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THIS IS GREAT BRITAIN

*Азәрбайҗан Республикасы
Тяцсил Назилийи Елми-Методик
Шурасы «Авропа Дилляри вя
Ядыбиййаты» бюлмясинин
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“Elm və təhsil”
Baku -2016

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ISBN 978-9952-8024-1-2

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This is Great Britain. Baku, “Elm və təhsil”, 2016, 226 p.

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FOREWORD

The present book gives to readers interested in regional ethnography an opportunity to expand their outlook and to enrich their knowledge of one of the most developed English-speaking countries of the world – the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Included are various texts about the geography, history,

economy, science and culture of Britain, acquainting the reader with outstanding people, traditions, customs, modes of life, and national character traits of the nations settling in England.

Articles contain information about specific historic events and interesting features of modern life in these countries.

It is true that we are familiar with various language

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manuals and textbooks that look at certain periods of the history of Great Britain. But *This is Great Britain* is the first **Early Britain**

language textbook to completely cover the history of England.

The book is intended for use in independent work by

students at university, technical school, or vocational school. The purpose of the book is to develop reading skills in English



with reference to ethnographical and cultural subjects, enlarge and enrich vocabulary, and to promote the ability to comprehend and express an opinion about the texts. At the end of each chapter questions are provided for review and a deeper understanding of the material.

We hope that this book will stimulate your reading and thinking. We also hope that the questions for discussion will help develop your knowledge and opinions of the content covered.

We will be grateful for any suggestions on improving the text.

The authors

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CELTIC TRIBES

The word Celt comes from the Greek word, ***Keltoi***, which means barbarians and is properly pronounced as "Kelt". The Celts lived across most of Europe during the Iron Age.

Several hundred years before Julius Caesar, they occupied many parts of central and western Europe, especially what are now Austria, Switzerland, southern France and Spain. Over several years, in wave after wave, they spread outwards, taking over France and Belgium, and crossing to Britain. From around

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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.

No one called the people living in Britain during the Iron Age Celts until the eighteenth century. In fact, the Romans called these people Britons, not Celts. The name Celts is a 'modern' name and is used to collectively describe all the many tribes of people living during the Iron Age. The Iron Age Celts lived here 750 years before Jesus was born. The Iron Age ended in 43 AD when the Romans invaded Britain.

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The period of time in Britain immediately before the Roman period is known as the Iron Age. The name 'Iron Age' comes from the discovery of a new metal called iron. The Celts found out how to make iron tools and weapons.

The Advent of Iron

The use of iron had amazing consequences. First, it changed trade and fostered local independence. Trade was essential during the Bronze Age, for not every area was naturally endowed with the necessary ores to make bronze. Iron, on the other hand, was relatively cheap and available almost everywhere.

Celtic Family Life

The basic unit of Celtic life was the clan, a sort of extended family. The term "family" is a bit misleading, for by all accounts the Celts practiced a peculiar form of child rearing;

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they didn't rear them, they farmed them out. Children were actually raised by foster parents. The foster father was often the brother of the birth-mother. Clans were bound together very loosely with other clans into tribes, each of which had its own social structure and customs, and possibly its own local gods.

Housing

The Celts lived in huts of arched timber with walls of wicker and roofs of thatch. The huts were generally gathered in loose hamlets. In several places each tribe had its own coinage system.

Farming

The Celts were farmers when they weren't fighting. One of the interesting innovations that they brought to Britain was the iron plough. Earlier ploughs had been awkward affairs, basically a stick with a pointed end harnessed behind two oxen. They were suitable only for plowing the light upland soils. The heavier iron ploughs constituted an agricultural revolution all by themselves, for they made it possible for the first time to

cultivate the rich valley and lowland soils. They came with a price though. It generally required a team of eight oxen to pull the plough, so to avoid the difficulty of turning that large a team, Celtic fields tended to be long and narrow, a pattern that can still be seen in some parts of the country today.

Language

There was a written Celtic language, but it developed well into Christian times, so for much of Celtic history they relied on oral transmission of culture, primarily through the efforts of bards and poets. These arts were tremendously important to the Celts, and much of what we know of their traditions comes to us today through the old tales and poems that were handed down for generations before eventually being written down.

Bracae

Bracae were trousers worn underneath tunics. Tunics were mainly worn by men. They were a simple 'T' shape and worn at any length from the knee to the ankle. Men would wear a tunic with a belt, a cloak and trousers.

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Jewellery

The Celts also loved to wear jewellery made from bronze, gold, tin, silver, coral and enamel. Important people like chieftains, nobles and warriors wore a Torc (neck ring), a circular twisted metal neckband. It was made from gold, silver, bronze and copper.

Round Houses

The Celtic tribes lived in scattered villages. They lived in round houses with thatched roofs of straw or heather. The walls of their houses were made from local material. Houses in the south tended to be made from wattle (woven wood) and daub (straw and mud) as there was an ample supply of wood from the forests. The houses had no windows. The roof was made from straw with mud placed on top to keep the warmth in. The houses in the north were made with large stones held together

with clay. The Celts would light a fire in the middle of the roundhouse for cooking and heating. It must have been very smoky inside. The smoke from the fire escaped through a hole in the roof.

Clothes

The Celts loved bright dazzling colors. They dyed their woolen trousers and tops bright colors. Clothes were made from wool and dyed with natural vegetable dyes (plants and berries) and woven by hand on a vertical loom. The wool cloth material made on the loom would then have been sewn together using a bone or metal needle and wool thread. Before being woven the wool was spun using drop spindles. A drop spindle was a notched stick with a weight at the bottom to help the spindle to turn when spun round. The weight is known as a spindle whorl.

Hill Forts

The time of the "Celtic conversion" of Britain saw a huge growth in the number of hill forts throughout the region. These were often small ditch and bank combinations encircling defensible hilltops. Some are small enough that they were of no

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practical use for more than an individual family, though over time many larger forts were built. The curious thing is that we don't know if the hill forts were built by the native Britons to defend themselves from the encroaching Celts, or by the Celts as they moved their way into hostile territory.

Usually these forts contained no source of water, so their use as long term settlements is doubtful, though they may have been useful indeed for withstanding a short term siege. Many of the hill forts were built on top of earlier causewayed camps.

Celtic Culture

At the present time, every aspect of Celtic culture is a very visible part of a multicultural world. Everyone whose family roots lie in central, western and northwestern Europe has a

Celtic connection of some sort. Celtic culture is very ancient. It goes back over 2,700 years, yet it is still a living force in the modern world, through Celtic art, Celtic music, Celtic writing, and Celtic spirituality. This is because the civilization of the Celts has continued without break over the centuries. This unbroken tradition can be experienced in the oldest literature from Northern Europe, that is, in the Welsh and Irish languages. The earliest Welsh and Irish writings preserve the ancient Celtic world-view that is nature-venerating and poetic, where the spiritual and the material worlds come together to enrich one another.

Celtic Priests (Druids)

Celtic priests, called Druids, were the link between the supernatural world and the ordinary human one. They were able to predict what would happen in the future by interpreting nature. It is likely that they knew how to read and write, and they certainly had a good grasp of mathematics. They knew something of medicine and law, and they could trace the stars and the planets. The main centre of the druids in Britain was Anglesey, in Wales.

Druids used both animal and human sacrifice, and many of their observances centered on oak groves and water. The Isle

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of Anglesey, in present-day Wales, was a centre of Druidic practice.

The Druids as we know them today exist largely in the words of the Romans. The trouble with the reports of the Romans is that they were a mix of reportage and political propaganda. It was politically expedient for the Celtic peoples to be colored as barbarians and the Romans as a great civilizing force.

Certainly the Romans seem to be genuinely horrified by the instances of human sacrifice among the Druids. In 61 AD the Romans exterminated the Druids of Anglesey, effectively

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destroying druidism as a religious force until a form of druidism was revived in the 19th century.

Religion

From what we know of the Celts from Roman commentators, who are witnesses with an axe to grind, they held many of their religious ceremonies in woodland groves and near sacred water, such as wells and springs. The Romans speak of human sacrifice as being a part of Celtic religion. One thing we do know, the Celts revered human heads.

Celtic warriors would cut off the heads of their enemies in battle and display them as trophies. They mounted heads in doorposts and hung them from their belts. This might seem barbaric to us, but to the Celt the seat of spiritual power was the head, so by taking the head of a vanquished foe they were appropriating that power for themselves. It was a kind of bloody religious observance.

Gods and Goddesses

The Celts believed in many gods and goddesses: over 400 in fact. Among them were:

Sucellos - the sky god, with a hammer that caused lightning.

Nodens - who made clouds and rain.

Many gods had no names, but lived in springs, woods and other places. Offerings to the gods were thrown into lakes, rivers and left by springs and wells.

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The Celtic Year

Celtic festivals were held throughout the year. They measured time in Lunar (moon) months, and in order to bring the lunar and solar years into agreement would add an extra month to the year every three or four years.

The Four Main Festivals of the Celtic Year

Great feasts were held four times during the year - Imbolc, Beltain, Lughnasa and Samhain.

- Imbolc - 1st February
- Beltain - 1st May
- Lughnasa - 1st August
- Samhain - 1st November

The Celts considered their day began at sunset (and not at midnight like we do today), so they began their feasts at sundown on the evening before the holy day.

Human Heads

The Celts made many sculptures of human heads in stone or wood. They believed that the human soul lived inside the head. They believed that capturing someone's soul gave you really powerful magic, which is why they collected the heads of their enemies killed in battles.

Roman historians say the Celts cut off the heads of their ancestors, and even their enemies, and worshipped the skulls. They nailed the heads over the doors of their huts.

The Afterlife

The Celts believed that the human soul had an afterlife, so when a person died they were buried with many things they would need for the afterlife. Warriors were often buried with a helmet, a sword or dagger, shield and in some cases, even a chariot.

Weapons and Warriors

Many Celts went into battle unprotected by helmets or armor. They often fought naked - and it's believed that women fought as well. Celtic warriors carried long, or oval shaped

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shields, spears, daggers and long slashing swords made of iron. The Celtic warrior's deadliest weapon was his long sword, which he whirled around his head and brought crashing down on the enemy. Celtic shields were made of oak, probably covered in hide or felt, and had a central strip of iron.

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The Celts at War

The Celts loved war. If one wasn't happening they'd be sure to start one. They arrayed themselves as fiercely as possible, sometimes charging into battle fully naked, dyed blue from head to toe, and screaming like banshees to terrify their enemies.

They took tremendous pride in their appearance in battle, if we can judge by the elaborately embellished weapons and paraphernalia they used. Golden shields and breastplates shared pride of place with ornamented helmets and trumpets.

The Celts were great users of light chariots in warfare. From this chariot, drawn by two horses, they would throw spears at an enemy before dismounting to have a go with heavy slashing swords. As mentioned, they beheaded their opponents in battle and it was considered a sign of prowess and social standing to have a goodly number of heads to display.

The main problem with the Celts was that they couldn't stop fighting among themselves long enough to put up a unified front. Each tribe was out for itself, and in the long run this cost them control of Britain.

There are still quite a lot of Celts living in the British Isles today. They live mainly in Wales, Cornwall, Scotland, the Isle of Man and Ireland.

The Celts living in Britain today stem from the two main types of Celt who invaded Britain:

- the **Goidelic Celts** (Gael or Gaelic) - Scotland, Isle of Man and Ireland
- the **Brythonic celts** (**Britons** or British) - roughly Wales and Cornwall

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The **Goidelic** Celts were first to invade Britain. They were later pushed into Ireland by their cousins the **Brythonic** (or British) Celts who came over in 500 - 400 BC. The Brythonic occupied present day England and Wales

By the time Julius Caesar was ready to launch his Roman invasion of Britain, more Celts had crossed over from Gaul, and had settled in the south-east of England. These were largely the **Belgic** tribes, from what is now southern Belgium and northern France, and they were related to the Britons already here, the Brythonic (British) Celts.

Before the Romans arrived, Britain consisted of a patchwork of tribal areas, each with its own king. Life was hard for the Celtic tribes. They were mainly farmers who grew, gathered or hunted for their own food. They were also fierce warriors who were often at war with each other.

The small tribes of Brythonic Celts grew over the years into larger tribes with their own distinctive identities and living in their own special regions throughout Britain. Each tribe had its own name.

SECTION RECAP

- *When did people first appear in the British Isles?*
- *What do we know about the early inhabitants? What monuments did they build?*
 - *Why do the historians think that Stonehenge was a temple for sun worship?*
- *When did the Celts appear on the British Isles?*
- *Where did they come from? In what parts of the island did they settle?*
 - *Why was it so difficult for the early inhabitants to stop the invasion?*
 - *Why do we know more about the Celts than about the earliest inhabitants? What do the historians say about their life and habits?*

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- *Who were the Celts and what happened with them after the Anglo-Saxons had come?*

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- *When did the Celts live in Europe?*
- *Why are the Celts called Iron Age Celts?*
- *What clothes did the Celts wear?*
- *What did Iron Age people eat?*
- *What is known about the religion of the ancient population of Britain?*
- *What functions were performed by Celtic Priests? What were they called?*

DISCUSSION POINTS

- *What is traditionally said about the geographical position of Britain? What do you think of it? What material monuments of Pre-Celtic population culture still exist on British territory? Which of the Celtic tribes gave their name to their new home-country?*
- *When did the Germanic tribes begin to raid the towns of the Britons? What did they call themselves? What happened to the Britons? What do we know about the new invaders? How long were they able to defend their towns and villages from the new invaders?*

ROMAN BRITAIN

According to the Roman legend, **Romulus** was the founder of Rome. The Romans lived in Rome, a city in the centre of the country of Italy. Romulus and his twin brother Remus were the sons of the God Mars. When they were very young they were abandoned by the banks of the River Tiber and left to fend for themselves. Luckily for them they were found by a she-wolf who took pity on them fed them with her milk. The boys were later found by a shepherd who raised them. The boys grew up

to be very strong and clever and they decided to build a town on the spot where the Shepherd had found them. They named their town Rome.

The Romans came to Britain nearly 2000 years ago and changed the country. Even today, evidence of the Romans can be seen in the ruins of Roman buildings, forts, roads, and baths found all over Britain. The Romans brought writing into Britain. They introduced their alphabet which is still in use. Almost half the words in modern English derive from Latin, the language of the Romans. Britain used their sophisticated legal system.

Roman towns were fortified settlements with houses that had drainage and a form of central heating. Their roads, built of stone, were long and straight and they linked London with all parts of Britain.

At the beginning of the 5th century the Emperor Constantine III withdrew the Roman forces to mainland Europe. He needed troops to defend Rome from barbarian invasions. After the departure of the army Roman civilization in the British Isles gradually fell into decay.

ROMAN INVASION, ITS REASONS AND CONSEQUENCES

In 55 B.C. Julius Caesar, then general of the Roman armies in Gaul, decided that it would be a good move to try a little summer invasion of Britain. It may have been a move intended to gain prestige back home in Rome, but it was a move that made sense. The Celts in Gaul had been receiving aid from their close relations in southern England. British Celts may even have fought with related tribes in Gaul against the Romans. Certainly Julius Caesar complained that defeated Gauls would

slip away to Britain to regroup. Tackling the British Celts made sense in the battle to secure Gaul for Rome.

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Caesar's invasion proved successful but inconclusive. Landing in present day Kent, he did battle with several tribes that summer, and did very well. The following summer he returned for more, easily defeating the first real historical British figure King Cassivellaunus. Remember that British "kings" at this time were really no more than tribal chiefs. There was no such thing as a unified "Britain", and there was no such thing as a unified Celtic army to meet the Roman advance.

Julius Caesar left after two summers fighting, exacting a promise of tribute from the defeated tribes, but it was not for another century that Rome would try to extend its influence in England. In the meantime, however, the contacts between the Roman Empire and Celtic Britain grew. Trade flourished, and it is suggested that some Celtic princes were sent to Rome to be educated.

One important social change that occurred at this time was that kingship became hereditary, rather than a post awarded to the best war leader. This change was to have disastrous consequences; several princes fled to Rome to appeal for help in succession squabbles. Rome was happy to use this as a convenient excuse for invasion.

The fight in the South

Vespasian's 2nd Legion marched through Sussex and Hampshire, the lands of the Atrebates, who were friendly to Rome, meeting their first real opposition from the Durotriges tribe in Dorset. They overran the hill fort of Hood Hill, and in an unusual move, built their military camp in one corner of the enclosure, where it can be seen today. Then they pushed on to present day Exeter, capturing twenty hill forts in all.

Maiden Castle

A grim reminder of this invasion is still to be seen at Maiden Castle in Dorset, where the Romans left behind a war cemetery full of enemy remains. The Celtic inhabitants had

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attempted to defend the fort with the aid of some 54,000 sling stones brought up from Chesil Beach, but this primitive artillery was no match for the discipline and experience of the Roman legions.

The two other prongs of attack pushed towards north Wales and north to York. By summer Claudius himself was able to land and receive the submission of twelve chieftains.

Tribal Troubles

The plan at first was to limit the conquest to the lowlands of modern England, so a border was established by 47 A.D. along the route of the Fosse Way, the great Roman road running from Exeter to Lincoln. It was a nice idea, but the Romans weren't through dealing with their old friend Caratacus, who had fled to Wales. With the help of the Silures in the south-east and the Ordovices in the north, Caratacus made life on the frontier unpleasant. The Romans had little choice but to deal the troublesome tribes.

Caratacus and his warriors were defeated in a battle near Snowdonia in 51 AD, and Caratacus himself fled north to the territory of the Brigantes. The Brigantian Queen, Cartimandua, hopeful of staying on good terms with the Romans and keeping her own territories in the bargain, promptly handed him over to the invaders. He was sent to Rome and publicly displayed as a prisoner. There he is said to have uttered the lines, "Why do you, with all these grand possessions, still covet our poor huts?"

The New Capital

The first Roman capital of the new province of Britannia was at Colchester. It didn't take the Romans long, however, to

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realize the strategic importance of the Thames River as a communication and transport highway. A small existing settlement was built up to become a trade and administrative centre. The Romans called it Londinium. We know it today as **London**. London is a Celtic name, but many towns that

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Romans built along their roads – Lancaster, Winchester, Chichester etc. have the Latin component “castra” – a camp, a fortified town. London was the centre of Roman Rule in Britain, it was walled, the Thames was bridged, and straight paved roads (Roman roads that are straight as a die) connected London with garrison towns.

Client Kingdoms

The Romans followed the formula in Britain that had been so successful elsewhere; rather than try to conquer with force, they established "client kingdoms" on the borders of territory they directly controlled. Basically this meant that certain Celtic tribes, in return for not being overrun, agreed to ally themselves to Rome. Treaties with tribes in the north and in East Anglia created buffers on the frontiers while the process of mopping up resistance continued.

Dealing with the Druids

Part of this mopping up took the form of eradicating the Druids. By the standards of their time the Romans could be tolerant of the religions of the peoples they conquered. However, the Druids represented not just a religious hierarchy, but real political and administrative authority among the Celts. And to give the Romans their due, they seem to have been genuinely horrified by what they considered the grisly and uncivilized practices of the Druids.

The Romans were big on the benefits of the civilization they were bringing to the people they conquered. They saw themselves as on a mission to expand the Empire and bring the Roman way of life to all the poor souls bereft of its benefits.

Curiously, this is the same attitude later employed by those who built the British Empire.

First invasion - Caesar's first raid

In August 55 BC the Roman general, Emperor Julius Caesar invaded Britain. He took with him two Roman legions. After winning several battles against the Celtic tribes in south-

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east England he returned to France. The first expedition, more a reconnaissance than a full invasion, gained a foothold on the coast of Kent but, undermined by storm damage to the ships and a lack of cavalry, was unable to advance further. The expedition was a military failure, but was at least a political success. The Roman Senate declared a 20-day public holiday in Rome in honour of the unprecedented achievement of obtaining hostages from Britain and defeating Belgian tribes on returning to the continent.

Second invasion - Caesar's second raid.

In his second invasion, Caesar took with him a substantially larger force and proceeded to coerce or invite many of the native Celtic tribes to pay tribute and give hostages in return for peace. A friendly local king, Mandubracius, was installed, and his rival, Cassivellaunus, was brought to terms. Hostages were taken, but historians disagree over whether the tribute agreed was paid by the Britons after Caesar's return to Gaul with his forces.

The following summer (in 54 BC) 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.

Third and final invasion

Nearly one hundred years later, in 43 AD, Emperor Claudius organized the final and successful Roman invasion of Britain. General Aulus Plautus 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.

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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 70AD.

The Roman Cities

The first Roman city was Colchester. It was the seat of Roman power and governance of Brittanie until sacked during the Boadicea revolt. London was then established as a seat of governance, and only became important after the Camulodunum event.

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.

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

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

The Romans called London “Londinium”.

The River Thames was a 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.

The Romans, even today, play an important part in Britons' lives. Many of the things they do or have originated from the Romans.

The Romans gave the Britons • Language

The language they used today was developed from the Romans. The Romans spoke and wrote in Latin and many of our words are based on Latin words.

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• The Calendar

Did you know that the calendar they use today is more than 2,000 years old? It was started by Julius Caesar, a Roman ruler. It is based on the movement of the earth around the sun, and so is called the 'solar calendar.' The solar calendar has 365 days a year, and 366 days every leap year, or every fourth year. The names of our months are taken from the names of Roman gods and rulers. The month 'July,' in fact, is named after Julius Caesar himself!

Laws and a legal system

The laws and ways we determine what to do with someone who is accused of breaking a law came originally from the Roman Empire.

The Census

The Roman Empire was huge and included millions of people living over a large area. How did they keep track of all these people? Easy! They counted them! The Roman Empire began the practice of taking a census, or a 'count,' of all the people within its boundaries every so often. Today, many countries like theirs take a census every 10 years. The Romans also gave to Britain:

- straight roads
- central heating
- concrete
- aqueducts (bridges for water)

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- amphitheatres

DAILY LIFE IN

ROMAN BRITAIN

The Roman occupation unquestionably had an effect on Britain, but it is easy to overstate how widespread the effect was. Although the form of life changed for some people, the essence of Britain Celtic society was altered very little.

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Administration

One of the first things the Romans did was to involve the conquered tribes in the administration of the province. They set up administrative centers according to traditional tribal territories, and involved the tribal aristocracies in the decisionmaking process. This was standard Roman practice, and a wise one. They made the conquered people responsible for their own administration within a Roman framework. It was part of their plan to bring the benefits of civilization, Roman style, to other peoples. It worked, for the way to prestige and social advancement was through the Roman bureaucracy.

Towns

What did the Romans do in Britain? They encouraged the growth of towns. The Romans saw urban life as the epitome of sophisticated civilization. They encouraged the growth of towns near their army bases, and established special towns as settlements for retired soldiers. They encouraged the ruling class of Celtic aristocrats to build town dwellings, and they made the towns centers of vibrant commercial activity. As elsewhere in the Empire, the local "councils" in the towns were encouraged to build civic buildings as a mark of civilization. There was no standard plan to adhere to, so there was a great deal of local variety in the way that the towns interpreted the Roman ideal.

The Romans built towns in lowland areas, such as fords across rivers, in contrast to the earlier Neolithic and Iron Age practice of sticking to the slopes and higher ground above the valleys. Town boundaries, unlike military forts, were not laid out in rigid rectangles or squares, but they did contain a regular grid-like network of streets. Most towns were walled, though at first the walls would have been no more than earthen banks with ditches. By the 3rd and certainly the 4th century the earthen banks were replaced by stone and masonry. The centre of a Roman town was a forum, or civic centre. Usually an open square or rectangle with colonnades, the forum gave access to the basilica, or town hall. It was here that courts of justice were held, though it could also be used as a merchants' assembly.

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Town life was a real social revolution for the largely rural Celtic society. Those who aspired to the wealth and prosperity that came with the Roman occupation threw themselves into the life of the towns.

Public Entertainment

Many towns also offered the entertainments of the theatre and amphitheatre. The theatre, an open air tiered clam-shell, would have offered fare from classical plays, pantomime, and religious festivals.

The amphitheatre, an open air oval, would have appealed to a less discriminating taste, offering gladiatorial combats, contests between men and animals, and public executions. The bloodier the battle, the more the crowd roared. The fighters were slaves or criminals whose punishment was to risk a gruesome death. These fights were so popular that schools were set up to train ordinary men as special fighters known as gladiators. The largest amphitheatre in the empire was the Colosseum. It could seat up to 50,000 people at once. **Roman Roads**

Joining the towns together were the Roman roads. Over the course of the occupation the Romans built over 9600 kilometres

of roads in Britain. Although, contrary to reputation, they weren't always straight, they were amazingly well-built and made troop movement and later the movement of commercial goods much easier. The imperial posting service, used by Roman officials, maintained inns and relays of horses at intervals of 30 to 50 kilometres along the roads. The roads were literally highways, raised up on a cambered bank of material dug from roadside ditches. They were constructed in several layers, the final layer generally being gravel or flint, and reached from 4 to 8 meters wide.

Villas

Aside from the towns, the other sign of Romanized civilization was the growth of villas. In Latin the word villa means simply, "farm", so technically villas were any form of

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rural agricultural dwelling built in a Roman style. In practice, though, when we speak of villas we mean the country estates of the Romanized British elite. Although at first the conquered tribal aristocracy may have been drawn into towns, it wasn't long before they began a "back to the land" movement.

Most large villas are built quite close to major urban centers, generally within ten miles, so the owners were never very far from the centre of affairs. Villas were more than fancy houses, though: they were centers of rural industry and agriculture. In one complex they could hold the landowner and his family, overseers, laborers, storehouses, and industrial buildings. Although some may have been strictly the centre of large farms, others included industry in the form of pottery and metalworking.

Individual houses were as different then as they are now, but the villas followed some general patterns. They were half-timber frame houses on stone foundations, one story in height, capped with slate or clay tiled roofs. Under-floor heating systems were universal, though in one intriguing case the system was never fired up. Tile floors were common, and most

larger villas contained at least one room with a mosaic floor. Walls may have been decorated with mosaics or painted scenes. Furniture was made of wood, in patterns similar to Roman style throughout the Empire. Many villas also had separate bath houses.

The golden age of the villa in Britain was in the 2nd and 3rd centuries. After that they fell into disuse or were taken over for other purposes.

Trade

Industry in various forms was encouraged by the Romans. In their bid for a veneer of civilization the elite of Britain imported Roman wine, jewellery, and pottery. In return they exported cattle, grain, lead, iron, tin, and, curiously enough,

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hunting dogs. The local pottery industries throughout Britain flourished, as did ironworking. The large standing Roman army in Britain, as many as 40,000 troops for long periods of time, was a natural market energizer for British industry, and the extensive Roman road network helped speed the transport of goods throughout the island.

Despite the growth of towns and bureaucracy and all the other essentials of civilization that came with the Roman conquest, the lot of the majority was unchanged. Britain was an agricultural province, dependent on small farms. The lives of the farmers changed very little. They still built round Celtic huts and worked the same fields in the same way. Their standard of living changed little, if at all. Despite the veneer of Roman civilization, Britain was still largely a Celtic, or even a Neolithic society.

Hadrian's Wall

Probably the most famous Roman remain in England is Hadrian's Wall. It is not by any stretch the most northerly point of the Roman advance; they reached as far north as modern Aberdeen. It isn't even the most northerly wall built by the

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Romans in Britain. That honor goes to the Antonine Wall, an earthwork defense between the firths of Clyde and Forth. It is, however, an impressive engineering feat, and well worth visiting.

Emperor Hadrian

The Emperor Hadrian came to the imperial throne in 117 AD. He decided that the Empire needed securing, not expanding, and in 122 he gave the order to build a wall across the northern frontier. Build it they did – eighty miles worth, following the northern escarpment of the valleys of Tyne, Irthing, and Eden between Newcastle and Carlisle.

Construction

The original construction took six years to complete, during which time plans were altered several times. The

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building was done by members of three vexillations – temporary legion subunits – working from east to west, and it has been estimated that they used more than a million cubic metres of stone in its completion. This was not a weekend project.

The wall was manned until sometime around 400 A.D.

Forts along the Wall

The wall itself was eight to ten feet wide and fifteen feet high, with a rampart walk and six foot high parapet. There are over eighty mile forts spaced, yes, every mile, with a kitchen and barracks for a small garrison. In between the mile forts two observation towers were built, resulting in lookouts every third of a mile for the entire length of the wall. In addition to the mile forts there were seventeen larger forts holding from 500 to 1000 troops, infantry or cavalry, or a mixture of both. These forts were built into the wall, with large gates on the north face flanked by stone towers.

The Ditch

To the south of the wall the Romans dug a wide ditch, or vallum, with six foot high earth banks. Why a ditch to the south when the threat was to the north? Most likely the Romans were afraid that the Brigantes tribe of northern England might join with the tribes of Lowland Scotland to make trouble. This way troops manning the wall could control, or at least observe, traffic going in both directions. It is just as well, for the Brigantes remained rebellious long after Britain was nominally in Roman hands.

Civilian Settlements

One other point about the wall concerns the growth of civilian settlements close to the major legionary forts, to the south of the ditch. These settlements, or vici, sprawled in unplanned confusion, in contrast to the regulation army forts.

In the later years of the Empire, when the wall was allowed to lapse, it appears that some of the civilians moved

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into the forts. Finds have been made of women's rings inside the barracks area. Several possible reasons for their presence come to mind, but the least said about that, the better.

SECTION RECAP

- *Who founded Rome?*
- *Who were the Romans?*
- *When did the Romans appear in Britain?*
- *What did they do to make their life more comfortable?*
- *What for did they build stone walls all over the island?*
- *The remains of what wall can be seen in Northumberland?*
- *What interesting objects were excavated in the Roman settlements?*
- *How long did the Romans stay in Britain?*
- *When and why did the Romans leave Britain?*

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- *What did the Romans call London?*
- *Why was the Roman Empire important?*
- *What did the Romans give the Britons?*
- *What was a Roman Amphitheatre used for?*
- *Where was the largest Roman Amphitheatre?*
- *Why did the Romans build their roads?*
- *How were Roman roads built?*
- *Can we find remains of Roman roads in Britain today??*

DISCUSSION POINTS

- *When did Emperor Hadrian come to Britain? What fact gave Emperor Hadrian the idea to build the famous wall? How long did it take to build Hadrian's Wall? Was it built of stone, earth or wood?*
- *Which Roman expeditions were successful in subjugating Britain and when? Was it a peaceful development? What are the well-recognized contributions of Roman civilisation to British culture?*

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ANGLO-SAXON ENGLAND

The term "Anglo-Saxon" first appears in the time of King Alfred the Great. This term usually used to describe the Germanic-speaking tribes in the south and east of Great Britain from their arrival in the 5th to 6th centuries. Anglo-Saxon was divided into four main dialects: West Saxon, Mercian, Northumbrian and Kentish.

Anglo-Saxons first came to England in the 4th century AD when they began raiding the east coast. The most important of the Anglo-Saxon tribes were the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes. In about 450 the Anglo Saxons began to settle in England. By the 6th century the Jutes had occupied Kent and

Hampshire, the Saxons had established the kingdoms of Sussex, Wessex, Middlesex and Essex, and the Angles were in control of the northern and eastern areas of England.

The history of Anglo-Saxon England broadly covers the period from the end of Roman rule and the establishment of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in the 5th century until the Conquest by the Normans in 1066.

The Anglo-Saxons were a group of Germanic tribes who had migrated to the island of Britain in the 5th and 6th centuries and had wrested control of what is now England from the native Britons. After their conversion to Christianity in the 7th century, they absorbed much Latin culture, which blended with their Germanic traditions to form a distinctive civilization and increasingly stable political and social institutions. The process of reducing the many Anglo-Saxon kingdoms to a unified nation under a centralized monarchy was still in its early stages when the Danes, another Germanic nation far more warlike than the Anglo-Saxons had become, began raiding the English coast in the last years of the 8th century. The raids became full-scale invasions. Alfred's courage and military skill,

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however, prevented the Danes from conquering England, although they were later successful, early in the 11th century.

The Anglo-Saxon period lasted for some six centuries. This was a time of immense political and social upheaval which saw major changes in almost all aspects of everyday life. The early pagan settlers lived mainly by farming and formed a number of kingdoms. By around 700 AD, there appears to have been a 'Heptarchy' of seven kingdoms (Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Wessex, Essex, Sussex and Kent), while the main four in the ninth century were Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia and Wessex. The boundaries fluctuated, and later divisions between England and other parts of mainland Britain were not yet in existence. Hence the Mercian kingdom included parts of what is

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now Wales, and the Northumbrian kingdom extended into the border counties of present-day Scotland. Conversion to Christianity took place mainly during the seventh and eighth centuries, leading to the introduction of Latin literacy and to the founding of monasteries as centres of learning and culture. From the late eighth century onwards, the Anglo-Saxons suffered repeated attacks by Danish invaders from the continent, sometimes referred to as Vikings. They began by plundering the wealthy monasteries, which often occupied isolated and vulnerable positions, and moved on to a serious plan of invasion. The only effective defence was offered by the king of Wessex, Alfred ‘the Great’ (871–899), who succeeded not only in establishing a treaty with the Danes but in uniting the Anglo-Saxons themselves into a single nation under his rule. Mindful of falling standards of literacy and learning partly resulting from the Viking invasions, he also initiated a plan of educational reform which focused on the production of manuscripts written in English rather than Latin. The treaty established by Alfred allocated the north and east of the country to the Danes — the area known as the ‘Danelaw’ — and the south and west to the English. Even today, the variety of English spoken in the former Danelaw contains traces of

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Scandinavian vocabulary, and the area is demarcated by a large number of Scandinavian place-names, characteristically ending in *-by* or *-thorpe*. During the reigns of Alfred’s successors, the Danelaw was gradually reconquered, and the Scandinavian settlers were integrated into Anglo-Saxon society. However, Danish attacks began again during the late tenth century and continued with increasing ferocity throughout the reign of King Ethelred ‘the Unready’ (978–1016), culminating in the accession to the English throne of a Danish king, Cnut, in 1016.

Culture

Early Anglo-Saxon buildings in Britain were generally simple, constructed mainly using timber with thatch for roofing. Generally preferring not to settle in the old Roman cities, the Anglo-Saxons built small towns near their centers of agriculture. In each town a main hall was in the centre.

There are few remains of Anglo-Saxon architecture, with no secular work remaining above ground. At least fifty churches are of Anglo-Saxon origin, with many more claimed to be, although in some cases the Anglo-Saxon part is small and much-altered. All surviving churches, except one timber church, are built of stone or brick and in some cases show evidence of re-used Roman work.

Language

Old English, sometimes called Anglo-Saxon, was the language spoken under Alfred the Great and continued to be the common language of England until after the Norman Conquest of 1066 when, through contact with the AngloNorman language spoken by the Norman ruling class, it evolved into Middle English, between roughly 1150–1500.

Old English is far closer to early Germanic than is Middle English, being less Latinized and retaining many morphological features which were lost during the 12th to 14th centuries. The languages today which are closest to Old English are the Frisian

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languages spoken by a few hundred thousand people in the northern part of the Netherlands and Germany.

Law

Anglo-Saxon kings were prolific legislators, and a number of law-codes survive from the seventh to eleventh centuries. The earliest have much in common with continental Germanic law, including a ‘personal injury tariff’ or schedule of compensation for various kinds of bodily injuries. Under

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seventh-century Kentish law, for instance, the sum of 12 shillings was payable for cutting off an ear, 30 shillings for disabling a shoulder, and 50 shillings for putting out an eye. Knocking out a front tooth was assessed at a higher rate of compensation than knocking out a back tooth, while a finger was worth twice as much as a toe. The Anglo-Saxon settlers had brought with them the Germanic system of blood-feud, whereby the relatives of a murder victim were expected to avenge him, and one of the aims of the early laws was to reduce the number of revenge killings by substituting a scale of financial compensation. Later laws reflect the growing influence of the church, as for instance with the introduction of fines for offences against ecclesiastical officials, and a preference for mutilation over the death penalty in order to give the offender time to repent. Laws were also issued to enforce religious practices such as infant baptism, fasting and Sunday observance; and practical benefits can be seen in the granting of religious festivals as holidays. The church's influence was not always benevolent, however. Laws on marriage were fiercely regulated to forbid unions between distant relatives or those connected through god-parents; and whereas a woman who committed adultery during the seventh century suffered only financial penalties, Cnut's law-code directs that she was to lose her nose and ears. **Women and children**

Anglo-Saxon women appear to have enjoyed considerable independence, whether as abbesses of the great 'double monasteries' of monks and nuns founded during the seventh and

eighth centuries, as major land-holders recorded in Domesday Book (1086), or as ordinary members of society. They could act as principals in legal transactions, were entitled to the same *wergild* as men of the same class, and were considered 'oathworthy', with the right to defend themselves on oath

against false accusations or claims. Sexual and other offences against them were penalized heavily. There is evidence that even married women could own property independently, and some surviving wills are in the joint names of husband and wife. Marriage comprised a contract between the woman's family and the prospective bridegroom, who was required to pay a 'brideprice' in advance of the wedding and a 'morning gift' following its consummation. The latter became the woman's personal property, but the former may have been paid to her relatives, at least during the early period. Widows were in a particularly favourable position, with inheritance rights, custody of their children and authority over dependants. However, a degree of vulnerability may be reflected in laws stating that they should not be forced into nunneries or second marriages against their will. The system of primogeniture (inheritance by the first-born male) was not introduced to England until after the Norman Conquest, so Anglo-Saxon siblings — girls as well as boys — were more equal in terms of status. The age of majority was usually either ten or twelve, when a child could legally take charge of inherited property, or be held responsible for a crime. It was common for children to be fostered, either in other households or in monasteries, perhaps as a means of extending the circle of protection beyond the kin group. Laws also make provision for orphaned children and foundlings.

