. The application of this ideology was not an easy task for the State. Several legislative changes in the domain of education paved the way for the improvements which were seen after 1870.

After the intervention of the State and through the political changes that came after 1870, the social conditions of the poor children in Great Britain were improved.[85] Thus, it is essential to understand the factors that participated in making this change possible, by analysing the impact of the Industrial Revolution on the development of education in Great Britain.

## III. Diseases in industrial cities

**How did the Industrial Revolution start pollution?**

Water pollution intensified with the advent of the Industrial Revolution, when factories began releasing pollutants directly into rivers and streams. ... Water sources are also contaminated by rain runoff from such things as oil-slick roads; construction, mining and dump sites; and livestock wastes from farm operations.

Disease accounted for many deaths in industrial cities during the Industrial Revolution. With a chronic lack of hygiene, little knowledge of sanitary care and no knowledge as to what caused diseases (let alone cure them), diseases such as

[83] Joseph Lancaster was born in Southwark, south London on November 25, 1778. He was an English Quaker and public education innovator. In 1798, he founded a free elementary school in Borough Road, Southwark, using a variant of the monitorial system. He died on October 25, 1838. Ibid, the Entry: **Joseph Lancaster**.

[84] Andrew Bell was born in 1753. He was a Scottish Episcopalian priest and educationalist who pioneered the Madras System of Education (also known as "mutual instruction or the monitorial system") in schools and was the founder of Madras College, a secondary school in St. Andrews. He died in 1832. Ibid, the Entry: **Andrew Bell**.

[85] Brigs Asa, Victorian People, A Reassessment of Persons and Themes 1851-67, London, Penguin Books, 1990. p. 272

cholera, typhoid and typhus could be devastating. As the cities became more populated, so the problem got worse.

Cholera was a greatly feared disease. Caused by contaminated water, it could spread with speed and with devastating consequences. Not for nothing did the disease get the nick-name "King Cholera". Industrial Britain was hit by an outbreak of cholera in 1831-32, 1848-49, 1854 and 1867. The cause was simple – sewage was being allowed to come into contact with drinking water and contaminating it. As many people used river water as their source of drinking water, the disease spread with ease.

**What diseases spread during the Industrial Revolution?**

In the slum areas of cities, diseases like cholera, typhus and diphtheria were endemic. Some could be linked to poor sanitation (cholera) and poor housing (TB) while others were spread by body lice (typhus). In addition, there were the new industrial diseases.

An attack of cholera is sudden and painful – though not necessarily fatal. In London it is thought 7000 people died of the disease in the 1831-32 outbreak which represented a 50% death rate of those who caught it. 15,000 people died in London in the 1848-49 outbreak. The disease usually affected those in a city's poorer areas, though the rich did not escape this disease.

Smallpox made a major re-occurrence in industrial cities even after Edward Jenner's vaccine. The reason was simple. Very many in the industrial cities were ignorant of the fact that Jenner had developed a vaccine. As Britain continued on its road to a population mostly centred in cities and the agricultural regions became less populated, traditional old wives tales and developments linked to them (such as coxpox, milk maids, Jenner etc) became less well known.

Also the overcrowded tenements of the cities were a perfect breeding ground for smallpox[86]. Typhoid and typhus were as feared as cholera. Both were also fairly common in the Industrial Revolution. Typhoid was caused by infected water whereas typhus was carried by lice. Both were found in abundance in industrial cities.

The greatest killer in the cities was tuberculosis (TB). The disease caused a wasting of the body with the lungs being attacked. The lungs attempt to defend themselves by producing what are called tubercles. The disease causes these tubercles to become yellow and spongy and coughing fits causes them to be spat out by the sufferer.

TB affected those who had been poorly fed and were under nourished. It also affected those who lived in dirty and damp homes. TB can be spread by a person breathing in the exhaled sputum of someone who already has the disease. In the overcrowded tenements of the industrial cities, one infected person could spread the disease very easily.Though accurate records are difficult to acquire, it is believed that TB killed one-third of all those who died in Britain between 1800 and 1850.

**What caused pollution in the industrial revolution?**

These factors led to the depletion of natural resources. Factories would spew smog and soot into the air and release pollutants and chemicals directly into rivers and streams, resulting in increased air and water pollution. The Industrial Revolution saw an increased use of fossil fuels, including coal.

Microbes were only discovered in 1864 by Louis Pasteur. Until that time all manner of theories were put forward as to what caused diseases. A common belief - and one that dated back to Medieval England – was that disease was spread by bad smells and invisible poisonous clouds (miasmas). Industrial cities

[86] https://www.theclassroom.com, Entry : **Diseases in industrial cities**

were certainly plagued by poor smells from sewage, industrial pollutants etc. The majority of deaths were in the industrial cities. Therefore, doctors concluded, the two went together: death and bad smells/gasses.

Such beliefs caused serious problems. In Croydon, typhoid swept through the town in 1852. The local Board of Health went about looking for a smell that caused the disease but found nothing. In fact, sewage had seeped into the town's water supplies and contaminated the water. It did not occur to the health officials that the water could be the cause of the disease as medical wisdom of the time dictated another cause[87].

Even a great reformer like Edwin Chadwick was convinced that disease was carried in the atmosphere which had been poisoned by foul smells. In 1849, he persuaded the authorities in London to clean up the sewers in their districts. This, so Chadwick believed, would get rid of the bad smells and therefore disease. Each week an estimated 6000 cubic yards of filth was swept into the River Thames – London's main source of water. Cholera was given a chance to spread and 30,000 Londoners got the disease in 1849 with 15,000 dying as a result[88].

## IV. Impact of the Industrial Revolution on Education

During the beginning of the 19th century, England was characterized by a huge increase in population. This rapid increase was related to the dramatic social, political and economic transformation that was brought about by the Industrial Revolution. This transformation revealed the complete inadequacy of England's educational provision. A number of reports highlighted the deficiencies and called for more and better schools.

[87]Ibid., Entry : **The Industrial Revolution**
[88] Ibid., Entry : **The Industrial Revolution**

In the beginning, new educational movements began to be established. A historical background about the early educational movements in England is essential to understand the origins and the early conditions of the educational progress and State's involvement in the domain of education in England. So, why did the government decide to become involved in education before 1833? How did the government become involved? What were the reasons of such involvement, especially during the 1850s and 1860?

In England, the beginnings of a national educational organization were not easy. Generally, it was due to the idea that education was not the business of the State, to the religious purpose of all instruction, and in part, to the fact that national evolution in England has been a slow and peaceful growth, though accompanied by much hard thinking and vigorous parliamentary struggle, since the time of the Civil War (1642-49).[89] No civil strife had destroyed old institutions, and forced rapid changes in old established practices, since the Reformation[90] (1534-39) and the Puritan uprising led by Oliver Cromwell[91] (1642-49). The country had never been in danger from foreign invasion since the Spanish Armada[92] in July 1588, which made the future of England as a world power secure.

