

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH-SPEAKING COUNTRIES

COURSE OUTLINE

Estonian: Inglise keelt kõnelevate maade ajalugu

Code: FLGR 01.138

Semester:

When/where:

Lecturer: Pilvi Rajamäe

Office hours:

Format: lecture

Credits: 4

Exam: written, 2 hours, 10 questions (a selection from your revision questions, see below)

Aim: an overview of the main events in the history of Britain and the British Empire (for the topics covered, see again the revision questions below)

Your OBLIGATORY READING materials:

Obviously everything included in this coursebook and your own lecture notes.

Your **basic textbook** which you will use for **independent study** at home (and which I am **not** going to retell in class!) will be the best available one-volume university textbook to date

The Oxford History of Britain. Edited by Kenneth O. Morgan. Oxford University Press, 1984 (updated versions 1988, 1993, 1999, 2001). ISBN 0-19-285202-7 (paperback).

which you have to buy at the University Bookshop. It is constantly on sale and if they have run out of copies, please ask them to order it for you. The delivery won't take long. As every credit point presupposes the same amount of work done at home as in class, the amount of your homework will not be small. Nevertheless, don't be daunted by the book's thickness. As you go along preparing for your exam, you will notice that there are large chunks of material that you can discard as not strictly necessary for answering the revision questions.

For those with a deeper interest in the subject and surer command of language, the books below will make interesting reading:

P.J. Cain, A.G. Hopkins. *Innovation and Expansion 1688-1914*. Longman, 1993.

P.J. Cain, A.G. Hopkins. *Crisis and Deconstruction 1914-1990*. Longman, 1993.

Bernard Porter. *The Lion's Share. A Short History of British Imperialism 1850-1995*. Longman (1976) 1996.

P.J. Marshall (editor). *The Cambridge Illustrated History of the British Empire*. Cambridge University Press, (1996) 2001.

Jan Morris. *Heaven's Command. An Imperial Progress*. Faber and Faber. (1973) 1998.

Pax Britannica. The Climax of an Empire. Faber and Faber (1968) 1998.

Farewell the Trumpets. An Imperial Retreat. Faber and Faber (1978) 1998.

If you love to spend time with the computer and there are gaps in your knowledge which need filling, go to BBC pages of history at <http://www.bbc.co.uk/history>.

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH-SPEAKING COUNTRIES

Revision questions

Prepare short and concise answers, explaining to me as if to an uninformed but interested stranger what stands behind this or that name or event. Be well informed but stick to the point. DO NOT yield to the temptation to show off as many details as you can remember. The idea is NOT to check your capacity for memorizing innumerable details but for me to see whether you have understood the material and are able to integrate it into your learning process in the future when these event and names will be cropping up frequently (starting next term, for instance, with English literature). Five or six well-informed sentences will do for any of these questions, even if they seem to require lengthy answers. In the case of persons, concentrate on their most important achievement or the way their existence has influenced the course of history. In the case of wars, concentrate on the cause of war, on who took part and what the outcome was for Britain. In the case of former British colonies and overseas territories, tell me when and why the British were there and when and why they left, or if they are still there. All the dates I want you to remember are already included in the revision questions.

Stonehenge

The Celts in Britain and their legacy

Caesar in Britain

The Roman occupation of Britain 43-410 and its legacy

Christianity in Roman Britain

Boadicea/Boudica

Hadrian's Wall

The Picts, Caledonia

The Scots, Hibernia

The Venerable Bede

The coming of the Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Frisians to Britain

The 7 Anglo-Saxon kingdoms

St Patrick and the Christianization of Ireland

St Columba and the Irish Christian mission to Iona

St Aidan and the Irish Christian mission to Northumbria

St Augustine and the Roman Catholic mission to Kent

St George

St Andrew

St David

The Synod of Whitby 664

Offa's Dyke

Redwald and Sutton Hoo

Alfred the Great and the rise of Wessex to cultural pre-eminence

Danelaw and other Viking territories in the British Isles

Æthelred/Ethelred the Unready and Danegeld

Canute/Cnut

The Vikings of Normandy

Feudalism and the manor system

Edward the Confessor

Harold Godwinson

The Battle of Hastings 1066

The Norman Conquest

The House of Normandy (kings, centuries)