Work and leisure

Because of the importance of farming in the Anglo-Saxon economy a high proportion of occupations were to do with agriculture and animal husbandry. Male slaves in particular often worked as farm labourers. Skilled artisans were also

needed, and the high quality of surviving metalwork, art and sculpture testifies to the level of craftsmanship that could be attained.

An eleventh-century text concerned with estate management discusses a number of occupations, including bee-keeper, cowherd, forester, goatherd, granary-keeper, shepherd, swineherd and cheese-maker — the latter the only female worker mentioned. Early laws concerning slaves suggest that the grinding of corn and serving of drink were also female occupations, while female slaves bequeathed in wills and mentioned in manumissions include a weaver, a seamstress, and a dairy-maid. In around 998 AD as a teaching tool for monastic pupils, casts the boys in the characters of working men, and thereby preserves information on a range of occupations including those of baker, carpenter, cobbler, cook, fisherman, fowler, huntsman, merchant, oxherd, ploughman, salter, shepherd and smith.

Information on leisure activities has to be pieced together from incidental references within written sources, combined with evidence from archaeology and place-names. Upper-class pursuits included falconry and hawking, feasting and musicmaking. The latter two were also popular at the lower end of the social scale, as is clear from a miracle story told by Bede. He relates how Caedmon, an illiterate lay worker on a monastic estate, was granted the divine gift of poetic inspiration after leaving a drinking-party early because he was unable to entertain his fellow-labourers in the customary way by singing and accompanying himself on the harp. Both Latin and vernacular poetry were performed to music, and there is also evidence for dancing, acrobatics and theatricals. Competitive games included water-sports, dog and horse-racing, dice-games and boardgames, with chess being introduced in the eleventh century. Children played with balls, hoops and whipping tops, and no doubt participated in some of the above pursuits.

ALFRED THE GREAT

Childhood

Alfred was born some time between 847 and 849 AD at Wantage in Berkshire, the fourth son of King Ethelwulf of Wessex (or Aethelwulf), most likely by his first wife, Osburh. He succeeded his brother, Ethelred I as King of Wessex and Mercia in 871.

He seems to have been a child of singular attractiveness and promise, and tales of his boyhood were remembered. At five years old, in 853, he is said to have been sent to Rome, where he was confirmed by Pope Leo IV, who is also said to have "anointed him as king." Later writers took this as an anticipatory crowning in preparation for his ultimate succession to the throne of Wessex. That, however, could not have been foreseen in 853, as Alfred had three elder brothers living. It is likely to be understood either of investiture with the consular insignia or possibly with some titular royalty such as that of the under-kingdom of Kent.

This tale is likely apocryphal, though in 854-855 Alfred almost certainly did go with his father on a pilgrimage to Rome, spending some time at the court of Charles the Bald, King of the Franks. In 858, Ethelwulf died.

Public Life

During the short reigns of his two eldest brothers, Ethelbald and Ethelbert, nothing is heard of Alfred. But with the accession of the third brother, Ethelred, in 866 the public life of Alfred begins, and he begins his great work of delivering England from the Danes.

In 868 Alfred married Ealhswith, daughter of Aethelred Mucill, who is called ealdorman of the Gaini, a folk who dwelt in Lincolnshire about Gainsborough. She was the granddaughter of a former King of Mercia, and they had five or

six children, one a daughter, Ethelfleda, who would become queen of Mercia in her own right.

The same year Alfred, fighting beside his brother Ethelred, made an unsuccessful attempt to relieve Mercia from the pressure of the Danes. For nearly two years Wessex had a respite. But at the end of 870 the storm burst; and the year which followed has been rightly called "Alfred's year of battles."

Accession

All of Alfred's brothers were dead by 871, and he became king at age 22. Wessex was the only Anglo-Saxon kingdom that had not been conquered by the Danes during the invasion of 866, and by 871 the Danes had established permanent settlements in the North Midlands and in East Anglia. Early in 878, while Alfred's armies were scattered for the winter, an army under Guthrum left Gloucester in Danish-controlled Mercia and made a surprise attack on the West Saxons, capturing much of the kingdom. Alfred, facing disaster, withdrew to the marshlands of Dorset with a small troop. The famous story of his taking refuge in the house of an old lady and, in his distracted state, letting her cakes burn through inattention, is unfortunately a later legend. But Alfred's situation was indeed desperate.

At Easter 878 he fortified the Isle of Athelney in Somerset, and his battles with Danish raiding parties encouraged more and more West Saxons to join him secretly. Seven weeks after Easter, Alfred left Athelney for a rendezvous of the militias of Somerset, Wiltshire, and Hampshire. Ten days later at Edington, near Chippenham, Wiltshire, Alfred's army decisively defeated the Danes. The invaders swore to leave Wessex, and Guthrum was baptized a Christian. The English were saved, and the King began at once to reorganize the land and sea defenses of the West Saxons in order to prevent further Danish inroads. These strategic innovations and Alfred's ability

to use his forces well allowed him to turn back another major Danish attack during his reign. Launched from Scandinavia in 892, this invasion ended in 896 without appreciable success despite aid from the Danes already settled in England.

The tale of the griddle cakes. It is this time, at the low ebb of Anglo-Saxon resistance to the Danes, that is commemorated in the folk tale of Alfred and the griddle cakes. The story goes that Alfred was so low in his fortunes that he was forced to travel anonymously and seek lodging in a peasant woman's hut. Told to mind the cakes cooking on the fire, Alfred let his thoughts wander to his troubles. The cakes burned, and the peasant woman gave her king a good scolding for his carelessness. True or not, (probably not, but it sounds good), the story illustrates the depth to which the young Alfred had sunk in his battle with the Danish invaders. From that point on, however, things began to look up.

Alfred's triumph. Alfred came out of the Athelney marshes and surprised the Danes under Guthrum at Edington, in Wiltshire. After a thorough victory for Alfred, Guthrum was chased back to his base at Chippenham, where he was besieged for two weeks. Eventually Guthrum surrendered, and agreed to retreat from Wessex, and also to accept baptism as a Christian. This baptism was solemnized at Wedmore, in Somerset, some weeks later, giving us what is known as the Peace of Wedmore. The Danes retreated to East Anglia, and Alfred got on with consolidating his gains.

Alfred's Towns. Alfred was an innovator and a thinker, as well as a successful warrior. He began a policy encouraging the formation of fortified towns, or burhs, throughout his lands, such that no place in Wessex was more than 20 miles from a town. In exchange for free plots of land within the towns, settlers provided a defense force. The burhs were also encouraged to become centres of commerce and local government.

Alfred's Legacy. Alfred also did his bit on the cultural front. He established schools and encouraged the dissemination of knowledge. He is said to have personally translated several books from Latin into the Anglo-Saxon tongue. An untraceable myth has it that he established the first university at Oxford. From the depths of despair in 877, Alfred brought AngloSaxon England into a golden age of social stability and artistic accomplishment. He was one of the first kings who seems to have looked beyond his own personal glory to a vision of the future well-being of the nation he ruled. He has every right to be remembered as Alfred "The Great".

Death

How Alfred died is unknown. Even the year is uncertain. The day was the 26th of October, and the year is now generally thought to have been 899, not 900 or 901 as was previously accepted.

...Alfred's accession to the throne A.D. 871-872... Ref. History of the Anglo-Saxons by Sir Francis Palgrave (1876), Paperback on Senate page 102.

Alfred died six nights before "All-Hallows Mass-day," in the year 901, in the fifty-third year of his age; prematurely, if years be alone reckoned, but full of desert and honour.

SECTION RECAP:

- *What tribes make up the Anglo-Saxons?*
- *What were the names of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms?*
- *Who were the Anglo-Saxons and when did they appear on the British Isles?*
- *Where did the term "Anglo-Saxon" come from?*
- *Where did the Anglo-Saxons live?*
- *When did Alfred the Great become the king of England?*
- *When did king Alfred the Great die?*
- *Why was king Alfred called the Great?*

• *Why was it so necessary for the Saxon kingdoms to be united?*

• *Who was Egbert and why is his name remembered in Great Britain?*

• *What is the main point of the legend of the "burnt cakes"? Why is it remembered? What features does it reveal in the Great king?*

DISCUSSION POINTS

• *Which of the Anglo-Saxon kings rightly deserved the title of Great? What were his great accomplishments?*

• *What hypothesis has been put forward concerning the arrival of the Anglo-Saxons on the British Isles ?*

• *When and how did the Anglo-Saxon royal line come to an end?*

ANGLO-NORMAN BRITAIN THE

NORMANS

The Normans or Norsemen, were descended from Vikings who had settled in northern France. In 911, they accepted the French king as their overlord and were granted the area known as Normandy. The Normans converted to Christianity and adopted the French language and culture. From the British point of view, the main identifiers of the

Norman invaders were the language they spoke (a variant of Frankish - French) and their tendency to build castles everywhere. Prior to the Norman occupation, both the AngloSaxons and the Celtic Britons before them had lived in smallish communities built on hill tops. These Hill Forts were the primary means of defense and provided a community central point for refuge etc.

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The Normans Life

The Normans had an interesting mix of cultures. Historically, they were a combination of Viking settlers who had married into the local Frankish cultures and as a result their society was a conglomerate of the two.

As befits their decadency from the Vikings, the Normans were a warlike culture and prized mounted soldiers. The Norman cavalry were to form the basis for medieval Knights and what we now look at as "Chivalry" stems from the Norman codes of conduct on the battlefield.

The Normans were more than just mobile killing machines (although they excelled at this), and with their invasion of England they brought in some fantastic examples of architecture and style. As they were devout followers of the medieval Christian church, the best examples of Norman style can be found in the churches and chapels that still exist all over the country.

Language. One of the most obvious changes was the introduction of Anglo-Norman, a northern dialect of Old French, as the language of the ruling classes in England, displacing Old English. This predominance was further reinforced and complicated in the mid-twelfth century by an influx of followers of the Angevin dynasty, speaking a more mainstream dialect of French. Not until the fourteenth century

would English regain its former primacy, while the use of French at court continued into the fifteenth century.

By this time English had itself been profoundly transformed, developing into the starkly different Middle English which formed the basis for the modern language. During the centuries of French linguistic dominance a large proportion of the words in the English language had disappeared and been replaced by French words, leading to the present hybrid tongue in which an English core vocabulary is combined with a largely French abstract vocabulary. The

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grammatical structures of the language had also changed dramatically, although the relationship, if any, between this transformation and the marginalization of English resulting from the conquest is uncertain.

The Normans Warfare

The Normans brought with them a wholly new form of warfare. The Saxons and, before them, the Celts had largely depended on armies of "brave warriors" who would band together to fight the enemy. Often battles were resolved through one on one fights between clan heroes. The Normans had a warfare style that evolved from their Norse roots and was heavily influenced by the European wars of the 9th and 10th centuries AD and the Frankish kings like Charlemagne.

This resulted in the Norman armies being very organized and disciplined. The mainstay of the army was the heavy foot soldier, although the nobles and leaders were always mounted on powerful horses. During the middlemedieval period the status symbol of horses became firmly rooted and even today people think of owning a horse as being something the "rich" do

In addition to the new forms of combat, the Normans brought with them a brand new way of defending territory. The Saxons were from a culture of mobile raiders and as such tended to not rely on heavy defensive structures as we think of

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them today. Most Saxon strongholds were hill forts similar to the ones the Celts used, or where they had taken over an old Roman fortification the Saxons would shore up the walls and reuse it. In the mainstream of Saxon culture, it was wrong to attack the settlements where people lived and battles were always fought in open ground.

This changed with the arrival of the Normans. They brought with them the massive stone structures we still see today. Norman castles were a stamp of authority as much as a

who had access to land, or produced heirs for their barons, or reeves. Monmouth reflected upon this in his literature, "A History of the Kings of Britain", when Mordred forcefully marries Guinevere, uniting England under his control.

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defensive structure and the conquerors spent little time building hundreds of them across the country.

Women's rights

Women enjoyed a Golden Age of rights before the Norman Conquest of England. This is partially true because of the Germanic practice of the Fore-mother, which was culturally brought by the Anglo-Saxons. Women would begin to lose their rights slowly after the Danish invasion and the Cnut's revision of laws. Women lost consent to marriage, and widows lost the right to marry under the rule of Cnut. The Norman Conquest was both a boon and hamper on rights. The Norman leadership allowed some rights to Noblewomen, but none to the lower social classes. These rights were generally targeted to women

UNIT II



Britain In Middle Ages

Normandy is a region in northern France which in the years prior to 1066 experienced extensive Viking resettlement.



The Norman conquest of England began on 28 September 1066 with the invasion of the Kingdom of England by the troops of William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy and their victory at the Battle of Hastings on 14 October 1066 over King Harold II of England. Harold's army had been badly depleted in the English victory at the Battle of Stamford Bridge in Northern England on 25 September 1066 over the army of King Harald III of Norway. By early 1071, William had secured control of most of England, although rebellions and resistance continued to approximately 1088.

By bringing England under the control of rulers originating in France, the Norman conquest linked the country more closely with continental Europe, lessened Scandinavian influence, and

also set the stage for a rivalry with France that would continue intermittently for many centuries. It also had important consequences for the rest of the British Isles, paving the way for further Norman conquests in Wales and Ireland, and the extensive penetration of the aristocracy of Scotland by Norman and other French-speaking families, with the accompanying spread of continental institutions and cultural influences.

In 911, French Carolingian ruler Charles the Simple allowed a group of Vikings under their leader Rollo to settle in northern France as part of the Treaty of Saint-Clair-sur-Epte. Charles hoped that by doing so he would end the Viking attacks that were plaguing France at the time. In exchange, they were expected to provide protection along the coast against future Viking invaders.

In 1002 King Ethelred II of England married Emma, the sister of Richard II, Duke of Normandy. Their son Edward the

Confessor, who spent many years in exile in Normandy, succeeded to the English throne in 1042. This led to the establishment of a powerful Norman interest in English politics, as Edward drew heavily on his former hosts for support, bringing in Norman courtiers, soldiers, and clerics and appointing them to positions of power, particularly in the Church. Childless and embroiled in conflict with the formidable Godwin, Earl of Wessex and his sons, Edward may also have encouraged Duke William of Normandy's ambitions for the English throne.

When King Edward died at the beginning of 1066, the lack of a clear heir led to a disputed succession in which several contenders laid claim to the throne of England. Edward's immediate successor was the Earl of Wessex, Harold Godwinson, the richest and most powerful of the English aristocracy, who was elected king by the Witenagemot of England and crowned by Archbishop Ealdred of York, although Norman propaganda claimed he was consecrated by Stigand, the uncanonically elected Archbishop of Canterbury. However, he was at once challenged by two powerful neighbouring rulers. Duke William claimed that he had been promised the throne by King Edward and that Harold had sworn agreement to this. Harald III of Norway, commonly known as Harald Hardrada, also contested the succession. His claim to the throne was based on a supposed agreement between his predecessor Magnus I of Norway, and the earlier Danish King of England Harthacnut, whereby if either died without heir, the other would inherit both England and Norway. Both William and Harald at once set about assembling troops and ships for an invasion.

Meanwhile William assembled a large invasion fleet and an army gathered not only from Normandy but from all over France, including large contingents from Brittany and Flanders. The army was ready to cross by about 12 August. However, the

crossing was delayed, either because of unfavorable weather or because of the desire to avoid being intercepted by the powerful English fleet. The Normans did not in fact cross to England until a few days after Harold's victory over the Norwegians, following the dispersal of Harold's naval force. They landed at Pevensey in Sussex on 28 September and erected a wooden castle at Hastings, from which they raided the surrounding area.

Marching south at the news of William's landing, Harold paused briefly at London to gather more troops, then advanced to meet William. They fought at the Battle of Hastings on 14 October. The English army, drawn up in a shieldwall on top of Senlac Hill, withstood a series of Norman attacks for several hours but was depleted by the losses suffered when troops on foot pursuing retreating Norman cavalry were repeatedly caught out in the open by counter-attacks. In the evening the defence finally collapsed and Harold was killed, along with his brothers Earl Gyrth and Earl Leofwine.

After his victory at Hastings, William expected to receive the submission of the surviving English leaders, but instead Edgar Atheling was proclaimed king by the Witenagemot, with the support of Earls Edwin and Morcar, Stigand, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Ealdred, Archbishop of York. William therefore advanced, marching around the coast of Kent to London. He defeated an English force which attacked him at Southwark, but he was unable to storm London Bridge and therefore sought to reach the capital by a more circuitous route. He moved up the Thames valley to cross the river at Wallingford, Oxfordshire; while there, he received the submission of Stigand. William then travelled northeast along the Chilterns, before advancing towards London from the northwest, fighting further engagements against forces from the city. Having failed to muster an effective military response, Edgar's leading supporters lost their nerve, and the English

leaders surrendered to William at Berkhamsted, Hertfordshire. William was acclaimed King of England and crowned by Ealdred on 25 December 1066, in Westminster Abbey.

Consequences

A direct consequence of the invasion was the near-total elimination of the old English aristocracy and the loss of English control over the Catholic Church. A direct consequence of the invasion was the near-total elimination of the old English aristocracy and the loss of English control over the Catholic Church in England. William systematically dispossessed English landowners and conferred their property on his continental followers. The Domesday Book meticulously documents the impact of this colossal programme of expropriation, revealing that by 1086 only about 5% of land in England south of the Tees was left in English hands. Even this tiny residue was further diminished in the decades that followed, the elimination of native landholding being most complete in southern parts of the country.

Natives were also soon purged from high governmental and ecclesiastical office. After 1075 all earldoms were held by Normans, while Englishmen were only occasionally appointed as sheriffs. Likewise in the Church senior English office-holders were either expelled from their positions or kept in place for their lifetimes but replaced by foreigners when they died. By 1096 no bishopric was held by any Englishman, while English abbots became uncommon, especially in the larger monasteries.

No other medieval European conquest of Christians by Christians had such devastating consequences for the defeated ruling class. Meanwhile, William's prestige among his followers increased tremendously because he was able to award them vast tracts of land at little cost to himself. His awards also had a basis in consolidating his own control; with each gift of land and titles, the newly created feudal lord would have to

build a castle and subdue the natives. Thus the conquest was self-perpetuating.

The Domesday Book. The thing for which William I is best remembered, aside from winning the battle of Hastings and making England a European kingdom, is the Domesday Book. The Domesday Book was, in effect, the first national census. It was a royal survey of all England for administration and tax purposes.

William needed proper records so that his new, efficient Norman bureaucracy could do its job, especially when it came to collecting all the revenues due to the crown. Inspectors were sent into every part of England to note the size, ownership, and resources of each hide of land. Contrary to popular belief, some small areas did seem to have escaped the assessors' notice, but for the times the Domesday Book represented an amazing accomplishment. It also left exact records behind which give historians a lot of data about Norman English life.

William II and Henry I

William II. Before he died William the Conqueror divided his property amongst his three sons. William II (1087-1100) got England, Robert got Normandy, and Henry got money. William II was unpopular, greedy, self-centered, and a poor administrator.

When Archbishop Lanfranc died in 1089, William delayed appointing a replacement for four years, keeping the revenues of the see of Canterbury for himself. When Anselm became Archbishop in 1093 he fought with William over the powers of church and lay courts.

William II's Death. In one of those little incidents that will forever remain a historical mystery, William was killed while hunting in the New Forest, stepping in front of an arrow shot by one William Tyrrell. Evidently Tyrrell wasn't sure his claim that it was an accident would be believed, for he fled and went into

hiding. Technically, William's death left the throne to Robert, who was in Normandy. Henry, however, was on the scene and acted quickly to seize the royal treasury at

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Westminster and proclaim himself king of England. He later defeated Robert at Tinchebray (1106) and added Normandy to his cap as well. Poor Robert spent the rest of his life in prison.

Henry I, called Beauclerc, seems to have made a much better king than his elder brother William. During his reign (1100-1135) the royal administration was expanded and the rule of law solidified. The **Court of the Exchequer** was formed to handle financial matters. It took its name from the checkered cloth or table on which the accounts were handled.

Charters. One of the ways Henry raised money was by selling charters to towns. Charters were a special grant that enabled towns to build walls, raise local taxes and elect their own local administrators.

Monasteries. During Henry's reign a new wave of monastic settlements began, beginning in 1128 when the Cistercians arrived from France. Many of the great monasteries, now ruined, are from this time period. One of the easiest ways of identifying buildings from this early Norman period is by the shape of their window, door, and arch openings, which are smoothly rounded.

DISCUSSION POINTS

- *What was the place of Normandy in mediaeval Europe? How did William of Normandy prepare the way for his invasion of England? Who wanted to fight under the Duke of Normandy?*
- *Who comprised William's army? For how many days could William of Normandy call out his vassals to a*

campaign? How was William preparing for his English military operation? What did William intend to carry across the channel?

• *Was William's army great? Did William's army outnumber the English army? What shows the political backwardness of England? How did William manage to win a*

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victory at Hastings? Where was his army located? What position did Harold hold? What is said about the tactics of the Norman warriors?

SECTION RECAP

- *Who were the Normans?*
- *What were the peculiar traits of Norman rule in England?*
- *Why was the Domesday book written?*
- *What were the political, social, economic and cultural consequences of the Norman Conquest?*
- *When was the first conflict of the King with the Church?*
- *What do you know about the relations in the family of Henry II?*
- *In what way was Edward the Confessor responsible for William's claim to the English crown?*

THE GREAT CHARTER AND THE BEGINNING OF THE ENGLISH PARLIAMENT

The British parliament is centuries old. Its origin is traced to the 1215 Magna Carta, an agreement that forced King John

to listen to advice from his barons before making important political decisions.

For about two centuries after the Norman Conquest England was ruled by foreign kings. The kings took large sums of money from the barons for the wars in Europe. Those who refused to give money were arrested. In 1215 the barons revolted and soon had a large army against the king. They wrote a document where the rights of the Englishmen were proclaimed. The king had to sign the Great Charter (Magna Carta). A council of twenty-five barons was chosen to oversee the king.

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(Magna Carta). A council of twenty-five barons were chosen to oversee the king. That was the beginning of the English Parliament. In the 17th and the 19th centuries, when the English people revolted against oppression, they took the Great Charter as the banner of the revolution.

The English Parliamentary System

The English Parliament has been passing Acts for over 700 years. When Norman feudalism and its system of land tenure was introduced to England after the conquest by William the Conqueror in 1066, the Kings, at the pinnacle of the system, had the responsibility of government. Kings were always surrounded by lords and bishops who offered advice on matters of administration and the law. During the reign of Henry I, between 1100 and 1135, we know that a Great Council of the King's tenants-in-chief, his archbishops and his bishops was an integral part of the governmental and legal administration of the realm. By 1213 we have written evidence of knights being summoned to a meeting of the Great Council.

In 1215 the barons were powerful enough to force the Magna Carta upon an unwilling King. The Charter is almost the

first evidence of specific agreements being made between King and barons, and shows that the lords were able to force restrictions on the power of the King.

For hundreds of years Kings and Queens of England were the main ones who initiated Acts of Parliament. The very first English Act of Parliament was the Statute of Merton, passed in 1235, during the reign of Henry III. The Statute of Merton was a law dealing with illegitimacy.

MAGNA CARTA

Magna Carta (Latin for **Great Charter**), also called Magna Carta Libertatum (Great Charter of Freedoms), is an English legal charter, originally issued in the year 1215. It was written in Latin.

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The Magna Carta required King John of England to proclaim certain rights (mainly of his barons), respect certain legal procedures, and accept that his will could be bound by the law. It explicitly protected certain rights of the King's subjects. The Magna Carta influenced the development of common law and many constitutional documents, including the United States Constitution. Many clauses were renewed throughout the Middle Ages, and continued to be renewed as late as the 18th century. By the second half of the 19th century, however, most clauses in their original form had been repealed from English law.

The Magna Carta was the first document forced onto an English King by a group of his subjects (the barons) in an attempt to limit his powers by law and protect their privileges. It was preceded by the 1100 Charter of Liberties in which King

Henry I voluntarily stated what his own powers were under the law.

Background

After the Norman conquest of England in 1066 and advances in the 12th century, the English king had by 1199 become a powerful and influential monarch in Europe. Factors contributing to this include the sophisticated centralized government created by the procedures of the new Norman systems of governance and extensive Anglo-Norman land holdings in Normandy. But after King John of England was crowned in the early 13th century, a series of failures at home and abroad, combined with perceived abuses of the king's power, led the English barons to revolt and attempt to limit what the king could legally do.

King John needed money for armies, but the loss of the French territories, especially Normandy, greatly reduced the state income, and a huge tax would have to be raised in order to attempt to reclaim these territories. Yet, it was difficult to raise taxes because of the tradition of keeping them at the same level.

John relied on clever manipulation of pre-existing rights, including those of forest law, a set of regulations about the

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king's hunting preserves, which were easily broken and severely punished. John also increased the pre-existing scutage (feudal payment to an overlord replacing direct military service) eleven times in his seventeen years as king, as compared to eleven times in twice that period covering three monarchs before him. The last two of these increases were double the increase of their predecessors. He also imposed the first income tax, which raised what was, at the time, the extortionate sum of £70,000.

By 1215, some of the most important barons in England had had enough, and they entered London in force on 10 June 1215, with the city showing its sympathy with their cause by

opening its gates to them. They, and many of the moderates not in overt rebellion, forced King John to agree to the "Articles of the Barons", to which his Great Seal was attached in the meadow at Runnymede on 15 June 1215. In return, the barons renewed their oaths of fealty to King John on 19 June 1215. A formal document to record the agreement was created by the royal chancery on 15 July: this was the original Magna Carta. An unknown number of copies of it were sent out to officials, such as royal sheriffs and bishops.

The most significant clause for King John at the time was clause 61, known as the "security clause", the longest portion of the document. This established a committee of 25 barons who could at any time meet and overrule the will of the King, through force by seizing his castles and possessions if needed. This was based on a medieval legal practice known as "distrain", but it was the first time it had been applied to a monarch. In addition, the King was to take an oath of loyalty to the committee.

Clause 61 essentially neutered John's power as a monarch, making him King in name only. He renounced it as soon as the barons left London, plunging England into a civil war, called the First Barons' War. Pope Innocent III also annulled the "shameful and demeaning agreement, forced upon the King by

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violence and fear." He rejected any call for restraints on the King, saying it impaired John's dignity. He saw it as an affront to the Church's authority over the King and the 'papal territories' of England and Ireland, and he released John from his oath to obey it.

Magna Carta re-issued

John died during the war, from dysentery, on 18 October 1216, and this quickly changed the nature of the war. His nine-year-old son, Henry III, was next in line for the throne. The royalists believed the rebel barons would find the idea of

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loyalty to the child Henry more palatable, so the boy was swiftly crowned in late October 1216, and the war ended.

Henry's regent reissued the Magna Carta in his name on 12 November 1216, omitting some clauses, such as clause 61, and again in 1217. When he turned 18 in 1225, Henry III reissued the Magna Carta, this time in a shorter version with only 37 articles.

Henry III ruled for 56 years (the longest reign of an English Monarch in the Medieval period) so that by the time of his death in 1272, the Magna Carta had become a settled part of English legal precedent.

Henry III's son and heir Edward I's Parliament reissued the Magna Carta for the final time on 12 October 1297, as part of a statute called "Confirmatio cartarum", reconfirming Henry III's shorter version of the Magna Carta from 1225.

Rights still in force today

For modern times, the most enduring legacy of Magna Carta is considered the right of "habeas corpus". This right arises from what are now known as clauses 36, 38, 39, and 40 of the 1215 Magna Carta.

As the most recent version, it is the 1297 Charter which remains in legal force in England and Wales. Using the clauses in the 1297 charter (the content and numbering are somewhat different from the 1215 Charter): Clause 1 guarantees the freedom of the English Church. Although this originally meant freedom from the King, later in history it was used for different

purposes. Clause 9 guarantees the "ancient liberties" of the City of London. Clause 29 guarantees a right to due process.

I. First, We have granted to God, and by this our present Charter have confirmed, for Us and our Heirs for ever, that the Church of England shall be free, and shall have all her whole Rights and Liberties inviolable. We have granted also, and given to all the Freemen of our Realm, for Us and our Heirs for

ever, these Liberties under-written, to have and to hold to them and their Heirs, of Us and our Heirs for ever.

IX. The City of London shall have all the old Liberties and Customs which it has been used to have. Moreover We will and grant, that all other Cities, Boroughs, Towns, and the Barons of the Five Ports, and all other Ports, shall have all their Liberties and free Customs.

XXIX. No Freeman shall be taken or imprisoned, or be diseased of his Freehold, or Liberties, or free Customs, or be outlawed, or exiled, or any other wise destroyed; nor will We not pass upon him, nor condemn him, but by lawful judgment of his Peers, or by the Law of the Land. We will sell to no man, we will not deny or defer to any man either Justice or Right.

The repeal of clause 26 in 1829 was the first time a clause of the Magna Carta was repealed. With the document's perceived protected status broken, in 150 years nearly the whole charter was repealed, leaving just Clauses 1, 9, and 29 still in force after 1969. Most of it was repealed in England and Wales by the Statute Law Revision Act 1863, and in Ireland by the Statute Law Revision Act 1872.

SECTION RECAP

- *What is the Magna Carta, or the Great Charter?*
- *How and why did this constitutional document come into being?*
- *What does the Magna Carta have to say about the guarantee of justice? What does it have to say about taxation?*
- *How did the adoption of the Magna Carta affect the political power of the Monarch?*

- *In what one important respect did the Monarch have to share governing authority with the barons?*
- *What significant precedent was set by the barons' successfully forcing King John to agree to the Magna Carta?*

- What did the Magna Carta give the noblemen?
- What impact did the Era of the English Revolution have on the Magna Carta?
 - Which English king signed the Magna Carta?
 - What power struggle was the dominant feature of politics during the reign of Charles I?
 - In what manner did Charles I attempt to govern England? Why? What were the consequences?
 - What social classes were represented in the Parliament summoned to sign the settlement with the king?
 - What was the chief reason for the constant quarrels between the kings and the parliaments?
 - What social conflict lay behind the quarrels between the king and parliament over money matters?
 - What additional limitations did the "Cavalier Parliament" place on the Monarch's power?
 - How did Parliament gain the right to appropriate public funds?
 - What impact did this development have on the royal prerogative?
 - How did the development affect the power of Parliament?

DISCUSSION POINTS

- Describe the Magna Carta as a statement of medieval English law.
- At the time of its adoption, was the Magna Carta a truly democratic constitution? Explain.
- During the three centuries following its adoption, what three roles did the Magna Carta take on?

- As regards the Monarch's speech to Parliament at the beginning of each new session, what political tradition was established by the Magna Carta? What was the constitutional significance of this political tradition?
- Explain the significance of Magna Carta to the development of English constitutionalism.

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR

The **Hundred Years' War** was a prolonged conflict lasting from 1337 to 1453 between two royal houses for the French throne, which was vacant with the extinction of the senior Capetian line of French kings. The two primary contenders were the House of Valois and the House of Plantagenet, also known as the House of Anjou. The House of Valois claimed the title of King of France, while the Plantagenets from England claimed to be Kings of France and England. Plantagenet Kings were the 12th century rulers of the Kingdom of England, and had their roots in the French regions of Anjou and Normandy. French soldiers fought on both sides, with Burgundy and Aquitaine providing notable support for the Plantagenet side.

The conflict lasted 116 years but was punctuated by several periods of peace, before it finally ended in the expulsion of the Plantagenets from France. The war was a victory for the house of Valois, who succeeded in recovering the Plantagenet gains made initially and expelling them from the majority of France by the 1450s.

The war was in fact a series of conflicts and is commonly divided into three or four phases: the Edwardian War (1337–1360), the Caroline War (1369–1389), the Lancastrian War (1415–1429), and the slow decline of English fortunes after the appearance of Joan of Arc (1412–1431). Several other

contemporary European conflicts were directly related to the conflict between England and France: the Breton War of Succession, the Castilian Civil War, and the War of the Two Peters. The term "Hundred Years' War" was a later term invented by historians to describe the series of events.

The war owes its historical significance to a number of factors. Though primarily a dynastic conflict, the war gave impetus to ideas of both French and English nationality. Militarily, it saw the introduction of new weapons and tactics, which eroded the older system of feudal armies dominated by heavy cavalry. The first standing armies in Western Europe since the time of the Western Roman Empire were introduced for the war, thus changing the role of the peasantry. For all this, as well as for its long duration, it is often viewed as one of the most significant conflicts in the history of medieval warfare.

In France, the English invasion, civil wars, deadly epidemics, famines and marauding mercenary armies reduced the population by two-thirds. Shorn of its continental possessions, England was left an island nation, a fact which profoundly affected its outlook and development for more than 500 years.

Beginning of the war: 1337–1360

In the early years of the war, Edward III allied with the nobles of the Low Countries and the burghers of Flanders, but after two campaigns where nothing was achieved, the alliance fell apart in 1340. The payments of subsidies to the German princes and the costs of maintaining an army abroad dragged the English government into bankruptcy, heavily damaging Edward's prestige. At sea, France enjoyed supremacy for some time, through the use of Genoese ships and crews. Several towns on the English coast were sacked, some repeatedly. This caused fear and disruption along the English coast. There was a constant fear during this part of the war that the French would invade. France's sea power led to economic disruptions in

England as it cut down on the wool trade to Flanders and the wine trade from Gascony. However, in 1340, while attempting to hinder the English army from landing, the French fleet was almost completely destroyed in the Battle of Slays. After this, England was able to dominate the English Channel for the rest of the war, preventing French invasions.

In 1341, conflict over the succession to the Duchy of Brittany began the Breton War of Succession, in which Edward backed John of Montfort and Philip backed Charles of Blois. Action for the next few years focused around a back and forth struggle in Brittany, with the city of Vanes changing hands several times, as well as further campaigns in Gascony with mixed success for both sides.

In July 1346, Edward mounted a major invasion across the Channel, landing in the Cotentin. The English army captured Caen in just one day, surprising the French who had expected the city to hold out much longer. Philip gathered a large army to oppose him, and Edward chose to march northward toward the Low Countries, pillaging as he went, rather than attempting to take and hold territory. Finding himself unable to outmaneuver Philip, Edward positioned his forces for battle, and Philip's army attacked. The famous Battle of Crecy was a complete disaster for the French, largely credited to the English longbow men. Edward proceeded north unopposed and besieged the city of Calais on the English Channel, capturing it in 1347. This became an important strategic asset for the English. It allowed them to keep troops in France safely. In the same year, an English victory against Scotland in the Battle of Neville's Cross led to the capture of David II and greatly reduced the threat from Scotland.

In 1348, the Black Death began to ravage Europe. In 1356, after it had passed and England was able to recover financially, Edward's son and namesake, the Prince of Wales, known as the Black Prince, invaded France from Gascony, winning a great

victory in the Battle of Poitiers, where the English archers repeated the tactics used at Crecy. The new French king, John II, was captured, John signed a truce with Edward, and in his absence, much of the government began to collapse. Later that year, the Second Treaty of London was signed, by which England gained possession of Aquitaine and John was freed.

The French countryside at this point began to fall into complete chaos. Brigandage, the actions of the professional soldiery when fighting was at low ebb, was rampant. In 1358, the peasants rose in rebellion in what was called the Jacquerie. Edward invaded France, for the third and last time, hoping to capitalize on the discontent and seize the throne, but although no French army stood against him in the field, he was unable to take Paris or Rheims from the Dauphin, later King Charles V. He negotiated the Treaty of Brétigny which was signed in 1360. The English came out of this phase of the war with half of Brittany, Aquitaine (about a quarter of France), Calais, Ponthieu, and about half of France's vassal states as their allies, representing the clear advantage of a united England against a generally disunities France.

First peace: 1360–1369

When John's son Louis I, Duc d'Anjou, sent to the English as a hostage on John's behalf, escaped in 1362, John II chivalrously gave himself up and returned to captivity in England. He died in honourable captivity in 1364 and Charles V succeeded him as king of France.