Consequently, the English educational evolution had been slow and peaceful, and all changes had come only in response to much pressure. In

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[89] De Montmorency, State Intervention in English Education, A Short History from the Earliest Times down to 1833, Cambridge, University Press, 1902, p. 165

[90] Reformation was a movement in the 16th century to reform the Catholic Church in Western Europe. Many western Christians were troubled by what they saw as false doctrines and malpractices within the Church. Encyclopedia Britannica, CD-ROM 2001, the entry: The Reformation

[91] Oliver Cromwell was born on April 25, 1599. He was an English military and political leader known for his involvement in making England into a republican Commonwealth and for his later role as Lord Protector of England, Scotland and Ireland. He was a protector from 1653 until his death on September 3rd, 1658. Encyclopedia Britannica, 2008 Ultimate Reference Suite, the entry: Oliver Cromwell

[92] The Spanish Armada was a large and mighty naval ships that Spain sent to help conquer England near the end of the 16th century. The fleet met with disaster in a historic battle that saved England and dealt a heavy blow to what was the greatest European power of the age. Ibid., the entry: The Spanish Armada

fact, this slow and peaceful evolution had for long been the dominant characteristic of the political, social, and educational progress of the English people.

Both political and religious liberty had characterized the early progress in England. These liberties were found in England before any other European nations, such as the beginnings of democratic liberty, social reform, popular enlightenment, religious toleration, freedom of the press, and scientific and industrial progress. By the opening of the eighteenth century, the beginnings of charitable and philanthropic movements on the part of the churches and the upper classes emerged to spread knowledge of the elements of learning among the poorer classes.

In general, the eighteenth century in England was characterized by a new attitude toward the educational problem and an obvious extension of educational opportunity. After passing an Act of parliament in 1714, elementary schools were exempted from the penalties of conformity, and they were thereafter free to multiply their teachers. After that, the dame school became an established English institution. Private-adventure schools of a number of types arose.

The churches, everywhere, began to provide elementary parish-schools for the children of their poorer members, or training-schools for other children who were to go out to service. Workhouse schools and "schools of industry" were also used to provide for orphans and the children of paupers. During this period, the most important educational movements were the Charity school movement, the Sunday school movement, and other voluntary schools such as the Ragged schools.

## 1.The Emergence of Charity School Movement

The Charity school is an elementary school established by private donors in various parishes for teaching poor children to read and write. The main purpose of this type of schools was providing religious and moral instruction as well as enabling the poor to earn a livelihood. For that purpose, groups of individuals and by Societies were formed. The "Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge" (S.P.C.K) dates from the year 1699, and the "Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts" (S.P.G.F.P) from 1701.[93]

The SPCK, at its first meeting in 1699, considered how best to establish 'Catechetical Schools' in every parish in London. The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts considered how best to encourage parishes in Britain and Ireland to participate in mission for setting up links with its projects around the world. Generally, both did much to provide schools for poor boys and girls, offering them necessary clothes (distinct uniforms) and instruction, and teaching them reading, writing, spelling, counting, cleanliness, proper behavior, sewing and knitting (girls), and more especially, the principles of the Christian religion.[94]

In dealing with the plan for the constitution of a protestant congregation for propagating Christian knowledge, Dr Bray[95] projected in 1698 that the

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[93] M. G. Jones, *"The Charity School Movement: A Study of Eighteenth-Century Puritanism in Action"*, *The English Historical Review*, Vol. 54, No. 213 (Jan., 1939), p. 132

[94] D.D, Robert Gregory, Elementary Education, Some Account of its Rise and Progress in England, Westminster, London National Society's Depository Broad Sanctuary, 1905, p. 12

[95] Thomas Bray was an English clergyman, who spent time in Maryland as an Anglican representative. He was born in Marton, near Chirbury, Shropshire, at a house today called Bray's Tenement, in 1658. He was educated at Oswestry School and Oxford University, where he earned a B.A. degree. Bray founded the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel (founded 1701). He died on February 15, 1730. Encyclopedia Britannica, 2008 Ultimate Reference Suite, the entry: Thomas Bray

members of the SPCK should persist to set up catechetical schools for the education of poor children in reading, writing and more especially in the principles of the Christian religion.

In 1699, the subject of the second resolution of the Society was the education of the poor. The first letter issued at the end of 1699 to the Society's clergy correspondents in England and Wales. It assured that the Society had agreed to use their best endeavours to incline the hearts of generous and well-disposed persons to contribute towards the setting up of Schools in these cities. The purpose was to give instruction to the poor children in reading, writing, and in the catechism[96]. The schools of the Society were founded not only in London and Westminster, but in all parts of the kingdom.

In 1704, there were about 2000 children at school. By 1715, there were 120 schools, containing 4906 children, in London alone. In 1729, there were in all 1,658 schools, containing 34,000 children. However, a later observer said of these schools taught poor children next to nothing, and nothing likely to be useful to them[97].

In Wales, Gouge's schools were continued as schools under the auspices of the Society, since the Society certainly had in its mind the necessity of work in Wales; indeed, so much was said in its first circular. In 1730, the work in Wales was once more taken up in earnest. Griffith Jones[98] set before himself the task of dealing with the religious difficulty in the Principality. He found the way

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[96] Catechism is a summary or exposition of doctrine, which served as a learning introduction to the Sacraments traditionally used in catechesis, or Christian religious teaching of children and adult converts. Today, they are characteristic of Western Christianity but are also present in Eastern Christianity as well. Ibid., the entry: Catechism

[97] Ibid., p. 17

[98] Griffith Jones was born in 1684 at Penboyr, Carmarthenshire. He was a minister of the Church of England famous for his work in organising circulating schools in Wales. He died on April 8, 1761.Encyclopedia Britannica, 2008 Ultimate Reference Suite, the entry: Griffith Jones

blocked by the illiteracy of the people, a proof at any rate that Gouge's schools had not enlarged and in 1730, he started his schools, the only available funds being small Church offertories. The work prospered, and schools speedily increased in number. Men of ability only were chosen as schoolmasters, and no denominational test was required from them. Both day and night, schools were started and adults as well as children were taught to read the Bible in Welsh.

The schools were known as schools in *circulating schools* because the teachers stopped in each town and village for a few months only at a time, and then passed on to another centre, thus making a continuous circuit of the whole Country. The fund for the support of the schools were at first chiefly drawn from England, while the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge gave the movement a general support and supplied the schools with books. By 1737, 37 schools with 2400 scholars had been opened. By 1740, there were more than 100 schools at work. Before Griffith Jones's death, over 3000 schools had been opened, and 150,000 scholars had been taught in the day schools alone. In the year 1760, 10,000 children were in these schools.

Bridget Bevan[99] was a warm supporter of the undertaking, and on the death of Jones in 1761, she carried on the schools. The popularity of the movement and the public desire for education was determined by the manner in which additional schools were set up. The minister and parishioners of a parish would petition the manager of the movement for a school, upon which a Welsh master was appointed and sent to take up the work. An inspector was

[99] Bridget Bevan was born at Derllys Court, Wales on October 30, 1698. She was the youngest daughter of philanthropist John Vaughan (1663–1722), a patron of the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge (SPCK) schools in the county, and his wife, Elizabeth Thomas (d. 1721). She was the chief supporter of the educational work of the evangelical Anglican priest Griffith Jones and the system of circulating schools they founded. She died at Laugharne, Carmarthenshire on December 11, 1779, and left £10,000 of her wealth to the schools. Ibid., entry: Bridget Bevan

subsequently sent to examine the scholars as to their proficiency, and to see that the master attended to his duty.