The Bayeux Tapestry
The Domesday Book
The House of Anjou/the Plantagenets/the Angevins (kings, centuries)
Henry II and Thomas a Becket
The Anglo-Norman invasion of Ireland, the Pale
Richard I and Minstrel Blondel
John Lackland and Magna Carta 1215
Henry III and Westminster Abbey
Simon de Montfort's Parliament of 1265
Model Parliament 1295
The Welsh March
Edward I's conquest of North Wales
Prince of Wales 1301
Fergus Mor Mac Earca and Dalriada
Kenneth MacAlpin and the unification of Scotland
Malcolm III Canmore and Queen Margaret
The Anglo-Norman invasion of Scotland
The Scottish Wars of Independence 1286-1371
John Balliol
William Wallace
Robert Bruce
The Hammer of the Scots
Eleanor Crosses
Bannockburn 1314
Edward II, Queen Isabella and Roger Mortimer
The Hundred Years War 1337-1453
Crecy 1346, Poitiers 1356, Agincourt 1415
Edward III and the Black Prince as paragons of chivalry
The Order of the Garter
Black Death 1348-1350 and the subsequent decline of the manor system
The Peasants' War 1381
Richard II and Henry Bolingbroke
The Wars of the Roses 1455-1485
Edward IV and Elizabeth Woodville
Richard III and the 'Princes in the Tower'
The House of Tudor (kings, centuries)
Henry VIII and the English Reformation
Fidei Defensor
Cardinal Wolsey
Catherine of Aragon
Anne Boleyn
Jane Seymour
Anne of Cleves
Catherine Howard
Catherine Parr
Thomas Cromwell and the dissolution of the monasteries
The Protestantism of Edward VI's reign
Lady Jane Grey
The restored Catholicism of Mary I/Bloody Mary
Elizabeth I and the Church of England /Anglican Church, the Thirty-nine Articles

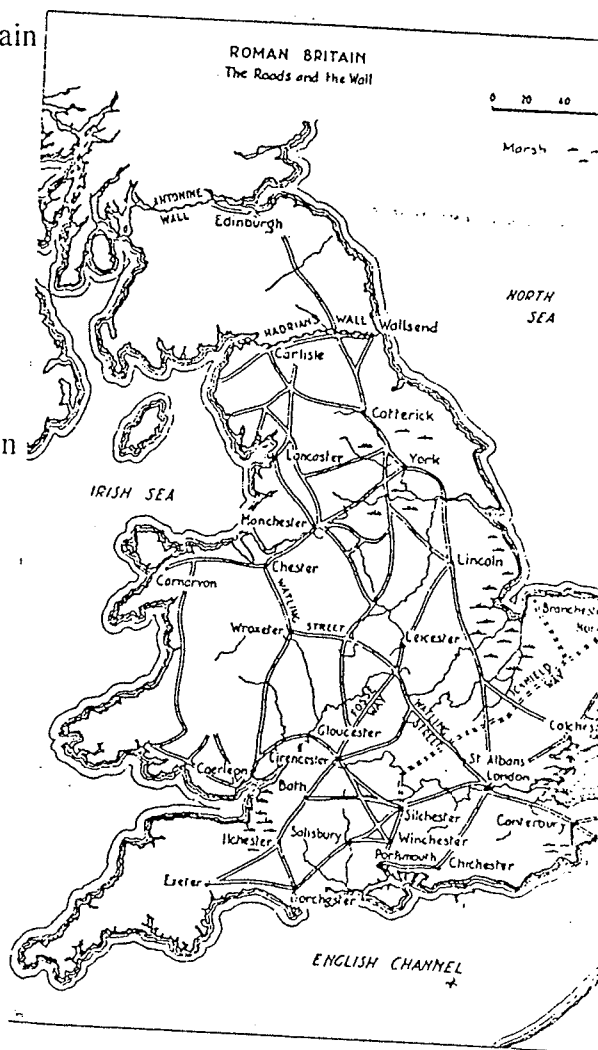
John Knox
The Scottish Reformed Church/the Kirk
Mary Queen of Scots
The defeat of the Invincible Armada 1588
The House of Stuart (kings, centuries)
The Stuart 'divine right of kings'
Charles I's 'tyranny'
Archbishop William Laud's controversial church reforms
The Long Parliament 1640-1653
The Civil War
The Cavaliers
The Roundheads
Oliver Cromwell
The New Model Army
Marston Moor 1644, Naseby 1645
The Independents
Pride's Purge and the Rump
Regicide 1649
The Commonwealth 1649-1660
George Monk
Restoration 1660
The Clarendon Code
The emergence of the two-party system, the Whigs and the Tories
The Glorious Revolution 1688
The Bill of Rights 1689, the Act of Settlement 1701
The War of the Spanish Succession/the Marlborough Wars 1701-1714
The Act of Union with Scotland 1707
The House of Hanover (kings, centuries)
Robert Walpole and the Cabinet System
The Jacobite Rebellions of 1708, 1715, 1745
The Old Pretender/the Chevalier St George
The Young Pretender/Bonnie Prince Charlie
The War of the Austrian Succession 1740-1748
The Seven Years War 1756-1763
The British East India Company and the British expansion in India
The American War of Independence 1775-1783
Canada as a British colony
Australia as a British colony
New Zealand as a British colony
The British expansion in South Africa
The Great Trek and the foundation of the two independent Boer republics
The Napoleonic Wars 1793-1815
Viscount Nelson and Trafalgar 1805
The Duke of Wellington and Waterloo 1815
The Congress of Vienna 1815
Regency
The Peterloo Massacre 1819
The campaign for parliamentary reform from mid C18 into the C20
The Free Trade and Corn Law debates
The Industrial Revolution