The Treaty of Bretagne had made Edward renounce his claim to the French crown. At the same time it greatly expanded his territory in Aquitaine and confirmed his conquest of Calais. In reality, Edward never renounced his claim to the French crown, and Charles made a point of retaking Edward's new territory as soon as he ascended to the throne. In 1369, on the pretext that Edward III had failed to observe the terms of the treaty of Bretagne, Charles declared war once again.

Second peace: 1389–1415

Although Henry IV of England planned campaigns in France, he was unable to put them into effect due to his short reign. In the meantime, though, the French King Charles VI was descending into madness, and an open conflict for power began between his cousin, John the Fearless, and his brother, Louis of Orléans. After Louis's assassination, the Armagnac family took political power in opposition to John. By 1410, both sides were bidding for the help of English forces in a civil war.

England too was plagued with internal strife during this period, as uprisings in Ireland and Wales were accompanied by renewed border war with Scotland and two separate civil wars. The Irish troubles embroiled much of the reign of Richard II, who had not resolved them by the time he lost his throne and life to his cousin Henry, who took power for himself in 1399. This was followed by the rebellion of Owain Glyndŵr in Wales which was not finally put down until 1415 and actually resulted in Welsh semi-independence for a number of years. In Scotland, the change in regime in England prompted a fresh series of border raids which were countered by an invasion in 1402 and the defeat of a Scottish army at the Battle of Homildon Hill. A dispute over the spoils of this action between Henry and the Earl of Northumberland resulted in a long and bloody struggle between the two for control of northern England, which was only resolved with the almost complete destruction of the Percy family by 1408. Throughout this period, England was also faced with repeated raids by French and Scandinavian pirates, which heavily damaged trade and the navy. These problems accordingly delayed any resurgence of the dispute with France until 1415.

By 1424, the uncles of Henry VI had begun to quarrel over the infant's regency, and one, Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, married Jacqueline, Countess of Hainaut, and invaded Holland

to regain her former dominions, bringing him into direct conflict with Philip III, Duke of Burgundy.

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French victory: 1429–1453

By 1428, the English were ready to pursue the war again, laying siege to Orléans. Their force was insufficient to fully invest the city, but larger French forces remained passive. In 1429, Joan of Arc convinced the Dauphin to send her to the siege, saying she had received visions from God telling her to drive out the English. She raised the morale of the local troops and they attacked the English Redoubts, forcing the English to lift the siege. Inspired by Joan, the French took several English strong points on the Loire. Shortly afterwards, a French army, some 8000 strong, broke through English archers at Patay with 1500 heavy cavalry, defeating a 3000 strong army commanded by John Fastolf and John Talbot, 1st Earl of Shrewsbury. This victory opened the way for the Dauphin to march to Reims for his coronation as Charles VII.

After Joan was captured by the Burgundians in 1430 and later sold to the English and executed, the French advance stalled in negotiations. But, in 1435, the Burgundians under Philip III switched sides, signing the Treaty of Arras and returning Paris to the King of France. Burgundy's allegiance remained fickle, but their focus on expanding their domains into the Low Countries left them little energy to intervene in France. The long truces that marked the war also gave Charles time to reorganise his army and government, replacing his feudal levies with a more modern professional army that could put its superior numbers to good use, and centralising the French state.

By 1449, the French had retaken Rouen, and in 1450 the count of Clermont and Arthur de Richemont, Earl of Richmond, of the Montfort family (the future Arthur III, Duke of Brittany) caught an English army attempting to relieve Caen at the Battle of Formigny and defeated it, the English army having been

attacked from the flank and rear by Richemont's force just as they were on the verge of beating Clermont's army. The French proceeded to capture Caen on July 6 and

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Bordeaux and Bayonne in 1451. The attempt by Talbot to retake Gascony, though initially welcomed by the locals, was crushed by Jean Bureau and his cannon at the Battle of Castillon in 1453 where Talbot had led a small Anglo-Gascon force in a frontal attack on an entrenched camp. This is considered the last battle of the Hundred Years' War.

The most famous weapon was the English longbow of the yeoman archer: while not a new weapon at the time, it played a significant role throughout the war, giving the English tactical advantage in the many battles and skirmishes in which they were used. The French mainly relied on crossbows, often employed by Genoese mercenaries. The crossbow was used because it took little training or skill to operate, and it had a tremendous firing power against both plate and chain mail. However, it was slow to reload, heavy, and vulnerable to rain damage; and it lacked the accuracy of the longbow. The longbow was a very difficult weapon to employ, and English archers had to have practised from an early age to become proficient. It also required tremendous strength to use, with a draw weight typically around 620–670 newtons (140–150 lbf) and possibly as high as 800 N (180 lbf). It was its widespread use in the British Isles that gave the English the ability to use it as a weapon. It was the strategic developments that brought it to prominence. The English, in their battles with the Welsh and Scots, had learned through defeat what dismounted bowmen in fixed positions could do to heavy cavalry from a distance. A number of new weapons were introduced during the Hundred Years' War as well. Gunpowder for gonnies (an early firearm) and cannons played significant roles as early as 1375. The last battle of the war, the Battle of Castillon, was the first battle in

European history in which artillery was the deciding factor.

Effects of the Hundred Years' War

The effects of the Hundred Years' War in England also raised some questions about the extent of royal authority. Like the French, the English experienced a serious rebellion against the king during a gap in the succession caused by the death of

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Edward III when his grandson had not yet reached maturity. Called the Peasants' Revolt and also Watt Tyler's Rebellion, the 1381 uprising saw some 100,000 peasants march on London to protest the payment of high war taxes and efforts by the nobility to reduce English peasants to serfdom. The mob murdered and burned the houses of government officials and tax collectors. The young king-to-be, Richard II, met the peasants outside his castle, defusing their violence by promising to meet their demands. At the same time, agents of the throne murdered Watt Tyler, a key leader of the revolt, and Richard II sent the peasants back to their homes in the countryside. After they left, however, he reneged on his promises and kept taxes high.

Initially the success of the campaigns brought much wealth to English monarchy and the nobles. As the war continued, the upkeep and maintenance of the region proved too burdensome and the English crown was essentially bankrupted, despite the wealth of France continuously being brought back by the nobles. The English monarchy began to seek truce, abandoning many of their subjects in France. Many English subjects with claims and holdings were greatly disillusioned with the crowns. The conflict became one of the major contributing factors to the Wars of the Roses.

SECTION RECAP

- *Where and when did the Hundred Years' War begin?*
- *Who led the English Army in these battles?*

- *What consequences had the Hundred Years' War for England?*
- *What great military victories did Englishmen win during the Hundred Years' War?*
- *What factors show the historical significance of this war?*
- *How many phases of the war do historians refer to?*

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- *What is "the Black Death"?*
- *What role did Joan of Arc play in the Hundred Years' War?*
- *When was she captured?*
- *Which battle is considered the last one of the war?*
- *What do you know about the most famous weapon of this war?*

DISCUSSION POINTS

- *What did Edward III want? On what grounds did he claim French territories?*
- *What plans were the feudal lords of France making? How did their plans threaten England?*
- *When did Edward III declare war on France? How did he explain his desire for war?*
- *Was England successful in the war? What were the advantages of the English army over the French army?*

THE BLACK DEATH REACHES ENGLAND

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In 1348 the Black Death reached England. It isn't clear exactly when or where the Black Death reached England. Some reports at the time pointed to Bristol, others to Dorset. The disease may have appeared as early as late June or as late as August 4. We do know that in mid-summer the Channel Islands were reeling under an outbreak of the plague. From this simple beginning the disease spread throughout England with dizzying speed and fatal consequences.

The effect was at its worst in cities, where overcrowding and primitive sanitation aided its spread. On November 1 the plague reached London, and up to 30,000 of the city's population of 70,000 inhabitants succumbed.

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Over the next 2 years the disease killed between 30-40% of the entire population. Given that the pre-plague population of England was in the range of 5-6 million people, fatalities may have reached as high as 2 million dead.

One of the worst aspects of the disease to the medieval Christian mind is that people died without last rites and without having a chance to confess their sins. Pope Clement VI was forced to grant remission of sins to all who died of the plague because so many perished without benefit of clergy. People were allowed to confess their sins to one another, or "even to a woman".

The death rate was exceptionally high in isolated populations like prisons and monasteries. It has been estimated that up to two-thirds of the clergy of England died within a single year.

Peasants fled their fields. Livestock were left to fend for themselves, and crops left to rot. The monk Henry of Knighton declared, "Many villages and hamlets have now become quite desolate. No one is left in the houses, for the people are dead that once inhabited them."

The Border Scots saw the pestilence in England as a punishment of God on their enemies. An army gathered near Stirling to strike while England lay defenseless. But before the Scots could march, the plague decimated their ranks. Pursued by English troops, the Scots fled north, spreading the plague deep into their homeland.

In an effort to assuage the wrath of God, many people turned to public acts of penitence. Processions lasting as long as three days were authorized by the Pope to mollify God, but the only real effect of these public acts was to spread the disease further.

By the end of 1350 the Black Death had subsided, but it never really died out in England for the next several hundred years. There were further outbreaks in 1361-62, 1369, 1379-83,

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1389-93, and throughout the first half of the 15th century. It was not until the late 17th century that England became largely free of serious plague epidemics.

Consequences. It is impossible to overstate the terrible effects of the Black Death on England. With the population so low, there were not enough workers to work the land. As a result, wages and prices rose. The Ordinances of Laborers (1349) tried to legislate a return to pre-plague wage levels, but the overwhelming shortage of laborers meant that wages continued to rise. Landowners offered extras such as food, drink, and extra benefits to lure laborers. The standard of living for laborers rose accordingly.

The nature of the economy changed to meet the changing social conditions. Land that had once been farmed was now given over to pasturing, which was much less labor-intensive. This helped boost the cloth and woolen industry. With the fall in population most landowners were not getting the rental income they needed, and were forced to lease their land.

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Peasants benefited through increased employment options and higher wages. Society became more mobile, as peasants moved to accept work where they could command a good wage. In some cases market towns disappeared, or suffered a decline despite the economic boom in rural areas.

It has been estimated that 40% of England's priests died in the epidemic. This left a large gap, which was hastily filled with underqualified and poorly trained applicants, accelerating the decline in church power and influence that culminated in the English Reformation. Many survivors of the plague were also disillusioned by the church's inability to explain or deal with the outbreak.

The short term economic prosperity did not last; the underlying feudal structure of society had not changed, and by the mid-15th century standards of living had fallen again. Yet for most levels of English society the Black Death represented a massive upheaval, one which changed the face of English society in a profound way.

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PEASANTS' REVOLT

The **Peasants' Revolt**, **Wat Tyler's Rebellion**, or the **Great Rising** of 1381 was one of a number of popular revolts in late medieval Europe and is a major event in the history of England. Tyler's Rebellion was not only the most extreme and widespread insurrection in English history but also the best documented popular rebellion ever to have occurred during medieval times. The revolt later came to be seen as a mark of the beginning of the end of serfdom in medieval England, although the revolt itself was a failure. It increased awareness in the upper classes of the need for the reform of feudalism in England and the appalling misery felt by the lower classes as a result of their enforced slavery.

EVENTS LEADING TO THE REVOLT THE POLL TAX

The revolt was precipitated by heavy-handed attempts to enforce the third poll tax, first levied in 1377 supposedly to finance military campaigns overseas - a continuation of the Hundred Years' War initiated by King Edward III of England. The third poll tax was not levied at a flat rate (as in 1377) nor according to schedule (as in 1379); instead it allowed some of the poor to pay a reduced rate, while others who were equally poor had to pay the full tax, prompting calls of injustice. The tax was set at 12 pence or 1 shilling compared with the 1377 rate of 4 pence. The youth of King Richard II (aged only 14) was another reason for the uprising: a group of unpopular men dominated his government. These included John of Gaunt (the acting regent), Simon Sudbury (Lord Chancellor and Archbishop of Canterbury, who was the figurehead to what many then saw as a corrupt Church) and Sir Robert Hales (the Lord Treasurer, responsible

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for the poll tax). Many saw them as corrupt officials, trying to exploit the weakness of the King.

The Black Death that ravaged England in 1348 to 1350 had greatly reduced the labor force, and consequently the surviving laborers could demand higher wages and fewer hours of work. Some asked for their freedom. They often got what they asked for: the lords of the manors were desperate for people to farm their land and tend their animals. Then, in 1351, King Edward III summoned parliament to pass the Statute of Laborers. The Statute attempted to curb the demands for better terms of employment by pegging wages to pre-plague levels and restricting the mobility of labor; however the probable effect was that laborers employed by lords were effectively exempted, while laborers working for other employers, both artisans and

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more substantial peasants, were liable to be fined or held in the stocks. The enforcement of the new law angered the peasants greatly and formed another reason for the revolt.

Incidents in the Essex villages triggered the uprising. On 30 May 1381, John or Thomas Bampton attempted to collect the poll tax from villagers at Fobbing. The villagers, led by Thomas Baker, a local landowner, told Bampton that they would give him nothing, and he was forced to leave the village empty-handed. In May 1381, a tax collector arrived at the Essex village of Fobbing to find out why the people there had not paid their poll tax. He was thrown out by the villagers. In June, soldiers arrived to establish law and order. They too were thrown out as the villagers of Fobbing had now organized themselves and many other local villages in Essex had joined them. After doing this, the villagers marched on London to plead with the young king to hear their complaints.

One man had emerged as the leader of the peasants – **Wat Tyler** from Kent. As the peasants from Kent had marched to London, they had destroyed tax records and tax registers. The buildings which housed government records were burned

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down. They got into the city of London because the people there had opened the gates to them.

By mid-June the discipline of the peasants was starting to go. Many got drunk in London and looting took place. It is known that foreigners were murdered by the peasants. Wat Tyler had asked for discipline amongst those who looked up to him as their leader. He did not get it.

THE END OF THE REVOLT

On June 14th, the king met the rebels at Mile End. At this meeting, Richard II gave the peasants all that they asked for and asked that they go home in peace. Some did. Others returned to the city and murdered the archbishop and Treasurer - their heads were cut off on Tower Hill by the Tower of London. Richard II spent the night in hiding in fear of his life.

On June 15th, he met the rebels again at Smithfield outside of the city's walls. It is said that this was the idea of the Lord Mayor who wanted to get the rebels out of the city. Medieval London was wooden and the streets were cramped. Any attempt to put down the rebels in the city could have ended in a fire or the rebels would have found it easy to vanish into the city once they knew that soldiers were after them.

At this meeting, the Lord Mayor of London drew his sword and killed Wat Tyler. The king promised the rebels that all was well, that Tyler had been knighted, and that their demands would be met - they were to march to St John's Fields, where Wat Tyler would meet them. This they duly did, but the King broke his promise. The nobles quickly reestablished their control with the help of a hastily organized militia of 7000, and most of the other leaders were pursued, captured and executed, including John Ball and Jack Straw, who was beheaded. Following the collapse of the revolt, the king's concessions were quickly revoked.

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Conclusion

Despite its name, participation in the Peasants' Revolt was not confined to serfs or even to the lower classes. The peasants received help from members of the noble classes - one example being William Tonge, a substantial alderman, who opened the London city gate through which the masses streamed on the night of June 12. Although the most significant events took place in the capital, there were violent encounters revolt took place near North Walsham around 23rd June, when the throughout England, particularly in East

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Anglia. The last battle of the 'Fighting Bishop' Henry le Despenser soundly defeated a rebel force led by Geoffrey Litster. Those involved hastened to dissociate themselves in the months that followed.

Although the Revolt did not succeed in its stated aims, it did succeed in showing the nobles that the peasants were dissatisfied and that they were capable of wreaking havoc. In the longer term, the Revolt helped to form a radical tradition in British politics. After the revolt, the term 'poll tax' was no longer used, although English governments continued to collect broadly similar taxes until the 17th century. The Community Charge, introduced 600 years after the peasants revolt, was popularly known as the poll tax (particularly by its opponents).

SECTION RECAP

- *What event is considered to be the immediate cause of the Peasants' Revolt?*
- *What did Wat Tyler do to deserve the honour of being chosen as the leader of the Peasants' Revolt?*
- *What did the rebels do on reaching the capital?*
- *What were the rebels' demands? Why did the king decide to meet them?*
- *Why did Wat Tyler and some other radicals stay in London, while others obeyed the king's request?*
- *How did the leader of the revolt die?*
- *Why did the rebels disperse?*
- *What were the consequences of the Peasants' Revolt?*

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DISCUSSION POINTS

- *How old was King Richard II in the days of the revolt? What did he decide to do when he learnt that the rebels had been let into London?*

- *When did the Peasants' Revolt break out? Who was on the English throne then? Did the rebels achieve their aims?*

THE WARS OF THE ROSES

The Wars of the Roses were a series of bloody dynastic civil wars fought in medieval England from 1455 to 1487 between the House of Lancaster (red rose) and the House of York (white rose) for the throne of England. Major causes of the conflict include: 1) both houses were direct descendents of king Edward III; 2) the ruling Lancastrian king, Henry VI, surrounded himself with unpopular nobles; 3) the civil unrest of much of the population; 4) the availability of many powerful lords with their own private armies; and 5) the untimely episodes of mental illness by king Henry VI.

Henry of Bolingbroke had established the House of Lancaster on the throne in 1399 when he deposed his cousin Richard II, whose rule had prompted widespread opposition among the nobles. Bolingbroke (who was crowned as Henry IV) and his son Henry V maintained their hold on the crown through sound administration and especially through military process, but when Henry V died, his heir was the infant Henry VI, who grew up to be mentally unstable, and dominated by quarrelsome regents.

The Lancastrian claim to the throne descended from John of Gaunt, the third son of Edward III. Henry VI's inability to rule the Kingdom ultimately resulted in a challenge to his right to the crown by Richard, Duke of York, who could claim descent from Edward's second and fourth sons, Lionel of Antwerp and Edmund of Langley, and had also proved himself

to be an able administrator, holding several important offices of state. York quarreled with prominent Lancastrians at court and with Henry's queen, Margaret of Anjou, who feared that he might later supplant her son, the infant Edward, Prince of Wales.

Although armed clashes had occurred previously between supporters of York and Lancaster, the first open fighting broke out in 1455 at the First Battle of St Albans. Several prominent Lancastrians died but their heirs remained at deadly feud with Richard. Although peace was temporarily restored, the Lancastrians were inspired by Margaret of Anjou to contest York's influence.

Fighting resumed more violently in 1459. York was forced to flee the country, but one of his most prominent supporters, the Earl of Warwick, invaded England from Calais and captured Henry at the Battle of Northampton. York returned to the country and became Protector of England, but was dissuaded from claiming the throne. Margaret and the irreconcilable Lancastrian nobles gathered their forces in the north of England, and when York moved north to suppress them, he was killed in battle at the end of 1460. The Lancastrian army advanced south and recaptured the hopeless Henry at the Second Battle of St Albans, but failed to occupy London, and subsequently retreated to the north. York's eldest son was proclaimed King Edward IV. He gathered the Yorkist armies and won a crushing victory at the Battle of Towton early in 1461.

After minor Lancastrian revolts were suppressed in 1464 and Henry was captured once again, Edward fell out with his chief supporter and advisor, the Earl of Warwick (known as the "Kingmaker"), and also alienated many friends and even family members by favoring the upstart family of his queen, Elizabeth Woodville, whom he had married in secret. Warwick tried first to supplant Edward with his jealous younger brother George, Duke of Clarence, and then to restore Henry VI to the throne. This

resulted in two years of rapid changes of fortune, before Edward IV once again won a complete victory in 1471. Warwick and the Lancastrian heir Edward, Prince of Wales died in battle and Henry was murdered immediately afterwards.

A period of comparative peace followed, but Edward died unexpectedly in 1483. His surviving brother Richard of Gloucester first moved to prevent the unpopular Woodville family of Edward's widow from participating in government during the minority of Edward's son, Edward V, and then seized the throne for himself, using the suspect legitimacy of Edward IV's marriage as pretext. This usurpation, and suspicions that Richard had murdered Edward V and his younger brother (the "Princes in the Tower"), provoked several revolts. Henry Tudor, a distant relative of the Lancastrian kings who had inherited their claim, overcame and killed Richard in battle at Bosworth in 1485.

Yorkist revolts flared up in 1487, resulting in the last pitched battles. Although most of the surviving descendants of York were imprisoned, sporadic rebellions continued to take place until Perkin Warbeck, a fraudulent Yorkist pretender, was executed in 1499.

The war ended with the victory of the Lancastrian Henry Tudor, who founded the House of Tudor which subsequently ruled England and Wales.

SECTION RECAP

- *When did the Wars of the Roses begin? How long did it last?*
- *What was the reason behind the Wars of the Roses and was it a romantic event?*
- *In which year did the last battle of the wars take place*
- *What led to the falling-out between Edward IV and his staunchest supporter, Richard, Earl of Warwick, known as the Kingmaker?*

● *In 1399 Richard II was usurped by this man, which led to the establishing of the House of Lancaster, and ultimately to the Wars of the Roses. Who was this usurper?*

● *Who was the last king of the Plantagenet dynasty?*

● *Why were the big barons a threat to the king's power?*

How did Edward III try to neutralize this threat?

● *Whom did Henry Tudor marry? Why did this marriage have a great political importance?*

● *Which foreign power sided with Edward IV during the wars?*

● *What was the end of this baronial bloodshed and how was the struggle finally finished?*

DISCUSSION POINT

● *What industrial progress was achieved in the 15th*

● *What were the great cultural achievements of that age?*

● *Give a short general outline of the main political, economic and cultural events in the Middle Ages in Britain.*

LIFE IN 16TH CENTURY THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE NEW DYNASTY

TUDOR ENGLAND

The end of the Wars of the Roses, the victory of Tudor at Bosworth field and his marriage with Princess Elizabeth, heiress of the House of York (1485) were the events that symbolized the end of the Middle Ages in Britain. The year of 1485 is traditionally considered the watershed and the beginning the Tudor Age.

In historical development the rule of the Tudors (1485-1603) with their absolute power in the long run contributed to the strengthening of its role in international affairs.

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century?

UNIT III

The Tudor Age



The 16th century was the age of a growing absolutism of monarchy and centralization of the state these phenomena facilitated the development and foundation of new capitalist relations in production.

The English type of absolute monarchy was shaped by Henry VII, who was opposed to the power of old barons. He ordered that the old castles should be destroyed (pulled down) and the feudal baronial armies should be disbanded. He was very rich with the confiscated wealth of his defeated rivals. He was strong enough to prevent any revival of armed strength of any group of nobles, and he enjoyed support of merchants and small landowners who had all suffered from the civil war.

These two groups, linked by common interest in the wool trade not yet powerful enough to claim the political power were to fight for in the 17th century. They were strong enough to be useful allies of the Tudor kings and queens. Their support

enabled the Tudors to become despotic rulers, while at first playing a progressive historic role.

But their reign was abundant in various controversial arbitrary developments.

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The financial policy of Henry VII filled the Treasury and strengthened the throne and the church position, improved the contacts with Rome. The King skillfully steered through the complexities of European politics. His eldest son was married to the Spanish princess Catherine of Aragon, and his daughter Margaret to King James IV of Scotland.

His son Henry VIII (1509-1547) whose court was glamorous with royal games, balls and entertainments, development of culture, was among other things – a wasteful monarch, on his death his treasury was practically empty.

Henry VIII's despotism was fatal for the country's progressive minds and terrible for his family.

The king invited to court outstanding people – humanists of the Renaissance period: **Thomas More** – “the man for all seasons” – a play and film with Paul Scofield in the title role, the greatest thinker and the founder of the Utopic Socialism (1478-1535). In 1516 he wrote a book about Utopia – the best government structure on the Inland of Utopia and was invited and appointed Chancellor. But Thomas More dared to contradict the King and was beheaded.

One could compare the fate of the Chancellors only with destiny of the King's spouses, the Queens. The plural of the noun is explained by the fact of Henry VIII's record number of wives, their fate is “humorously” described by some school the following rhyme:

Divorced, beheaded, died, Divorced,
beheaded, survived.

Catherine of Aragon was divorced by Henry VIII against the will of the Pope and that caused a break up with the Holy See. The declaration of Henry VIII in 1531 that he now was

Head of the Church, was an English way of Reformation in England was conducted from above by the King.

His second wife was Anne Boleyn (1532-1536). She gave birth to a baby girl (her daughter was Princess Elizabeth)

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that caused the disappointment of the King. No one could foresee the triumph of Elizabeth I. He disposed of Anne accusing her of unfaithfulness, and she was **beheaded**. But two days before she died her marriage was dissolved. Anne's decapitated body was buried without ceremony in the Tower of London. Ten days later the King was married again. His third wife was **Jane Seymour**. She died in 1537 soon after giving birth to a son and heir – **Prince Edward**. (to become later Edward VI) a sickly child who died of consumption in 1553 aged 15 years. Henry VIII died 1547 and his wife Catherine Parr **survived** him.

Henry VIII had a powerful adviser and a skilful minister Cardinal Thomas Wolsey, who was very rich and ambitious. But for all his efforts he failed to get the King a divorce from his first wife Catherine of Aragon as the Pope did not want to anger Spain and France, two Catholic powers.

Henry was outraged with his minister and Pope. The Power of the Catholic Church England was out of his authority and wanted to control it for material and personal reasons. Though at the initial stages of the Reformation in Europe Henry VIII had not approved of the ideas of Martin Luther and was awarded by the Pope with the title. Fidei Defensor, – Defender of the Faith. The letters “F.D.” are still to be found on every British coin.

The opposition to the Pope as a political prince but not the religious leader was growing in England and Henry VIII started his own Reformation. Thomas Cromwell was his faithful reformer.

In 1531 Henry was elected the Head of the Church of England by the English bishops and in 1534 the Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy declaring him the Supreme Head of the Church of England. His Chancellor Sir Thomas More refused to recognize the Act and that cost him his life – he was charged with high treason and executed in the Tower.

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With the help of his new Chancellor Thomas Cromwell Henry VIII ordered to suppress the monasteries, he captured the wealth of the monasteries that had been dissolved and destroyed. The lands of the monasteries were either sold or given to the new supporters who turned out to be enthusiastic protestants all of a sudden.

Within a few years an enormous wealth went into the empty treasury of the King.

In 1536 he managed to unite Wales with England, as the Welsh nobility were showing interest in the support of their representative on the English throne. It was the first **Act of Union** in the history of Britain.

His beloved wife Jane Seymour left him the long-awaited-for heir Prince Edward. Mary and Elizabeth had been declared illegitimate. He wanted to achieve a betrothal of his son with the future Mary Queen of Scots who was born when Edward was 5 years old. The Scots refused the wooing of the English King as they could see through his far-reaching plans and sent Mary to France. On her return she became Queen of Scots (1561-1567).

Henry died in 1547. Though he was gross and selfish he left his country more united and more confident than before, and reign was glorified by the Utopian vision of More, drawings of Holbein, poetry music of the Tudor court and other claims to greatness.

Henry VIII had destroyed the power of the Pope in England, but he didn't change the religious doctrine. He

appointed Protestants as guardians of the young **Edward VI** (1547-1553) and they carried out the religious reformation.

After the death of Edward VI there was a highly unstable situation in the country. In his will which contradicted his father's request, King Edward VI disinherited his sisters and proclaimed Lady Jane Grey the Queen of England (1553). Jane Grey ruled only for nine days. But the people opposed her reign and supported the daughter of Catherine of Aragon.

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Queen Mary I was determined to return England back to the Pope, as she was a fanatic Roman Catholic. She failed to understand the English hostility to Catholic Spain, and her marriage to Philip of Spain, son of the Emperor Charles V, was her own ideal, celebrated in July 1554 despite the pleas of privy councillors and Parliament. Parliament had to accept Philip as King of England for Mary's lifetime moreover, his rights in England were to expire if Mary died childless, which proved to be the case. Her marriage was very unpopular and caused several uprisings simultaneously. She crushed the rebels and pursued an aggressive policy against Protestants: more than 300 people were executed in the worst tradition of the Inquisition – burned alive. That is why she earned the nickname Bloody Mary.

During the reign of Bloody Mary France was the traditional enemy and England was little better than a Province of Spain. Being the wife of Philip II she got England to be drawn into a war with France and Calais, the last English possession on the continent, was lost in 1558.

Her reign and life were a political and a personal disaster. When Mary died in November 1558, deserted, unhappy and hated by many, people in the streets of London danced and drank to the health of the new queen.

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Elizabeth I, Queen of England and Ireland, daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn, succeeded her half-sister to the great delight of the people.

Called Princess Elizabeth, after her mother's execution was declared illegitimate, she spent her childhood in loneliness, and only sometimes enjoyed the company of her brother Edward, encouraged by her step-mother Catherine Parr.

Elizabeth was a well educated, remarkable woman, who had endured the hardships of her youth and succeeded to a dangerous heritage. The country was surrounded by powerful enemies: Spain possessed the Netherlands and France

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controlled Scotland, where the French mother of the 16 year old **Mary Queen of Scots** was Regent. To all the true Catholics Elizabeth still remained illegitimate, but Mary Stuart, the great grand-daughter of Henry VII Tudor by his daughter Margaret was supported in her claim to the English throne as the rightful Queen of England.

Yet Elizabeth was equal to situation. She had the Tudor courage and combined great intelligence with strong intuition, which enabled her to understand her people and select the right advisers.

Her first steps were to restore the moderate Protestantism of her father: the Anglican service was reintroduced, and 39 articles, formulating the established doctrine of the Church, the Symbol of the Faith.

Specific differences in the development of the Reformation in England and Scotland didn't prevent the Scottish Presbyterians and the Church of England from cooperation in the conflict and struggle against the Catholics, both in England and Scotland.

The Scottish merchants supported their own variant Calvinism, Presbyterianism – a church founded on democratic principles of elected preachers and community chiefs. They

denied the right of one man (the Pope, the King, or the bishops) to the Supremacy over the Church.

The Presbyterian Church helped to secure the Independence of Scotland in their struggle against Roman Catholic France.

The policy of Elizabeth was one of compromise and settlement. In foreign affairs she continued the work of Henry VII encouraging the expansion of the English merchants. Spain was the greatest trade rival and enemy as it dominated both Europe and the New World. The Spanish Catholic kings plotted against Elizabeth in their desire to substitute Mary for Elizabeth as Queen and resented the English efforts in the exploration of New World.

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Elizabeth was a competent diplomat and maintained the balance of power in Europe.

But she helped Dutch Protestants who rebelled against Philip II of Spain and allowed them to use English harbours. English ships were attacking Spanish ships as those were returning from America. The English captains – the sea dogs tried to appear private adventurers – John Hawkins, Francis Drake and Martin Frobisher, but they shared their plunder with their beloved Queen.

Philip was outraged and began to build up his naval forces to conquer England.

In 1587 Francis Drake attacked the fleet in the Spanish harbours of Cadiz and destroyed a great number of ships. And that was the last straw in this undeclared war.

1587 was the most dramatic year for Elizabeth. Mary Queen of Scots was forced to abdicate in Scotland in 1567 and having left her baby son James VI of Scotland, had to flee from Scottish calvinists in 1568 and throw herself on Elizabeth's mercy. The Queen of England had no alternative but to keep her in close custody. Mary's presence in England provoked rebellions and plots to depose Elizabeth. The Spanish

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ambassador was involved in a plot to murder Elizabeth and expelled from the country. Then Mary herself was implicated into a similar conspiracy.

The Parliament demanded her death and Elizabeth had to agree, and in 1587 **Mary Queen of Scots** was executed. But Elizabeth blamed her death on her officials.

Mary's death and Drake's raid on Cadiz both took place in 1587. The next year was to be fateful for England.

In August 1588 the Armada, the Great Spanish fleet, was in the Channel preparing to launch a full-scale invasion.

Elizabeth was at the head of her nation. She went to the camp of her troops to encourage and inspire them with such words: "Let tyrants fear. I have always so behaved myself that,

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under God, I have placed my chiefest strength and goodwill in the loyal hearts and goodwill of my subjects...

I know I have but the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart and stomach of a King, and of a King of England too".

The Spanish attempted invasion began in July, 1588. The heavy galleons of Philip's great Armada were rather awkward against the quick English ships.

The "Invisible Armada" was defeated by the English ships and the storm in the English Channel. Scattered by the winds, many of its ships were sunk or wrecked on the rocky coasts of Scotland and Ireland. It was a glorious moment for England, and Elizabeth was not the end of the war with Spain. Peace was made only after the death of Elizabeth.

James VI of Scotland, the son of Mary Stuart, didn't support Spain as he had been given to understand that his right to the English throne would be honored.

Ireland was another battlefield of Spain in the struggle against England and Elizabeth. It was only subdued by the time

of her death. The best lands were captured by English landowners.

England had economic problems: inflation and unemployment. Enclosures of farm lands and wars, it produced armies of beggars and thieves, and they roamed about the country in misery and crime.

The government passed the Elizabethan Poor Law in 1601. It aimed at putting an end to beggars of all kinds, the poor were put into workhouses.

In the 16th century the economic growth was getting faster, though still limited by feudal relations. Trade and Industry were growing. The Royal Exchange was founded in 1571, East India Company – in 1600.

Education was further developing. Many Grammar schools were founded in the 16th century. New foundations like

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Harrow and Rugby admitted clever boys as well as rich ones, and could rightly be called "public schools".

Elizabeth gave her name to the historical period, her reign (1558-1603) was described as "the Golden Age of Elizabeth", the most colorful and splendid in English history. She was the embodiment of everything English, and the English had found themselves as a nation.

The power of Spain was challenged on the seas and finally broken by the defeat of the Armada. Elizabeth saw the foundation of the British Empire and the flowering of the Renaissance in England. The works of Christopher Marlowe, Edmund Spenser and William Shakespeare were the foundation of the English literary and dramatic heritage.

Spenser the Shepherds Calendar (1579) was a landmark in the history of English poetry, his masterpiece was The Faerie Queen (1589, 1596) which mirrored in allegories the Queen, and her kingdom in Fairy-land.

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In the last decade of Elizabeth's reign Shakespeare wrote about 20 plays, from Henry VI to Hamlet.

The English Renaissance has reached the greatest height in field of theatrical Art. The Shakespeare's (drama) plays, his humanism and deeply popular realism were on the one hand produced on the basis of outstanding theatrical achievements of the period; on the other hand Shakespears drama made the English theatre an important contribution, achievement of the world culture treasury.

The 16 th century was the century of the further consolidation of bourgeois relations. During the Elizabethan age the ideals of Renaissance embraced a broad spectrum of the population, including the merchants and citizens.

The philosophical ideas of period were to serve the further evolution and even the revolutionary changes that came later.

Francis Bacon (1561-1626) ("Novum Organum"), was the founder of English materialism and applicator of pragmatic sciences.

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Literature, Art and Drama were playing important role. In 1574 the first theatre appeared. Public theatres were attended by aristocrats and Elizabeth I. The 16th century was the age of transition from the medieval twilight to a more progressive age.

Henry VIII

Henry was a clever and active young man. He spoke Latin and French fluently. He also performed and composed music. He was good at tennis, wrestling, and casting the bar (throwing an iron bar). Henry also enjoyed hunting, jousting and hawking. He also liked archery and bowling.

Henry was also keen to revive the glories of the previous centuries when England conquered much of France. In 1511 he launched a warship the Mary Rose. In 1514 he launched the Henry Grace a Dieu.

Meanwhile in 1512 he went to war with the French. In August 1513 the English won the Battle of the Spurs. (It was so

called because the French cavalry fled without fighting). However in 1514 Henry made peace with the French and his sister Mary married the king of France.

Meanwhile the Scots invaded England to support their French allies. However the Scots were crushed at the battle of Flodden and their king was killed.

In 1515 the Pope made Thomas Wolsey (1474-1530) a Cardinal. The same year the king made him Chancellor.

In 1520 Henry met the king of France at the Field of the Cloth of Gold. Determined to impress the French king Henry had a temporary palace made and it was decorated with very expensive velvet, satin and cloth of gold. Not to be outdone the French king erected tents of gold brocade.

At the beginning of 1511 Henry had a son. Unfortunately the boy died after only 7 weeks. Catherine had four miscarriages and she only had one child who lived - a girl named Mary born in 1516. Henry was desperate to have a son and heir and Catherine could not give him one.

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Henry came to believe that God was punishing him for marrying his brother's widow. Normally that would not have been allowed but the Pope granted him a special dispensation. Henry now argued that the marriage to Catherine was not valid and should be annulled (declared null and void).

Not surprisingly Catherine was totally opposed to any move to dissolve the marriage.

Henry asked the Pope to annul the marriage. However the Pope would not co-operate. (He could not because Catherine's uncle Charles V of Spain had captured Rome and the pope was his prisoner). In 1529 he formed an ecclesiastical court headed by Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio to look into the matter. However the court could not reach a verdict.

In the autumn of 1529 Henry sacked Wolsey and banished him to York. In 1530 Wolsey was accused of treason and was

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summoned to London to answer the charges but he died on the way.