After her death, she bequeathed her large property for the carrying on of the work. Her relations disputed the will, and in consequence her estate was thrown into Chancery, and the schools ceased to exist for lack of funds. This in fact was considered as another case, where the administration of the law blocked the way of education. It was not until July 9, 1804, that the will was upheld by the Court of Chancery, after it had been under consideration for a quarter of a century, and a scheme for the administration of the charity was drawn up in July, 1807, in accordance with which schoolmasters were appointed.

The plan of the Court of Chancery came into operation in 1809, and was administered with useful results. This case showed how practically impossible it was to attempt to reform abuses in educational charities. The Court of Chancery suspended indefinitely even such little education. In 1779, education was in full swing in Wales; but when the Bevan schools resumed their work, the people of the Principality had forgotten once more the meaning of popular education, and in 1820, popular education in Wales was less effective than in any part of England.

During the thirty years' delay of the Welsh Piety Schools, as they were called, four other influences had arisen to develop a national system of elementary education. As these influences were within the immediate knowledge of all persons interested in the general history of education in England, it would be adequate to simply indicate two of them, and refer to their proper place among the beginnings of a national system.[100] The first was the system of Sunday schools, which has played such an important part in the

[100] Jeremy Schmidt, "Charity and the Government of the Poor in the English Charity-School Movement, circa 1700—1730", *History of Education Quarterly,* Vol. 49, No. 4, 2010, p. 774

organisation of the education of the masses and the second was the Ragged School.

## Conclusion

The Industrial Revolution began with textile machines. These machines turned cotton into yarn. In 1793, Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin, a machine that cleaned cotton quickly. Cotton became America's biggest export. Then the government hired Whitney to make thousands ofguns. At that time guns were made by hand. Whitney thought of a way to make them quickly and cheaply. He used interchangeable parts and mass production. Soon factories began using his ideas. The nation's productivity increased.Machines Bring Change Entrepreneurs used machines to change how people worked. Francis Lowell built a mill that turned cotton into cloth.Soon other factories opened. New inventions, like reapersand steel plows, made farm work easier and faster. Beforethe Industrial Revolution, people worked on farms or inworkshops. Now many people worked in factories. Changes in TransportationIn the 1800s, dirt roads could not be used in bad weather.The government built a paved road from Maryland to Ohio. People built towns and opened businesses to sell goods.Robert Fulton invented a steamboat that could travelwithout wind or currents. Soon there were many steamboats.In 1825, the Erie Canal opened. This canal made it easier toship goods between Lake Erie and the Hudson River. Manycanals were built. Rivers and canals became the fastest andcheapest way to ship goods.Steam locomotive trains were even faster thansteamboats. Trips that took 32 hours by steamboat took only10 hours by train. Soon the United States had thousands ofmiles of railroad track. Factories and farmers sent their goods faster to places all over the country.

## Glossary of the period

- **First Industrial Revolution**: The First Industrial Revolution lasted from the late 1700s to the mid-1800s. This period saw manufacturing of products like textiles move from the home to factories.
- **Second Industrial Revolution:** A period of the Industrial Revolution that took place from the mid-1800s to the early 1900s. It was a period of technical advancement and movement to the mass-production of goods.
- **Breaker boy**: A worker in a coal mine whose job was to break up the coal into similar size pieces and to remove any impurities from the coal. Many of these workers were young boys between the ages of 9 and 12.
- **Child labor**: During the Industrial Revolution poor children were often put to work in factories. They worked long hours under dangerous conditions and made low wages. Child labor wasn't outlawed in the U.S. until 1938.
- **Division of labor**: When each worker has a specific task or role they perform.
- **Factory System**: A new method of manufacturing goods developed during the Industrial Revolution where products were made in large factories using division of labor and machinery.
- **Labor union**: An organization of workers, usually in the same trade or profession, that is formed to protect the workers' rights.
- **Luddites**: The Luddites were a group of textile workers in England who felt their jobs were threatened by textile machines and factories. They broke into factories and destroyed the machines.
- **Spinning jenny**: A machine that allowed a worker to spin multiple spools of yarn at the same time. It was invented by James Hargreaves.
- **Steam engine**: An engine that uses steam to produce power. James Watt invented a practical and efficient version of the steam engine in 1781.
- **Textile**: A textile is a type of cloth or woven fabric.
- **Telegraph**: A way of transmitting messages along a wire using electrical signals. It was invented by Samuel Morse.
- **Working class**: A group of people that work for wages, usually in factories or doing manual labor.
- **Proletariat**: The wage-earning worker in Marx's class struggle
- **Bourgeoisie**: The owner of the means of production

## Evaluation:

At the end of this semester the student will be able to answer these types of questions:

- **Discuss the following passages**.

- During the Industrial Revolution, Matthew White wrote: *" The 18th century saw the emergence of the 'Industrial Revolution', the great age of steam, canals and factories that changed the face of the British economy forever.."*

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- In 1842, Henry Morton said: *I believe that employing children in coal mines is perfectly consistent with good health. They earn good wages. Working on the night shift does no harm, the air and ventilation are the same at one period as at another.*

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- *The rise of the industrial spirit among people brought about new ways of thinking, a new ideology of living and a new system of education. Children of the nineteenth-century working class in England had rare prospects of acquiring more than a few scraps of education.*

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- *During the Industrial Revolution, the availability of food, clothing and shelter, opportunities for education, access to health care, fair wages and more political, economic and religious freedoms made living conditions in Great Britain better than it was.*

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- *The greatest killer in the cities was tuberculosis (TB). The disease caused a wasting of the body with the lungs being attacked. The lungs attempt to defend themselves by producing what are called tubercles.*

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- *During the Industrial Revolution, the social structure of English society changed drastically. Before the Industrial Revolution, most people lived in small villages, working either in agriculture or as skilled craftsmen and received no education.*

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- *Some historians argue that the 13th and 16th century were also periods of revolutionary economic change. However, in view of the magnitude of change between 1750 and 1850, the term seems useful.*

- **Briefly answer the following questions.**

1. Why is the Industrial Revolution important to history?

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2. How did the Industrial Revolution change economies?

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3. How did the Industrial Revolution change society?

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4. Why did people move from farms to the cities during the Industrial Revolution?

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5. What are the three types of revolutions?

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6. What does the concept "*laissez faire*" imply?

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7. How was art during the Industrial Revolution?

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8. When did the New-classicism emerge?


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9. Who were the Luddites?

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10. What does the concept "Darkness" represent in Joseph Conrad's Novella?