The emergence of the Conservative Party
The emergence of the Liberal Party
The emergence of the Labour Party
The Great Exhibition 1851
The Crimean War 1854-1856
Pax Britannica
The British expansion in the Pacific area
The British presence in Egypt and Sudan
General Gordon and Khartoum 1885
The British expansion in East Africa
The British expansion in West Africa
Cecil Rhodes and the British expansion into the southern African interior
The Boer Wars 1880-1881, 1899-1902
The Indian Mutiny 1857-1858
The British Raj in India
The British expansion in Asia
The House of Wettin (kings, centuries)
The movement for women's emancipation and suffrage in the C19 and C20
The House of Windsor (kings, centuries)
World War I 1914-1918
The Gallipoli campaign
The Mesopotamian campaign
The campaign on the Western Front
The campaign for the Irish Home Rule in the C19 and C20
The problem of Ulster in the C20
Edward VIII and Wallis Simpson
World War II 1939-1945
The 'phoney war'
Dunkirk 1940, the Battle of Britain 1940, El Alamein 1942, Singapore 1942
D-Day 1944, Operation Overlord
Winston Churchill
The establishment and breakdown of the welfare state
Margaret Thatcher

NB!

As you will have noticed, reaching this far, the course does not deal in any depth with modern Britain. Don't despair. Already next term you will have an obligatory course on modern British society and culture and there is an optional course available for those who are interested in Britain in the 20th century.