Thomas More replaced him as chancellor. Thomas More persecuted Protestants. He ruthlessly imposed the anti-heresy laws. In 1530 a man named Thomas Hitton was burned at Maidstone. Thomas More unkindly called him 'the Devil's stinking martyr'. Thomas More also strongly opposed the proposed relaxation of the heresy laws. Fortunately More resigned in 1532 and was replaced by Thomas Cromwell.

Meanwhile in 1527 Henry began a relationship with Anne Boleyn. Henry was keen to get rid of Catherine and marry Anne. In 1529 Henry called the 'Reformation Parliament'. Ties between England and Rome were cut one by one. Finally he lost patience with the Pope and rejected his authority. In 1533 he obtained a decree of nullity from Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury. (He had already secretly married Anne Boleyn).

However Anne had two miscarriages. Henry tired of her and in April 1536 she was accused of committing adultery with

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5 men, including her own brother. Anne and the five men were all executed in May 1536. Immediately afterwards Henry married Jane Seymour.

Jane gave Henry one son, Edward, but she died on 23 October 1537, leaving Henry devastated.

THE HENRICIAN REFORMATION

Meanwhile in 1534 the Act of Supremacy made Henry the head of the Church of England. The same year the Act of Succession was passed. It declared that Anne Boleyn's child would be heir to the throne.

Former Chancellor Thomas More and John Fisher the Bishop of Rochester were both beheaded in 1535 for refusing to swear an oath accepting the acts of supremacy and succession.

Although Henry broke with Rome he kept the Catholic religion essentially intact. He had no intention of changing the English religion to Lutheranism. However in 1538 Chancellor Thomas Cromwell did make some minor reforms. In 1538 he ordered that every church should have an English translation of the Bible. He also ordered that any 'idolatrous' images should be removed from churches.

Nevertheless in 1539 Henry passed the Act of Six Articles, which laid down the beliefs of the Church of England. The Six Articles preserved the old religion mainly intact.

However from 1545 Latin was replaced by English as the language of church services. Meanwhile Henry dissolved the monasteries. Parliament agreed to dissolve the small ones in 1536. The large ones followed in 1539-1540.

The monks were given pensions and many of them married and learned trades. Many monastery buildings became manor houses. Others were dismantled and their stones were used for other buildings.

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The vast estates owned by the monasteries were sold and fearing foreign invasion Henry used the wealth to build a network of new castles around the coast.

Changes made by Henry caused resentment in some areas. In 1536 a rebellion began in Louth. (Although it was sparked off by religion the rebels had other grievances). The rebels marched to Doncaster but no pitched battles were fought between them and the royal forces. Instead Henry persuaded them to disperse by making various promises. However in 1537 Henry hanged the leaders.

Meanwhile Henry looked for another wife. Chancellor Cromwell suggested making an alliance with the Duchy of Cleves. The Duke of Cleves had two sisters and Henry sent the

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painter Holbein to make portraits of them both. After seeing a portrait of Anne of Cleves Henry decided to marry her.

However when Henry met Anne for the first time he was repulsed and he called her 'the Flanders mare'. Nevertheless Henry married her in January 1540 but the marriage was not consummated. Henry divorced Anne six months later but she was given a generous settlement of houses and estates. Anne of Cleves lived quietly until her death in 1557.

For his pains, Cromwell was accused to treason and executed in July 1540.

Next, in 1540, Henry married Catherine Howard. However in December 1541 Henry was given proof that Catherine was unfaithful. Catherine was beheaded on 13 February 1542. Then in 1543 Henry married Catherine Parr (1512-1548).

Meanwhile in 1536 Henry had an accident jousting. Afterwards he stopped taking exercise and became obese. Worse a painful ulcer appeared on his leg, which his doctors could not cure.

Nevertheless Henry went to war again. In 1542 he crushed the Scots at Solway Moss. In 1543 Henry went to war with the French. he captured Boulogne but was forced to return to

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England to deal with the threat of French invasion. The French sent a fleet to the Solent (between Portsmouth and the Isle of Wight). They also landed men on the Isle of Wight. In a naval battle the Mary Rose was lost but the French fleet were forced to withdraw.

Henry VIII died on 28 January 1547. He was 55.

ENGLISH RENAISSANCE

From the early 16th century until well into the 17th, England felt the grips of a revolution that would change the face of the

country forever. This revolution had nothing to do with wars or land or expansion; unless you consider the expansion of the minds of the people all over Britain. It was back during the 14th century in the country of Italy in which the renaissance first started and slowly spread across the entire European continent. Known as the pan-European Renaissance, by the 16th century when the ruler of England was Queen Elizabeth and Shakespeare was famous, the English Renaissance began.

It was during this time period which many refer to as the Age of Shakespeare or as the Elizabethan Era in which the English Renaissance was in full swing. It was during this time period in which England gave birth to famous poets like John Milton and Edmund Spenser. These two poets focused on the production of works from which the nation was able to understand English Christianity. Christopher Marlowe and William Shakespeare created a vast array of plays which focus on the English way of life and their take on it. It was people like Sir Thomas More and Sir Francis Bacon who during this time period wrote about humanity and perfect societies. It was the philosophers, artists, playwrights and poets who gave birth to the English Renaissance back during the 16th century.

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Of course it had taken a while for the pan-European Renaissance to make its way to England because the English mind was considered to be steadfast and accustomed to the way things were and did not want change. For centuries, life in England ran a certain way and the masses had preferred to hold on to these beliefs and ways of life. Of course it would only be a matter of time in which these beliefs would finally be let go of and new marvelous things would be introduced and created by the English. It was to be the War of the Roses that would pave the way and open up the minds of the English and allow the renaissance to finally begin.

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The most profound works of literature were born during this era and much of which is still commonplace in the hearts and minds of people, not just in England, but all over the world. From *A Midsummer Night's Dream* to *Through the Looking Glass*, people all over the world today can attest to having read these as a child or having seen them in the movies. Of course for the vast majority, thanks to Walter Disney, Alice and her looking glass became known as Alice in Wonderland; complete with the Cheshire Cat.

While the pan-European Renaissance was considered to have started in Italy, there are a number of major differences between the two renaissances. Take for example Italy's focus on Art and visual cultural art forms whereas the English was focused on literature and the written art forms. At the time that the English Renaissance began, the Italian Renaissance was already past the Mannerism period and beginning to start the Baroque period. Most historians will agree that the English Renaissance began in or around 1520 and continued on for a hundred years until 1620. Of course while there were many differences, there were also similarities such as the expansion and focus on music. The poetry and stage works in the period could be associated with having musical influences in their creations.

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Irregardless as to how you look at the time period, whether it was the English Renaissance or even the Early Modern Era, one thing is for certain, the likes of Christopher Marlowe, John Milton, William Shakespeare, William Rowley and a lot more, changed the way literature was written in England forever and made names for themselves which has so far stood the test of time without faltering

Nevertheless, most of the historians still are of the opinion that there was an artistic flowering in London and other regions of England in the period between early 16th and early 17th century.

SECTION RECAP

- *Who were the first and last monarchs of the Tudor Dynasty?*
- *What title was Henry VIII awarded by the Pope?*
- *What was the peculiarity of the Reformation in England?*
- *What were the traits of continuity in the foreign policy of the Tudors?*
- *Why was the reign of Elizabeth I called "the Golden Age"?*
- *What threat was posed by Mary Queen of Scots to the rule of Elizabeth?*

DISCUSSION POINTS

- *What misfortunes accompanied Queen Anne all her life? Do you know any work of literature in which Queen Anne appears as one of the characters?*
- *What was the most important event of the reign of Queen Anne? Do you see anything symbolic in it?*

UNIT IV



The Stuarts and the Struggle of the Parliament Against The Crown



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ENGLAND IN THE 17th CENTURY THE
STUARTS

In 1603 King James VI of Scotland became James I of England. He began a new dynasty - the Stuarts.

James I never had the same charisma as Elizabeth I and never enjoyed the same popularity. However among his achievements he ended the long war with Spain in 1604. He was also responsible for a new translation of the Bible, the King James Version, which was published in 1611.

However James came into conflict with parliament. The cost of government (and of fighting wars) was rising but the government's income did not keep up. Rents from royal lands could only be raised when the lease ended. Parliament was therefore in a strong position. MPs could refuse to raise money for the king unless he bowed to their demands. So the king was forced to look for new ways to raise money.

The situation was complicated by disagreements over religion. Many MPs were puritans. They wished to 'purify' the Church of England of its remaining Catholic elements. Although he was a Protestant James disagreed with many of their views.

Furthermore James believed in the divine right of kings. In other words God had chosen him to rule. James was willing to work with parliament but he believed ultimate authority rested with him.

James I died in 1625. He was 58.

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THE STUART KINGS AND THEIR
CONFLICTS WITH THE PARLIAMENT

CHARLES I

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Like his father, Charles I was a firm believer in the Divine Right of Kings. From the start he quarreled with parliament.

At the beginning of his reign Charles I married a French Roman Catholic princess, Henrietta Maria. However marrying a Catholic was very unpopular move with the Puritans.

Charles also fought unsuccessful wars. In 1625 he sent an expedition to Cadiz, which ended in failure. Parliament strongly criticized his policies and refused to raise extra taxes to pay for the Spanish war.

Charles angrily dissolved parliament and raised money by levying forced loans. He imprisoned, without trial, anyone who refused to pay.

In 1627 an expedition was sent to La Rochelle in France. It was led by the king's favourite the Duke of Buckingham and it ended in failure.

By 1628 the cost of wars meant Charles was desperate for money and he was forced to call parliament. This time MPs drew up the Petition of Right, that established conditions in which Charles had to submit to the law of the Parliament. It stipulated that:

1. The king could not establish martial law in England during times of Peace.
2. The king could not levy taxes without the consent of the Parliament.
3. The king could not arbitrarily imprison people.
4. The king could not quarter soldiers in private homes.

However king and parliament clashed over the issue of religion. In the 17th century religion was far more important than it is today. It was a vital part of everyday life. Furthermore

practice there were many Roman Catholics especially in the Northwest).

In 1629 William Laud was Bishop of London. He was strongly opposed to the Puritans and Charles supported him wholeheartedly.

Parliament criticized Laud and Charles called it impertinence. (He did not think parliament had any right to do so). In return parliament refused to grant the king taxes for more than one year. Charles sent a messenger to parliament to announce it was dissolved. However members of the Commons physically held the speaker down until they had passed three resolutions about Laud and religion. Only then did they disband.

In 1633 Laud was made Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud was determined to suppress the Puritans and he sent commissioners into almost every parish to make sure the local churches came into line.

Furthermore the Puritans had their own preachers called lecturers. These men were independent of the Church of England. Laud tried to put a stop to these preachers - with some success.

Most of all Laud emphasized the ceremony and decoration in churches. These measures were strongly opposed by the Puritans. They feared it was the 'thin edge of the wedge' and Catholicism would eventually be restored in England.

Meanwhile for 11 years Charles ruled without parliament. This period was called the eleven years tyranny. Charles had various ways of raising money without parliament's consent. In the Middle Ages men with property worth a certain amount of money a year were supposed to serve the king as knights. Under this old law Charles fined their descendants for not doing so. Furthermore all wasteland had once been royal land. In time some landowners had taken parts of it into cultivation. Charles fined them for doing so. Using these dubious methods by 1635 Charles was solvent.

there was no toleration in matters of religion. By law everybody was supposed to belong to the Church of England (though in

However matters came to a head in 1637. In 1634 the king began levying ship money. This was a traditional tax raised in coastal towns to enable the king to build ships when more were needed. However in 1635 Charles began levying ship money in inland areas.

A Buckinghamshire squire called John Hampden refused to pay. In 1637 he was taken to court and although he lost his case he became a hero. Ship money was very unpopular with the propertied class.

Worse in 1637 Charles and Laud enraged the Scots by proposing religious changes in Scotland. Laud and Charles tried to introduce a new prayer book in Scotland. There were riots in Edinburgh. In February 1638 Scottish nobles and ministers signed a document called the National Covenant.

Charles made two attempts to bring the Scots to heel. Both were humiliating failures. The first Bishops War of 1639 ended with the peace of Berwick but it was only a breathing space for both sides.

In April 1640 Charles summoned parliament again, hoping they would agree to raise money for his Scottish campaign. Instead parliament simply discussed its many grievances. Charles dissolved parliament on 5 May and it became known as the Short parliament because it met for such a short time.

The Second Bishops War followed in 1640. In August 1640 the Scots invaded England and they captured Newcastle. Charles was forced to make peace with the Scots. By the treaty they occupied Durham and Northumberland. Charles was forced to pay their army's costs.

Finally, in August 1641, Charles was forced to abandon all attempts to impose religious changes on Scotland. In return the Scots withdrew from northern England.

Meanwhile, desperate for money, Charles was forced to call parliament again in November 1640. This parliament became known as the Long Parliament (1640–1660), because it was not officially dissolved by its own vote until 1660.

These terms were:

- That Charles I had to impeach Thomas Wentworth and William Laud. He reluctantly placed them under arrest and put them in The Tower, executing Wentworth in 1641 (for which Charles I never forgave himself since he was close to Thomas Wentworth) and William Laud in 1645.

- Charles I had to agree to the Triennial Act (1641), which required the Parliament to meet every three years with or without the king's consent.

- Charles I had to abolish the Court of the Star Chamber, a royal court controlled completely by Charles I in which the prosecutor was also the judge (which pretty much guaranteed a guilty verdict for the defendant) and it was intended to be used to implement the will of the king legally with a "judicial" facade. It was considered an "extralegal" court. It dealt with odd cases and punishments.

- Charles I had to abolish the High Court, which was the same as the Court of the Star Chamber, though it dealt with religious heresy. It was considered an "extralegal" court.

- Charles I had to accept the Grand Remonstrance and allow the circulation of its copies, and it was a document that outlined (hyperbolically) the crimes that officials had accused Charles of committing since the beginning of his reign. Charles I was also never to do any of those crimes again.

- Charles I, most importantly, had to agree never to dissolve a Parliament without the consent of the Parliament.

Parliament passed the Triennial Act, which stated that parliament must be called every three years. A Dissolution Act stated that parliament could not be dissolved without its consent.

Fining people who had not obtained knighthoods was declared illegal. So was fining landowners who had encroached on royal land. Ship money was also abolished

Parliament also took revenge on the king's hated advisor, Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford. They passed a special act declaring Strafford was a traitor. The people of London took to the streets demanding his execution. Charles feared for his and his family safety and he was forced to sign the act. Strafford was executed on 12 May 1641.

Unfortunately parliament then divided. Opposition to the king was led by John Pym but many began to fear he was going too far.

In November 1641 a list of grievances called the Grand Remonstrance was drawn up but it was passed by only 11 votes. Pym then demanded that the king hand over control of the militia. For many that was a step too far. They feared that Pym might replace arbitrary royal government with something worse.

Meanwhile parliament and the country split over religion. Some wanted to return the Church of England to the state of affairs before Laud. Others wanted to abolish bishops completely. The country was becoming dangerously divided.

In January 1642 Charles made the situation worse by highhandedly entering the Commons and attempting to arrest 5 MPs for treason. (They had already fled). No king had entered the Commons before and his actions caused outrage.

Once again Charles feared for his safety and he left London.

In March 1642 Parliament declared that its ordinances were valid laws and they did not require the royal assent.

In April 1642 king then tried to seize arms in Hull but he was refused entry to the town.

Meanwhile in London parliament began raising an army. (Although most of the House of Lords went over to the king). The king also began raising an army and he set up his standard at Nottingham in August.

THE CIVIL WAR AND THE NEW MODEL ARMY

However most people were reluctant to take sides in a civil war and wished to stay neutral. Yet gradually people were sucked in.

From the start parliament had several advantages. Firstly it held London and the customs dues from the port were an important source of money.

Secondly most of the Southeast and East of England supported parliament. In the 17th century they were the richest and most densely populated parts of the country. Wales, most of northern England and most of the Southwest supported the king but they were poor and thinly populated.

Thirdly the navy supported parliament and made it difficult for the king to receive help from abroad.

The first clash of the civil war took place at Powicke Bridge near Worcester. It was only a skirmish but it ended in royalist victory. The first major battle took place at Edgehill near Banbury. On 23 October 1642 the parliamentarians started by firing artillery. Prince Rupert, the king's nephew then led a cavalry charge. They chased the parliamentary cavalry off the field. Then infantry then fought but neither side could gain the upper hand. By the time the royalist cavalry returned to the field it was growing dark so the battle ended indecisively.

The king advanced towards London but he was stopped at Turnham Green on 13 November 1642.

In 1643 things went better for the king. His army won victories at Adwalton Moor in Yorkshire in June 1643. They also won battles at Landsdown Hill near Bath and at Roundway Down in July 1643. However in September 1643 the first battle of Newbury proved indecisive. However the parliamentarians won a victory at Winceby in Lincolnshire on 11 October 1643.

THE SECOND ENGLISH CIVIL WAR

Then, in September 1643, the parliamentarians persuaded the Scots to intervene on their behalf by promising to make England Presbyterian. A Scottish army entered England in January 1644.

On 2 July 1644 the royalists were severely defeated at the battle of Marston Moor in Yorkshire. Following this battle the parliamentarians captured all of Northern England.

The parliamentarians then decided to reform their army. In December 1644 they passed the Self Denying Ordinance, which stated that all MPs (except Oliver Cromwell and his son-in-law Henry Ireton) must give up their commands. Early in 1645 parliamentary forces were reorganized and became the New Model Army.

The New Model Army crushed the royalists at the battle of Naseby in June 1645 and at Langport, near Yeovil in July 1645.

Afterwards the parliamentarians slowly gathered strength. Finally in May 1646 the king surrendered to the Scots.

The Scots eventually handed the king over to parliament. That left the problem what to do with the king? Most people did not wish to abolish the monarchy but it was difficult to keep the king but limit his power. Charles made things worse, as usual, by being obstinate and refusing to compromise.

Meanwhile following civil war radical ideas flourished. In November 1646 a man named John Lilburne, one of a group of radicals called the Levellers published a tract called *London's Liberty in Chains*. He demanded a republic and the abolition of the House of Lords. He also said that all men should be allowed to vote and there should be religious freedom.

Furthermore the army fell out with parliament. By the spring of 1647 the soldier's pay was heavily in arrears and they were not happy. In April 1647 parliament voted to disband the army and give them no more than 6 weeks pay. However the army refused to disband.

Meanwhile in December 1647 Charles made a secret agreement with the Scots. They agreed to invade England on his behalf. However Oliver Cromwell crushed an army of Scots and English royalists at Preston.

A royalist uprising also took place in Kent. However the royalists failed to capture London and instead they marched to Colchester where they were besieged and finally defeated.

The army now felt that parliament was being too lenient with the king. They occupied London and Colonel Thomas Pride ejected about 140 members of the Commons. This action was called 'Pride's Purge'. It left a 'rump parliament' of about 60 members. The Rump Parliament:

- Abolished the monarchy and the House of Lords in Parliament (it then executed Charles I after publicly trying him for crimes).
- Created a republic called the "Commonwealth" that was really just a dictatorship run by Cromwell.

In January 1649 Charles was put on trial for treason. He was found guilty on 27 January 1649 and he was beheaded outside Whitehall on 30 January 1649.

On 17 March 1649 parliament passed an act abolishing monarchy and the House of Lords.

CHARLES II & RELIGIOUS DIFFERENCES IN THE COUNTRY

Charles II was not particularly religious but as far as he had any religion he secretly leaned to Roman Catholicism. (He had

to keep this very quiet as he feared the people would rebel if they found out).

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In 1662 he married a Portuguese Princess, Catherine of Braganza. However Charles was a pleasure-seeking man and he had many mistresses.

Meanwhile parliament was determined to crack down on the many independent churches that had sprung up during the interregnum and make Anglicanism the state religion again.

They passed a series of acts called the Clarendon code, a series of laws to persecute non-conformists (Protestants who did not belong to the Church of England). The Corporation Act of 1661 said that all officials in towns must be members of the Church of England.

The Act of Uniformity 1662 said that all clergy must use the Book of Common Prayer. About 2,000 clergy disagreed resigned. Furthermore the Conventicle Act of 1664 forbade unauthorised religious meetings of more than 5 people unless they were all of the same household.

Finally the Five Mile Act of 1665 forbade non-Anglican ministers to come within 5 miles of incorporated towns. (Towns with a mayor and corporation). However these measures did not stop the non-conformists meeting or preaching.

In 1670 Charles made a secret treaty with Louis XIV of France. It was called the Treaty of Dover. By it Louis promised to give Charles money (so he was no longer dependent on parliament). Charles agreed to join with Louis in another war with Holland and to announce he was a Roman Catholic (Louis promised to send 6,000 men if the people rebelled when he did so).

However the war with Holland, which began in 1672, proved to be far more expensive than anticipated and the money from Louis XIV was not enough. Eventually Charles was forced to call parliament.

Meanwhile in 1672 Charles II issued the Royal Declaration of Indulgence suspending the laws against non-conformists. (Charles believed that as king he had the right to suspend laws).

Parliament angrily declared that the king had no right to grant exemption from the law to non-conformists and Catholics.

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In 1673 they passed the Test Act, which banned nonconformists and Catholics from holding public office.

In 1678 two liars, Titus Oates and Israel Tonge claimed there was a 'Popish' (Catholic) plot to assassinate Charles II and replace him with his brother James who was openly Catholic. The government began investigating their claims. One of the magistrates who investigated, called Sir Edmund Berry Godfrey was murdered. It was said to be the work of Catholics. In the panic that followed many innocent Catholics were convicted of treason and executed.

Meanwhile there was the question of exclusion. Charles II had no legitimate children and when he died his Catholic brother James was next in line for the throne. Some people, led by the Earl of Shaftesbury, said James should be excluded from the succession. They were known as Whigs.

Charles II strongly resisted them. In 1679 when parliament proposed to exclude James from the succession he simply dissolved parliament. In 1681 another parliament planned to exclude James. Once again Charles dismissed parliament and for the last 4 years of his reign ruled without it.

Charles II died in 1685. He was 54.

Despite the religious conflicts the English economy boomed in Charles II's reign. Trade and commerce thrived. Although most people still made their living from farming trade now became an increasingly important part of English life. Industries like coal and iron also expanded rapidly.

Furthermore in 1679 parliament passed the Act of Habeas Corpus forbidding imprisonment without trial.

In the late 17th century science flourished. From 1645 a group of mathematicians and philosophers began to meet to discuss scientific subjects. Charles II was interested in science so in 1662 he gave them a royal charter.

They became the Royal Society of London for the advancement of Natural Knowledge. Perhaps the greatest scientist of 17th century England was Isaac Newton.

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Following the death of Charles II in 1685 his brother James became king. However Charles II's illegitimate son the Duke of Monmouth landed in Dorset and led a rebellion in Southwest England. He was proclaimed king in Taunton but his army was crushed at the battle of Sedgemoor. Afterwards George Jeffrey's (1648-1689), known as the hanging judge presided over a series of trials known as the Bloody Assizes. About 300 people were hanged and hundreds more were transported to the West Indies.

OLIVER CROMWELL AND THE COMMONWEALTH

On the very day of the execution of the king, 30 January 1649, parliament declares England to be a 'commonwealth'. A week later it formally abolishes two institutions which in a practical sense have already ceased to exist. The House of Lords is pronounced 'useless and dangerous' on February 6. On the next day the monarchy is declared to be 'unnecessary, burdensome, and dangerous to the liberty, safety, and the public interest of the people of this nation'.

So the slate is wiped clean. But what now to put in place of the old system? On February 14 the commons elect a council of

state, to be the executive arm of the government. Cromwell is chosen as its first chairman.

Acknowledged in this appointment as the political leader of the Commonwealth, Cromwell is also parliament's most effective general - a role which takes him away from the centre of things until the end of 1651. In June 1649 Cromwell is appointed commander-in-chief of a campaign to suppress a royalist uprising in Ireland.

He achieves this task, with ruthless brilliance, by the summer of 1650. But now there is trouble in Scotland. The son of the executed king, proclaimed by royalists as Charles II, arrives in Scotland in June from the Netherlands. His

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somewhat desperate hope is to recover his crown with the help of the Scottish Presbyterians, the Covenanters.

Cromwell is in Scotland before the end of July, but he finds it hard to pin down the Scottish forces (apart from one skilful victory at Dunbar in September). Charles II is crowned king of Scots at Scone on 1 January 1651.

By the end of 1651 Cromwell is back in London. He is still commander-in-chief, but he is also now able to play his part again as a member of parliament. He was met by a deputation from the Parliament near London. People greeted him in the streets of the capital, soldiers saluted him. After the celebrations Cromwell began to work in the committees of the Parliament on Trade, Foreign Affairs, Law and Army. The people of England wanted peace and bread and the country needed order and organization.

In 1653 the Council of State asked Cromwell to be Lord Protector of the Commonwealth and rule over the country by the advice of the Council and a written Constitution. Cromwell agreed and for five years, till he died, headed the government of the Commonwealth. A constitution was written. It protected the rights of the landowners against the peasants. The members of

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Parliament had long discussions. Cromwell did not like the discussions and dismissed the Parliament. During the last years of his life he became a dictator who ruled over the country without the council of the people. The English Commonwealth, the first republic in Europe, did not justify the hopes of the people.

In September 1658 Oliver Cromwell died at the age of fifty-nine and was buried in Westminster Abbey. England was at war with Spain at that time. The government was too weak and the new Parliament decided to have a king.

SECTION RECAP

- *Who was Mary Stuart and why did she die?*
- *Who was James Stuart and how did he become the founder of the new royal line of the English throne?*

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- *What was the official name of the state regime established in England after the execution of Charles I? Is this term used nowadays?*

- *Why did Charles I dislike the Puritans?*
- *Why didn't Parliament want to give an army to Charles?*

- *How did the Civil War start?*
- *Who were Cavaliers and Roundheads?*
- *What were the advantages of Parliament in the Civil War?*

- *When and where was the last battle of the Civil War fought? What was the result of the battle?*

- *In what sense was the Petition of Right a conservative document? After the adoption of the Petition of Right, why did relations between Charles I and Parliament continue to be troublesome?*

- *What was the Remonstrance of 1628? Why did the House of Commons pass it? What was King Charles' reaction to the Remonstrance?*

- *How did the House of Commons defy the King in 1629? Why? In what way was the House of Commons taking revolutionary action?*

- *What actions did the King take in retaliation for the Commons' defiance of his will and authority?*

DISCUSSION POINTS

- *Why did James I try to rule without Parliament? What did he believe?*

- *Why did James I have to ask Parliament for money? Did he get money? Did James manage to rule the country without Parliament?*

- *How did Charles I's relations with Parliament develop? Why did he dissolve Parliament in 1628? How did Charles I rule the country without Parliament between 1629 and 1640?*

- *What political theory was invoked by the House of Commons to counter the divine right theory of Charles I? Describe and explain.*

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- *How did the Commons and King Charles disagree over the nature, source, and inviolability of the powers of Parliament?*

- *What gave rise to the Petition of Right of 1628? What was it designed to accomplish? Identify and explain the provisions of the Petition of Right.*

THE BOURGEOIS REVOLUTION

Once the war against the King had begun, divisions arose inside and outside Parliament as to the mode of conducting it. The Cavaliers, as the troops of the Royalist gentry came to be called, had certain military advantages. The Roundheads (there is a social sneer in the name) were strongest in the towns, and though the burghers brought wealth to the cause, they were not at first experienced fighting men. The Cavaliers, on the other hand, relied mainly on the north and west of England, economically backward and badly policed; they, with their tenants and dependents, were used to hard riding and fighting. Yet for a long time Parliament tried to fight the Cavaliers with their own weapons – by calling out the feudal militia in the counties loyal to Parliament, by using the old financial and administrative machinery of the counties to run the war. But by this means the real resources of Parliament were not drawn upon – the vast wealth of London, the administrative abilities of the bourgeoisie, especially the initiative and resource of the masses of ordinary people who staunchly supported the cause, but were thwarted by the caste system of officering the militia and by its local loyalties. A royalist advance on London was only checked by the obstinate resistance of three great ports – Hull, Plymouth and Gloucester – and by the bold front presented by the citizens of London at Turnham Green (1642) and their daring march to the relief of Gloucester. But these spontaneous efforts, were inadequately co-ordinated.

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Oliver Cromwell first showed his genius in overcoming these weaknesses and showing that a revolutionary war must be organized in a revolutionary way. In his force in the eastern counties promotion came by merit, not birth: “I had rather have a plain russet-coated captain,” he said, “that knows what he fights for and loves what he knows, than that which you

call ‘a gentleman’ and is nothing else,” He insisted on his men having “the root of the matter” in them; otherwise he encouraged free discussion of divergent views. Cromwell had to fight those of his superior officers who would not adopt the democratic method of recruitment and organization whose advantages he had shown. (This conflict is usually described histories as one between “Presbyterians” and “Independents.” It will be useful to retain these terms, but religion had little to do with it except in so far as Cromwell advocated freedom of assembly and discussion, i.e. “religious toleration”; the real difference was between the win-the-war party and the compromisers.

It was, in fact, a class split – between the big trading bourgeoisie and that section of the aristocracy and big landowners whose interests were bound up with them – “Presbyterians” – and the progressive smaller gentry, yeomen, free-trade bourgeoisie, supported by the masses of smaller peasants and artisans – “Independents” and “Sectaries”).

Many of the great “Presbyterian” commanders did not want too complete a victory. “If we beat the King ninety and nine times, yet he is King still,” said the Earl of Manchester, Cromwell’s general. “My Lord,” Cromwell replied, “if this be so, why did we take up arms at first?”

The “Presbyterians” were afraid of the flood of radical democracy to which a frank appeal to the people against the King might expose them. Cromwell himself was alleged to have said, “There would never be a good time in England till we have done with Lords.” Certainly many of his troops were thinking so. The Independent and Sectarian congregations were

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the way in which ordinary people organized themselves in those days to escape from the propaganda of the established Church and discuss the things they wanted to discuss in their own way.

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The Presbyterian Edwards gave as one of the “heresies” of the Sectaries the view that “by natural birth all men are equally and alike born to like property, liberty and freedom.” These were the small people, whose intellectual vision was not restricted by anxieties for their own property. They were invaluable for their enthusiasm, courage and morale in the army; but they came to produce what their paymasters regarded as dangerous social ideas.

Such were the difficulties the bourgeoisie experienced even at the beginning of its career; it needed the people and yet feared them, and wanted to keep the monarchy as a check against democracy – if only Charles I would act as they wanted him to, as Charles II, by and large, later did.

The “Presbyterians” hoped to rely principally upon the well-disciplined Scottish army to bear the brunt of the fighting. But after the great victory of Marston Moor, won in 1644 by Cromwell’s genius and the discipline of his yeomen cavalry, he forced the issue. “It is now a time to speak or for ever to hold the tongue,” he said in Parliament. The tax-paying classes were becoming irritated at the slow and dilatory tactics of the aristocratic “Presbyterian” commanders which increased the cost of the war. A democratic reorganization was necessary for victory over the more experienced fighters on the Royalist side.

These considerations caused Cromwell’s views to prevail, and by the “Self-Denying Ordinance” all Members of Parliament were called upon to lay down their commands (April, 1645). This hit principally the peers; the abandonment of their traditional right to command the armed forces of the country was in itself a minor social revolution. The New Model Army of the career open to the talents was formed – nationally organized and financed by a new national tax.

This in its turn led to corresponding changes in the State machinery. The destruction of the royal bureaucracy had left a

void which was ultimately to be filled by a new middle-class civil service. But meanwhile, pressure, of revolutionary necessity had led to the creation of a series of revolutionary committees in the localities. “We had a thing here called a Committee,” wrote a despondent gentleman in the Isle of Wight, “which overruled Deputy-Lieutenants and also Justices of the Peace, and of this we had brave men: Ringwood of Newport, the peddler: Maynard, the apothecary: Matthews, the baker: Wavell and Legge, farmers; and poor Baxter of Hurst Castle. These ruled the whole Island, and did whatsoever they thought good in their own eyes.” These committees were now organized and centralized and all brought under the unifying control of the great committees of Parliament, which really ran the Civil War – the committee of both kingdoms, the committee for advance of money, the committee for compounding, etc. The old State system was not wholly but partially destroyed and modified; new institutions were being built up under pressure of events.

In the military sense the war was won by artillery (which money alone could buy) and by Cromwell’s yeomen cavalry. Under Prince Rupert, the cavaliers charged with vigor and desperation, but they were totally undisciplined, split up for plunder after the first charge. In war as in peace, the feudal gentry could never resist the prospect of loot. But Cromwell’s humbler horsemen had a discipline that was irresistible because it was self-imposed. Thanks to the complete freedom of discussion which existed in the army, they “knew what they fought for and loved what they knew.” So they charged home, knee to knee, reserving their fire till the last moment, then reformed and charged again and again until the enemy was broken. The Parliament’s battles were won because of the discipline and unity and high political consciousness of the masses organized in the New Model Army.

Once properly organized and regularly paid, with an efficient commissariat and technical staff, with Cromwell, the dispensable leader, reappointed to his command, the New Model Army advanced rapidly to victory and the Royalists were decisively routed at Naseby (1645). After that the war soon ended. A Royalist commander, surrendering, said: "You have done your work and may go play – unless you fall out among yourselves."

That was the danger. For once the fighting was over, the "Presbyterian" compromisers began to raise their heads again, inside and outside Parliament. Charles had surrendered to the Scottish army in 1646, who sold him to the English Parliament. There upon the "Presbyterians" began to negotiate with the captive King: they proposed to get rid of the victorious Army by sending it to conquer Ireland, without paying its wages; they produced no social reforms, not even an indemnity for actions committed during the war, so that soldiers were actually brought before the courts for what they had done in the service of Parliament.

But as the opponents of the New Model Army had anticipated, the people were not so easily to be fobbed off, once they were armed and given the chance of organization. The main obstacle to a peasant and artisan population making its will felt is the difficulty of organizing the petty bourgeoisie; but the radicals saw the Army as an organization which could "teach peasants to understand liberty." In London a political party sprang up to represent the views of the small producers, which got into touch with the Army agitation. These were the Levellers.

The trouble came to a head in the Army in the spring of 1647 with the attempt to disband regiments and form new ones for the Irish service. Led by the yeomen cavalry, the rank and file organized themselves, appointed deputies from each regiment ("agitators," they were called) to a central council, pledged themselves to maintain solidarity and not disband until

their demands were satisfied. There was a high degree of organization – a party chest and levy on members, a printing press, contacts with London, with the other armies and garrisons, and with the fleet. The initiative in this mass movement seems undoubtedly to have come from the rank and file, though many of the lower officers co-operated enthusiastically from the start. The general officers ("grandeers" as the Levellers called them) hesitated for a time, tried to mediate between the "Presbyterian" majority in Parliament and the Army rank and file. Then, when they saw the latter were determined to proceed, they threw themselves in with the movement and henceforth concentrated on guiding its energies into their own channels. They worked principally to restrict the soldiers' demands to the professional and political, and to minimize the social and economic programme which the Levellers tried to graft on to the rank-and-file movement.

Army and Parliament now existed side by side as rival powers in the State. In June, 1647, in order to stop the "Presbyterians" in Parliament coming to an agreement with the King behind the backs of the Army, Cornet Joyce was sent by the agitators (though probably with Cromwell's connivance) to seize Charles. At a general rendezvous next day, the whole Army took a solemn "Engagement" not to divide until the liberties of England were secure. An Army Council was set up in which elected representatives of the rank and file sat side by side with officers to decide questions of policy. England has never again seen such democratic control of the army as existed for the next six months. Then, holding the king as a bargaining weapon, the Army marched on London. The principal "Presbyterian" leaders withdrew from the House of Commons, leaving Cromwell and the "Independents" temporarily in control; the Army was in a position decisively to influence policy.

That was as much as the gentlemen "Independents" wanted. They had removed their main rivals and were perfectly

satisfied with the old system (with or without the King). They had no desire to modify it further, so long as they had the

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running of it. But the petty bourgeoisie, whose interests were more and more being expressed by the Levellers, wanted vast changes. And Leveller influence was growing rapidly in the Army. They wanted complete free trade for small producers, as well as the freedom of the big merchant companies from the corrupt monopolies which Parliament had already abolished; they wanted disestablishment of the Church and the abolition tithes; security of small property and reform of the debtors' laws; and to secure all this they wanted a republic, extension the parliamentary franchise, manhood suffrage.

These were the points at issue in debates of the Army Council held at Putney in October and November, 1647, on proposed Leveller constitution, the Agreement of the people. The Leveller Rainborowe wanted manhood suffrage, because he thought "the poorest he that is in England hath a life to live as the greatest he." Ireton, Cromwell's son-in-law, summed up the Grandees' case when he said: "Liberty cannot be provided for in a general sense, if property be preserved." An attempt by the Levellers to capture control of the Army was defeated by the Grandees at Ware in November, 1647, and resulted in the dispersal of the Army Council and the end of Army democracy. But meanwhile the King had escaped from captivity, civil war broke out again in the following May, and this reunited the Army behind Cromwell.