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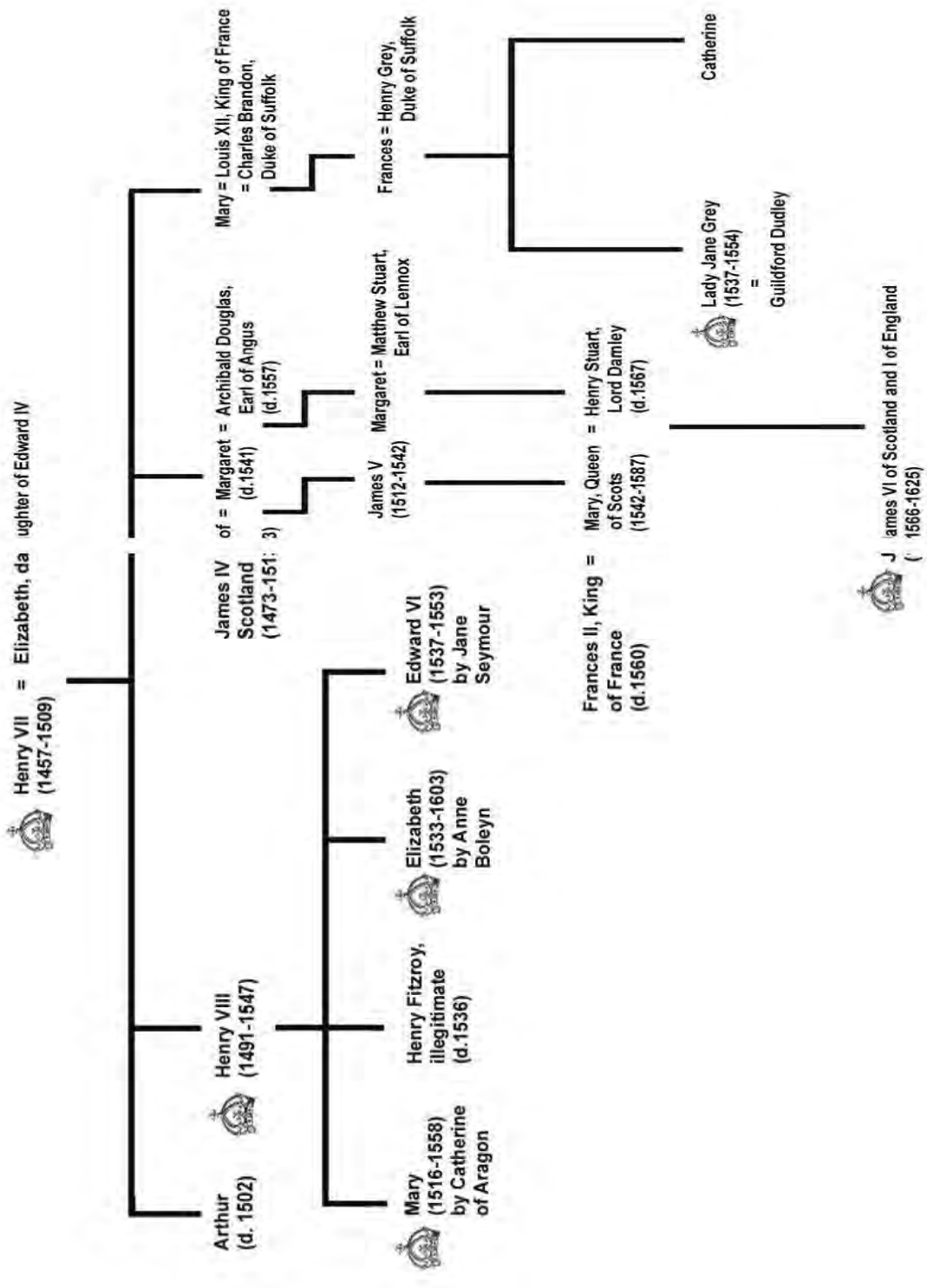
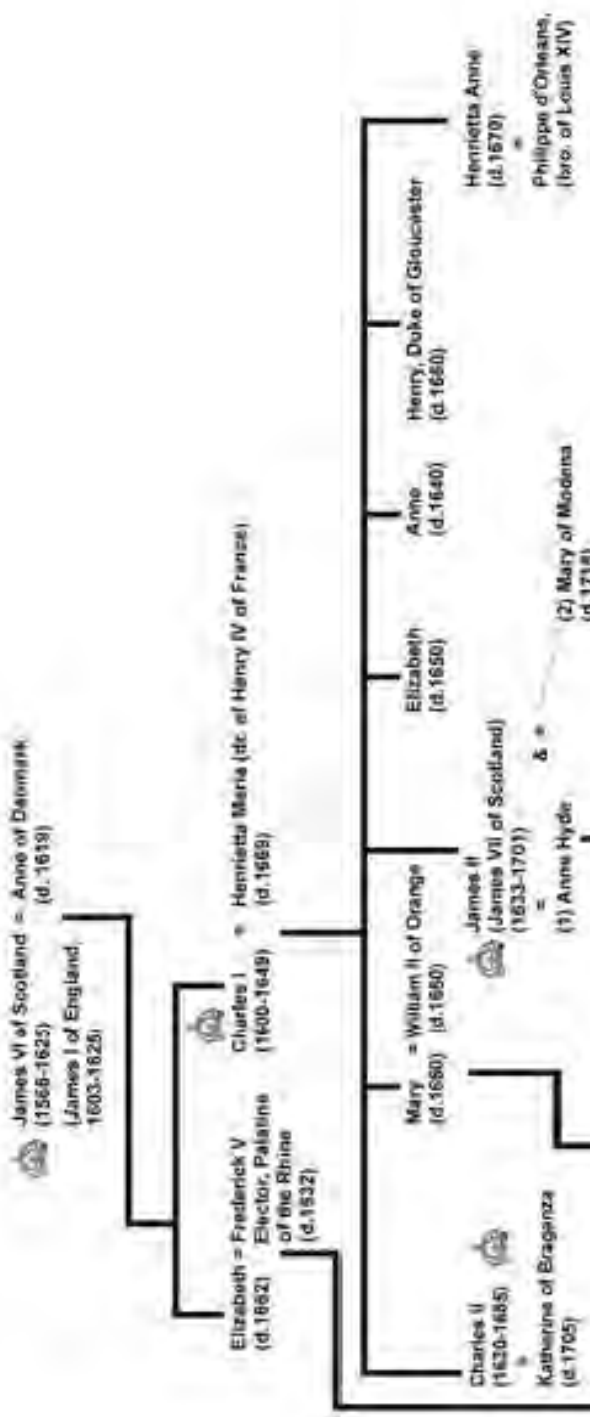
## Map: Great Britain

# The Tudors Tree Family: 1485–1603



# The Stuarts Tree Family: 1603–1714



## Timeline

***Note*:** Rulers are listed in bold before the events that take place during their reigns. Events taking place in the same year are listed on separate lines unless they are related in some way. The outcomes of wars and battles are indicated as wins (W) or losses (L) from the point of view of the ruler of England at the time.

- **Ruling House: Plantagenets (1154–1399)**

**1326–1377..... Edward III**

1337–1453..... Hundred Years' War (with France) (L).

**1377–1399..... Richard II**

1397..... Richard II arrests Lords Appellants.

1399..... Richard II deposed.

- **Ruling House: Lancastrians (1399–1461)**

**1399–1413..... Henry IV**

1403..... Battle of Shrewsbury (W).

**1413–1422..... Henry V**

1415..... Battle of Agincourt (W).

1420.....Treaty of Troyes.

1422–1461..... Henry VI.

1450..... Cade's Rebellion.

1453..... Hundred Years' War ends (L).