PALEOLITHIC (Old Stone) AGE - roughly chipped flints used
 250,000 BC first evidence of human life in Britain
 10,000 BC the last Ice Age draws to a close, wanderer-hunter culture
 5,000 BC Britain is cut off from the continent, becomes an island
 3,000 BC NEOLITHIC (New Stone) AGE - polished flints used
 "Western Mediterraneans" build megalith monuments (Stonehenge, Avebury Ring, etc)
 Gerald S Hawkins. *Stonehenge prehistory*. Ajast Aega, Tallinn, 1980.
 3,500 - 2,500 BC the Indo-Europeans start their migrations
 2,400 BC Indo-Europeans (the "Beaker" people) reach Britain, start of the BRONZE AGE
 700 - 200 BC the Celts invade Britain in two big waves, start of the IRON AGE:
 Gaels or Goidels (still to be found in Ireland and Scotland) and
 Cymri (now in Wales) and Brythons (gave the name to Britain and later to Brittany)
 330 BC Pytheas from Massalia (Marseille) visited a 'Pretanic isle'
 F. Schlette. *Keltid Alesia ja Pergamon vahel*. Ajast Aega, Tallinn, 1986.
 BRITANNIA - the Roman province
 55 BC Caesar comes on a punitive expedition to Britain
 54 BC Caesar comes again with a stronger force and
 defeats Cassivelaunus, king of Catuvellauni
 90 years of peaceful Roman economic penetration
 43 AD Emperor Claudius conquers Britain
 60-62 AD Boadicea/Boudicca, queen of Iceni's revolt
 the South and South-East Romanized
 the Pennines, Cumbria, Wales, Northumbria peopled
 by the Brigantes controlled from legion
 headquarters in York, Chester, Caerleon
 L *colonia* (Lincoln) - a settlement of Roman veterans
 L *castrum* (Gloucester, Silchester, Chester) - a Roman
 military camp
 villas roads resorts (Bath, L *Aqua Sulis*)
 the SCOTS (L *scotti* = raiders) in *Hibernia* and
 the PICTS ('the painted ones') in *Caledonia* remain
 unconquered
 84 AD Governor Agricola fights the Picts at *Mons Graupius* (the Grampian range)
 123 AD Emperor Hadrian builds Hadrian's Wall of
 stone, by 200 AD outpost north of the wall
 abandoned
 140 AD Emperor Antoninus Pius builds the Antonine
 Wall of turf, later abandoned
 313 AD Emperor Constantine legalizes Christianity
 in the Roman Empire, 380 AD Emperor Theodosius I
 makes Christianity the official religion of the Empire
 367 AD assaults of Picts, Scots and Saxon pirates
 400 AD garrisons withdrawn from the Wall and Welsh forts
 406-7 AD Vandals, Burgundians, Sueves and other Germanic peoples cross the Rhine
 frontier into Gaul, the large-scale invasion of the Empire by the Barbarians begins
 407 AD the last Roman legions leave Britain for good
 408 AD Emperor Honorius concedes British civilians the right to take up arms in self-
 defence
 410 AD the date traditionally taken to symbolize the end of Roman rule in Britain



ANGLO-SAXON ENGLAND

The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, 449: "Never was there such slaughter in this land."
the Saxons settled in the South and West

the Angles * * East Anglii Anglia

the Jutes * * Kent

Frisians

731 Venerable Bede *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum* Anglecynn Englisc
1000 Engaland

wealas ('foreigners') = Wales, the Welsh the 'Celtic fringe'

Northumbria (Deira + Bernicia) }
Mercia } Angles
East Anglia }

Kent — Jutes

Essex }
Sussex } Saxons
Wessex }

Bretwalda ('overking')

WELSH-IRISH CHRISTIANITY the Irish Golden Age

432-461 conversion of the Irish St. Patrick - patron saint of Ireland
hermit monastery kraal baptism Christianization

563 St. Columba's mission from Ulster to the isle of Iona

635 St. Aidan's mission to the court of Oswald, king of Northumbria

Lindisfarne (on Holy Isle) Jarrow Melrose Whitby

the Book of Kells

KENT

449 Hengist & Horsa defeated Vortigern

Hengist's great-great-grandson Ethelbert I married a Christian Frankish princess Bertha
Pope Gregory the Great: "*Non Anglii, sed Angeli*"

596-7 St. Augustine's mission to Ethelbert's court, the first Archbishop of Canterbury
Ethelburga of Kent married Edwin of Northumbria

664 the Synod of Whitby convened by king Oswy of Northumbria preferred the Roman
Catholic Church

MERCIA

Offa (asc. 757) built Offa's Dyke to keep out the Welsh

EAST ANGLIA

Redwald is probably the king whose burial mound was opened in 1939 at Sutton Hoo, the
treasure is now in the British Museum

WESSEX

495 founded by Cedric who arrived with his son Cynric and 5 ships, 519 obtained the
kingdom of West Saxons