After the Army's victory in this Second Civil War, Grandees and Levellers united to clear the compromisers out of Parliament and to bring the King to justice. After a speedy trial, he was executed on January 30th, 1649, as a "public enemy to the good people of this nation." Monarchy was declared to be "unnecessary, burdensome, and dangerous to the liberty, safety and public interest of the people," and was abolished. The House of Lords, which was also abolished, was merely "useless

and dangerous." On May 19th, 1649, a republic was proclaimed. But the Agreement of the People, the extension of the franchise, the economic and social demands of the Levellers, were as far from attainment as ever; they felt they had been betrayed. The Grandees were able to provoke them

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into an unsuccessful revolt, which was isolated and put down and its leaders shot at Burford in May, 1649.

It is not difficult to account for the failure of the Levellers. Their demands were those of the petty bourgeoisie, a class always unstable and difficult to organize because of its dependence, economic and ideological, on the big bourgeoisie. Moreover, the petty bourgeoisie in the seventeenth century was in the process of stratification. For if some of the richer yeomen and, artisans were prospering and pushing their way up into the bourgeoisie and gentry, many more were being squeezed down to the status of landless agricultural labourers. The events of the Civil War speeded up this process. Many of the most successful and influential members of the petty bourgeoisie found they had interests in common with those of the bourgeoisie, like the *kulaks* in the Russian Revolution. Both, for instance, welcomed enclosure and the employment of wage labour in production for the market. Consequently this section deserted the Leveller movement as soon as it ceased to be merely the most revolutionary wing of the bourgeoisie and began itself to attack the big bourgeoisie. The section which was sinking in the social scale tended to be erratic, despairing and defeatist. The Leveller ideal was a small-producer's Utopia in economics and petty bourgeois democracy in politics.

Despite the focus of the Army, the Levellers never represented a sufficiently homogeneous class to be able to achieve their aims. The full realization of the democratic tasks even of the bourgeois revolution is impossible unless there is a working class able to carry them out. The most radical achievements of the English bourgeois revolution (abolition of

the monarchy, confiscation of Church, crown and aristocratic estates) were put through by what Engels called the “plebeian methods” of the Levellers and Independents”; but there was no organized working-class movement, with a vision of a different form of social order and a scientific revolutionary theory, to lead the petty bourgeoisie to a frontal attack on the power of big capital. After the Burford shootings, the Leveller movement degenerated. Many of its leaders turned careerist or

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speculated in land; others took to terrorism, sometimes even in agreement with the Royalists. Many more had their energies diverted by the radical religious movements which date from this period – notably the pacifist Quakers, the anarchist Anabaptists and Fifth Monarchists.

The nearest the English bourgeois revolution got to representing the interests of the propertyless was the Digger movement. This was an attempt to proceed by direct action to a form of agrarian communism by members of the dispossessed rural proletariat, who argued that lords of manors had been defeated as well as the King, that the victory of the people had freed the land of England, which was now theirs to cultivate.

Transferring Rainborowe’s slogan from politics to economics, the Digger Gerrard Winstanley wrote: “The poorest man hath as true a title and just right to the land as the richest man.” In the spring of 1649 a group of Diggers began to dig up the waste land on St. George’s Hill in Surrey. Indignant local gentlemen and parsons called in the soldiery, and the communistic colony was ultimately dispersed. There were similar attempts in Kent, Buckinghamshire and Northamptonshire, but the movement reached no great dimensions, representing as it did a small if growing class; its weakness is evidenced in the pacifism and passive resistance its leaders preached.

Winstanley’s communist ideal was in one sense backwardlooking, since it arose from the village community

which capitalism was already disintegrating. But the Diggers were the most radical and egalitarian opponents of the feudal social order. Winstanley’s clear statements have a contemporary ring: “This is the bondage the poor complain of, that they are kept poor by their brethren in a land where there is so much plenty for everyone.” “Every one talks of freedom, but there are but few that act for freedom, and the actors for freedom are oppressed by the talkers and verbal professors of freedom.” For “it is clearly seen that if we be suffered to speak, we shall batter to pieces all the old laws, and prove the maintainers of them hypocrites and traitors to the commonwealth of England.”

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And Winstanley did not only look to the past; he also had glimpses of a future in which “wheresoever there is a people united by common community of livelihood into oneness it will be the strongest land in the world, for there they will be as one man to defend their inheritance.”

The history of the English Revolution from 1649 to 1660 can be briefly told. Cromwell’s shooting of the Levellers at Burford made a restoration of monarchy and lords ultimately inevitable, for the breach of big bourgeoisie and gentry with the popular forces meant that their government could only be maintained either by an army or by a compromise with the surviving representatives of the old order. But first there were still tasks to be done.

1) There was the conquest of Ireland, the expropriation of its landowners and peasantry – the first big triumph of English imperialism and the first big defeat of English democracy. For the petty bourgeoisie of the Army, despite the warnings of many of the Leveller leaders, allowed themselves to be distracted from establishing their own liberties in England and, deluded by religious slogans, to destroy those of the Irish. Many of them set up as landed proprietors in Ireland.

2) There was the conquest of Scotland, necessary to prevent a restoration of the old order thence; Scotland was opened up to English traders by political union.

3) A forward commercial policy was undertaken with the Navigation Act of 1651, the basis of England's commercial prosperity in the next century. This aimed at winning the carrying trade of Europe for English ships, and at excluding all rivals from trade with England's colonies. It led to a war with the Dutch, who had monopolized the carrying trade of the world in the first half of the seventeenth century. For in that period the royal policy had frustrated all attempts of the bourgeoisie to throw the resources of England into an effective struggle for this trade. In this war, thanks to Blake's fleet and the economic strength the Republican Government was able to mobilize, England was victorious.

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4) An imperialist policy needed the strong Navy which Charles had failed to build up, and under Blake the Commonwealth began to rule the waves to some purpose; war in alliance with France against Spain brought Jamaica and Dunkirk to England.

5) The abolition of feudal tenures meant that landlords established an absolute right to their property of the King; the failure of copyholders to win equal security for their holdings left them at the mercy of their landlords, and prepared the way for the wholesale enclosures and expropriations of the next 150 years.

6) A violent restoration of the old order at home was made impossible by demolishing fortresses, disarming the Cavaliers, and taxing them to the verge of ruin, so that many were forced to sell their estates and with them their claim to social prestige and political power. For many owners of economically undeveloped estates who were already desperately in debt, the period of the Commonwealth and after represented a great

foreclosing on mortgages, capital at last getting its own back against improvident landlords.

7) Finally, to finance the new activities of the revolutionary governments, the lands of Church and Crown and of many leading Royalists were confiscated and sold; smaller Royalists whose estates had been confiscated were allowed to "compound" for them by paying a fine equal to a substantial proportion of their estates.

If we keep these points in mind, there is no need to go into the detailed political revolutions of the next eleven years. Cromwell dissolved the Long Parliament forcibly in 1653, nominated a convention of his own adherents, which revived the social and economic demands of the petty bourgeoisie and had to be hastily dissolved. Cromwell was then proclaimed Protector under a Constitution, which was rigged to conceal the dictatorship of the Army officers. He called a Parliament under this constitution on a new £200 franchise, by which moneyed men were admitted to vote and the lesser freeholders excluded. But Parliament and Army quarreled, Parliament was dissolved, and a period of naked military dictatorship followed under the

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Major-Generals, in which the Cavaliers were finally disarmed. Ultimately Cromwell and his Court circle (representing especially the new civil service), under pressure from the City, came to realize that the Army had done its job and that its maintenance now meant a crushing burden of taxation on the propertied classes, for which no compensating advantages were obtained.

Moreover, despite repeated purges and the drafting of politically unreliable units to fight in Ireland, Jamaica, Flanders, the Leveller and democratic tradition remained strong in the Army. So in 1657 Cromwell surrendered to his second Parliament and accepted a new parliamentary constitution. This constitution (the "Humble Petition and Advice") took executive power from a council representing the Army Grandees and

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placed it in one controlled by Parliament, brought the Army under Parliament's financial control, made the protectorate non-elective and the Protector subject to Parliamentary control. The new constitution was introduced by a City Member, and was supported by many former Presbyterians who were soon to welcome home Charles II. Protests in the Army only just prevented Oliver accepting the Crown as King. The Grandees were bought off by being given seats in a new second chamber.

But Cromwell died in 1658 before this constitution was working satisfactorily; his son and successor, Richard Cromwell, lacked his influence with the Army; and the Petition and Advice constitution was so like a monarchy that it was clear that the bourgeoisie would accept Charles II if he would accept them, and if the Army could be disposed of. When the Grandees deposed Richard Cromwell in a palace revolution and seized power for themselves, a revulsion occurred. The English army of occupation in Scotland, under command of the ex-Royalist adventurer General Monck, had hitherto taken no part in English political intrigues. Monck had concentrated on purging it of left-wing elements and enforcing "discipline." Now he became the hope of the conservative classes in the State, frightened of the radicalism of the English armies.

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Monck took charge of the situation. With the approval and financial backing of the Scottish gentry, he marched down from Scotland with his purged and disciplined army, and declared for a free Parliament elected on the old franchise, to the applause of the bourgeoisie and gentry. For all knew that a "free" Parliament meant the dominance of the landed classes. "Freedom" is a relative term. This Parliament recalled Charles II in May, 1660.

THE ABOLISHMENT PERIOD

OLIVER CROMWELL AND HIS ROLE IN THE REVOLUTION

The struggle of Parliament against the king began in England in the 12th century. Each king wanted to rule over the country without any parliament. King Charles I was at war with Spain and France and wanted money for it. The Parliament refused to give the money. King Charles I dismissed the Parliament (1629) and for eleven years ruled over the country without the council of the people.

The Parliament opened again only in 1640 and opposed the king. The parties began to prepare for war. The king and his soldiers were in Oxford. The soldiers of the Parliament with Oliver Cromwell at the head were in London. In the Civil War which lasted for twelve years the Parliament won the victory.

King Charles I was executed as enemy of the country. The Commonwealth was proclaimed and Oliver Cromwell became the Protector of the new republic.

Oliver Cromwell had a strong feeling of social justice and did much for the poor people of his native town. When he was twenty-eight the people of Huntingdon elected him to represent them in Parliament. The public life of Oliver Cromwell had now begun.

The king of England was Charles I, a young man, who wanted to rule over England without Parliament. He needed

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money for wars, but Parliament refused to give it. Charles I took money from people, arrested and sent to prison those who did not agree with him. So the king was not popular with the people. In 1631 the king's coronation to be knighted took place and many people were invited. Oliver Cromwell refused to go and paid a fine.

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Cromwell's activity in Parliament was mostly directed against the oppression of people. He sat on many committees and moved important bills.

In 1642 Charles I tried to arrest some members of Parliament but could not do it. Then he left Parliament and never came back as a king. Members of the Parliament decided to build up an army to fight against the king and gave their money to teach the soldiers. The Parliamentary army was soon formed and the Civil War between the king and Parliament began.

King Charles I had an army of 10,000 soldiers. At the head of the army were the officers who took part in the wars in Germany and Denmark. The army of the Parliament had 20,000 soldiers but very few officers. Oliver Cromwell helped to organize the army and taught soldiers to fight. He was a captain, then colonel, very soon a general of a corps of cavalry and at last leader of an army. He taught his officers tactics and discipline. In the battles he went everywhere and helped soldiers and officers.

Many thousands of soldiers were killed during the Civil War. In January 1644 a Scottish army of 20,000 men came to help Cromwell. In the battle near the town of York the Parliamentary army won the victory and the king's army was defeated. The strongholds in the north fell to Parliament one after another. In a few months the whole of the north of England was practically theirs. The battles now took place in the south and west. Castle after castle, town after town, regiment after regiment surrendered, Oxford, the last stronghold of the king's army, with 3,000 men and 300 cannons, surrendered in June 1646, and in August, the First Civil War was over.

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Cromwell tried to make terms with the king and work out a constitution. But the king was just taking his time and preparing for a new civil war. When Cromwell learned about these

preparations he spoke to Parliament and they decided to attack the throne and bring the king to trial for organizing a civil war in the country.

The Second Civil War began in April 1648 and lasted for a few months. At the beginning of the war many towns helped the king. The fleet revolted. The Parliament of Scotland sent 40,000 men to invade England. Cromwell headed the Parliamentary army and won the victory at Preston driving the invaders to their territory. His army followed the invaders to Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland. Cromwell returned to London and was present in the Court of Justice where King Charles I was tried.

The Court of Justice decided that Charles Stuart was an enemy to his people and must die. In January 1649 Charles Stuart was beheaded.

In this same month Parliamentary government came to power and proclaimed Commonwealth and equality of rights for all people. The new Republic was not easily recognized by foreign countries, its agents were insulted in Europe. Scotland and Ireland did not recognize the Republic too. Cromwell prepared the army for the reconquest of Ireland. The English people did not want to fight against the Irish people and Cromwell promised to give a piece of land in Ireland to every English soldier.

In August 1649 an army of 9,000 men in 100 ships sailed to Ireland. The regiments landed in Dublin and marched north. The Irish army could not stand against the well-trained and well-armed armies of the Commonwealth. One fort after another surrendered and in two weeks Cromwell was master of the country north of Dublin. He took some regiments and marched south of Dublin. Thousands of Irishmen were killed,

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women and unarmed men among them. That was a great crime which still burns after more than three centuries in the history of England and of Ireland.

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In three months many towns in the east and south of Ireland fell. Waterford, the last stronghold of Ireland, was still defending the country. It was winter already. The weather was cold and many soldiers in Cromwell's army were ill. But he did not give his people a rest and prepared the army for the last battle. The town of Waterford was taken after a short battle.

Cromwell was nine months in Ireland and in that time took many strongholds and fought greater armies than the English army. Ireland was now invaded by England. Cromwell reorganized the government in Ireland and left English generals to keep the country under control. He went to London where the Parliament and the people met him and celebrated the victories of England.

When the celebrations were over Cromwell began the preparations for the war in Scotland. The Scottish generals did not expect Cromwell to begin war so soon after the battles in Ireland. The English army marched far into the country and came to Edinburgh. The battles were very difficult but the victory over the enemy was great, Cromwell took 10,000 prisoners, arms and artillery, great and small, 200 colours (banners).

SECTION RECAP

- *What sort of people were the Puritans? What nickname did they earn?*
- *What did their opponenets call themselves? Why?*
- *What doctrine did King Charles stubbornly put faith in?*
- *What did he do when Parliament refused to cooperate?*
- *When did the Civil War break out in England?*
- *Who were the victors in the first battles?*
- *What was the name of the outstanding leader the Parliamentary army finally produced?*

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- *What battle put an end to the Civil War?*
- *What happened to King Charles I?*
- *What reforms of state power were carried out by Oliver Cromwell as Lord Protector?*
- *What happened in England after Cromwell's death?*

DISCUSSION POINTS

- *When did Cromwell capture Charles? What was the problem of the Parliamentarians in connection with the captured king? What choice did they have?*
- *Who wanted to get rid of the king? What did the Puritans believe they could do?*
- *In what year did Cromwell begin governing the country alone? What title did he take? Were Cromwell's efforts to govern the country through the army popular? What did he forbid the people?*
- *Who was Cromwell succeeded by after his death? In what way was his successor different from him? How did the republic in Britain end?*

THE GLORIOUS REVOLUTION

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.

According to the Whig account, the events of the revolution were bloodless and the revolution settlement established the supremacy of parliament over the crown, setting Britain on the path towards constitutional monarchy and parliamentary democracy. The Glorious Revolution is also occasionally

termed the Bloodless Revolution, because it was achieved without a war.

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But it ignores the extent to which the events of 1688 constituted a foreign invasion of England by another European power, the Dutch Republic.

Although bloodshed in England was limited, the revolution was only secured in Ireland and Scotland by force and with much loss of life.

Moreover, the British causes of the revolution were as much religious as political. Indeed, the immediate constitutional impact of the revolution settlement was minimal. Nonetheless, over the course of the reign of William III (1689-1702) society underwent significant and long-lasting changes.

To understand why James II's most powerful subjects eventually rose up in revolt against him we need to understand the deep-seated fear of 'popery' in Stuart England.

'Popery' meant more than just a fear or hatred of Catholics and the Catholic church. It reflected a widely-held belief in an elaborate conspiracy theory, that Catholics were actively plotting the overthrow of church and state.

In their place would be established a Catholic tyranny, with England becoming merely a satellite state, under the control of an all-powerful Catholic monarch, (in the era of the Glorious Revolution, identified with Louis XIV of France). This conspiracy theory was given credibility by the existence of some genuine catholic subterfuge, most notably the Gunpowder Plot of 1605.

A new crisis of 'popery and arbitrary government' erupted in the late 1670s.

Public anxieties were raised by the issue of the royal succession. Charles II fathered no legitimate offspring. This meant that the crown would pass to his brother, James, Duke of York, whose conversion to Catholicism had become public knowledge in 1673.

Public concern about the succession reached fever pitch in the years 1678-1681. The so-called 'exclusion crisis' was

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provoked by allegations made by Titus Oates, a former Jesuit novice, of a popish plot to assassinate Charles II and place his brother on the throne. The fantastical plot was given credibility by the mysterious death of Sir Edmund Bury Godfrey, the magistrate who first investigated Oates' claims.

Whig politicians within parliament, led by the earl of Shaftesbury, promoted exclusion bills which would have prevented James from succeeding to the throne.

But the radical tactics deployed by the king's opponents, including mass petitions and demonstrations, gradually alienated some initial supporters of exclusion.

Charles's hand was strengthened further by an agreement with France reached in March 1681, by which the king received £385,000 over three years.

With this financial support, and with public opinion turning against his critics, Charles was able to dissolve parliament on 28 March 1681.

REBELLION AND REVOLT

James II's authority appeared to be secure when he succeeded to the throne in February 1685.

The king's initial promises to defend the existing government in church and state reassured many of those worried by his personal faith.

James was well-off financially, with a tax revenue over £1,200,000. The manipulation of borough charters in the last years of Charles II's reign ensured that James' first parliament was dominated by loyal Tories.

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Parliament also voted James considerable emergency sums to suppress the rebellion raised by Charles II's eldest illegitimate son, the duke of Monmouth in June 1685. James' army of professional soldiers easily crushed the 3,000 to 4,000 rebels who joined Monmouth's cause.

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Initial support for the king ebbed away as it became clear that he wished to secure not only freedom of worship for Catholics, but also the removal of the Test and Corporation Acts so that they could occupy public office.

Unease at the king's appointment of Catholic officers to the army forced him to prorogue parliament on 20 November 1685.

James then attempted to secure his religious objectives through the use of his prerogative powers. The test case of *Godden v Hales* (1686) established James' right to suspend the provisions of the Test Acts, thereby allowing the king to appoint a number of Catholic peers to his Privy Council.

In April 1687, James issued a declaration of indulgence, suspending penal laws against Catholics and granting toleration to some Protestant dissenters.

In the summer of 1687, James formally dissolved his parliament and began canvassing officials across the country regarding their support for the formal repeal of the Test Acts. The information was used to begin a purge of corporations, aimed at producing a pliable parliament which would agree to the king's wishes.

These measures met with increasing opposition from the Anglican-Tory establishment.

In July, members of Magdalen College, Oxford were stripped of their fellowships for refusing to appoint the king's choice, Samuel Parker, a bishop who supported the repeal of the Test Acts, as their college president.

In May of 1688, seven leading bishops, including William Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, refused to follow the order to read the king's second declaration of indulgence from their

pulpits. James responded by having them arrested for seditious libel and taken to the Tower of London. Their acquittal at trial was met with widespread public rejoicing.

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THE BRITISH CONSTITUTIONAL MONARCHY

The British Parliamentary Monarchy was the consequence of the Glorious Revolution of 1688, and was enshrined in the Bill of Rights of 1689. Whereby William and Mary in accepting the throne, had to consent to govern 'according to the statutes in parliament on.

A monarch does not have to curry favor for votes from any section of the community.

A monarch is almost invariably more popular than an Executive President, who can be elected by less than 50% of the electorate and may therefore represent less than half the people. In the 1995 French presidential election the future President Chirac was not the nation's choice in the first round of voting. In Britain, governments are formed on the basis of parliamentary seats won. In the 1992 General Election the Conservative Prime Minister took the office with only 43% of votes cast in England, Scotland and Wales. The Queen however, as hereditary Head of State, remains the representative of the whole nation.

Elected presidents are concerned more with their own political futures and power, and as we have seen may use their temporary tenure to enrich themselves. Monarchs are not subject to the influences which corrupt short-term presidents. A monarch looks back on centuries of history and forward to the well being of the entire nation under his/her heir. Elected presidents in their nature devote much energy to undoing the

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achievements of their forebears in order to strengthen the position of their successors.

A long-reigning monarch can put enormous experience at the disposal of transient political leaders. Since succeeding her father in 1952 Queen Elizabeth has had a number of Prime Ministers, the latest of whom were not even in Parliament at the time of her accession. An experienced monarch can act as a

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brake on over ambitious or misguided politicians, and encourage others who are less confident. The reality is often the converse of the theory: the monarch is frequently the Prime Minister's best adviser.

Monarchs, particularly those in Europe are part of an extended Royal Family, facilitating links between their nations. As Burke observed, nations touch at their summits. A recent example of this was the attendance of so many members of Royal Families at the 50th birthday celebrations for Sweden's King Carl XVI Gustav. Swedish newspapers reported that this was a much better indication of their closeness to the rest of Europe than any number of treaties, protocols or directives from the European Union.

A monarch is trained from Birth for the position of Head of State and even where, as after the abdication of Edward VIII, a younger brother succeeds, he too has enormous experience of his country, its people and its government. The people know who will succeed, and this certainly gives a nation invaluable continuity and stability. This also explains why it is rare for an unsuitable person to become King. There are no expensive elections as in the US where, as one pro-Monarchist American says, "we have to elect a new Royal Family every four years." In the French system the President may be a member of one party, while the Prime Minister is from another, which only leads to confused government. In a monarchy there is no such confusion, for the monarch does not rule in conflict with government but reigns over the whole nation.

A monarch and members of a Royal Family can become involved in a wide range of issues which are forbidden to politicians. All parties have vested interests which they cannot ignore. Vernon Bogdanor says in "The Monarchy and the Constitution" – "A politician must inevitably be a spokesperson for only part of the nation, not the whole. A politician's motives will always be suspected. Members of the

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Royal Family, by contrast, because of their symbolic position, are able to speak to a much wider constituency than can be commanded by even the most popular political leader." In a Republic, then, who is there to speak out on issues where the 'here today, gone tomorrow' government is constrained from criticizing its backers, even though such criticism is in the national interest.

All nations are made up of families, and it's natural that a family should be at a nation's head.

While the question of Divine Right is now obsolescent, the fact that "there's such divinity doth hedge a King" remains true, and it is interesting to note that even today Kings are able to play a role in the spiritual life of a nation which presidents seem unable to fulfill.

SECTION RECAP

- *Who is the head of state in the UK?*
- *Who is the head of the government in the UK?*
- *What is the British Parliament called?*
- *How many Houses does it consist of?*
- *Which House represents the people of Britain?*
- *How often do British people vote for MPs?*
- *What are the members of the House of Commons called?*
- *Was the Glorious Revolution really a revolution?*
- *How was the king's power limited as a result of the Glorious Revolution?*

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● *Why did Scotland agree to the union with England? In what year was the union officially completed? What was the new official name of the united state?*

DISCUSSION POINTS

● *What differences are there between Parliament and the Government?*

● *List the differences and similarities between the UK parliamentary system and that of Azerbaijan.*

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● *Which members of the Royal family are best known in Azerbaijan? Why?*

● *What do you see as advantages and disadvantages of having a monarch?*

● *What political issues are important in Azerbaijan? Which parties are for and against them?*

● *How did the authority of the British Monarch decline since the Glorious Revolution?*

● *What is the role of the English monarch in today's world affairs?*

UNIT V



The 18th Century – of Wealth, Technological Revolution and Power



THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION THE ORIGINS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN ENGL AND

The Industrial Revolution of the late 18th and early 19th centuries was revolutionary because it changed - revolutionized - the productive capacity of England, Europe and the United States. But the revolution was something more than just new machines, smoke-belching factories, increased productivity and an increased standard of living. It was a revolution which transformed English, European, and American society down to its very roots. Like the Reformation or the French Revolution, no one was left unaffected. Everyone was touched in one way or another - peasant and noble, parent and child, artisan and captain of industry. The Industrial Revolution serves as a key to the origins of modern Western society. As Harold Perkin has observed, "the Industrial Revolution was no mere sequence of changes in industrial techniques and production, but a social revolution with social causes as well as profound social effects" . The Industrial Revolution can be said to have made the European working-class. It made the European middle-class as well. In the wake of the Revolution, new social relationships appeared. As **Ben Franklin** once said, "time is money." Man no longer treated men as men, but as a commodity which could be bought and sold on the open market. There is no denying the fact that the Industrial Revolution began in England sometime after the middle of the

18th century. England was the "First Industrial Nation." As one economic historian commented in the 1960s, it was England which first executed "the takeoff into self-sustained growth." And by 1850, England had become an economic titan. Its goal was to supply two-thirds of the globe with cotton spun, dyed, and woven in the industrial centers of northern England. England proudly proclaimed itself

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to be the "Workshop of the World," a position that country held until the end of the 19th century when Germany, Japan and the United States overtook it.

More than the greatest gains of the Renaissance, the Reformation, Scientific Revolution or Enlightenment, the Industrial Revolution implied that man now had not only the opportunity and the knowledge but the physical means to completely subdue nature. No other revolution in modern times can be said to have accomplished so much in so little time. The Industrial Revolution attempted to effect man's mastery over nature. This was an old vision, a vision with a history. In the 17th century, the English statesman and "Father of Modern Science, **Francis Bacon** (1561-1626), believed that natural philosophy could be applied to the solution of practical problems, and so, the idea of modern technology was born. For Bacon, the problem was this: how could man enjoy perfect freedom if he had to constantly labor to supply the necessities of existence? His answer was clear machines. These labor saving devices would liberate mankind, they would save labor which then could be utilized elsewhere. "Knowledge is power," said Bacon, and scientific knowledge reveals power over nature.

Engines and machines, the glorious products of science began to revolutionize the idea of progress itself. If a simple machine can do the work of twenty men in a quarter of the time formerly required, then could the New Jerusalem be far behind?

When you view the Industrial Revolution alongside the democratic revolutions of 1776 and 1789, we cannot help but be struck by the optimism so generated. Heaven on Earth seemed reality and no one was untouched by the prospects. But, as we will soon see, while the Industrial Revolution brought its blessings, there was also much misery. Revolutions, political or otherwise, are always mixed blessings. If we can thank the Industrial Revolution for giving us fluoride, internal combustion engines, and laser guided radial arm saws, we can also damn it for the effect it has had on social relationships. We

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live in the legacy of the Industrial Revolution, the legacy of the "cash nexus," as the mid-19th century Scottish critic **Thomas Carlyle** (1795-1881) put it, where the only connection between men is the one of money, profit and gain.

TECHNICAL INVENTIONS

Historians are now agreed that beginning in the 17th century and continuing throughout the 18th century, England witnessed an agricultural revolution. English farmers were the most productive farmers of the century and were continually adopting new methods of farming and experimenting with new types of vegetables and grains. They also learned a great deal about manure and other fertilizers. In other words, many English farmers were treating farming as a science, and all this interest eventually resulted in greater yields. The English farmer could move about his locale or the country to sell his goods while the French farmer was bound by direct and indirect taxes, tariffs or other kinds of restrictions. In 1700, 80% of the population of England earned its income from the land. A century later, that figure had dropped to 40%.

The result of these developments taken together was a period of high productivity and low food prices. And this, in

turn, meant that the typical English family did not have to spend almost everything it earned on bread (as was the case in France before 1789), and instead could purchase manufactured goods.

England's agricultural revolution came as a result of increased attention to fertilizers, the adoption of new crops and farming technologies, and the enclosure movement. **Jethro Tull** (1674-1741) invented a horse-drawn hoe as well as a mechanical seeder which allowed seeds to be planted in orderly rows. A contemporary of Tull, **Charles "Turnip" Townshend** (1674-1738), stressed the value of turnips and other field crops in a rotation system of planting rather than letting the land lay fallow. **Thomas William Coke** (1752-1842) suggested the

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utilization of field grasses and new fertilizers as well as greater attention to estate management.

In order for these "high farmers" to make the most efficient use of the land, they had to manage the fields as they saw fit. This was, of course, impossible under the three field systems which had dominated English and European agriculture for centuries. Since farmers, small and large, held their property in long strips, they had to follow the same rules of cultivation. The local parish or village determined what ought to be planted. In the end, the open-field system of crop rotation was an obstacle to increased agricultural productivity. The solution was to enclose the land, and this meant enclosing entire villages. Landlords knew that the peasants would not give up their land voluntarily, so they appealed by petition to Parliament, a difficult and costly adventure at best. The first enclosure act was passed in 1710 but was not enforced until the 1750s. In the ten years between 1750 and 1760, more than 150 acts were passed and between 1800 and 1810, Parliament passed more than 900 acts of enclosure. While enclosure ultimately contributed to an increased agricultural surplus, necessary to feed a population that would double in the 18th century, it also brought disaster to the countryside. Peasant farmers were

dispossessed of their land and were now forced to find work in the factories which began springing up in towns and cities.

There was a constant shortage of thread so the industry began to focus on ways to improve the spinning of cotton. The first solution to this bottleneck appeared around 1765 when **James Hargreaves** (1720-1778), a carpenter by trade, invented his cotton-spinning jenny. At almost the same time, **Richard Arkwright** (1732-1792) invented another kind of spinning device, the water frame. Thanks to these two innovations, ten times as much cotton yarn had been manufactured in 1790 than had been possible just twenty years earlier. Hargreaves' jenny was simple, inexpensive and hand-operated. The jenny had between six and twenty-four spindles mounted on a sliding

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carriage. The spinner (almost always a woman) moved the carriage back and forth with one hand and turned a wheel to supply power with the other. Of course, now that one bottleneck had been relieved, another appeared - the weaver (usually a man) could no longer keep up with the supply of yarn. Arkwright's water frame was based on a different principle. It acquired a capacity of several hundred spindles and demanded more power - water power. The water frame required large, specialized mills employing hundreds of workers. The first consequence of these developments was that cotton goods became much cheaper and were bought by all social classes. Cotton is the miracle fiber -it is easy to clean, spin, weave and dye and is comfortable to wear. Now millions of people who had worn nothing under their coarse clothes could afford to wear cotton undergarments.

Although the spinning jenny and water frame managed to increase the productive capacity of the cotton industry, the real breakthrough came with developments in **steam power**. Developed in England by **Thomas Savery** (1698) and **Thomas Newcomen** (1705), these early steam engines were used to pump water from coal mines. In the 1760s, a Scottish engineer,

James Watt (1736-1819) created an engine that could pump water three times as quickly as the Newcomen engine. In 1782, Watt developed a rotary engine that could turn a shaft and drive machinery to power the machines to spin and weave cotton cloth. Because Watt's engine was fired by coal and not water, spinning factories could be located virtually anywhere.

Steam power also promoted important changes in other industries. The use of steam-driven bellows in blast furnaces helped iron makers switch over from charcoal (limited in quantity) to coke, which is made from coal, in the smelting of pig iron. In the 1780s, **Henry Cort** (1740-1800) developed the puddling furnace, which allowed pig iron to be refined in turn with coke. Skilled ironworkers ("puddlers") could "stir" molten pig iron in a large vat, raking off refined iron for further processing. Cort also developed steam-powered rolling mills,

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which were capable of producing finished iron in a variety of shapes and forms.

Aided by revolutions in agriculture, transportation, communications and technology, England was able to become the "first industrial nation." Although the industrial revolution was clearly an unplanned and spontaneous event, it never would have been "made" had there not been men who wanted such a thing to occur. There must have been men who saw opportunities not only for advances in technology, but also the profits those advances might create. Which brings us to one very crucial cultural attribute - the English, like the Dutch of the same period, were a very commercial people. They saw little problem with making money, nor with taking their surplus and reinvesting it.

The Industrial Revolution was a period in history when mankind found innovative and efficient ways of producing goods, manufacturing services and creating new methods of transportation. This not only revolutionized the way the market system functioned, but also changed the way people perceived

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their status in society and what they required as basic necessities. However, the price that humanity was forced to pay for the emergence of the Industrial Revolution greatly outweighed the rewards that it brought alongside its origin.

Prior to the Industrial Age, the Western European market operated on a simple "putting-out" system. The average producer was able to manufacture a product in the same area that he or she lived on and the demand for that product was usually set by a few local consumers. The process was easy and simple, provided that the product being created was always required by someone else. However, the invention of Machinery and all of its accompanying peripherals allowed producers to start manufacturing on a mass scale. With factories placed in central locations of the townships (known as centralization), the previous system was dismantled and categorized into steps. No longer would one person be required to build, market or transport their product since the new system introduced the art of specialization. Specialization allowed a person to perform a

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single task and guarantee them wages as a source of income. However, as wonderful as this might seem, this new system led to the emergence of a working class (proletariat) and forced them to depend on market conditions in order to survive as producers. Although seemingly content at first, those who became employed by these factories were immediately subjected to deplorable conditions. Arnold Toynbee made a scholarly assessment of this new wave of socio-economic behavior and concluded that the working class is suffering due to a series of hardships that make their lives miserable. He cited low wages, long hours, unsafe conditions, no provisions for old age, a discipline determined by machine and whole families being left with a low income rate as being a recurring problem that exploited the integrity and efficiency of Industrialization. This subsequently led to a period of "depersonalization" which

meant that the employer-employee relationship was deteriorating in exchange for this new system. No longer could a worker be friend his boss or maintain a stable friendship since the divisions between their market classes made this all most impossible. One relied on the other for subsistence and therefore this dependency gave the property owners an upper edge in terms of negotiating income and support. Since the proletariat owned nothing but his labor, his abuse was imminent at the hands of some ruthless bourgeoisie. Clearly, this revolution was not aiding all the citizenry of Western culture.

Since European man had found a way to increase the amount of products being manufactured, he also found a way to speed up the process through specialization and Urbanization. The growth of giant factories in Manchester, England skyrocketed from 77,000 in 1801 to 303,000 in 1850. People began leaving their countryside rural areas in exchange for an Urban life lead by the clock. The farm worker became the factory worker literally overnight in order to compete with these new market forces that had swept across Western Europe. T.S. Ashton, a prolific historian, saw this transition as being a positive force during the inauguration of the Industrial juggernaut. He believed that with Industrialization and

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Urbanization there existed a greater stability of consumption since a regularity in employment meant that goods were always being produced and transactions were ensuring that a greater proportion of the population was benefiting. He lauded the existence of a large class of workers since guaranteed lower prices because more people were well above the level of poverty. He was disgusted by the fact that the new working class was always at the mercy of their own employers and depended too much on the market.

In conclusion, the Industrial Revolution presented mankind with a miracle that changed the fabric of human behavior and social interaction. Eventually, it even influenced political

ideologies and spread across the four corners of the Earth. However, in its silent and seemingly innocent way, the majority of the population in Western Europe were struck by a disease that was invisible to those in power and too obvious to those in the lower classes. The exodus from nature and the simple country life into a cornucopia of bustling cities filled with polluted factories is evidence of the influence of Industrialization. An influence so profound that the benefits were buried behind an avalanche of pain, poverty and abuse.

THE EFFECTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Industrial Revolution was absolutely beneficial to the progress of the world from the 1800s all the way to present day. Sacrifices were made which allowed technological advancements during the Industrial Revolution, which in turn, created happiness, life opportunities, and an over-all, definite amelioration of life.

At the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, many hardships had to be overcome, causing great grief to most of the population. Faith was lost, patience was tried, and a blanket

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of oppression covered the people of Europe. When new inventions arose to facilitate the producing and mass-producing of goods that supplied the people of Europe, nearly everyone was forced to begin a new career within a factory. These are just some of the hardships that many loyal, hardworking citizens were faced with. The reverberations of these new inventions caused a dramatic plummet of the life expectancy of an average citizen to an alarming 15 years of age. Women and children were expected to work up to 16 hours a day and doing

labor that could cause serious injury, like carrying extremely heavy loads. For their work, they were paid ridiculous wages, women around 5 shillings per week, and children about 1. One can easily recognize the negative aspects of such a dramatic event. However, if one "steps back" to view the revolution as a whole, he will notice that the positive aspects completely outweigh the negative aspects. The job opportunities and price decrease definitely improved the lives of the people, giving them a chance to be a part of the society and be able to purchase products at a price that wasn't too bad.

Many lives changed outside work. There were many national benefits of this revolution. One very important thing was that there became many more goods available because of the mass-production. Due to this mass-producing, the goods also dropped in price, which considerably benefited those who were financially struggling. Along with the mass-producing came more employment opportunities, which allowed some of the less fortunate people to have a chance of getting a job. The increase of new ideas and inventions led to an increase of the quality of life. Medicinal products became more plentiful, transportation improved, and free education was available. People began to find themselves with more leisure time. Wages were increased, health benefits became available, and eventually, pension became available to those who retired. These are just some of the many aspects of the revolution that

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benefited the people as a nation, which made them happier, and made the government safer from rebellion.