1455–1485..... Wars of the Roses: Battle of St. Albans

(L) (1455); Battles of Blore Heath (L) and Ludford Bridge (W) (1459); Battles of Northampton (L) and Wakefi eld (W) (1460); Battle of Towton Moor (L) (1461).

1461..... Henry VI deposed.

- **Ruling House: Yorkists (1461–1485)**

**1461–1483..... Edward IV**

1470..... Henry VI temporarily restored.

1470..... Battles of Barnet (W), Tewkesbury (W).

**1483–1485..... Richard III**

1485..... Richard III deposed at Battle of Bosworth Field (L).

- **Ruling House: Tudors (1485–1603)**

**1485–1509..... Henry VII**

1487..... Simnel's wRevolt; Battle of East

Stoke (W).

1487, 1504..... Statute against Liveries.

1489.....Treaty of Medina del Campo.

1494..... Poyning's Law.

1495–1497.....Warbeck Revolts (W).

1502..... Prince Arthur dies.

**1509–1547..... Henry VIII**

1512–1514.....War with France (W).

1516..... More's *Utopia.*

1521–1525.....War with France (L).

1526–1543..... Holbein's major portraits.

1527.....Wolsey initiates divorce.

1529..... Papacy recalls divorce case to Rome; Wolsey falls.

1532..... Submission of the clergy.

1533..... Act in Restraint of Appeals; Cranmer finds for Henry in divorce case; Henry marries Anne Boleyn; Queen Anne gives birth to daughter, Elizabeth; Act of Succession.

1534..... Act of Supremacy; Treason Act.

1535..... Executions of More and Fisher.

1536–1537..... Pilgrimage of Grace.

1536..... Act of Union with Wales.

1536–1539..... Dissolution of the monasteries.

1536..... First Poor Law.

1540..... Cromwell falls.

1541..... Henry VIII assumes crown of Ireland.

1542–1547.....War with Scotland and France.

**1547–1553..... Edward VI.**

1547–1550..... Somerset named Lord Protector.

1549..... Act of Uniformity; Western Rebellion(W).

1549–1551..... Bad harvests.

1549..... Kett's Rebellion.

1550–1553..... Northumberland's ascendancy.

1552..... Act of Uniformity.

1553..... Edward wills the Crown to Lady Jane Grey.

**1553–1558..... Mary I**

1553–1555..... Catholicism reimposed.

1553–1554.....Wyatt's Rebellion.

1554..... Mary weds Philip, King of Naples.

1555–1558..... Burnings of Protestants.

1557–1559.....War with France (L); loss of Calais.

1557–1558..... Infl uenza epidemic.

**1558–1603..... Elizabeth I**

1558–1603..... Ascendancy of the Cecils.

1559..... Treaty of Cateaux-Cambrésis withFrance, Spain.

1560..... Scottish Rebellion.

1559–1563..... Establishment of the Church of England: Act of Supremacy; Act of Uniformity (1559); Treason Act; Thirty-Nine Articles (1563).

1564.....Vestarian controversy.

1568..... Hawkins raid; seizure of Spanish gold.

1569..... Northern Revolt.

1570..... Episcopal controversy.

1571..... Ridolfi plot.

1575–1611 ..... Byrd's major works.

1577–1580..... Drake circumnavigates the globe.

1581..... Act against Recusancy (expanded 1585).

1585..... Elizabeth sends troops to the Netherlands.

1587..... Execution of Mary, Queen of Scots.

1588..... Spanish Armada (W).

1589..... Elizabeth sends troops to France.

1589–1613..... Shakespeare's major plays.

1590, 1596..... Spenser's *Faerie Queen.*

1594–1603..... O'Neill Rebellion in Ireland.

1595–1598.....Terrible harvests.

1600..... East India Company founded.

1601..... Monopolies controversy.

1601..... Essex Rebellion.

- **Ruling House: Stuarts (1603–1714)**

**1603–1625..... James I**

1604..... Goodwin's case.

1604.....Treaty of London.

1605..... Gunpowder plot.

1606..... Bacon's *Advancement of Learning.*

1607.....Virginia founded.

1611 ..... King James Bible.

1614–1628..... Ascendancy of Buckingham.

1622–1623..... Bad harvests.

1624–1630.....War with Spain (L).

**1625–1649..... Charles I**

1627–1629.....War with France (L).

1628..... Petition of Right.

1628..... Assassination of Buckingham.

1629–1641..... Personal rule.

1633..... Laud appointed Archbishop of Canterbury.

1636..... King wins ship money case.

1638–1640..... Bishops' Wars (L): Battle of Newburn (L) (1640); Treaty of Ripon (1640).

1640..... Short Parliament.

1640–1653..... Long Parliament Triennial Act; condemnation of personal rule, etc.; impeachment of Strafford (1641).

1641..... Irish Rebellion.

1642–1649..... English Civil Wars: Battle of Edgehill (W) (1642); Battle of Marston Moor (L) (1644); Battle of Naseby (L) (1645).

1647..... Putney debates.

1648–1649..... Bad harvests.

1649..... Charles I beheaded; monarchy and House of Lords abolished.

- **Interregnum (1649–1660)**

**1649–1653..... Commonwealth**

1649..... Massacre at Drogheda.

1650..... Battle of Dunbar (W).

1651..... Battle of Worcester (W).

1651, 1660, 1663..... Navigation Acts.

1651..... Hobbes's *Leviathan*.

1652–1654..... First Anglo-Dutch War (W).

1653..... Barebones Parliament.

**1653–1658..... Oliver Cromwell, Lord Protector**

1653..... Instrument of Government.

1655..... Capture of Jamaica.

**1658–1659..... Richard Cromwell, Lord Protector**

1659–1660..... Monck's March on London.

**1660–1685..... Charles II**

1660..... Convention Parliament; Stuarts restored.

1660–1669..... Pepys keeps his *Diary.*

1661–1678..... Cavalier Parliament.

1661..... Corporation Act.

1662..... Quaker Act; Act of Uniformity; Licensing Act.

1663..... Royal Society founded.

1664..... Conventicle Act.

1664–1668..... Second Anglo-Dutch War (L).

1665..... Plague in London.

1666..... Fire of London.

1667..... Milton's *Paradise Lost.*

1670.....Treaty of Dover.

1672..... Declaration of Indulgence; Stop of the Exchequer.

1672–1674..... Third Anglo-Dutch War (L).

1673.....Test Act.

1673–1678..... Danby's ascendancy.

1678..... Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress.*

1678–1694..... Purcell's major works.

1678–1682..... Popish plot and Exclusion Crisis; Exclusion Parliaments; rise of Whig and Tory parties.

1681–1685..... Tory revenge; remodeling of corporations.

1683.....Rye House plot.

**1685–1688..... James II**

1685..... Monmouth's Rebellion; bloody assizes.

1686–1688..... Purge of Commissions of Peace, etc.

1687..... Newton's *Principia Mathematica.*

1687..... Declaration of Indulgence.

1688..... Birth of Prince of Wales; Glorious Revolution.

**1689–1702..... William III and Mary II (Mary dies in 1694)**

1689.....Toleration Act.

1689–1697..... Nine Years War (W): Battles of the

Boyne (W), Beachy Head (L) (1690); Battle of La Hogue (W) (1692); Battle of Namur (W) (1695).