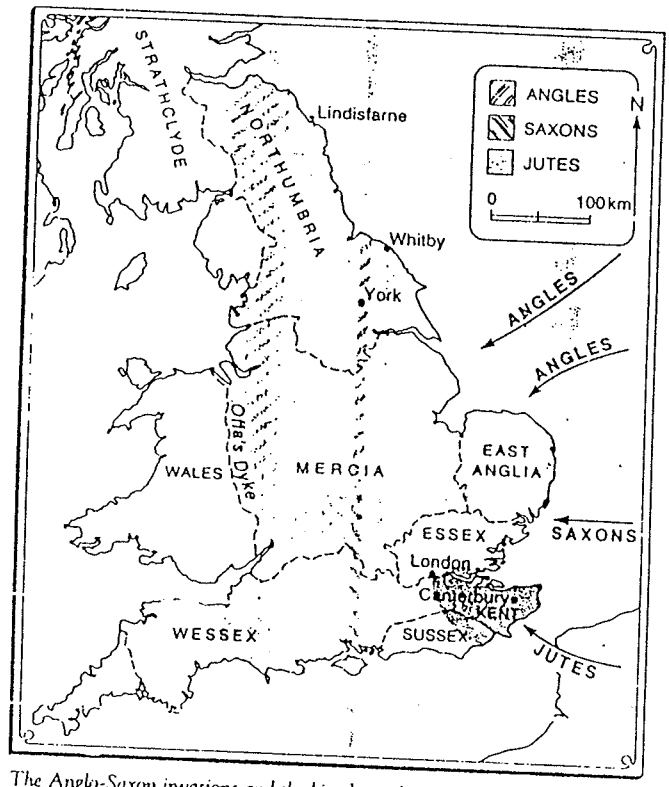
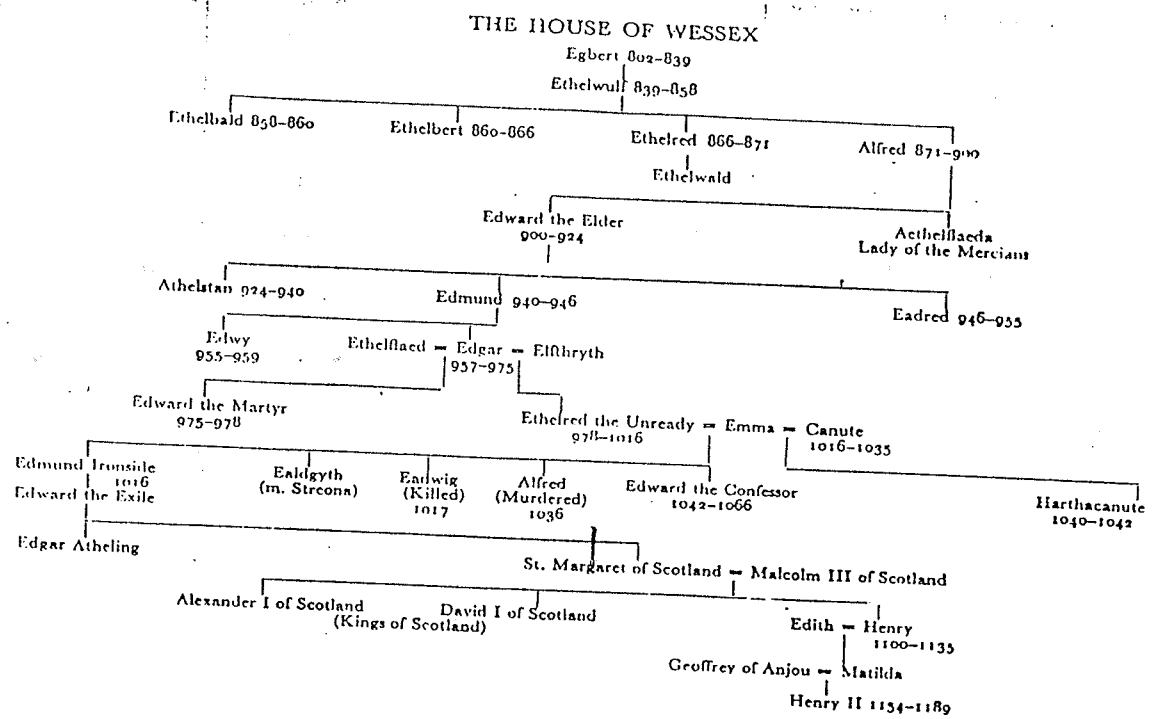
THE COMING OF THE DANES