There is still one more aspect of this revolution and that is the effects of it on present day. Without the inventions and changes that took place to form a more ideal society, we wouldn't be where we are today. Without labor laws and health benefits, the life expectancy of a human would drop at least 20 years. Our lives would not be integrated with the technology

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that helps us learn and grow such as computers, cars, and airplanes. Without the growth of industrialization, there would not be the need for any of these inventions, and we would all still be working on a farm. Some would say that they would rather live on a farm, but many can easily see how much better our lives are with the effects of the industrialization.

CHANGE IN URBAN SOCIETY

At the end of the 18th century a revolution in energy and industry began in England and spread rapidly all around Europe later in the 19th century, bringing about dramatic and radical change. A significant impact of the Industrial Revolution was that on urban society. The population of towns grew vastly because economic advantage entailed that the new factories and offices be situated in the cities. The outlook of the city and urban life in general were profoundly modified and altered. Modern industry created factory owners and capitalists who strengthened the wealth and size of the middle class. Beside the expansion of the bourgeoisie, the age of industrialization saw the emergence of a new urban the working class. The life of this new group and its relations with the middle class are controversial issues to modern history. Some believe that the Industrial Revolution "inevitably caused much human misery" and affliction. Other historians profess that Industrialization brought economic

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improvement for the laboring classes. Both conclusions should be qualified to a certain extent. By the end of the 19th century the appearance of European cities and life in them had evolved and change for the better. Industrialization was preceded and accompanied by rapid population growth, which began in Europe after 1720. People had serious difficulty providing their

subsistence by simply growing their food. There was widespread poverty and underemployment. Moreover, the need for workers in the city was huge.

More and more factories were opening their doors. The result of this was a vast migration from the countryside to the city where peasants were already being employed. "The number of people living in the cities of 20000 or more in England and Wales jumped from 1.5 million in 1801 to 6.3 million by 1891". With this mass exodus from the countryside, life in urban areas changed drastically. Overcrowding exacerbated by lack of sanitation and medical knowledge made life in the city quite hard and miserable. Lack of sanitation caused people to live in such filth and scum that is hard to imagine. The appalling living conditions in the city during the early stages of the Industrial Revolution brought about two important changes. By developing his famous germ theory of disease, Louis Pasteur brought about the so-called Bacterial Revolution and lead the road to taming the ferocity of the death in urban areas caused by unsanitary and overcrowded living conditions.

The theory that disease was inflicted by microorganisms completely revolutionized modern medicine and brought about the important health movement in the city. After 1870 sanitation was a priority on the agenda lists of city administration in most industrialized European countries. Urban planning and transportation after 1870 transformed European cities into beautiful and enchanting places. Water supply systems and waste disposals construction were accompanied by the building of boulevards, town halls, theaters, museums. The greatest

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innovation in this area at the time - the electric streetcar - immensely facilitated the expansion of the city and helped alleviate the problem of overcrowding.

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The appearance of the city and the quality of life in it greatly improved by the end of the 19th century. But, living conditions in the city during the Industrial Revolution were pretty bad, a factor that greatly contributed to the bad plight of the working class at that time. As urban civilization was starting to prevail over rural life, changes in the structure of the society and in family life became inevitable. Urban society became more diversified while the classes lost a great part of their unity. Economic specialization produced many new social groups. It created a vast range of jobs, skills and earnings, which intermingled with one another creating new subclasses. Thus the very rich and the very poor were separated by the vast space occupied by these new strata. Urban society resembled the society from the age of agriculture and aristocracy by one thing. The economic gap between rich and poor remained enormous and income distribution stayed highly unequal with one fifth of society receiving more than the remaining four fifths. With the emergence of the factory owners and industrial capitalists, the relations between the middle and the working class changed. The conditions of work were appalling. An excerpt from Parliamentary Papers in England named "Evidence Before the Sadler Committee", mirrors the quite dark side of life in the factories. In this testimony several people who worked at factories in different industries and towns in England draw a vivid picture of the factory reality.

Both children and grownups were made to work fourteen to sixteen hours a day with only an hour brake and a salary that was hardly intended to compensate the tremendous load of work. Children were "strapped" "severely" if they lagged and deteriorated their work. The sight of the workers reflected their sad plight. "Any man ...must acknowledge, that an uglier set of

men and women, of boys and girls, taking them in the mass it would be impossible to imagine... Miserable life and poverty

allowed people few recreational outlets and money to spend. Important factor in the degradation of morals that spread through urban society and the working classes in particular was the diminishing role that religion played in daily live.

Women's actively entering the labor force was a new development spurred by the Industrial Revolution. In the reindustrialize world women did leave home at an early age in search for work but their opportunities were limited. The service in another family's household was by far the most common. The employment of girls and women in factories had an important effect on their stereotypic role of household careers. It weaned them away from home and the domestic tasks. "Shut up from morning till night, except when they are sent home for their meals, these girls are ignorant of and unhandy at every domestic employment" ("Observations on the Loss of Woolen Spinning, 1794"). However, the plight of the urban working class changed as the growth of modern cities approached the end of the 19th century. The average real income raised substantially. The practice of employing children from an early age was abandoned. Less and less women were working in sweated industries. Instead men were the primary wage earners while women stayed at home taking care of the household and the children.

CHILDHOOD LABOUR

That the shameful practice of child labor should have played an important role in the Industrial Revolution from its outset is not to be wondered at. The displaced working classes, from the seventeenth century on, took it for granted that a family would not be able to support itself if the children were

not employed. The children of the poor were forced by economic conditions to work, with his family in debtor's prison, worked at age 12 in the Blacking Factory. In 1840 perhaps only twenty percent of the children of London had any schooling, a number which had risen by 1860, when perhaps half of the children between 5 and 15 were in some sort of school, if only a day school (of the sort in which Dickens's Pip finds himself in *Great Expectations*) or a Sunday school; the others were working. Many of the more fortunate found employment as apprentices to respectable trades (in the building trade workers put in 64 hours a week in summer and 52 in winter) or as general servants — there were over 120,000 domestic servants in London alone at mid-century, who worked 80 hour weeks for one halfpence per hour — but many more were not so lucky.

Many children worked 16 hours per day under atrocious conditions, as their elders did. Ineffective parliamentary acts to regulate the work of workhouse children in factories and cotton mills to 12 hours per day had been passed as early as 1802 and 1819. After radical agitation, notably in 1831, when "Short Time Committees" organized largely by Evangelicals began to demand a ten hour day, a royal commission established by the Whig government recommended in 1833 that children aged 11-18 be permitted to work a maximum of twelve hours per day; children 9-11 were allowed to work 8 hours per day, and children under 9 were no longer permitted to work at all (children as young as 3 had been put to work previously). This act applied only to the textile industry, where children were put to work at the age of 5, and not to a host of other industries and occupations. Iron and coal mines (where children, again, both boys and girls, began work at age 5, and generally died before they were 25), gas works, shipyards, construction, match factories, nail factories, and the business of chimney sweeping, for example (which Blake would use as an emblem of the

destruction of the innocent), where the exploitation of child labor was more extensive, was to be enforced in all of England by a total of four inspectors. After further radical agitation, another act in 1847 limited both adults and children to ten hours of work daily.

SECTION RECAP

- *What caused the Industrial Revolution?*
- *Where and how did the Industrial Revolution start?*
- *What happened during the Industrial Revolution?*
- *How did the Industrial Revolution change society?*
- *What were the effects of the Industrial Revolution?*
- *Why did the Industrial Revolution begin in England?*
- *Where did the Industrial Revolution spread?*
- *When did the Industrial Revolution end?*
- *What conditions led to the Industrial Revolution of the late eighteenth century?*
- *What were the advantages and disadvantages of the Industrial Revolution?*
- *What was the impact of Industrial Revolution for women?*
- *How has technology provided new sources of power?*
- *What changes in government occurred during the Industrial Revolution?*
- *What were the negative effects of the Industrial Revolution in Great Britain?*
- *What were the working conditions of the Industrial Revolution?*

● *How did the Industrial Revolution affect the textile industry?*

● *What machines caused the revolution?*

● *What is the historical significance of the Industrial Revolution?*

● *What were the inventions during Industrial Revolution in Britain?*

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● *What were living conditions like for the lower classes during the Industrial Revolution?*

● *Who were some inventors of the Industrial Revolution?*

● *What role did machines play in the Industrial Revolution?*

● *How much was paid to children during the Industrial Revolution?*

● *How did the Industrial Revolution affect cities and population distribution?*

● *What happened when more people came to work in factories during the Industrial Revolution?*

● *How was life before the Industrial Revolution different from life after it?*

● *How did daily life change as a result of the Industrial Revolution?*

DISCUSSION POINTS

● *Was the revolution in industry simply an issue of new machinery or mechanical innovation?*

● *Did young boys and girls work and live shoulder to shoulder for more than twelve hours a day?*

● *Was industrial capitalism nothing more than a clever system devised by clever capitalists to exploit the labor of ignorant workers?*

● *Was the revolution in industry the product of conscious planning or did it appear spontaneously?*

● *Is it true that the majority of people willing to work for lower salaries were immigrants and young children and women during the Industrial Revolution?*

● *How and why did Britain extend its influence around the world during the Industrial Revolution?*

● *How did the Industrial Revolution change the way of living?*

● *Can you describe the labor force during the Industrial Revolution?*

UNIT VI

The 20th Century of Britain



the death or retirement. Parliamentary elections are held every 5 years and it is the Prime Minister who decides on

Britain is a constitutional monarchy, without a written constitution. The British constitution is based on Acts of Parliament (also called “laws” or “statutes”) and “conventions”, which are commonly accepted assumptions about the way things should be done. The country has a monarch (a king or queen) as its Head of State. The monarch has very little power and can only reign with the support of parliament.

The British Parliament consists of the House of Lords and the House of Commons and the Queen as its head. The House of Commons plays the major role in law-making. It consists of Members of Parliament (called MPs for short). Each of them represents an area in England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland. MPs are elected either at a general election or at a by-election

the exact day of the election. The minimum voting age is 18. And the voting is taken by secret ballot. The election campaign lasts about 3 weeks.

The British parliamentary system depends on political parties. The party which wins the majority of seats forms the government and its leader usually becomes Prime Minister. The Prime Minister chooses about 20 MPs from his party to

become the cabinet of ministers. Each minister is responsible



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The House of Commons is made up of six hundred and fifty elected members, it is presided over by the speaker, a member acceptable to the whole house. MPs sit on two sides of the hall, one side for the governing party and the other for the opposition.

The first 2 rows of seats are occupied by the leading members of both parties (called "front benches") The back benches belong to the rank-and-file MPs. Each session of the House of Commons lasts for 160-175 days. Parliament has intervals during its work. MPs are paid for their parliamentary work and have to attend the sittings. As mentioned above, the House of Commons plays the major role in law making. The procedure is the following: a proposed law ("a bill") has to go through three stages in order to become an act of parliament, these are called "readings". The first reading is a formality and is simply the publication of the proposal. The second reading involves debate on the principles of the bill, it is examination by parliamentary committee. And the third reading is a report stage, when the work of the committee is reported on to the house. This is usually the most important stage in the process. When the bill passes through the House of Commons, it is sent to the House of Lords for discussion, when the Lords agree it, the bill is taken to the Queen for royal assent, when the Queen signs the bill, it becomes act of the Parliament and the Law of the Land. The House of Lords has more than 1000 members,

for a particular area in the government. The second largest party becomes the official opposition with its own leader and "shadow cabinet". The leader of the opposition is a recognized post in the House of Commons. The parliament and the monarch have different roles in the government and they only meet together on symbolic occasions, such as coronation of a new monarch or the opening of the parliament. In reality, the House of Commons is the one of three which has true power.

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although only about 250 take an active part in the work in the house. Members of this Upper House are not elected, they sit there because of their rank, the chairman of the House of Lords is the Lord Chancellor. And he sits on a special seat, called "Wool Sack" The members of the House of Lords debate the bill after it has been passed by the House of Commons. Some changes may be recommended and the agreement between the two houses is reached by negotiations.

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PRIME

MINISTER

The Prime Minister of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is the political leader of the United Kingdom and the Head of Her Majesty's Government. The Prime Minister and Cabinet (consisting of all the most senior ministers, who are government department heads) are collectively accountable for their policies and actions to the Sovereign, to Parliament, to their political party, and ultimately to the electorate.

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The position of Prime Minister was not created; it has evolved slowly and erratically over three hundred years. Its origins are found in constitutional changes that occurred during the Revolutionary Settlement (1688–1720) and the resulting shift of political power from the Sovereign to Parliament. Early Prime Ministers (1720–1784) were at best ambivalent about that description; many refused to acknowledge or use the title. The position was given little formal recognition and was not mentioned in legal documents. Between 1784 and 1911, numerous accidents of history and political developments led to unofficial but popular acceptance of the office. By the 1830s, the Prime Minister became "first among equals" in the Cabinet and Head of Her Majesty's Government. By the turn of the 20th century, the modern Premiership had emerged; it had become the pre-eminent position in the constitutional hierarchy, Parliament and Cabinet. Early in the century, legislation marginalized the influence of the House of Lords in the law-making process and indirectly enhanced the Prime Minister's power, giving rise to concerns that the office had become too "presidential". Recent acts and political changes placed some limits on the Premier's authority.

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Authority

As the "Head of Her Majesty's Government", the modern Prime Minister is the highest political authority in the United Kingdom: he leads a major political party, generally commands a majority in the House of Commons (the lower house of the Legislature), and is the leader of the Cabinet (the Executive). As such, the incumbent wields both legislative and executive powers. In the House of Commons, the Prime Minister guides the law-making process with the goal of enacting the legislative agenda of the political party he leads. In his executive capacity,

the Prime Minister appoints (and may dismiss) all other cabinet members and ministers, and coordinates the policies and activities of all government departments, and the staff of the Civil Service. He acts as the public "face" and "voice" of Her Majesty's Government, both at home and abroad. Solely upon the advice of the Prime Minister, the Sovereign exercises many of her statutory and prerogative powers: they include the dissolution of Parliament; high judicial, political, official and Church of England ecclesiastical appointments; and the conferral of peerages, knighthoods, decorations and other honours.

CABINET OF MINISTERS

The modern Prime Minister is also the leader of the Cabinet. A convention of the constitution, the modern Cabinet is a group of ministers — usually 22 — who formulate policies. As the political heads of government departments, Cabinet Ministers ensure that policies are carried out by permanent civil servants. Although the modern Prime Minister selects Ministers, appointment still rests with the Sovereign. With the Prime Minister as its leader, the Cabinet forms the executive branch of government.

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The term "Cabinet" first appears after the Revolutionary Settlement to describe those ministers who conferred privately with the Sovereign. The growth of the Cabinet met with widespread complaint and opposition because its meetings were often held in secret and it excluded the ancient Privy Council from the Sovereign's circle of advisers, reducing it to an honorary body. The early Cabinet included the Treasurer and other department heads who sat on the Treasury bench as it does today. However, it might also include individuals who

were not members of Parliament such as household officers (i.e. the Master of the Horse) and members of the royal family. The exclusion of non-members of Parliament from the Cabinet was essential to the development of ministerial accountability and responsibility.

Both William and Anne appointed and dismissed Cabinet members, attended meetings, made decisions, and followed up on actions. Relieving the Sovereign of these responsibilities and gaining control over the Cabinet's composition was an essential part of evolution of the Premiership.

This process began after the Hanoverian Succession. Although George I (1714–1727) attended Cabinet meetings at first, after 1717 he withdrew because he did not speak English and was bored with the discussions. George II (1727–1760) occasionally presided at Cabinet meetings but his grandson, George III (1760–1820), is known to have attended only two during his 60 year reign. Thus, the convention that Sovereigns do not attend Cabinet meetings was established primarily through royal indifference to the everyday tasks of governance. The Prime Minister became responsible for calling meetings, presiding, taking notes, and reporting to the Sovereign. These simple executive tasks naturally gave the Prime Minister ascendancy over his Cabinet colleagues.

EMERGENCE OF CABINET

Despite the reluctance to legally recognize the Premiership, ambivalence toward it waned in the 1780s. As noted previously, George III (1760–1820) is known to have attended only two Cabinet meetings. However, during the first twenty years of his reign, he tried to be his own "prime minister" by controlling policy from outside the Cabinet, appointing and dismissing

ministers, meeting privately with individual ministers, and giving them instructions. These practices caused confusion and dissension in Cabinet meetings, especially during the dysfunctional ministries of the Earl of Chatham from 1766–1768 and of the Duke of Grafton from 1768–1770 when no one, not even the King, seemed to be in charge.

After the failure of Lord North's ministry (1770–1782) in March 1782 due to Britain's defeat in the American Revolutionary War and the ensuing vote of no confidence by Parliament, the Marquess of Rockingham reasserted the Prime Minister's control over the Cabinet. Rockingham assumed the Premiership "on the distinct understanding that measures were to be changed as well as men; and that the measures for which the new ministry required the royal consent were the measures which they, while in opposition, had advocated." He and his Cabinet were united in their policies and would stand or fall together; they also refused to accept anyone in the Cabinet who did not agree. King George threatened to abdicate but in the end reluctantly agreed out of necessity: he had to have a government.

From this time, there was a growing acceptance of the position of Prime Minister and the title was more commonly used, if only unofficially. Associated initially with the Whigs, even the Tories started to accept it. Lord North, for example, who had said the office was "unknown to the constitution", reversed himself in 1783 when he said, "In this country some

one man or some body of men like a Cabinet should govern the whole and direct every measure." In 1803, William Pitt the Younger, also a Tory, suggested to a friend that "this person generally called the first minister" was an absolute necessity for a government to function, and expressed his belief that this person should be the minister in charge of the finances.

Pitt's 19 year ministry followed by Lord Liverpool's 15, led the Tory Party to accept the office of Prime Minister as a convention of the constitution.

The Tories' wholesale conversion started when Pitt was confirmed as Prime Minister in the election of 1784. For the next 17 years until 1801 (and again from 1804 to 1806), Pitt, the Tory, was Prime Minister in the same sense that Walpole, the Whig, had been earlier.

Their conversion was reinforced after 1810. In that year, George III, who had suffered periodically from mental instability, became permanently insane and spent the remaining 10 years of his life unable to discharge his duties. The Prince Regent was prevented from using the full powers of Kingship. The Regent became King George IV in 1820, but during his 10 year reign was indolent and frivolous. Consequently, for 20 years the throne was virtually vacant and Tory Cabinets led by Tory Prime Ministers filled the void, governing virtually on their own.

The Tories were in power for almost 50 years, except for a short Whig ministry from 1806 to 1807. Lord Liverpool was Prime Minister for 15 years; he and Pitt held the position for 34 years. Under their long, consistent leadership, Cabinet government became a convention of the constitution. Although subtle issues remained to be settled, the Cabinet system of government is essentially the same today as it was in 1830.

Under this form of government, called the Westminster System, the Sovereign is Head of State and titular head of Her Majesty's Government. She selects as her Prime Minister the person who is able to command a working majority in the

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House of Commons, and invites him to form a government. As the actual Head of Government, the Prime Minister selects his Cabinet, choosing its members from among those in Parliament who agree or generally agree with his intended policies. He then recommends them to the Sovereign who confirms his

selections by formally appointing them to their respective offices. Led by the Prime Minister, the Cabinet is collectively responsible for everything the government does. The Sovereign does not confer with its members privately about policy or attend its meetings. With respect to *actual* governance, the monarch has only three constitutional rights: to be kept informed, to advise, and to warn. In practice this means that the Sovereign reviews state papers and meets regularly with the Prime Minister, usually weekly, when she may advise and warn him regarding the proposed decisions and actions of Her Government.

LOYAL OPPOSITION

The modern British system includes not only a government formed by the majority party (or coalition of parties) in the House of Commons but also an organized and open opposition formed by those who are not members of the governing party. Called the Loyal Opposition (or "Her Majesty's Opposition"), they occupy the benches to the Speaker's left. Seated in the front, directly across from the ministers on the Treasury Bench, the leaders of the opposition form a "Shadow Government", complete with a salaried "Shadow Prime Minister", the Leader of the Opposition, ready to assume office if the government falls or loses the next election.

The Loyal Opposition occupy the benches to the Speaker's left. Seated in the front, the leaders of the opposition form a "Shadow Government", complete with a salaried "Shadow Prime Minister" ready to assume office if the government falls or loses the next election.

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Opposing the King's government was considered disloyal, even treasonous, at the end of the seventeenth century. During

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the eighteenth century, this idea waned and finally disappeared as the two party system developed. The expression "His Majesty's Opposition" was coined by John Cam Hob house, Lord Broughton. In 1826, Broughton, a Whig, announced in the Commons that he opposed the report of a Bill. As a joke, he said, "It was said to be very hard on His Majesty's ministers to raise objections to this proposition. For my part, I think it is much more hard on His Majesty's Opposition to compel them to take this course." The phrase caught on and has been used ever since. Sometimes translated as the "Loyal Opposition", it acknowledges the legitimate existence of the two party system, and describes an important constitutional concept: opposing the government is not treason; reasonable men can honestly oppose its policies and still be loyal to the Sovereign and the nation.

Informally recognized for over a century as a convention of the constitution, the position of Leader of the Opposition was given statutory recognition in 1937 by the Ministers of the Crown Act.

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS

The House of Commons is part of the legislative process of British Politics. The House of Commons currently has 647 MP's sitting in it and the Commons is seen as a cradle of democracy where even a government with a huge parliamentary majority can see that majority dwindle if party members vote against the government - as the 2004 tuition fee issue demonstrated. With the exception of by-elections, every MP in the Commons has to go before their constituents every 5 years. The principle function of the Commons is to scrutinise government bills and vote on them - therefore having a vital input in to how laws are made in this country.

Some would argue that one of the most important functions of the House of Commons is that it is the most important political forum in the country where, when in session, it can exchange views between spokes people for the Government and the opposition.

This idea of a political forum in theory is taken further in reality in that following a General Election, the choice of Government is a matter for the Commons in the senses that:

- the leader of the party with the greatest number of MPs (not necessarily the greatest number of votes) is expected to become Prime Minister.

- and that Prime Minister then chooses the political heads of the Government (the Cabinet and Ministers) from existing Commons Members of Parliament (though there are also about 25 out of about 120 chosen from the House of Lords). However, the most important Cabinet positions are given to serving MP's from the House of Commons.

This picture of the Commons as a direct broker of Governments is probably exaggerated. The choice is now largely determined by the electorate, so that the Government is really settled on election night and not a week or so later when Parliament actually assembles - unless perhaps no party wins an overall majority which has not occurred in British politics in modern times. The conflicting interpretations being presented here have been categorized as two different models:

- **the Westminster model** - power flows from the electorate to Parliament which chooses and controls the executive;

- or **the Whitehall model** - the electorate chooses the Government and Parliament is there to confirm that choice as an electoral college and then to serve Government and ensure it works effectively in accordance with its mandate. The role of MPs is on this view to facilitate and improve a government's programme by exploring and testing them but ultimately

approving them. In short, Parliament is a critical rather than governmental body.

This prime role is bolstered by the televising of Parliamentary proceedings which began in November 1989. However, television coverage is rather stunted and tends to be confined to short excerpts from Question Time. Major debates are, however, often broadcast by radio.

THE HOUSE OF LORDS

The **House of Lords** (also known as the **House of Peers** for ceremonial purposes) is the upper house of the Parliament of the United Kingdom and is also commonly referred to as "the **Lords**". Parliament comprises the Sovereign, the House of Commons (which is the lower house of Parliament and referred to as "the Commons"), and the Lords. Membership of the House of Lords was once a right of birth to hereditary peers, but following a series of reforms these now only form a portion of the membership. As of July 2009 the House of Lords has 740 members, 94 more than the 646 seat House of Commons. The House of Lords, like the House of Commons, assembles in the Palace of Westminster.

The full, formal title of the House of Lords is The Right Honourable the Lords Spiritual and Temporal of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland in Parliament assembled.

Each session of Parliament is usually opened in the House of Lords by the Queen (King), who is attended by heralds, officers of the Court and members of the Diplomatic Corps. The Commons are "summoned" to the Chamber by Black Rod (the Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod, whose title derives from the black staff with gold fittings which he carries on

formal occasions). The peers sit comfortably on their red leather benches as the MPs stand awkwardly huddled together

below the bar while the Queen reads the throne speech which outlines the Government's programme of legislation for the coming session.

Before the throne in the House of Lords, and dividing the benches, is the woolsack upon which the Lord Chancellor sits as Speaker of the House. By tradition, the woolsack was introduced in the reign of Edward III and it is recorded in the House of Lords muniments "that the judges shall sit upon woolsacks". The woolsack is now stuffed with wool from England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland and from the Commonwealth countries.

Members of the Government and their supporters sitting to the right of the throne, and those of the Opposition to the left. The bishops always sit on the Government side of the House. Cross-benches, set near the bar of the House, are for the use of peers who sit as Independents.

The House of Lords consists of the Lords "**Spiritual** and **Temporal**". The **Lords Spiritual** are the two archbishops (Canterbury and York) and twenty-four bishops of the Church of England. The **Lords Temporal** include peers by hereditary right, peers by virtue of their office (the Law Lords), and Life peers created under the Life Peerages Act: 1958. Peerages are created by the Sovereign; about half have been created since 1920. Peerages can also be renounced for life under the Peerages Act, 1963. In the full House of Lord) there are some 1,000 potential members, though the actual numbers are cut to above 700 working members by a voluntary process of "leave of absence".

When Cromwell's troopers crushed the King's men the House of Lords, which had backed the King in his dictator ship, was abolished – only to be restored when Charles II was

restored to the throne. Over the past two centuries of more modern times, there has been pressure for the House of Lords to be abolished or reformed.

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The Liberals, faced with a Lords veto of a Budget, had to pass the Parliament Act of 1912 restricting the House of Lords delaying powers on laws to two years. In 1949 this power to delay was reduced to one year. The Lords do not possess the power to reject a money bill.

Thus the House of Lords – a hangover from a past age with the principle of hereditary rule as its basis, stands for all that is backward and undemocratic in present-day society.

THE ELECTORAL SYSTEM IN BRITAIN

There are five types of elections in the United Kingdom: United Kingdom general elections, elections to devolved parliaments and assemblies, elections to the European Parliament, local elections and mayoral elections. Elections are held on Election Day, which is conventionally a Thursday. General elections do not have fixed dates, but must be called within five years of the opening of parliament following the last election. Other elections are held on fixed dates though in the case of the devolved assemblies and parliaments, early elections can occur in certain situations. Presently, six electoral systems are used: the single member plurality system (First Past the Post), the multi member plurality system, party list PR, the single transferable vote, the Additional Member System and the Supplementary Vote.

Voters in Britain elect members of the House of Commons, the more powerful lower house of the Westminster Parliament, for maximum terms of five years. Each one of the 659 electoral districts sends one member to the House of Commons after

being chosen on the basis of plurality. Candidates obtain their places on the ballot by being nominated by their party. Frequently the winner that is chosen to represent the constituency receives less than a majority of the votes but

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wins by plurality, and no runoffs are held to confirm the voters'. British voters have traditionally been motivated by party ideology when casting their vote, but some votes are cast for incumbents with favored personalities.

The mechanics of such an electoral system have generally supported the domination of Britain's parliament by two parties, allowing one party to form a governing majority on its own. Currently, the Labor party holds a majority of seats with the Conservatives in opposition. Historically speaking, though, at times party factions and regional interests have undermined the two-party system as well as the players that dominate it. In the early part of the twentieth century, the two-party system was dominated by the Conservatives and the Liberals (today known as the Liberal Democrats), though it was threatened by the Irish Nationalists. The 1920s saw a three-party system as the Liberals factionalized and the new Labor party solidly gained power, with the Labor party at times forming minority governments by entering coalitions with smaller parties. Since 1945, a two-party system has been maintained by the Conservative and Labor parties, with the Conservatives holding a majority for much of the twentieth century.

The plurality, single-member-district system in use effectively discards votes for third parties and frequently awards a majority of seats in the House of Commons to parties that win a mere plurality. In 1983, the Conservatives won 62% of the seats with only 42.4% of the popular vote, and Labor's 1997 "landslide" victory of 65% of the seats was achieved with 43.2% of the votes. In addition, the system can award seats in inverse proportions to the votes that are cast, depending on how

voting patterns are regionalized. In 1951, the Labor party got the most seats without getting the most votes, and in 1974 the Conservatives received the same advantage though Labor received more votes.

The party composition of the parliament based on election results in turn determines the composition of the executive

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cabinet, wherein the winner's advantage in governing is further amplified. The House of Commons chooses cabinet ministers from its own membership, and these choices are confirmed by a simple majority vote, so the majority party has no need to share executive power with the opposition. Since 1945, every cabinet has been composed of only members of the governing party. Britain's executive branch dominates policymaking and the proposal of legislation, so the electoral system allows one party exclusive control of the most powerful branch of government.

"Responsible government" is a positive feature of this concentration of power. This is the concept that voters can alone credit the majority party with the successes or failings of government and choose to maintain or eliminate their policies of government at the next election simply by voting against them. The presence of the opposition in parliament serves to remind the government of alternatives to policies being carried out, and the opposition provides the voters a clear choice

Despite the imbalance of power gained by the winning party, a sense of interparty cooperation is maintained. Ultimately, the consent of the parliament is required to pass laws that the single-party government proposes, and parliamentary rules require that the committees in each house that first consider proposed legislation be composed of members from the different parties in the same proportions as the numbers of seats they hold in parliament. Thus the party in opposition has the opportunity to participate in the consideration and revision of legislation before each house

votes on it. An especially interesting feature of cooperation is the informal convention for members of the opposition to abstain from voting when paired with ministers that, due to government business, must be absent from votes in the House of Commons.

Factionalism within parties is another phenomenon that helps prevent a single agenda from overwhelming the

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government at the expense of other interests. The Conservative party is thought of as especially flexible in its ideology, and two major camps within it are identified as neo-liberalism and the "one nation" stance. The Conservative government in 1994 and 1995 was divided on issues such as the European Union and fuel taxes and actually had trouble maintaining a working majority, only one of a few twentieth-century examples of the majority party struggling to maintain majority control. The Labor party exhibits left- and right-wing factions as well as a division between Old Labor and New Labor.

Eligibility

Anyone who is a citizen of the United Kingdom, the Republic of Ireland, or of a Commonwealth country, who is legally resident in the United Kingdom, and who is 18 or over on the date of the election is eligible to vote, provided they are on the electoral register, unless they are currently a member of the House of Lords, imprisoned for a criminal offence, declared mentally incapable of making a reasoned judgment, or have been convicted of corrupt or illegal practices in connection with an election within the previous five years. Members of the House of Lords may, however, vote in local and European Elections as well as elections to the Scottish Parliament and National Assembly for Wales. Voting is not compulsory. In addition, while British, Irish and Commonwealth citizens may register to vote in all elections, European Union nationals

resident in the United Kingdom may register to vote only in local, European, Scottish and Welsh elections.

In theory, members of the Royal Family who do not hold a peerage, including the Monarch, are eligible to vote, although in practice they do not exercise that right. Citizens of the United Kingdom who have moved abroad can register to vote as an overseas voter provided that they were registered in the United Kingdom within the previous 15 years. They would vote for the MP of the constituency in which they lived before they moved abroad. This is also applicable to people who were

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under 18 before they moved abroad; when they reach 18 they can vote. "Service voters"—including forces personnel, diplomats and other public servants resident overseas—are also eligible. Voters must appear on the electoral register in order to vote; they can now be added to the register until eleven working days before the election. The electoral register in 2000 listed 44,423,440 people registered to vote in the United Kingdom, of whom 36,994,211 were in England.

The right of Irish and Commonwealth citizens to vote is a legacy of the Representation of the People Act 1918, which limited the vote to British subjects. At that time, "British subjects" included the people of Ireland — then part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland — and all other parts of the British Empire. Though most of Ireland and the majority of the colonies became independent nations, their citizens have retained the right to vote if they live in the United Kingdom.

Party system

Traditionally, the United Kingdom effectively has had a two party system arising from the use of the First-Past-The-Post system for general and local elections. Before World War I, the United Kingdom had a true two-party system, the main parties being the Tories (which became the Conservative Party) and the

Whigs (which became the Liberal Party), though after Catholic Emancipation there was also a substantial Irish Parliamentary Party. After World War II, the dominant parties have been Conservative and Labour. No third party has come close to winning a parliamentary majority.

However, some have challenged the view that the United Kingdom still has a two party system, since the Liberal Democrats have won around 15%–25% of the votes in recent elections. The Liberal Democrats won 62 of the 646 seats in the House of Commons in the 2005 general election, and several nationalist (regional) groupings hold seats as well, leading some spectators to regard the Westminster parliament as a "two and a half" party system.

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Smaller parties receive many more votes (and seats) in the elections using a proportional system, which are the regional elections for the Scottish Parliament, Welsh Assembly, Northern Ireland Assembly and London Assembly, and the European Parliament elections. Regional parties, such as the Scottish National Party or Plaid Cymru receive many more votes than at general or local elections, and at European elections, the United Kingdom Independence Party and Green Party of England and Wales perform better. It can be argued that in these elections, there is a multi-party system.

It is relatively easy to stand for election as an independent candidate, although wins are very rare and usually involve special circumstances. Following the 2005 general election, there are three independent MPs, the highest number since 1945. To stand as a candidate in a particular constituency, a British citizen needs the signatures of 10 people registered to vote there, and pay a deposit of £500 (which is returned if he/she gains more than 5% of the vote in that seat).

Polling procedure

Votes can be cast either in person at a polling station, by post or by proxy.

Polling stations are usually open from 7am to 10pm on polling day. Voters receive a poll card from the returning officer at their local authority with details of their allocated polling place, although they are not required to show this or any other form of identification at the polling place in order to vote.

By post

Applications for postal ballots close at 5pm 11 working days before polling day - this is also the earliest time the returning officer can dispatch postal ballot packs. Voters can return their postal ballots together with postal voting statements filled in with their date of birth and signature either by post or by hand directly to the returning officer, or by hand to the presiding officer on polling day at a polling station situated

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within the constituency/ward printed on the postal ballot return envelope. However, for the postal ballot to be counted, the returning officer (or the presiding officer if returned at a polling station) must receive the ballot paper by the close of poll (usually 10pm on polling day).

By proxy

Any person who is eligible to vote can be appointed by a voter as his/her proxy. The proxy can either vote in person, or can apply for a postal proxy vote.

United Kingdom general elections are the elections held when the Members of Parliament (MPs) forming the House of Commons of the Parliament of the United Kingdom are elected. Following the Parliament Act 1911, parliamentary sessions last a maximum of five years, and are ended with the dissolution of Parliament. Therefore elections are not fixed, and the time is chosen by the governing party to maximise political advantage. The 2010 election was held on May 6, 2010.

Candidates aim to win particular geographic constituencies in the United Kingdom. Each constituency elects one MP by the first past the post system of election. At the 2005 general

election, there were 646 constituencies, thus 646 MPs were elected to Parliament. Boundary changes in Scotland reduced the number of MPs from 659 at the 2001 election to 646. The party with the most seats, i.e. the most MPs, usually forms the government, and the second largest party forms Her Majesty's Loyal Opposition. Almost all candidates are members of a political party and the majority of voters in the United Kingdom choose who to vote for based on the candidates' parties, rather than the personalities or opinions of the individual candidates.

Post-election

Polls close at 10 p.m. and the votes are, in most constituencies, counted immediately. The earliest results are declared by about 11 p.m., with most having been declared by 3 or 4 a.m.; some constituencies do not declare their results until the following day.

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When all of the results are known, or when one party achieves an absolute majority of the seats in the House of Commons, the first response comes from the current (and possibly outgoing) Prime Minister. If a majority in the new Parliament has been achieved by their party, they remain in office without the need for reconfirmation or reappointment—no new "term" of office is started. If a majority has not been achieved, and it is obvious that another party has the numbers to form a government, the Prime Minister submits a resignation to the Monarch. The Monarch then commissions the leader of the new majority party to form a new government. The Prime Minister has the option of attempting to remain in power even if seats have been lost. The subsequent *Queen's Speech* offers a chance for the House of Commons to cast a vote of confidence or no confidence in the government through accepting or rejecting the Queen's Speech.

By precedent, and by the absence of any formal written constitutional objection, the Monarch could dismiss the incumbent Prime Minister and seek to appoint a replacement.

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However, this has not occurred since the dismissal of Lord Melbourne in 1834, and would almost certainly trigger a crisis, similar to that experienced in the 1975 Australian constitutional crisis.