1690..... Locke's *Treatises of Government* and *Essay Concerning Human Understanding.*

1694..... Bank of England founded.

1697.....Treaty of Ryswick.

1701..... Act of Settlement.

1702-1714 ..... Anne.

1702–1710..... Ascendancy of Marlborough and Godolphin.

1702–1713..... War of Spanish Succession (W): Capture of Gibraltar (W); Battle of Blenheim (W) (1704); Battle of Ramillies (W) (1706); Battle of Almanza (L) (1707); Battle of Oudenarde (W) (1708).

1706..... Regency Act.

1707..... Act of Union with Scotland.

1710–1714..... Ascendancy of Harley (Oxford).

1712..... Pope's *Rape of the Lock.*

1713.....Treaty of Utrecht.

- **Ruling House: Hanoverians (1714–1901)**

**1714–1727..... George I**

1715..... Jacobite Revolt.

1716..... Septennial Act.

1720..... South Sea Bubble.

1720–1742..... Sir Robert Walpole, Prime Minister.

1720..... Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe.*

1720–1767..... Hogarth's major works.

1726..... Swift's *Gulliver's Travels.*

**1727–1760..... George II**

# Glossary

**advowson**: right of the local landlord to choose the parish priest.

**Anglicans**: conservative or "High Church" members of the Church of England favoring Church government by bishops. Theologically, they were generally Arminians (see **Arminians**) or at least favorably disposed toward elaborate ritual and ceremony. The dominant strain of the Church of England after the Restoration; the term is anachronistic but useful for explaining tendencies up to that point.

**Appeals, Act in Restraint of, 1533**: parliamentary statute that forbade appeals in legal cases to jurisdictions beyond that of the King of England (such as Rome). The most important piece of legislation in the break from Rome, it not only made the divorce from Catherine of Aragon possible, but some historians believe that it established a modern conception of

sovereignty in England.

**Arminians**: followers (or accused followers) of the Dutch theologian Jacob Arminius, who believed that humans could play a role in their own salvation by means of good works and effi cacious rituals (theologically opposed by Calvinists; see **Calvinists**). They emphasized "the beauty of holiness" through elaborate church decor and ceremonial. Led by Archbishop Laud, Arminian clergy became infl uential under Charles I in the 1630s.

**asiento**: the right to supply African slaves to the Spanish colonies of the New World, secured for Britain in the Treaty of Utrecht of 1713 (see **Utrecht, Treaty of**).

**assizes, assize court**: court held twice a year in a major town as part of a regular circuit of assize judges with jurisdiction over the most serious felonies.

**attainder**: parliamentary statute that declared the party in question "attainted" of treason, without the formal procedure of a trial. Because those attainted lost their lives, titles, lands, and goods, whole families were ruined by this process.

**Babington Plot**: plot engineered by Anthony Babington, page to Mary, Queen of Scots, in 1586 to assassinate Elizabeth and place Mary on the throne. Discovered by Secretary Walsingham's spy system, he waited to see if Mary would incriminate herself by approving the assassination. She did so, leading to her trial and execution.

**Baptists**: Protestants who believed that baptism should be left to adult choice. This idea was controversial because it would leave children unbaptized and vitiate any notion of a national church.

**Calvinists**: Protestant followers of John Calvin who believed that God has predestined all human beings to be saved or damned. Most members of the Church of England prior to 1630, and all Puritans (see **Puritans**), were Calvinists.

**Cavaliers**: cant name for supporters of the Royalist side during the Civil Wars.

**chantry**: a chapel, often a side-chapel in a church, set aside for prayers for the dead, often endowed by the deceased (see **purgatory**). Dissolved by the Crown in 1547.

**Clarendon Code**: popular name for the series of statutes passed by the Cavalier Parliament to establish the monopoly of the Church of England and outlaw dissent after the Restoration (see **Conventicle Act; Corporation Act; Five Mile Act; Quaker Act; Uniformity, Act of, 1662**). Its effect was to make Dissenters second-class citizens. Unfairly named for Lord Chancellor Clarandon who, though a staunch Anglican, was opposed to the persecution of Dissenters (see **Dissenters**).

**Conventicle Act 1664**: forbade meetings of more than fi ve people for illegal (i.e. dissenting) worship on pain of fi nes and exile for a third offence.

**corporation**: the mayor, aldermen, and/or other governors of a city or borough, as laid out in its charter, granted by the Crown under the Great Seal of England.

**Corporation Act, 1662**: parliamentary statute that gave the king power to revoke city charters and change the composition of the corporation. Because the corporation ran the city in question and often voted for its members of Parliament, this was a way to ensure royal control of local government and the electoral process.

**Declarations of Indulgence, 1672, 1687**: royal proclamations suspending (see **suspending power**) the laws against both recusants (Catholics) and Dissenters (see **Dissenters**). Generally not supported by Dissenters because of their hostility to Catholics and fi ercely opposed by the Anglican majority (see **Anglicans**).

**Deists**: those who, in the wake of the Scientifi c Revolution and Enlightenment, ceased to believe that God works actively to determine every occurrence in the world. Rather, they conceived of a "watchmaker God" who set the universe running according to unalterable natural laws. They tended to be suspicious of Scripture and dogma as infallible guides for human behavior, preferring the exercise of reason.

**demesne**: the part of a manor reserved for the landlord's crops and other uses. It was farmed for him by his tenants.

**Diggers**: religious sect emerging out of the toleration following the Civil Wars. They were led by Gerald Winstanley in the period 1649–1650 and believed that the Bible did not sanction private property. They attempted to set up communes at St. George's Hill, Surrey, and elsewhere, but a combination of government repression and local hostility broke the movement.

**dispensing power**: the customary, but increasingly controversial, right of English kings to dispense with the law in individual cases. Its use died out after the Glorious Revolution of 1688–1689.

**Dissenters**: those Protestants, usually theological Puritans, who rejected or were expelled from the Church of England after the passage of the Clarendon Code (see **Puritans**, **Clarendon Code**) following the Restoration. Dissenters were persecuted under the code until the passage of the Toleration Act in 1689, after which Dissenters who accepted the Trinity could worship openly if they kept the doors of their meeting houses unlocked.

**enclosure**: the process whereby landowners ceased arable (crop) farming and turned their lands over to pastoral, usually sheep, farming. This process was highly controversial, because it was thought to involve not only the enclosing of land by fences, but the eviction of the tenant farmers who had worked it. In fact, historical research indicates that its motivations and effects varied so considerably from place to place as to defy generalization.

**Exclusion Crisis**: the crisis over the succession that occurred in 1678–1681over whether James, Duke of York, a Catholic, should be allowed to succeedhis brother Charles II. The crisis, which was borne of the supposed discoveryof a popish plot (see **Popish Plot**), precipitated three elections and led to therise of the fi rst two political parties in England. Whigs (see **Whigs**) opposedthe duke's succession, proposing that Parliament name a Protestant instead;Tories (see **Tories**) favored it.

**Five Mile Act, 1665**: parliamentary statute barring any non-conforming minister from coming within fi ve miles of a town in which he had served, unless he swore an oath renouncing rebellion.