600 the adoption of the great iron axe

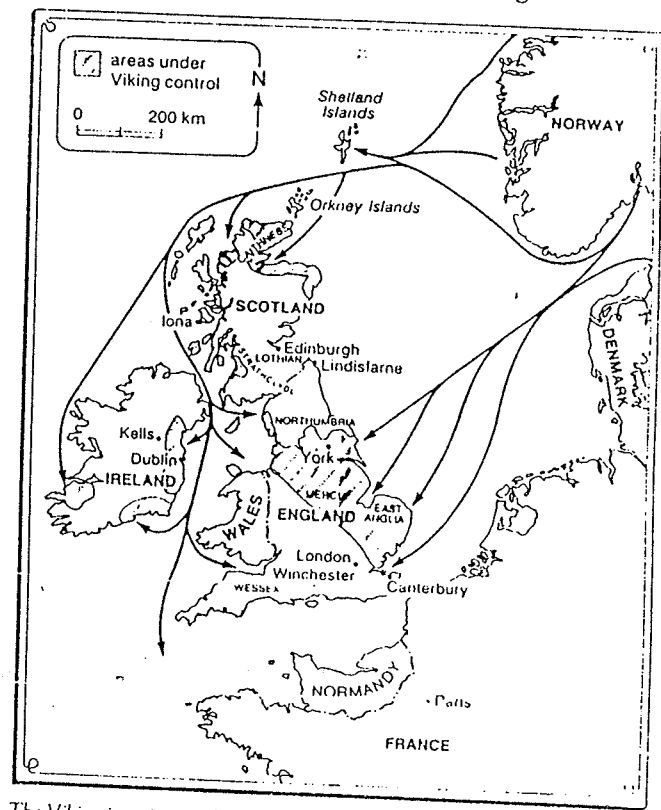
8C Charlemagne (Charles the Great), king of Francia undertook the conversion of his
northern neighbours

Swedes: through Russia to Constantinople 865, western involvement small

Norwegians: Shetlands; Faroe islands; Iceland 680, 870 colonized; Greenland 9C, partly



The Anglo-Saxon invasions and the kingdoms they established.