The most recent Prime Ministers who, having failed to win a majority, opted not to resign immediately are Edward Heath, in 1974 and Gordon Brown in 2010. In 1974, after initial negotiations with the Liberal Party failed to provide a coalition deal, Heath resigned, allowing Queen Elizabeth II to commission Labor leader Harold Wilson to form an administration. Until the Prime Minister reacts to the election result, either by deciding to remain on or resign, the Monarch has no role. Only if the Prime Minister resigns can the Monarch then commission someone else to form a government. Thus Margaret Thatcher, who was Prime Minister from 1979 to 1990, was only asked to form a government once. Similarly, Tony Blair was only ever commissioned to form a government

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once, in 1997. After each election, having remained in power, a Prime Minister may take the option to engage in a major or minor reshuffle of ministers, although such a reshuffle may occur at any time so wished by the PM.

The largest party not in government becomes the Official Opposition, known as *Her Majesty's Loyal Opposition*. Any smaller parties not in government are collectively known as "the opposition".

Any vacancies created in the House, due to death, ennoblement, or resignation are filled by by-election. The timeframe for these is not automatic and they can be months after the vacancy was created, or even abandoned if there is a pending general election.

POLITICAL PARTIES

There are many political parties in Britain but throughout the whole of England, there are three dominant political parties: Labour, Conservatives and Liberal Democrats. These are expanded on in the regions by the addition of the Scottish National Party in Scotland, Plaid Cymru in Wales and the various Unionist parties and Sein Fein of Northern Ireland.

In terms of electoral success, Britain has frequently been referred to as a two-party state; similar to America. In terms of pure definition, Britain is a classic multi-party state in which just a handful of parties have any political/electoral significance due to the electoral system we have of '**first past the post**' in an election. During the era of Thatcher and Major, such was the dominance of the Tories up to the 1997 election, that the era 1979 to 1997 could be referred to as an era of one party dominance. The same appears to be true of Britain 1997 to 2002 with the Labour Party in a position of total dominance in Parliament after their victory in 2001.

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THE FUNCTION OF POLITICAL PARTIES

In 1997, the Liberal Democrats led by Paddy Ashdown, stated in the run-up to the election, that they, if elected, would put 1p on income tax to fund education. All political analysts decided that this was an honest statement but political folly as no-one was going to vote in a party - however laudable its policies - if they meant that their own income tax would increase, even if they did support a policy of more money going into state education.

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Any imposed "Green Tax" to fund a clean-up of the environment would also certainly meet with the same response. Everybody wants a cleaner environment but no individual wants to see his/her income decreased to assist in the financing of it. Only if the party analysts and researchers have got their information correct, and their findings show that people would be willing to do this, would there be a chance that this would become an electoral issue.

A political party must also select its leader with the death, retirement etc of its incumbent leader. A potential party leader should be charismatic, good at public speaking, have the powers of persuasion, the energy for public campaigning and above all the respect of his/her party.

While the Liberal Democrats and Labor used the traditional method of voting for a new leader - by a simple vote among MP's - the Tories have for the 2001 leadership contest introduced a vote for its 330,000 party members to give the system a greater air of democracy.

The system in the Labor Party is rather more convoluted with the involvement of the unions and party members etc. The recent reforms leading to "one person one vote" changed this system but it does claim to be fairer as it includes all those who have a vested interest in the party and who have a right to vote

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on such matters rather than leaving it to just a handful of MP's representing the party in Parliament.

At a local and regional level, parties also 'introduce' selected candidates to politics. Local parties are vital in identifying potential talent within their ranks. All Cabinet members and Prime Ministers in recent years had to start their political career at a local level and the input of local parties is vital to the strength of the party at a national level. In one sense, the local party is the breeding ground for potential party leaders.

A party in power requires the support of the people it governs. Without this most basic requirement, a government will find it hard to function effectively. The Poll Tax rebellion under Margaret Thatcher showed what could happen when a government misreads public desires. The fuel crisis in 2000 also showed the power the public has though its impact at the 2001 election appeared to be minimal in terms of support for the Labor Party. Through all of this, certain conventions are held by all parties in Britain :

If a party loses an election, it will confirm the right of the victorious party to exercise power. It will not deny its right to govern. Parliament remains at the centre of the political system in Britain (though recognizing the importance of the devolved bodies of Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland) and MP's generally work to uphold its traditions and procedures. Parliament recognizes the status of the monarch as head of state. If the nation is threatened with a national crisis, traditional political rivalry is suspended and all parties work together in the interest of national unity.

One of the roles played by parties in the political system of Britain is that of organizing political activities. Various institutions are unlikely to operate without this input from the parties.

One of the key areas in which parties operate is that of the formulation of policy programmes. If a party is elected to

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power after a general election, it must have policies ready on the very same day that it officially takes over the country. A failure to do so would be a failure to govern. In the run-up to an election, a party clearly states its manifesto. Probably at no time in history are these manifestos so readily available with the growth of the Internet.

Therefore, no-one in the Civil Service can claim to be lacking in knowledge of potential government policies. A newly elected government should have direction, shape and

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organization almost from the start of its time in office. Those who need to know about these policies will do so.

Parties also recruit candidates for elections. It would not be feasible for a party leader to know about every potential candidate at constituency level. This process of selection has to come from each constituency party office. It is their responsibility to the party to ensure that each candidate is able and has an appeal to the electorate of that constituency. In this sense, the future of the party as a whole is dependent on the constituency hierarchy selecting people of ability who might rise up through the ranks of the party if elected.

At a local level, parties are of vital importance during an election. Local party supporters are crucial in getting out and encouraging people to actually vote. Without these people in a party, they would have little hope of electoral success especially in an era which seems to indicate that fewer and fewer people are voting in elections of all sorts. The involvement of such people is vital for a party but it is also a major part of ensuring that an election is run successfully and fairly - an important component of a democracy.

Parliamentary committees are also part of the party machine. It is these committees that scrutinize potential government legislation or actions. These committees need able and broad minded members. The selection process of parties for an election or potential candidates for Parliament is implicit in this process and goes back to the role played by parties at a local level. In this sense, parties organize the business of Parliament.

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SECTION RECAP

• *Who is the constitutional monarch of Great Britain now? What is the relationship between the Queen and the Parliament in Britain?*

• *Who may be a member of the House of Commons? Is the Prime Minister elected? If so, what House of Parliament is the Prime Minister elected to?*

• *How is the Cabinet of the Prime Minister formed? What is it responsible for?*

• *What do you know about the House of Lords? Who is head of the judiciary in England and Wales? Who approves Bills before they become Acts of Parliament?*

• *Which of these people are not elected: a peer, MP, a civil servant, the Prime Minister?*

• *What is the difference between the constitutions of the UK and the Azerbaijan Republic?*

• *Which of the two Houses of Parliament has more power?*

• *Which are the two largest political parties?*

• *How is the date of a British general election decided?*

DISCUSSION POINTS

• *Do you like the way how Great Britain is governed? What do you think about the British Parliament? Do you see any drawbacks in the British political system? What are they?*

• *What do you think of the fact that the British use two languages? Does it prevent them from being independent? Would it be better for them to use only one native language? What is your opinion?*

• *What does the local government deal with? What gives powers to local authorities? What two tiers of local authorities are there in Britain?*

UNIT VII

The 21st Century of Britain Britain Today

As for the national emblems of Great Britain they are very unusual and surprising. Everybody knows about the War of the Roses (1455-1485), which was led between the two contending Houses for the English throne. The emblem of one of them, the Lancastrians, was the red rose, and the emblem of the Yorkists was the white rose. Since the end of this war the red rose has been the national emblem of England.

► The flag of the United Kingdom is the Union Flag. This red, white and blue British flag was first used in 1801. The Union Jack is a combination of the flags of England (the cross of St. George), Scotland (the cross of St. Andrew), and Ireland (the cross of St. Patrick). Wales is not represented in the Union Flag as

formation of the United Kingdom. However, the possibility of redesigning the Union Flag to include representation of Wales has not been completely ruled out.

The national anthem of the United Kingdom is "God Save the King", with "King" replaced with "Queen" in the lyrics whenever the monarch is a woman. The anthem's name remains "God Save the King".

► Britannia is a national personification of the United Kingdom, originating from Roman Britain. Britannia is symbolized as a young woman with brown or golden hair,



Wales had been conquered and annexed to England prior to the wearing a Corinthian helmet and white

robes. She holds



Poseidon's three-pronged trident and a shield, bearing the

Union Flag. Sometimes she is depicted as riding the back of a lion. At and since the height of the British Empire, Britannia has often associated with maritime dominance, as in the patriotic song Rule, Britannia!. The lion symbol is depicted behind Britannia on the British fifty pence coin and one is shown crowned on the back of the British ten pence coin. It is also used as a symbol on the non-ceremonial flag of the British Army.

AN OUTLINE OF GEOGRAPHY AND NATURE OF GREAT BRITAIN

The British Isles lying to the north-west of Europe include two large islands — Great Britain and Ireland and a great number of small islands.

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland consists of the Island of Great Britain and the northern part of the Island of Ireland and a number of small islands such as the Orkney and the Shetland Islands in the north, the Hebrides in the north-west, the Isle of Wight in the south, and many others.

The Island of Great Britain is divided into three parts England, Wales and Scotland. England and Wales form the southern part of the island and Scotland occupies its northern part. Their capitals are London, Cardiff and Edinburgh. The capital of Northern Ireland is Belfast.

From the west the British Isles are washed by the Atlantic Ocean, from the east by the North Sea and the southern coast is washed by the English Channel. The Irish Sea lies between England and Ireland.

Great Britain is separated from the continent by the North Sea and the English Channel, which in its narrowest part, the Strait of Dover, is only 32 kilometers wide.

Great Britain has a very good geographical position, as it lies on the crossways of the sea routes from Europe to other parts of the world. The sea connects Britain with most European countries such as Belgium, Holland, Denmark, Norway, Russia and some other countries. The main sea route from Europe to America also passes through the English Channel.

The scenery of Great Britain is varied. One can find here low-lying land, hilly areas, flat fields and high mountains. The surface of Eastern England is flat. Scotland and Wales are hilly

and mountainous. The mountains are not very high, the highest mountain is Ben Nevis (Scotland) 4400 feet (1343 m) in height.

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In the west we can see the Cambrian Mountains occupying the greater part of Wales; in the north — the Cheviot Hills separating England from Scotland; the Pennines — to the south of the Cheviot Hills. In the north-west there are sixteen lakes. This part of the country, which is called the Lake District, is the most beautiful and the wettest part of Great Britain.

Population

Great Britain is the fourth most populous country in Europe. The English constitute more than 80% of the nation's inhabitants. The Scottish make up nearly 10%, and there are smaller groups of Irish and Welsh descent. Great Britain's population has shown increasing ethnic diversity since the 1970s, when people from the West Indies, India, Pakistan, Africa, and China began immigrating; in the late 1990s these groups accounted for close to 3% of the population. English is the universal language of Great Britain. In addition, about a quarter of the inhabitants of Wales speak Welsh and there are about 60,000 speakers of the Scottish form of Gaelic in Scotland.

The Church of England, also called the Anglican Church, is the officially established church in England (it was disestablished in Wales in 1914); the monarch is its supreme governor. The Presbyterian Church of Scotland is legally established in Scotland. There is complete religious freedom throughout Great Britain. By far the greatest number of Britons (some 27 million) are Anglicans, followed by Roman Catholics and other Christians. There are smaller minorities of Muslims, Sikhs, Hindus, Jews, and Buddhists.

There are 88 universities in Great Britain, the most famous being those at Oxford, Cambridge, Edinburgh, London, and St. Andrews.

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Economy

Great Britain is one of the world's leading industrialized nations. It has achieved this position despite the lack of most raw materials needed for industry. The country also must import

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about 40% of its food supplies. Thus, its prosperity has been dependent upon the export of manufactured goods in exchange for raw materials and foodstuffs. Within the manufacturing sector, the largest industries include machine tools; electric power, automation, and railroad equipment; ships; motor vehicles and parts; aircraft; electronic and communications equipment; metals; chemicals; petroleum; coal; food processing; paper and printing; textiles; and clothing.

During the 1970s and 80s, nearly 3.5 million manufacturing jobs were lost, but in the 1990s over 3.5 million jobs were created in service-related industries. By the late 1990s, banking, insurance, business services, and other service industries accounted for two thirds of the GDP and employed almost 70% of the workforce. This trend was also reflected in a shift in Great Britain's economic base, which has benefited the southeast, southwest, and Midlands regions of the country, while the north of England and Northern Ireland have been hard hit by the changing economy.

The main industrial and commercial areas are the great conurbations, where about one third of the country's population lives. The administrative and financial center and most important port is Greater London, which also has various manufacturing industries. London is Europe's foremost financial city. Metal goods, vehicles, aircraft, synthetic fibers, and electronic equipment are made in the West Midlands conurbation, which with the addition of Coventry roughly corresponds to the former metropolitan county of West Midlands. The industrial Black Country and the city of Birmingham are in the West Midlands. Greater Manchester has

cotton and synthetic textiles, coal, and chemical industries and is a transportation and warehousing center. Liverpool, Britain's second port, along with Southport and Saint Helens are part of the Merseyside conurbation. Leeds, Bradford, and the neighboring metropolitan districts are Britain's main center of

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woolen, worsted, and other textile production. The TynesideWearside region, with Newcastle upon Tyne as its center and Sunderland as a main city, has coal mines and steel, electrical engineering, chemical, and shipbuilding and repair industries.

The South Wales conurbation, with the ports of Swansea, Cardiff, and Newport, was traditionally a center of coal mining and steel manufacturing; coal mining has declined sharply, however, in many parts of the region. Current important industries also include oil refining, metals production (lead, zinc, nickel, aluminum), synthetic fibers, and electronics. In Scotland, the region around the River Clyde, including Glasgow, is noted for shipbuilding, marine engineering, and printing as well as textile, food, and chemicals production. The Belfast area in Northern Ireland is a shipbuilding, textile, and food products center.

Great Britain has abundant supplies of coal, oil, and natural gas. Production of oil from offshore wells in the North Sea began in 1975, and the country is self-sufficient in petroleum. Other mineral resources include iron ore, tin, limestone, salt, china clay, oil shale, gypsum, and lead.

About 25% of Britain's land is arable, and almost half is suitable for meadows and pastures. Its agriculture is highly mechanized and extremely productive; barley, wheat, rapeseed, potatoes, sugar beets, fruits, and vegetables are the main crops. The widespread dairy industry produces milk, eggs, and cheese. Beef cattle and large numbers of sheep, as well as poultry and pigs, are raised throughout much of the country. There is also a

sizable fishing industry, with cod, haddock, mackerel, whiting, trout, salmon, and shellfish making up the bulk of the catch.

The country's chief exports are manufactured goods, machinery, fuels, chemicals, semifinished goods, and transport equipment. The chief imports are manufactured goods, machinery, semifinished and consumer goods, and foodstuffs.

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Since the early 1970s, Great Britain's trade focus has shifted from the United States to the European Union, which now accounts for over 50% of its trade. Germany, the United States, France, and the Netherlands are the main trading partners, and the Commonwealth countries are also important.

Rivers

There are many rivers in Britain, but they are not long. The main rivers are the Severn and the Thames. **The River Severn** is the longest river in Great Britain, at about 354 kilometers. It rises at an altitude of 610 meters (2,001 ft) on Plynlimon near Llanidloes, Powys, in the Cambrian Mountains of mid Wales. It then flows through Shropshire, Worcestershire and Gloucestershire, with the county towns of Shrewsbury, Worcester, and Gloucester on its banks. With an average discharge of 107 m³/s at Apperley, Gloucestershire, the Severn is the greatest river in terms of water flow in England and Wales.

The river is usually considered to become the Severn Estuary after the Second Severn Crossing between Severn Beach, South Gloucestershire and Sudbrook, Monmouthshire. The river then discharges into the Bristol Channel which in turn discharges into the Celtic Sea and the wider Atlantic Ocean. The Severn's drainage basin area is 11,420 square kilometers, excluding the River Bristol Avon which flows into the Bristol Channel. The major tributaries to the Severn are the Teme, Warwickshire Avon and Stour.

The River Thames is a major river flowing through southern England. While it is best known because its lower reaches flow through central London, the river flows through several other towns and cities, including Oxford, Reading and Windsor.

The river gives its name to several geographical and political entities including the Thames Valley, a region of England centered around the river between Oxford and West London, the Thames Gateway, the area centered around the tidal Thames, and the Thames Estuary to the east of London.

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The Thames is the second longest river in the United Kingdom and the longest river entirely in England. It rises at Thames Head in Gloucestershire, and flows into the North Sea at the Thames Estuary. It has a special significance in flowing through London, the capital of the United Kingdom, although London only includes a short part of its course. The river is tidal in London with a rise and fall of 7 metres (23 ft); tides reaching up to Teddington Lock. The catchment area covers a large part of South Eastern and Western England and the river is fed by over 20 tributaries. The river contains over 80 islands, and having both seawater and freshwater stretches, it supports a variety of wildlife.

The river has supported human activity from its source to its mouth for thousands of years providing habitation, water power, food and drink.

It has also acted as a major highway through the Port of London for international trade, internally along its length and by its connection to the British canal system. The river's strategic position has seen it at the centre of many events and fashions in British history, earning it a description by John Burns as "Liquid History". It has been a physical and political boundary over the centuries and generated a range of river crossings. More recently, the river has become a major leisure area supporting tourism and pleasure outings as well as the

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sports of rowing, sailing, kayaking, and punting. The river has had a special appeal to writers, artists, musicians and filmmakers and is well represented in the arts. It is still the subject of various debates about its course, nomenclature and history.

Lakes

The **Lake District**, also known as The Lakes or Lakeland, is a rural area in North West England. A popular holiday destination, it is famous for its lakes and its mountains (or *fells*), and its associations with the early 19th century poetry and writings of William Wordsworth and the Lake Poets.

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The central and most-visited part of the area is contained in the Lake District National Park, one of fourteen National Parks in the United Kingdom. It lies entirely within Cumbria, and is one of England's few mountainous regions. All the land in England higher than three thousand feet above sea level lies within the National Park, including Scafell Pike, the highest mountain in England.

Bassenthwaite Lake is one of the largest lakes in the English Lake District. It is long and narrow, approximately 4 miles (6.4 km) long and 3/4-mile (1.2 km) wide, but is also extremely shallow, with a maximum depth of about 70 ft (21 m).

It is the only body of water in the Lake District to use the word "*lake*" in its name, all the others being "*waters*" (for example, Derwent Water), "*meres*" (for example, Windermere) or "*tarns*" (for example, Dock Tarn). It is fed by, and drains into, the River Derwent. The lake lies at the foot of Skiddaw, near the town of Keswick. Some maps dating from the 18th century do in fact mark this lake with the name Bassenwater, and the use of name Broadwater for this lake is also attested.

Cities

London is the largest city in Europe. London dominates Britain. It is home for the headquarters of all government departments. Parliament, the major legal institutions and the monarch. It is the country's business and banking centre and the centre of its transport network. It contains the headquarters of the national television networks and of all the national newspapers. It is about seven times larger than any other city in the country. About a fifth of the total population of the UK lives in the Greater London area.

The original walled city of London was quite small. It did not contain Parliament or the royal court, since this would have interfered with the autonomy of the merchants and traders who lived and worked there. It was in Westminster, another 'city' outside London's walls, that these national institutions met. Today, both 'cities' are just two areas of central London. The

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square mile is home to the country's main financial organizations, the territory of the stereotypical English 'city gent'. During the daytime, nearly a million people work there, but less than 8000 people actually live there.

Two other well-known areas of London are the West End and the East End. The former is known for its many theatres, cinemas and expensive shops. The latter is known as the poorer residential area of central London. It is the home of the Cockney and in this century large numbers of immigrants have settled there.

There are many other parts of central London which have their own distinctive characters, and central London itself makes up only a very small part of Greater London. In common with many other European cities, the population in the central area has decreased in the second half of the twentieth century. The majority of Londoners live in its suburbs, millions of them traveling into the centre each day to work. These suburbs cover a vast area of land.

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Like many large cities, London is in some ways untypical of the rest of the country in that it is so cosmopolitan. Although all of Britain's cities have some degree of cultural and racial variety, the variety is by far the greatest in London. A survey carried out in the 1980's found that 37 different languages were spoken in the homes of just one district.

In recent years it has been claimed that London is in decline. It is losing its place as one of the world's biggest financial centers and, in comparison with many other western European cities, it looks rather dirty and neglected. Nevertheless, its popularity as a tourist destination is still growing. And it is not only tourists who like visiting London - the readers of *Business Traveller* magazine often vote it their favourite city in the world in which to do business. This popularity is probably the result of its combination of apparently infinite cultural variety and a long history which has left many visible signs of its richness and drama.

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Birmingham is a city and metropolitan borough in the West Midlands county of England. It is the most populous British city outside London with a population of 1,016,800 (2008 estimate), and lies at the heart of the West Midlands conurbation, the United Kingdom's second most populous Urban Area with a population of 2,284,093 (2001 census). Birmingham's metropolitan area, which includes surrounding towns to which it is closely tied through commuting, is the United Kingdom's second most populous with a population of 3,683,000.

Birmingham was the powerhouse of the Industrial Revolution in England, a fact which led to it being known as "the workshop of the world" or the "city of a thousand trades". Although Birmingham's industrial importance has declined, it has developed into a national commercial centre, being named as the second-best place in the United Kingdom to locate a

business. Birmingham is a national hub for conferences, retail and events along with an established high tech, research and development sector, supported by its three Universities. It is also the fourth-most visited city by foreign visitors in the UK, has the second-largest city economy in the UK and is often referred to as the Second City.

In 2010, Birmingham was ranked as the 55th-most livable city in the world, according to the Mercer Index of worldwide standards of living. The Big City Plan is a large redevelopment plan currently underway in the city centre with the aim of making Birmingham one of the top 20 most livable cities in the world within 20 years. People from Birmingham are known as 'Brummies', a term derived from the city's nickname of 'Brum'. This may originate from the city's dialect name, Brummagem, which may in turn have been derived from one of the city's earlier names, 'Bromwicham'. There is a distinctive Brummie dialect and accent, both of which differ from the adjacent Black Country.

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Weather and Climate

Changeable and unpredictable are the two words that come to mind when speaking of the climate of England. Climate of England on the whole is mild and somewhat wet. Known as the temperate maritime, the climate of England has rarely gone down than 0 degree Celcius. Even in winters the temperature in England hardly reach 32 degree Celcius. The climate is temperate, with warm wet summers and cool wet winters. Weather varies from day to day and throughout the country as a whole. The west coast and mountainous areas receive the most rain; the east coast, particularly in the north, is colder and windier.

The south-east is sunnier than the north with less rain and a climate approaching the continental. The south-west has the

mildest climate overall. Occasional cold snaps with heavy snow can cause problems with transport and infrastructure.

England has much to occupy whatever the season, but the best chance of some sunny days is between May and September. Popular summer holidaying spots such as Devon and Cornwall become particularly crowded during the end of July and throughout August when schools are closed.

SECTION RECAP

- *What is the nickname of the flag of the United Kingdom?*
- *What colors are there in this flag?*
- *The flags of what countries are represented in this flag?*
- *When was this flag first used?*
- *What is the history and background of the English flag?*
- *Why is the St George's Cross on England's flag?*
- *Where did the name England come from?*
- *Which countries are in Great Britain?*
- *What countries make up the UK?*
- *What is the official name of the UK?*
- *How did the English rose originate?*

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- *What groups of small islands are there from the west and north of Scotland?*
- *What is London? How was it founded?*
- *What do you know about London's history?*
- *What area do the metropolis of London cover?*
- *Why does Great Britain have a very good geographical position?*
- *What countries does the sea connect Britain with?*

- *What can you say about the scenery of Great Britain?*

- *Are the mountains of the British Isles high? Where are they situated?*

- *How many people live in London? Why is it necessary for many people who work in London to have their homes far away?*

DISCUSSION POINTS

- *Every country is special. What comes to your mind, when you think of the UK and its people?*
- *Each country takes pride in its own achievements and success. What makes you feel proud of your country?*
- *The problems of ecology are very important now. Which problem is the most urgent, in your opinion? How can you and the people around you do to protect the planet?*
- *Explain the differences between these expressions: Great Britain, the United Kingdom, the Republic of Ireland, the British Isles. What did "the United Kingdom" originally refer to?*
- *Are there any plants and animals in your country that have become symbols? What do you know about the flag of your country?*
- *What is the climate of your country? How does it differ from the climate of the United Kingdom?*
- *What historical and geographical circumstances have made London one of the world's most important commercial*

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and cultural centers? Do you know anything about the history and geography of your town or village?

- *London has no single centre. Do you know why it is so? Why is London a city of great variety? What do you know about it?*

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● *There are very many famous museums and libraries in London. Are they often visited by Londoners or only by foreigners? What do you think? How do museums and libraries help to educate children?*

EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN

Great Britain doesn't have a written constitution, so there are no constitutional provisions for education. The system of education is determined by the National Education Acts. Schools in England are supported from public funds paid to the local education authorities. These local education authorities are responsible for organizing the schools in their areas. If we outline the basic features of public education in Britain, firstly we'll see that in spite of most educational purposes England & Wales are treated as one unit, though the system in Wales is a different from that of England. Scotland & Northern Ireland have their own education systems. The majority of schools in Britain are supported by public funds & the education provided is free. They are maintained schools, but there's also a considerable number of public schools. Most pupils go to schools which offer free education, although fee-paying independent schools also have an important role to play. Another important feature of schooling in Britain is the variety of opportunities offered to schoolchildren. The English school syllabus is divided into Arts/or Humanities/ and Sciences which determine the division of the secondary school pupils into study groups: a science pupil will study Chemistry,

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Physics, Mathematics, Economics, Technical Drawing, Biology, Geography; an Art pupil will do English Language and Literature, History, foreign languages, Music, Art, Drama. Besides these subjects they must do some general education

subjects like PE, Home Economics for girls, Technical subjects for girls, General Science. Computers play an important part in education. The system of options exists in all kinds of secondary schools.

The national Education Act in 1944 provided 3 stages of education: primary, secondary and further education. Everybody has a right to school place for a child from age 5 to 16, and a school of college place for him or her from 16 to 18. These places are provided free of charge. Everybody has a duty to make sure that the child goes to school until he or she is 16, that means that education is a compulsory from age 5 to 16 /11 years in whole/. There's no law which provides for education on the under fives. In England about 47% of three- & four-year-olds receive education in nursery schools or classes. In addition many children attend informal pre-school play groups organized by parents and voluntary bodies.

In 1944 The National Curriculum was introduced. It sets out in detail the subjects that children should study and the levels of achievement they should reach by the ages of 7, 11, 14 & 16, when they are tested. The tests are designed to be easier for teachers to manage than they were in the past. Most pupils will also be entered for GCSEs/General Certificate of the Secondary Education/ or other public examinations, including vocational qualifications if they are 16. Until that year headmasters and headmistresses of schools were given a great deal of freedom in deciding what subjects to teach and how to do it in their schools so that there was really no central control at all over individual schools. The National Curriculum does not apply in Scotland, where each school decides what subject it will teach.

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The child is taught the subjects he or she must study under the National Curriculum. These are English, Math, Science/the core subjects/, Technology, a foreign language in secondary

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school, as it was mentioned, PE, History, Geography, Art, Music/ foundation subjects/. The last 4 ones are not compulsory after the age of 14. But the child must be given religious education unless the parents decide otherwise. Each subject has a set programme of study and attaining levels for each subject covering the years from 5 to 16. There're 10 levels. The full requirements of the National Curriculum are being introduced gradually. All the pupils will be following it in full by September 1997. The National Curriculum itself was introduced in 1989 (until that time the schools had a curriculum supervised by the local LEA). According to The National Curriculum schools are allowed to introduce a fast stream for bright children.

Actually after young people reach 16 they have 4 main 'roads' of their next life: they can leave the school, stay at school, move to a college as a full time student, combine parttime study with a job, perhaps through the Youth Training programme. School-leavers without jobs get no money from the government unless they join a youth training scheme, which provides a living allowance during 2 years of work experience. But a growing number of school students are staying on at school, some until 18 or 19, the age of entry into higher education or universities, Polytechnics or colleges. Schools in Britain provide careers guidance. A specially trained person called careers advisor, or careers officer helps school students to decide what job they want to do and how they can achieve that. Now let us talk about the exams the young people in Britain take during their process of education. Since 1988, most sixteen-year-old have taken the GCSE in 5,10 of even 15 subjects. Pupils going on to higher education or professional training usually take 'A' level examinations in

two or three subjects. These require two more years of study after GSCE, either in the sixth form of a secondary school, or

in a separate 6-form college. Others may choose vocational subjects/catering, tourism, secretariat, building skills/. Subsidized courses in these subjects are run at colleges of further education.

In each town or district, the system is decided by the local education authority and so it can vary, but this is the usual system.

NURSERY SCHOOL (UNDER 5 YEARS)

A **nursery school** is a school for children between the ages of three and five years, staffed by qualified teachers and other professionals who encourage and supervise educational play rather than simply providing childcare. It is a pre-school education institution, part of early childhood education. Nursery in England is also called FS1 which is the first year of foundation before they go into primary or infants. There are all kinds of toys to keep the children busy from 9 o'clock in the morning till 4 o'clock in the afternoon – while their parents are at work. Here the babies play, lunch and sleep. They can run about and play in safety with someone keeping an eye on them.

However, LEAs do not have nursery school places for all who would like them and these places are usually given to families in special circumstances, for example families with one parent only. Because of the small number of nursery schools, parents in many areas have formed play groups where children under 5 years can go for a morning or afternoon a couple of times a week.

PRIMARY EDUCATION (5 TO 11 YEARS)

Compulsory education begins at 5 when children in England & Wales go to infant schools or departments; at 7 many go on to junior schools or departments. In some areas of England there are nursery schools for children under 5 years of age. Some children between 2 & 5 receive education in nursery classes or in infants classes in primary schools. Many children attend informal pre-school play-groups organized by parents in private homes. Nursery schools are staffed with teachers and students in training. There are all kinds of toys to keep the children busy from 9 o'clock till 4 o'clock p.m.- while their parents are at work here the babies play, lunch & sleep. They can run about and play in safety with someone keeping an eye on them. For day nurseries which remain open all the year round the parents pay according to their income.

Most children start school at 5 in a primary school. A primary school may be divided into two parts- infants & juniors. At infants schools reading, writing & arithmetic are taught for about 20 minutes a day during the first year, gradually increasing to about 2 hours in their last year. There is usually no written timetable. Much time is spent in modeling from clay or drawing, reading and singing.

By the time children are ready for the junior school they will be able to read & write, do simple addition and subtraction of numbers.

At 7 children go on from the infants school to the junior school. This marks the transition from play to 'real work'. The children have set periods of arithmetic, reading and composition which are all Eleven-Plus subjects. History, Geography, Nature Study, Art & Music, PE, Swimming are also on the timetable.

Pupils are streamed, according to their ability to learn, into A,B,C & D streams. The least gifted are in the D streams. Formerly towards the end of their fourth year the pupils wrote

their 11-Plus Exams. The hated 11+ was a selective procedure on which not only the pupils' future schooling but their careers depended. The abolition of selection at 11+ brought to life comprehensive schools where pupils can get secondary education.

As you have already guessed the usual age of transfer from primary to secondary school is 11.

Most primary schools are state-funded although many of them are run by churches and the child is taught in order with the National Curriculum.

Independent fee-paying schools which are called preparatory schools, prepare children for the Common Entrance Examination set by the independent secondary schools. Usually parents prefer state primary schools -95 % and only 5% prefer independent.

A number of LEAs in England (local education authorities) have established "first" schools for pupils aged 5 to 8,9,10 & "middle" schools covering various age ranges between 8 & 14.

It goes without saying it that the period of primary schooling is very interesting and fun for boys and girls during that period their character is forming, they are becoming personalities.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

(11 TO 16-18 YEARS)

At the age of 11, most children go to comprehensive schools of which the majority are for both boys & girls.

About 90 % of all state-financed secondary schools are of this type. Most other children receive secondary education in grammar & secondary modern schools. (Until 1960s most children took an examination at the end of primary school (The 11+): those who passed it successfully went to grammar

schools while those who did not went to secondary modern schools. A few areas especially in the south of England still have selective exams at the age of 11.)

Comprehensive schools were introduced in 1965. The idea of comprehensive education, supported by the Labor Party, was to give all children of whatever background the same opportunity in education.

At 16 students in England and Wales take GCSE examinations. In 1988 these examinations replaced the GCE (General Certificate of Education) and O-levels (Ordinary levels) which were usually passed by about 29 % of school students. GCSE exams are taken by students of all levels of ability in any of a range of subjects, and may involve a final examination, and assessment of work done by the student during the 2-year course, or both of these things.

Some comprehensive schools, however, do not have enough academic courses for 6-formers. Students can transfer either to a grammar school or to 6-form college to get the courses they want. School-leavers with jobs sometimes take part-time vocational courses, on day-release from work. School-leavers without jobs get no money from the government unless they join a youth training scheme, which provides a living allowance during 2 years of work experience.

At 18 some students take A-level (Advanced level) examinations, usually in two or three subjects. It is necessary to have A-level in order to go to a university or Polytechnic.

But some pupils want to stay on at school after taking their GCSE, to prepare for a vocational course or to work rather than for A-level examinations. Then they have to take the CPVE examination which means the Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education.

There are so many types of schools in Britain that from the first sight seems you can 'sink' in variety. First division is from independent & state schools. Some types can be both state and

independent, for example grammar schools. There are a lot of voluntary or church schools in Britain which are to encourage the set of belief, they are funded by the local council. Most parents choose to send their children to free state schools financed from the public funds but an increasing number of secondary pupils attend fee-paying independent schools outside the school system. Many of these are boarding schools, which provide accommodation for pupils during term time. There are about 2,500 independent schools educating more than 500,000 pupils of all ages. They charge fees, varying from about 100 a term for day pupils at nursery age to 2,000 a term for senior boarding pupils.

There are other types of schools called public schools. Those are private schools and about 5 per cent of pupils prefer to be educated there. These are schools for the privileged. Only very rich families can afford to pay for the study, because the fees are very high. They are free from state control & most of them are boarding. It goes without saying that education is of a high quality; the discipline is very strict.

There are about 500 public schools in England and Wales, most of them are single-sex and about half of them are for girls. The most famous public schools are Eton, Harrow, Rugby, Winchester, Roundel, Uppingham, Charterhouse. They are famous for their ability to lay the foundation of a successful future by giving their pupils self-confidence, the right accent, a good academic background and, perhaps most important of all, the right friends & contacts. They never think they are schoolleavers, but they are 'the old school ties' & 'the old boys network'.

Public schools educate the ruling class of England. Winston Churchill, Lord Byron & many others were educated in Harrow school. In Gorgonstoun was educated the Prince of Wales.

Other types of schools like county, all-through, two-tier and others.

The school year is divided into terms, three months each, named after seasons: autumn, winter and spring terms.

The autumn term starts on the first Tuesday morning in September. In July school break up for eight weeks.

Each group of 30 pupils is the responsibility of a form tutor the same as in Russian schools nowadays. The same is that each school day is divided into periods of 40-50 minutes, time for various lessons with 10-20 minutes' breaks between them. At the end of the term or before some national holiday, called in England speech-days pupils are gathered in the assembly area or hall.

Like in our schools in English classrooms also exist desks arranged in rows (each row is called an aisle), chalkboard / blackboard, different kinds of laboratories, technical rooms, rooms for computer studies on so on.

Pupils at many secondary schools in Britain have to wear the school uniform. This usually means a white blouse for girls, with dark-colored skirt and pullover and for boys these are shirt and tie, dark trousers and dark-colored pullovers. Pupils also wear blazers with school badge on the pocket. Shoes are usually black or brown. Senior students do not have to wear their school uniform. Of course it's good for the teachers and for the pupils themselves, because there's no problem of finding the clothes they want (actually it's a problem of parents), but the young people in Britain often do not like their school uniform. If they do not like it so much that they don't wear it at first they will be given a warning, then a punishment.

Corporal punishment has recently been banned in state schools, but in most schools it's still allowed, caning is the usual punishment for serious misbehavior in class, damage and vandalism. Many teachers remark that standards of discipline have fallen since corporal punishment was banned by the government.

And without saying that in each school exist system of rewards for the best pupils.

A very interesting topic is the social, cultural and sporting life in British secondary schools nowadays. Firstly each school or 6-form college has its School/College Council which organizes the social & cultural life at the school, helps to plan the policy for the whole school. School Councils run discos & parties, stage drama productions and decorate the student common room; some of the students help in local hospitals, homes for the handicapped & elderly people.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education has also undergone a massive expansion. In 1985 only 573,000, 16 per cent of young people, were enrolled in full-time higher education. Ten years later the number was 1,150,000, no less than 30 per cent of their age group.