**forced loan**: the practice of extorting money from English subjects, occasionally resorted to by the Tudors and, most notoriously, by Charles I.

**grammar school**: an endowed primary school with a classical curriculum, usually patronized by the middling orders.

**Gunpowder Plot**: Catholic plot organized in 1605 by Robert Catesby to blow up King James I and both Houses of Parliament at the state opening on 5 November by detonating barrels of gunpowder stored in the basement of the House of Lords. The plot was uncovered, and one of the conspirators, Guy Fawkes, caught red-handed with the explosives the night before. The conspirators were executed and anti-Catholic legislation was toughened.

**heretic**: one who publicly denies principal doctrines of the established Church. The Act for Burning Heretics of 1401 decreed burning at the stake, most famously, for Protestant "heretics" under Mary.

**Independents**: those who, during and after the Civil Wars, believed that individual congregations should be allowed to decide on forms of worship and discipline within a loose national church. They generally favored a more aggressive war strategy during the Civil Wars and more radical solutions to social problems afterward. Eventually, they became known as Congregationalists.

**Jacobites**: supporters of the exiled King James II and his son, the titular James III, known to his opponents as the Pretender. Jacobite rebellions in 1715 and 1745 failed to restore the Catholic Stuarts.

**Junto**: from the Spanish *junta*, the group of fi ve Whig politicians who acted in concert to lead the party and, often, the government between 1690 and 1715: Thomas, Lord Wharton; John, Lord Somers; Charles Montagu, later Earl of Halifax; Edward Russell, Earl of Orford; and Charles Spencer, later Earl of Sunderland.

**Justice of the Peace (J.P.)**: an unpaid offi cer of the Crown in the localities, usually a gentleman, who acted as a magistrate, sitting in judgment over (usually) non-capital felonies, regulating markets and prices, maintaining roads, and supervising the Poor Law, among many other responsibilities. The mainstay of county government.

**Kett's Rebellion**: rebellion led by Robert Kett in East Anglia in 1549 in response to hard economic times. The rebels demanded lower rents and entry fines, the inviolability of common lands, and a greater say in the selection of local offi cials. After the Duke of Somerset hesitated, its ruthless suppression by the Earl of Warwick helped catapult him to power.

**Latitudinarians**: early 18th-century churchmen, many of them Whig bishops, who sought an inclusive Church of England accommodating a variety of beliefs, including those consistent with reason and the new science.

**Levellers**: radical members of the army from 1647 who followed the ideas of John Lilburne and others demanding universal manhood suffrage, law reform, and "the sovereignty of the people." A Leveller constitution, the Agreement of the People, was debated at Putney in 1647, but the movement was eventually suppressed by the Commonwealth.

**Long Parliament**. The Parliament summoned in the autumn of 1640, which sat in one form or another from the spring of 1641 to December 1648. At that time, its more moderate members were purged to form the Rump Parliament, which governed the Commonwealth until 1653 (see **Pride's Purge**, **Rump Parliament**). First the Rump, then the whole of the Long Parliament were recalled during the period of instability before the Restoration, 1659–1660.

**Lords Lieutenant**: from the late Tudor period on, unpaid government offi cials, usually the most prominent peer in each county. His duty was to maintain order, keep an eye out for disaffection, and raise the militia when called on.

**manor**: the estate of a landlord, usually originally held by feudal tenure.

**National Covenant**: the agreement signed in 1638 by the leaders of Scottish society to defend Presbyterian Church government and its Calvinist theology against the Anglicizing tendencies of Charles I (see **Presbyterians**).

**Navigation Acts, 1651, 1660, 1663**: parliamentary legislation requiring that goods shipped to and from the English colonies in America be transported in English vessels through English ports. This legislation ensured England's commercial supremacy.

**Nonconformists**: see **Dissenters**.

**nonjurors**: Anglican clergymen who refused to take the oaths of allegiance to William III and Mary II.

**Northern Rebellion**: revolt in 1569 that started out as a plot by the Duke of Norfolk to wed Mary, Queen of Scots, and replace William Cecil in Elizabeth's councils. When he hesitated, the Earls of Northumberland and Westmorland raised the north for Catholicism and marched south to Durham. The rebellion lost steam and was suppressed brutally.

**occasional conformity**: the practice by offi ce-holding Dissenters of receiving communion at Anglican services in order to qualify under the Test Act (see **Dissenters**, **Test Act**). The Tories attempted legislation to ban the practice repeatedly under Anne (see **Tories**). They succeeded in securing a statute in 1711, only to see it repealed in 1719.

**Overbury Scandal**: the scandal that emerged in 1615 when it became apparent that two years before, Frances Howard, Countess of Somerset, had engineered the poisoning of Sir Thomas Overbury in the Tower of London to stop him from revealing embarrassing personal information about her divorce from the Earl of Essex and marriage to the current favorite, the Duke of Somerset. Both she and the duke fell from favor and were imprisoned but later pardoned.

**Pale**: the small area around Dublin in which direct English rule was effective in Ireland.

**Petition of Right, 1628**: parliamentary statute guaranteeing that no subject could be forced to pay a tax not voted by Parliament, imprisoned without charge, have soldiers billeted upon his house, or be subject to martial law. Charles I agreed to it with great reluctance in order to secure fi ve new taxes.

**Pilgrimage of Grace**: Series of uprisings in the North in 1536–1537. Ostensibly in reaction to Henry VIII's innovations in religion, they also had economic and social causes. After promising concessions, the Henrician regime crushed the movement, executing its most prominent leader, Robert Aske, and about 180 rebels.

**Poor Laws, 1536, 1563, 1598, 1601, 1662**: series of parliamentary statutes designed to provide relief for the "deserving" poor, that is, those who could not work because of gender, age, or illness. The relief came out of taxes, Poor Rate, collected and distributed on a parish-by-parish basis. Some of these laws also had punitive provisions for "sturdy beggars," that is, those who would not work. The law of 1662 allowed parishes to send itinerant poor back to their parishes of origin.

**Popish Plot**: fi ctitious Jesuit-Catholic plot to assassinate Charles II and raise the Catholic James, Duke of York to the throne with French help. The plot was manufactured by the de-

frocked clergyman Titus Oates in the late summer of 1678 and led to widespread panic and anti-Catholic hysteria.

**Poyning's Law, 1494**: named for Sir Edward Poyning, Lord Deputy of Ireland from 1494–1496, this statute of the Irish Parliament gave the English Privy Council the right to approve the summoning and legislation of the Irish Parliament. It further stated that statutes passed by the English Parliament applied to Ireland.

**Praemunire, Statutes of 1351, 1363**: parliamentary statutes that prohibited English subjects from acknowledging papal jurisdiction in certain cases.

**Presbyterians, Parliamentary Presbyterians**: theological Calvinists (see **Calvinists**) who embraced the form of Church government established in Scotland in the 16th century, whereby doctrine and practice were determined by a hierarchy of courts, culminating in a general assembly. Some Puritans found this system attractive, and Parliamentary Presbyterians wanted to apply it to England during and after the Civil Wars (see **Puritans**). They tended to be among the more conservative Puritans, favoring an accommodation with the king before 1649 and the restoration of the monarchy in 1660.