This massive expansion was achieved by greatly enlarging access to undergraduate courses, but also by authorizing the old polytechnics to grant their own degree awards, and also to rename themselves as universities. Thus there are today 90 universities, compared with 47 in 1990, and only seventeen in 1945. They fall into five broad categories: the medieval English foundations, the medieval Scottish ones, the nineteenth-century 'redbrick' ones, the twentieth-century 'plateglass' ones, and finally the previous polytechnics. They are all private institutions, receiving direct grants from central government.

In the nineteenth century more universities were established to respond to the greatly increased demand for educated people as a result of the Industrial Revolution and the expansion of Britain's overseas empire. Many of these were sited in the industrial centers, for example Birmingham, Manchester, Nottingham, Newcastle, Liverpool and Bristol.

With the expansion of higher education in the 1960's "plate-glass" universities were established, some named after counties or regions rather than old cities, for example Sussex, Kent, East Anglia and Strathclyde. Over 50 polytechnics and similar higher education institutes acquired university status in 1992. There is also a highly successful Open University, which provides every person in Britain with the opportunity to study for a degree, without leaving their home. It is particularly designed for adults who missed the opportunity for higher education earlier in life. It conducts learning through correspondence, radio and television, and also through local study centers.

University examinations are for Bachelor of Arts, or of Science (BA or BSc) on completion of the undergraduate course, and Master of Arts or of Science (MA or MSc) on completion of postgraduate work, usually a one or two-year course involving some original research. Some students continue to complete a three-year period of original research for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD). The bachelor degree is normally classed, with about 5 per cent normally gaining First, about 30 per cent gaining an Upper Second or 2.1, perhaps 40 per cent gaining a Lower Second, or 2.2, and the balance getting either Third, a Pass or failing. Approximately 15 per cent fail to complete their degree course.

In addition there are a large number of specialist higher education institutions in the realm of the performing and visual arts. For example, there are four leading conservatories: the Royal Academy Music, the Royal College of Music, Trinity College of Music and the Royal Northern College of Music.

There are a large number of art colleges, the most famous is the Royal College of Art, where both Henry Moore and David Hockney once studied. Other colleges cater for dance, film-making and other specialist areas in arts.

In spite of the high fees, Britain's universities, FE colleges and English language schools host a number of foreign students, in 1996 there were fewer than 158,000.

Today many university science and technology departments, for example at Oxford, Cambridge, Manchester, Imperial College London, and Strathclyde, are among the best in Europe. The concern is whether they will continue to be so in the future. Academics' pay has fallen so far behind other professions and behind academic salaries elsewhere, that many of the best brains have gone abroad. Adequate pay and sufficient research funding to keep the best in Britain remains a major challenge.

As with the schools system, so also with higher education: there is a real problem about the exclusivity of Britain's two oldest universities. While Oxbridge is no longer the preserve of a social elite it retains its exclusive, narrow and spell-binding culture. Together with the public school system, it creates a narrow social and intellectual channel from which the nation's leaders are almost exclusively drawn. In 1996 few people were in top jobs in the Civil Service, the armed forces, the law or finance, who had not been either to a public school or Oxbridge, or to both.

SECTION RECAP

- *What age do British children go to school at? How many years are they to stay at school?*
- *What different types of schools are there in Britain? Is education in all of them paid or free?*
- *Who can study in public schools?*
- *Does the word «public» reflect the real principle of these schools?*
- *What schools are independent?*

- What higher educational establishments are there in Britain?
- What universities were discussed in the text? What did you learn about them?
- What political acts became a turning point in British education?
- What is the most common opinion about their vocational courses?

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- What do you think about the quality of higher education in Britain?
- What stages of education are there in England? Which of them are compulsory?
- In what institutions can children get pre-school education?
- Do all primary and secondary schools in England belong to the state system?
- At what age are pupils usually transferred to secondary schools?
- What kind of education do grammar schools offer?
- What do you think: do the Conservative principles of education differ from that of Labor?
- What are the aims of education in Britain today?
- Did the level of education become higher after the reforms?
- What is the GCSE?

DISCUSSION POINTS

- British children start at school when they are 5. At what age do you think it is better for children to begin their learning at school? Is it good for children to be taught at an early age? What kind of people could these children become? Can you give any examples of early learning?

- Oxford and Cambridge are made up of separate colleges. Is it the best way for students to live separately? Do students prefer to live in hostels or in lodgings?
- Do you agree that the British education system has problems?
- How did the changing economic and social situation influence the system of education?
- What are the most prestigious schools in Britain?
- Are there students from other countries in British schools and universities?
- Would you like to study in Britain?

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- Have all maintained schools equal opportunities to provide the same level of education? Prove your point of view.
- What do you think of the main aim of the publicly maintained system of education which is officially stated as follows: “... to give all children an education suited to their particular abilities”. Do you think English educationists have objective criteria to measure these abilities?
- How can you account for the fact that independent schools which are not very numerous are the most significant?

MASS MEDIA IN GREAT BRITAIN

The media play a central role in Britain's daily life, informing and educating, questioning and challenging – and of course – entertaining. In recent years the availability of more radio frequencies, together with satellite, cable and microwave transmissions, has already made a greater number

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of local, national and international services possible. The transition from analogue to digital transmission technology is now expanding this capacity enormously. The Internet is providing, increasingly, an additional medium for information, entertainment and communication.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF NEWSPAPERS

Newspapers began circulating in the 17th century. The first newspapers were printed in Germany in 1609. The first newspaper in England was printed in 1621. (However the word newspaper was not recorded until 1670). At first newspapers only printed foreign news. They did not print domestic news until 1641. The first successful daily newspaper in Britain was printed in 1702. Then in 1730 a newspaper called *The Daily Advertiser* began publishing stock exchange quotations.

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In Britain in 1785 the *Daily Universal Register* was first published. In 1788 it was renamed *The Times*. In 1814 *The Times* was printed with a steam-powered press for the first time. In 1848 *The Times* used a rotary printing press with the printing face wrapped around a cylinder for the first time.

Meanwhile the *Observer* was founded in 1791. The *Daily Telegraph* was first published in 1855. The *Manchester Guardian* was founded in 1821. It changed its name to *The Guardian* in 1959. The *Sunday Times* was first published in 1822. The *Financial Times* began in 1888.

Newspapers became far more common in the late 19th century. In the 18th century and the early 19th century stamp duty was charged on newspapers, which made them expensive. However in 1855 stamp duty on newspapers was abolished and they became cheaper and more common.

In the mid-19th century newspaper reporters began to use the telegraph as a means to get news to their newspapers quickly. Then in 1880 *The New York Graphic* became the first newspaper to print a photo. In Britain the first tabloid newspaper was the *Daily Graphic* published in 1890. In 1891 it became the first British newspaper to print a photo.

Modern Newspapers

In the 20th century newspapers became still more common. The *Daily Mail* was first published in 1896, *The Daily Express* was first published in 1900 and the *Daily Mirror* began publication in 1903.

In 1964 *The Daily Herald* became *The Sun* and *The Daily Star* was founded in 1978. Meanwhile *The Sunday Telegraph* was founded in 1961 and in 1962 *The Sunday Times* became the first newspaper to publish a Sunday color supplement. *The Mail on Sunday* began in 1982. *The Independent* was first published in 1986. Also in 1986 *Today* became the first color newspaper in Britain.

Fleet Street has been the meeting place for newspaper men since the 18th century, when writers met to talk in its coffeehouses. And up to now Fleet Street is the Street of news.

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Fleet Street is now the centre of journalists and newspaper men. Offices of most English daily and evening papers are situated in this street.

Fleet Street is the centre of Britain's national newspapers. *The Daily Telegraph* and the *Daily Express* have their offices here, and *The Times*, *The Guardian* and many others are nearby.

Publishing houses of many big foreign newspapers are also there. Fleet Street is busy day and night. It is packed with vans, cars, motorcycles, newsboys every day between 9 a.m. and 3 p.m. when the latest news is ready to go out all over the world.

In Britain more national and regional newspapers are sold per head than in any other Western country, a fact which emphasizes the important role of the press in forming public and political opinion. The regional or local press is, compared to the national dailies, less significant, except in Scotland and Wales, which still have a strong national identity. But complete information can only be obtained by reading both a national and a regional paper. There are also numerous weekly, fortnightly and monthly ethnic minority publications being published by members of ethnic minorities e.g. Asians, Indians or people from the Caribbean. Newspaper reading is also part of the traditional British Sunday. National Sundays have a circulation of about 16 million copies (dailies of about 14 million).

The national newspapers, which are distributed throughout the country, are traditionally classified as either "quality" papers or "popular" papers. It is important to state that the striking difference between them reflects the gap between Britain's social classes.

Popular are mass-circulation tabloids, which are cheaper in price and of lower standards. The so-called yellow-press is read by lower middle classes and working class people, and also by commuters. The format is the handy tabloid (which means

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small-sheet). There are words in bold face type, sensational headlines and illustration with (color) photos to arouse the reader's attention. The tabloids, which are written in an emotional, colloquial and informal style, use everyday English. There is a sensational treatment of news with emphasis on "human interests" stories and scandals; some of them are down-market in their use of sex to boost sales. Political reporting is superficial, articles are sometimes more openly tendentious.

National dailies: *Daily Mirror, Daily Star, The Sun.*

National Sundays: *News of the World, Sunday Mirror, The People.*

As the name describes midmarket papers cover the intermediate market and are also tabloid.

National dailies: *Daily Mail, Daily Express, Today.*

National Sundays: *The Mail on Sunday, Sunday Express.*

The British press owes its international importance to seven papers with the highest standards. Those qualities are read by the educated and the élite, who normally have no problem with the format, which is mostly broadsheet. The full coverage of news is reliable and often gives additional background information. There is also a wide range of feature articles (e.g. on legal or financial affairs). Articles are mostly written by experts on the subject and are in formal, matter-of-fact, highbrow and sometimes literary style. Sunday papers include color supplements with articles on travel, food, wine and leisure topics.

National dailies: *Financial Times, The Daily Telegraph, The Guardian, The Independent, The Times.*

National Sundays: *Sunday Telegraph, The Independent on Sunday, The Observer, The Sunday Times.*

The great majority of the national papers (70% of the circulation figures) express a conservative affiliation. This fact has frequently given rise to some criticism of the British press. The monopolistic tendencies of the British press are another

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area of criticism. 90% of the total circulation of the national press are controlled by only five "Press Lords" or newspaper groups. The Australian Rupert Murdoch (News International) already owns one third of Britain's national press (*The Times, The Sunday Times, The Sun, News of the World*). His media empire also includes newspapers in Australia, the US, Hong Kong and New Zealand as well as television broadcasting companies in Britain and the United States. Until 1986 *The Times* always presented an unbiased and balanced view of the political scene. Since the acquisition by Rupert Murdoch the reporting has shifted to the right, and the paper has lost its

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dominant position in forming and reflecting opinion at the highest levels. *The Independent* (founded in 1986) is a quality paper which is not committed to any political stance.

Most British newspapers are situated in the Docklands of East London. Here they take advantage of modern computerized printing systems which were introduced to keep pace with soaring costs and competition from cable television. The overseas editions are printed in Britain, France, Germany, the USA, Japan and Hungary.

Press Freedom

The British press, which caters for a much larger reading public than in many other countries, is unrestricted by censorship or state control. It is considered to be an instrument of controlling and criticizing government and decision-makers. It has considerable influence in public affairs and therefore is sometimes called the "Fourth Estate".

But the press are not free to express themselves in complete freedom in Britain: regulations exist to protect the legitimate interests of the state and its individuals. The unauthorized publication of state and official information can result in serious trouble for the newspapers.

The "Press Council" (1953) was set up to safeguard the freedom of the press and to maintain the highest professional standards. Unlike most other European countries the British press receives no subsidies and relatively few tax and postal concessions.

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THE HISTORY OF TELEVISION

THE HISTORY OF THE BBC THE FIRST TV ERA

On May 18th 1922 the Post Office met representatives of eighteen companies, each with a single purpose in mind. Until now officialdom had refused permission for regular

broadcasting of radio transmitters in Britain, worried that they would interfere with essential services such as the armed forces. However, by 1922 public opinion, as well as the spectacular growth and popularity of radio in the United States, had bought too much public pressure on the authorities to deny a full service any longer. After five months of deliberation a company to be known as the British Broadcasting Company was to set up eight stations in major cities around the country. Thus the BBC was born.

The British Broadcasting Company started daily transmissions on November 14th 1922, by which time more than one million ten-shilling (50p) licenses had been issued. In 1927 the company was restructured as a public corporation -the BBC that we know today- by its founding father, John (later Lord) Reith, but by this time an even newer technology was being developed -television.

Watching television is one of the great British pastimes! By the middle of the 1980s there were four channels on British TV: BBC1 and BBC2 plus the two independent channels, ITV and Channel 4. Independent channels get their income from advertisements but there is no advertising on the BBC channels: instead the BBC's revenue comes from license fees, payable by everybody who has a television, plus some additional funds from Parliament. Both the BBC and ITV sell programmes overseas which adds to their revenue.

In the UK, BBC One and BBC Two are the BBC's flagship television channels. Several digital only stations are also broadcast: BBC Three, BBC Four, BBC News, BBC

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Parliament, and two children's channels, CBBC and CB. Digital television is now in widespread use in the UK, with analogue transmission being phased out by December 2012.

BBC One is a regionalized TV service which provides optouts throughout the day for local news and other local programming. These variations are more pronounced in the

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BBC 'Nations', i.e. Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales, where the presentation is mostly carried out locally on BBC One and Two. BBC Two variations within England are currently rare, though most regions still have the ability to 'opt out' of the main feed, albeit on analogue only. BBC Two was also the first channel to be transmitted on 625 lines in 1964, then carry a small-scale regular color service from 1967. BBC One would follow in November 1969.

A new Scottish Gaelic television channel, BBC Alba, was launched in September 2008. It is also the first multi-genre channel to come entirely from Scotland with almost all of its programmes made in Scotland. The service is currently only available via satellite and cable television.

In the Republic of Ireland, Belgium, the Netherlands and Switzerland, the BBC channels are available in a number of ways. In these countries digital and cable operators carry a range of BBC channels these include BBC One, BBC Two and BBC World News, although viewers in the Republic of Ireland may receive BBC services via 'overspill' from transmitters in Northern Ireland or Wales, or via 'deflectors' – transmitters in the Republic which rebroadcast broadcasts from the UK, received off-air, or from digital satellite.

From 9 June 2006, the BBC began a 6–12 month trial of high-definition television broadcasts under the name BBC HD. The corporation has been producing programmes in the format for many years, and states that it hopes to produce 100% of new programmes in HDTV by 2010. On 3 November 2010, a high-definition simulcast of BBC One was launched.

Since 1975, the BBC has also provided its TV programmes to the British Forces Broadcasting Service (BFBS), allowing

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members of UK military serving abroad to watch and listen to them on two dedicated TV channels.

In 2008, the BBC began experimenting with live streaming of certain channels in the UK, and in November 2008, all standard BBC television channels were made available to watch online.

Independent Television

The ITC licenses and regulates three commercial television services – Channel 3 and Channel 4 (in Wales the corresponding service is S4C), which complement each other, and Channel 5 – all financed by advertising and sponsorship. Channel 3 programmes are supplied by 15 regionally based licensees and an additional licensee providing a national breakfast – time service. Licenses for Channel 3 and 5 are awarded for a ten – year period by competitive tender to the highest bidder who has passed a quality threshold.

THE HISTORY OF RADIO

Radio is the first 'modern' media form, and had a huge impact on the history of the 20th century. For the first time information could be broadcast, it could be received by anyone with the right equipment, without wires and the birth of radio really ushers in the era of mass communications. Many people have likened the explosion in radio in the 1920s to what is happening with the internet today - lots of enthusiasts setting up their 'broadcast slot' and sharing their knowledge with similar people. Wireless communication has really come full circle, as more and more people turn to mobile phones and handheld computers that can receive internet transmissions.

The first documented radio transmission occurred in 1895 and was sent by a 21 year old Italian, Guglielmo Marconi, who conducted simple experiments using a radio transmitter and receiver, the transmitter placed at his house, and the receiver

placed three miles away. He got his servant to fire a gun when the transmission had been received - the three dots ... of the letter S in Morse Code. The Italian government were not at all interested in Marconi's invention, so he continued his experiments in Britain where he had the full support of the Minister of Post. Marconi (who had never been to university and had taught himself physics and electronics!) took out several patents and started to build radio stations across the south coast of Britain. In late 1901 he crossed the Atlantic to St John's Terranova, and there, on 12 December, received the first weak transatlantic radio signal.

Modern radio

Sound broadcasting is done by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and 44 independent local radio (ILR) stations. BBC radio provides four services over 32 local radio stations. An independent nationwide radio service is under consideration.

The BBC has five major national stations:

- Radio 1 ("the best new music and entertainment")
- Radio 2 (the UK's most listened to radio station, with 12.9 million weekly listeners)
- Radio 3 (classical and jazz music)
- Radio 4 (current affairs, factual, drama and comedy)
- Radio 5 Live (24 hour news, sports and talk)

In recent years some further national stations have been introduced on digital radio platforms including Five Live Sports Extra (a companion to Five Live for additional events coverage), Extra (for black, urban and gospel music), 6 Music (less mainstream genres of music), BBC Radio 7 (comedy, drama & children's programming) and BBC Asian Network (British South Asian talk, music and news in English and in many South Asian languages), a station which had evolved from BBC Local Radio origins in the 1970s and still is broadcast on Medium Wave frequencies in some parts of

England. In addition the BBC World Service is now also broadcast nationally in the UK on DAB.

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There is also a network of local stations with a mixture of talk, news and music in England and the Channel Islands as well as national stations (Nations' radio) of BBC Radio Wales, BBC Radio Cymru (in Welsh), BBC Radio Scotland, BBC Radio nan Gaidheal (in Scots Gaelic), BBC Radio Ulster, and BBC Radio Foyle.

The BBC also provides separate local radio services for the Channel Islands of Guernsey- BBC Guernsey and Jersey BBC Radio Jersey, with local TV news coverage from BBC Channel Islands. These services are provided as a convenience, since strictly the Channel Islands are not part of the United Kingdom so the funding for the Guernsey and Jersey broadcasts comes largely from locally collected license fees.

The BBC does not offer separate local services for the Isle of Man, partly because the island has long been served by the independent commercial radio station Manx Radio.

For a worldwide audience, the BBC produces the BBC World Service funded by the Foreign Office, which is broadcast worldwide on shortwave radio, and on DAB Digital Radio in the UK. The World Service is a major source of news and information programming and can be received in 150 capital cities worldwide, with a weekly audience estimate of 163 million listeners worldwide. As of 2005, the Service was broadcasting in 33 languages and dialects (including English), though not all languages are broadcast in all areas.

In 2005, the BBC announced that it would substantially reduce its radio broadcasting in Thai language (closed in 2006) and Eastern European languages and divert resources instead to a new Arabic language satellite TV broadcasting station (including radio and online content) in the Middle East to be launched in 2007.

Since 1943, the BBC has also provided radio programming to the British Forces Broadcasting Service, which broadcasts in countries where British troops are stationed.

All of the national, local, and regional BBC radio stations, as well as the BBC World Service, are available over the Internet in the Real Audio streaming format. In April 2005, the

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BBC began trials offering a limited number of radio programmes as podcasts.

Historically, the BBC was the only (legal) radio broadcaster based in the UK mainland until 1967, when University Radio York (URY), then under the name *Radio York*, was launched as the first (and now oldest) legal independent radio station in the country. However, the BBC did not enjoy a complete monopoly before this as several Continental stations (such as Radio Luxembourg) broadcast programmes in English to Britain since the 1930s and the Isle of Man based Manx Radio began in 1964.

BBC Radio 1 is carried in the United States and Canada on XM Satellite Radio and Sirius Satellite Radio.

The BBC is a patron of The Radio Academy.

Independent Radio

Independent radio programme companies operate under license to the Radio Authority and are financed mainly by advertising revenue. There are three independent national services: Classic FM, broadcasting mainly classical music; Virgin 1215, playing broad – based rock music; and Talk Radio UK, speech – based service. About 200 independent local radio services are also in operation. Stations supply local news and information, sport, music and other entertainment, education and consumer advice.

SECTION RECAP

- *How do newspapers affect the way people think?*
- *Is the British press predominantly left or right of centre on the political scale? Do you think this balance truly reflects the balance of political views among the British people?*
- *Do you agree or disagree with the following statements?*
 - a) The BBC World Service broadcasts the views of the British government.*
 - b) The media in Britain has to defend its independence in the face of pressure from the government.*
- *Do you agree with the view that television is gradually replacing reading?*

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DISCUSSION POINTS

- *Which are the most important newspapers in your country? Describe two of them.*
- *British TV has been described as “the least worst TV in the world”. What do you think this description is trying to say?*
- *What is your attitude to violence on television? Does it influence people and how should it be controlled?*
- *Make comparisons between the British media and the media in your country.*
- *Which newspapers are comparable to the main British tabloids and broadsheets?*
- *To what extent are newspapers, radio and television funded by advertising?*
- *Are there any limits to press freedom?*

CULTURAL LIFE AND LIFE STYLES IN

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BRITAIN

THE BRITISH CHARACTER

The British say their best characteristics are culture, courtesy and consideration for the needs of others. Indeed, they are very polite. They always queue when they are waiting for a bus and hold the door open to the person behind them. Also, the British hobbies have a reputation of being the friendliest and helpful polite man in the world. On the other hand, English football fans are regarded as hooligans and vandals able to tear stadiums into pieces. Generally speaking, however, the British are well-mannered. It is also true that they care of the needy, as there are a lot of charity organizations all over Britain Home, sweet home "There is no place like home" say the British. This adage best expresses an Englishman's traditional love of his home. About 70 per cent of British people have their own

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houses. Most homes have a garden in which the British spend a lot of time growing flowers and looking after them. Many houses, especially the older ones, are surrounded by hedges, which symbolizes the desire of the British to protect their privacy. "My house is my castle" this well-known proverb reminds a visitor that unless he is invited, he may expect to be treated as an intruder.

The English not only love their homes but also their pets. Many people keep cats, dogs, budgies and other animals at home. They are completely crazy about pets. Paradoxically, the English still love the hunting of wild animals.

It is not easy to decide on the typically British characteristics. Not all English people are cold, uncommunicative or boring, not all of them are crazy about lawns or animals. Still, there is one thing that is typically British: a strong attachment to tradition and a desire to keep

their counties uniqueness. Some people say that the British live in the past, but they are simply proud of their originality.

Britain is notorious for rainy weather but on the other hand probably this wet and mild climate makes the English lawns so green and fresh all the year round. People in Britain are allowed to walk on the grass and you can often see them picnicking on it. This changeable weather may be the reason why the British talk about the weather a lot. For example, "Isn't it a beautiful morning?" or, "Very cold today, isn't it?" They talk about the weather because it changes so often. Wind, rain, sun, cloud, snow - they can all happen in a British winter - or a British summer.

At British banks, shops, cinemas, theatres or bus stops you can always see people in queues. They stand in a line and wait quietly, often for a long time. Each new person stands at the end of the queue - sometimes in rain, wind or snow. Queuing is a national passion. The British are really an orderly, organized nation.

They do not shake hands as often as we do. Hundreds of years ago, soldiers began this custom. They shook hands to show that they didn't have a sword. Now, shaking hands is a

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custom in most countries. In Britain you don't shake hands with your friends and family. But you do shake hands when you meet a person for the first time. You also say "How do you do?" This is not really a question, it's a tradition. The correct answer is exactly the same, "How do you do?"

The British send birthday cards and often give birthday presents. There are cards for other days, too: Christmas cards,

Valentine's Day cards, Mother's Day cards, Father's Day cards, Easter cards, Wedding Anniversary cards, Good Luck cards, "Congratulations On Your New Baby" cards, and "Get Well Soon" cards. In Britain there is a custom to celebrate a person's birthday, a new house, Christmas (at home, and often in offices, too), and engagement, a wedding, New Year's Eve

Although the British seem to be conservative and famous for their dry humor, they are much advanced in science and technology. Many games originated or were perfected in Britain.

THEATRE AND CINEMA IN BRITAIN

The theatre has always been very strong in Britain. Its center is, of course, London, where successful plays can sometimes run without a break for many years. But every large town in the country has its theatres. Even small towns often have "repertory" theatres, where different plays are performed for short periods by the same group of professional actors (a repertory company).

It seems that the theatrical play gives the undemonstrative British people a safe opportunity to look behind the mask of accepted social behavior. The country's most successful and respected playwrights are usually those who explore the darker side of the personality and of personal relationships.

British theatre has such a fine acting tradition that Hollywood is forever raiding its talent for people to star in films. British television does the same thing. Moreover,

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Broadway, when looking for its next blockbuster musical, pays close attention to London productions. In short, British theatre is much admired. As a consequence, it is something that British actors are proud of. Many of the most well-known television actors, though they might make most of their money in this latter medium, continue to see themselves as first and foremost theatre actors.

In contrast, the cinema in Britain is often regarded as not quite part of "the arts" at all — it is simply entertainment. Partly

for this reason, Britain is unique among the large European countries in giving almost no financial help to its film industry.

Therefore, although cinema-going is a regular habit for a much larger number of people than is theatre-going, British film directors often have to go to Hollywood because the resources they need are not available in Britain. As a result, comparatively few films of quality are made in the country. This is not because expertise in film making does not exist. It does. American productions often use studios and technical facilities in Britain. Moreover, some of the films which Britain does manage to make become highly respected around the world. But even these films often make a financial loss.

BRITISH MUSIC

Edward Elgar was the dominant classical composer of the early part of the century. British tastes also tended towards light classical composers such as Edward German, Ketelbey and Eric Coates, whose music was spread by the new medium of Radio.

Radio also played a part in the increasing popularity of big band dance music, popularized by the orchestras of Gerald, Ambrose, Henry Hall and Billy Cotton, and singers like Al Bowlly, and Jack Buchanan.

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Operetta and Musical Comedy were very popular forms in this period, and leading British composers included Ivor Novello, Noel Coward, and Noel Gay.

Popular singers in the Music Hall idiom included, Marie Lloyd, Vesta Tilley, George Formby, Flanagan and Allen and Gracie Fields. With the advent of World War II the taste for a more reflective and romantic style of music was led by singers like Anne Shelton and Vera Lynn.

In the 60s and 70s, Britain was in a state of social upheaval as a counterculture developed, from which came an explosion

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of American blues-derived musical innovation as well as a revival of British folk, inspired by pioneering artists like the Copper family. There was mixing between the two groups, with bands like Fairport Convention and Steeleye Span pioneering a folkrock fusion. Nic Jones, Davy Graham, Roy Harper,

Ralph McTell, June Tabor, Shirley Collins, John Renbourn and John Kirkpatrick were among those who balanced innovation with tradition, and criticized the worst excesses of folk-rock. When Martin Carthy "plugged in" in 1971, the British traditional scene erupted in an uproar of criticizing. Ashley Hutchings and Dave Pegg had been earlier innovators of the fusion, and Hutchings helped propel Fairport Convention into the star position of the British folk-rock scene, starting with the album "What We Did On Our Holidays".

The seventies were probably the heydays for Folk Music Publications. The popularity of British folk declined in the later 1970s, however, losing ground to glam rock, disco, punk rock, heavy metal and lovers rock. In the mid-1980s a new rebirth began, this time fusing folk forms with energy and political aggression derived from punk rock. Leaders included The Men They Couldn't Hang, Oyster Band, Billy Bragg and The Pogues.

Folk-dance music also became popular in the 80s, with the British Country Blues Band and Tiger Moth. Later in the

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decade, reggae influenced British country music due to the work of Edward II & the Red Hot Polkas, especially on their seminal Let's Polkasteady from 1987. In the 21st century, Oxford produced a young duo Spiers and Boden.

THE ARTS IN BRITAIN

The arts in Britain are flourishing, and present a varied and lively picture. London has become an international forum of the

arts, with major exhibitions of painting and sculpture and theatre, opera and ballet companies and orchestras drawing large audiences. Throughout Britain there are festivals and centers of artistic activity - among them the Edinburgh International Festival, the music festivals at Aldeburgh, Windsor and Cheltenham, opera at Glyndebourne.

The spread of musical interest in Britain owes much to the British Broadcasting Corporation with its daily music programme and its partial financing of the Promenade Concerts at the Royal Albert Hall, London.

There are over 900 museums and art galleries in Britain and art exhibitions are shown all over the country through the Arts Council, which distributes government grants for music, drama, painting and sculpture. Local authorities play an important part in encouraging the arts, supporting galleries, orchestras and arts centers - an example is the ambitious Midlands Art Centre for young people in Birmingham.

British artists, writers, musicians and architects exert a powerful influence abroad. Notable figures include sculptors Henry Moore and Anthony Caro, painters Francis Bacon and Graham Sutherland and, among younger artists, Richard Smith, winner of a major international prize in 1967, Richard Hamilton, who painted the first "pop" picture, and Bridget Riley, internationally known artist whose work has also inspired fashion.

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British music "owes" much to the composer Benjamin Britten, whose influence has produced a new school of British opera. In architecture the work of Sir Basil Spence (Coventry Cathedral, Sussex University) and the collective work of modern British architects in housing and town planning are outstanding.

Literature presents great diversity. Poetry has received fresh stimulus from regional movements including the

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Liverpool poets, who write for public performance. Among novelists of worldwide reputation are Graham Greene, Angus Wilson, William Golding, Iris Murdoch and Muriel Spark.

RELIGION IN GREAT BRITAIN

Barring the first few centuries of its history, Christianity has been the predominant religion in Britain. Christianity, as propounded by the Anglican Church of England, continues to be the dominant faith of the country. The head of the Church of England is the reigning British monarch, presently Queen Elizabeth II. According to the census of 2001, the Christian community of the country accounted for about 71% of the entire population. In addition to Christianity, other religions of Britain feature Hinduism, Islam, Buddhism, Judaism, Zoroastrianism, Jainism and Sikhism. In Britain religion is a matter of individual choice.

Religious diversity is one of the defining features of the British society that is the outcome of the right to religious freedom granted to the citizens of the country.

History of religion in Britain reflects the evolution of the country's faith from Roman Catholicism to Protestantism. It was during the reign of Henry VIII in 1533 that the Anglican Church was formed after breaking away from the Roman Catholic Church. The Church of England was led by Henry

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VIII, who got the Bible translated into English. Those who adhered to his new faith came to be known as the Protestants. The country once again reverted back to Catholicism under Queen Mary in the year 1558. With the succession of Queen Elizabeth to the throne of the country, the Anglican Church was

restored back to its former glory and since then it features as the official religion of the country.

In Great Britain majority of the people are Christians. The Christian communities of Great Britain include the followers of the Church of Scotland, Catholics, Church of England, Protestants, Church in Wales and other Christian denominations. Presbyterian Church of Scotland is the official Church of Scotland. A large number of inhabitants of Britain adhere to no religion. The 2001 census placed them at over 15% of the entire population, second only to the Christians. Among the non Christians, the Muslims are the largest religious denomination, with the Hindus occupying the second position. Tolerance towards all religions is the hallmark feature of the British society.

Among the religions practiced in modern Britain, Islam accounts for 3 per cent of the total population of the country. Britain Islam refers to the Muslim Community residing in Britain, which is the largest non Christian religious group in the country. Muslims in Britain are estimated to be around two to three million. The Muslim community of Britain is concentrated largely in the cities of Lancashire, Greater London, West Yorkshire and West Midlands. The Muslims of Britain are mostly followers of the Sunni tradition. Muslim population in Britain is concentrated in the urban areas. The followers of Britain Islam are ethnically diverse. 74% are British Asian, 6.9 % are black British, 11.6% are white and 7.5 % belong to other groups.

Muslim community in Britain comprises people from the countries of North Africa, Middle East and some countries of

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the Indian subcontinent like Pakistan, Bangladesh and India, who migrated to the country for a number of reasons like economic and political. Yemenis were the first Muslim group that settled in Britain. The first mosque of Britain was built at

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Cardiff in 1860. There are more than 1200 mosques in Britain at present.

CUSTOMS AND TRADITION IN BRITAIN

Every nation and every country has its own customs and traditions. In Britain traditions play more important part in the life of the people than in some other countries. Englishmen are proud of their traditions and carefully keep them up. It has been the law for about three hundred years that all the theatres are closed on Sundays no letters are delivered only a few Sunday papers are published. To this day English families prefer cottage houses with gardens to flats in a modern house with central heating. English people like gardens. Sometimes the garden in front of the house is a little square covered with cement painted green (in imitation of grass) and a box of flowers. In English houses the fire-place has always been the centre of interest in a room. For many months of the year people like to sit round the fire and watch the dancing flames. Fire places are decorated with woodworks, there is a painting or a mirror over it. Above the fire there is usually a shelf with a clock and some photographs. Holidays are especially rich in old traditions and are different in Scotland, Wales and England. Christmas is a great English national holiday and in Scotland it is not kept at all except by clerks in banks, all the shops and factories are working. But 6 days later on the New Year's Eve the Scots begin to enjoy themselves. People invite their friends to their houses and sit the old year out and the new year in. In England on new Year's Eve a lot of people go to Trafalgar

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Square, at midnight, they all cross their arms join hands and sing. Specially, children are happy to have presents.

Four times a year the offices and banks in Britain are closed on Monday. These public holidays are known as Bank Holidays. The British like to spend holidays out of the town in the open air. They go to the sea-side or to amusements parks. Londoners often visit the Zoo, outside London they take their families to Hamsted Heath a large natural park too. There is usually a big fair with many different amusements for children merry-go-round, swings puppet shows, bright balloons.

One must also speak about such holidays as All Fools Day, Hallowe'en Bonfire Night, St. Valentines Day and such tradition as Eisteddfod.

April Fool's Day: April 1st is April Fool's Day in Britain. This is a very old tradition from the Middle Ages. At that time the servants were masters for one day of the year. They gave orders to their masters and their masters had to obey. Now the day is different. It is the day for jokes and tricks and no one gets upset when strange things happen on the street or at the office.

May Day: May 1st was an important day also in the Middle Ages. In the very early morning, girls went to the fields and washed their faces with dew. They believe this made them beautiful for a year after that. Also on May Day the young men of each village tried to win prizes with their bows and arrows and people danced round the maypole.

Many English villages still have a maypole and on May 1st, the villagers dance round it.

Midsummer's Day: June, 24th is the longest day of the year. On that day you can see a very old custom at Stonehenge, in Wiltshire,

England. Stonehenge is one of Europe's biggest stone circles. But what was this monument built for? A market, a kind a calendar, a holy place? The Druids were the holy priests in Britain 2,000 years ago. They used the stones and the sun to know the start of the

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months and seasons. There are Druids in Britain today too. And every June 24th a lot of them go to Stonehenge. On that morning the sun shines on one famous stone-the Heel Stone. For many British is just a strange old custom.

Halloween: on October 31st you can expect to meet witches and ghosts all over the places. A long time ago people were afraid to go out on this night as they thought all the spirits were free to come back on earth and haunt those who did them harm. But now it is a time for fun. There are a lot of parties where people wear masks and costumes.

Guy Fawkes' Day: November 5th is Guy Fawkes' Day in Britain. All over the country people build wood fires, or bonfires in their gardens. On the top of each bonfire is a guy. That's the figure of Guy Fawkes. People make guys with straws, old clothes and newspapers. On November 5th Guy Fawkes tried to kill the King James. He and a group of his friends put a bomb under the Houses of Parliament in London. But the King's men found the bomb and they found him too. They took him to the Tower of London where the king's men cut off his head.

SECTION RECAP

- *How do you understand the saying "The Englishman's home is his castle"? Explain it.*
- *What is a "typical" British family? How many persons does it usually contain? Do all of them live together?*
- *Who usually takes care about old-age pensioners in Britain? And in your country?*
- *What do you think about British homes? Why do some people give names to their suburban houses? Is it useful?*
- *What kind of artistic activity do you mean when speaking about the arts in Britain?*
- *What names of contemporary British novelists, composers and other people of arts do you know?*

DISCUSSION POINTS

- *In Britain one marriage in every three now ends in divorce. How can you explain this situation? Is it because of the young age when people get married? Are there any other reasons? What is it necessary to escape divorce? Give your opinion.*
- *In Britain members of a family used to get together on Christmas and other occasions. What do you think about it? Is it a good tradition? Do members of a British family often spend time together? On what occasions? Do you always like to be with your parents? Did you like it in your childhood?*
- *What do you think about the fathers role in British families? Are fathers often involved in their children's upbringing in Britain? What role did your own father play in your bringing up? Is a father's role in the family as important as mothers? What do you think about it?*

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«Аѝ ай Оуһпее» няшрийатынын аедаеодідо:

Іааеө ІВІІВÄЕЕ

ідоаһһідо

Чапа имзаланмыш: **01.09.2016**

Шярти чап вяряги: **14,1**

Сифариш: **№ 357**

Кабыз форматы: **60x84 1/16**

Тираж: **300**

Еедаа «Аѝ ай Оуһпее» іуөдееао-һееадаоееа
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