**Pride's Purge**: In December 1648, Col. Thomas Pride, under orders from the Council of the Army, led troops who purged those remaining members of the Long Parliament who wished to continue negotiations with the king. Their removal paved the way for the trial and execution of Charles I by the remnant, known as the Rump Parliament (see **Rump Parliament**).

**proclamation**: royal decree (similar to the modern presidential executive order) that does not carry quite the same force as statute law.

**public schools**: original term for an endowed grammar school, has come to be associated with the wealthiest and most exclusive examples, such as Eton, Harrow, Rugby, and Winchester. Offering a curriculum emphasizing the Latin classics, they have long been famous as the training grounds for England's elite.

**purgatory**: Roman Catholic belief that, at death, souls who are not damned but not of suffi cient perfection to merit heaven go to this place to become so. Catholics believe that the prayers of the faithful and the indulgences granted by the Church for good deeds in life are effi cacious in reducing the amount of time a soul spends there. The sale of indulgences was one of the corrupt practices that aroused the indignation of Martin Luther and other Protestant reformers.

**Puritans**: Protestants who sought the continued reform of the Church of England after its establishment in 1559–1563. Puritans tended to be Calvinists, favoring plain church ritual consistent with scriptural injunction. Many, though not all, favored a Presbyterian form of church government (see **Presbyterians**). After a brief mom ent in the sun following the Civil Wars, they were driven out of the Church of England by the Clarendon Code (see **Clarendon Code**) and, thus, are properly known after the Restoration as Dissenters (see **Dissenters**).

**Quaker Act 1662**: made it illegal to refuse to plead in court (thus attacking the Quaker aversion to swearing oaths) and proscribed all meetings for worship outside the parish church of groups of fi ve or more.

**Quakers**: religious sect emerging out of the toleration following the Civil Wars and led by George Fox. They believed that each human being possessed God's inner light in equal measure, regardless of gender or social rank. This inclined them, notoriously, to fl out gender roles, deny deference to social superiors, refuse to swear oaths, and "quake" with their inner light at services. They were harshly suppressed at the Restoration.

**Ranters**: religious radicals emerging out of the toleration following the Civil Wars who believed that those in tune with God, who is pure good, can commit no sin. This was thought to give them license to perform all manner of debauchery. Though much feared and reviled at the time, historians now debate their existence.

**Regency Act, 1706**: statute of Parliament guaranteeing that that body would continue to sit for six months after the death of Queen Anne, the realm administered by a Council of Regency to ensure the smooth accession of the Elector of Hanover as ruler of England, in keeping with the Act of Settlement. Its implementation in 1714 did precisely that.

**Ridolfi Plot**: plot engineered by Robert Ridolfi and supported by Phillip II and the pope in 1571 to overthrow Elizabeth and replace her with Mary, Queen of Scots. Discovered and foiled by the government.

**Roundheads**: cant name for supporters of the parliamentary side during the Civil Wars.

**Rump Parliament**: popular nickname for the radical remnant of the Long Parliament that continued to sit after Pride's Purge (see **Long Parliament**, **Pride's Purge**) in December 1648. The Rump was the effective legislaturevof the Commonwealth. It was dissolved by Cromwell in 1653 but briefl yvrevived in 1659–1660 during the chaos leading to the Restoration.

**Ryswick, Treaty of, 1697**: treaty ending the Nine Years' War, by whichvLouis XIV recognized William III as the rightful King of England, Scotland,vand Ireland; gave back European territory taken since 1678; and agreed tovwork out with William a partition of the Spanish Empire after the death of Carlos II.

**Settlement, Act of, 1701**: The statute that established the Hanoverian succession after William III and Queen Anne. It passed over dozens of Catholic claimants to award the succession to the Protestant descendants of James I's daughter, Elizabeth, namely, Sophia, Electress of Hanover,

and her successor, Georg Ludwig. The act also restricted the power of the monarch to make war, leave the country, or employ members of Parliament in government offi ce.

**sheriff**: originally the *shire reeve*, an unpaid offi cer of the Crown in the localities, responsible for collecting taxes, impaneling juries, and early in the period, raising the militia. Considered onerous and to be avoided if possible.

**ship money**: tax money collected in port cities to provide for the Royal Navy in times of national emergency. Charles I's extension to the whole country in the 1630s was fi nancially lucrative but highly resented, leading to Hampden's case, which the king barely won. Condemned by the Long Parliament, 1641 (see **Long Parliament**).

**Solemn League and Covenant, 1643**: the agreement between the Scottish Covenanters (see **National Covenant**), on the one hand, and the English Parliamentarians, on the other, by which the former supplied their army in return for £30,000 a month and a promise to establish Presbyterianism in England (see **Presbyterians**). This agreement made possible the crushing parliamentary victory at Marston Moor.

**Star Chamber**: the Council acting as a court of law in matters involving riot and disorder. Its rules were few and its justice, quick, which made it popular with the Crown and litigants.

**suspending power**: the customary, if always controversial, right of English kings to suspend the operation of the laws in a time of national emergency. Condemned in the Declaration of Rights of 1689 and extinct thereafter.

**Test Acts 1673, 1678**: legislation pased by the Cavalier Parliament in response to the Declaration of Indulgence requiring all civil offi ceholders and members of either House of

Parliament to take communion in the Church of England, to take oaths of supremacy and allegiance, and to repudiate transubstantiation annually. These requirements "fl ushed out"

many Catholics in government but were less effective against Dissenters because of the practice of occasional conformity (see **Dissenters**, **occasional conformity**).

**Tories**: English political party that arose in response to the Exclusion Crisis of the 1680s (see **Exclusion Crisis**). The Tories began as a court party defending the hereditary succession in the person of James, Duke of York. They favored the rights of the monarch, the Church of England, and the interests of landowners. During the 1690s, as they became associated with Jacobitism and lost power, the Tories became more of a country party. Their name derives from a cant term for Catholic-Irish brigands.

**Uniformity, Acts of 1549, 1552, 1559, 1662**: parliamentary statutes mandating attendance at church and the use of the English Book of Common Prayer.

**Union, Acts of 1536 with Wales, 1707 with Scotland**: parliamentary statutes uniting the country in question with England as one state. The 1707 Union created the state of Great Britain.

**Utrecht, Treaty of, 1713**: Treaty between Great Britain and France ending their hostilities in the War of the Spanish Succession. Britain acquired Gibraltar, Newfoundland, and Nova Scotia; territory in the Caribbean; the asiento (see **asiento**); Louis XIV's recognition of the Protestant succession; and the promise that the crowns of France and Spain would never be united.

**Whigs**: English political party that arose in response to the Exclusion Crisis of the 1680s (see **Exclusion Crisis**). The Whigs began as a country party demanding the exclusion of the Catholic James, Duke of York, from the throne; emphasizing the rights of Parliament and Dissenters; and championing a Protestant (pro-Dutch) foreign policy. In the 1690s, they became a party of government and grew less radical.

**Wyatt's Rebellion**: rebellion led in 1554 by Sir Thomas Wyatt against Mary's intended marriage to Phillip, King of Naples. Mary rallied the palace guards and remnants of Northumberland's army and beat back the rebels, many of whom were executed.

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