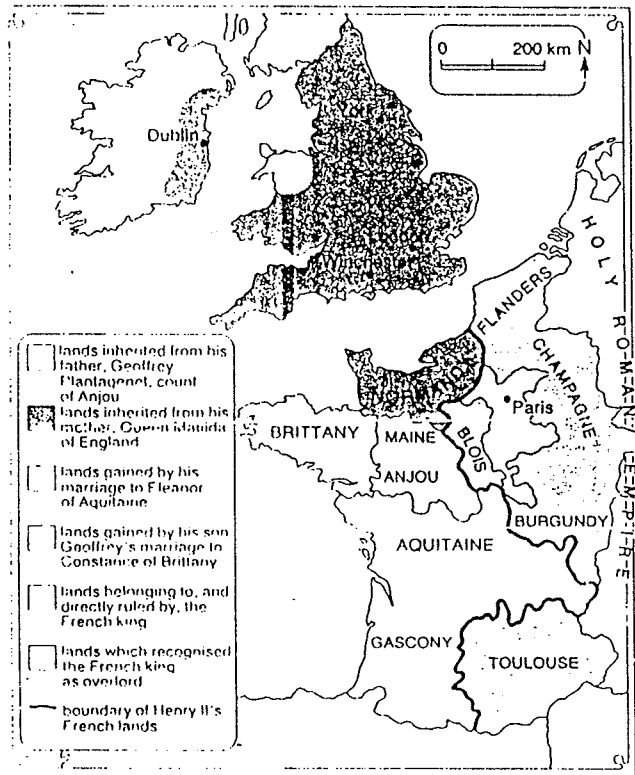
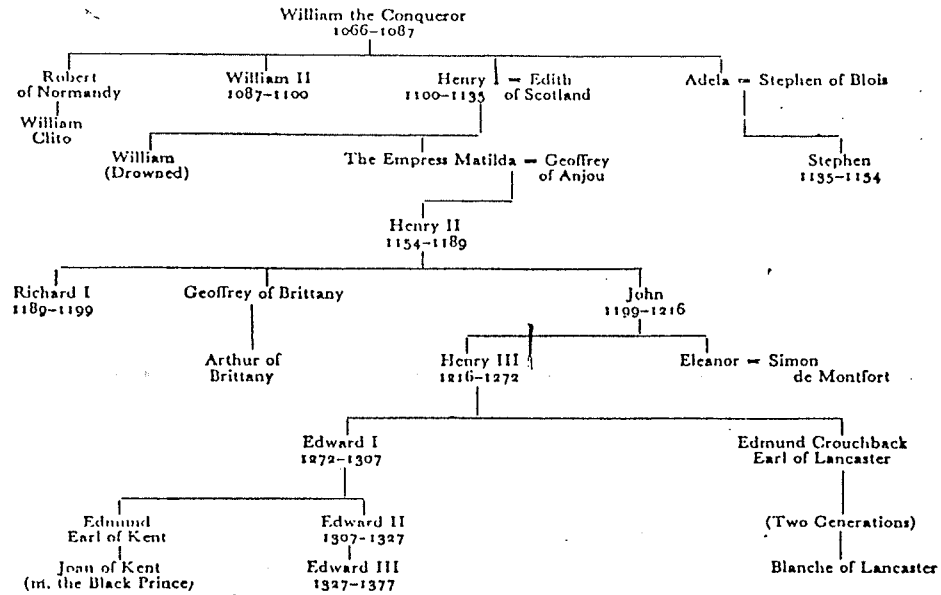
The Viking invasions and the areas they brought under their control.

settled; Newfoundland; Labrador 1000 ('Vinland');
 Shetlands, Orkneys, Hebrides, West Scotland, inlets of Ireland, 795 Iona, 798 Isle of
 Man, 853 the Scandinavian kingdom of Dublin, Cumbria, Yorkshire
 Danes: the rest of Britain, raids into the Mediterranean
ALFRED the Great 871-899 married Ealhswith from the royal house of Mercia
 took refuge in the marshy island of Athelney (Somerset)
 swineherd's wife wandering harper
 878 the battle of Eathandune (Edington), the treaty of Wedmore - the Danes retreated behind
 Watling Street
Danelaw (East Anglia, Mercia, Northumbria)
 borough (burgh) -bury
 shire (OE *scir*, OHG *scira* - official charge) shire-reeve (OE *scir-gerefa*) - sheriff
 jarl - earl
 Alfred's son **Edward the Elder** 899-925 and grandson **Athelstan** 925-939 reconquered
 Danelaw, **Edgar the Peaceful** 959-975 controlled the whole of England, Wales and
 Scotland vaguely recognized his supremacy
 Edgar married (964) his second wife Elfrith and was crowned (973) with her according to the
 new Coronation Order in Bath Abbey
 Edgar's son **Edward the Martyr** 975-979 from the first marriage murdered at Corfe Castle
 (Dorset) at the instigation of his stepmother whose own son succeeded to the throne as
Ethelred the Unready (OE *redeless* - "not all there") 979-1013, 1014-16, married Emma,
 daughter of Richard I, Duke of Normandy (she later assumed the Anglo-Saxon name Elfgiva)
 994 Norwegian king Olaf Trygvesson and Danish king Sweyn besieged London
 1004 Sweyn sacked and burnt Norwich
 1013 **Sweyn** acknowledged as king of England
 991-1014 Danegeld paid amounting to £ 158,000 in silver (today more than 10 million) - the
 beginning of regular taxation in England
 1016-35 Sweyn's son **Canute** (Knut) king of England, married Elfgiva-Emma
 1019 Canute became king of Denmark
 1030 * * * Norway
 Harold I Harefoot 1035-40, Hardicanute 1040-42

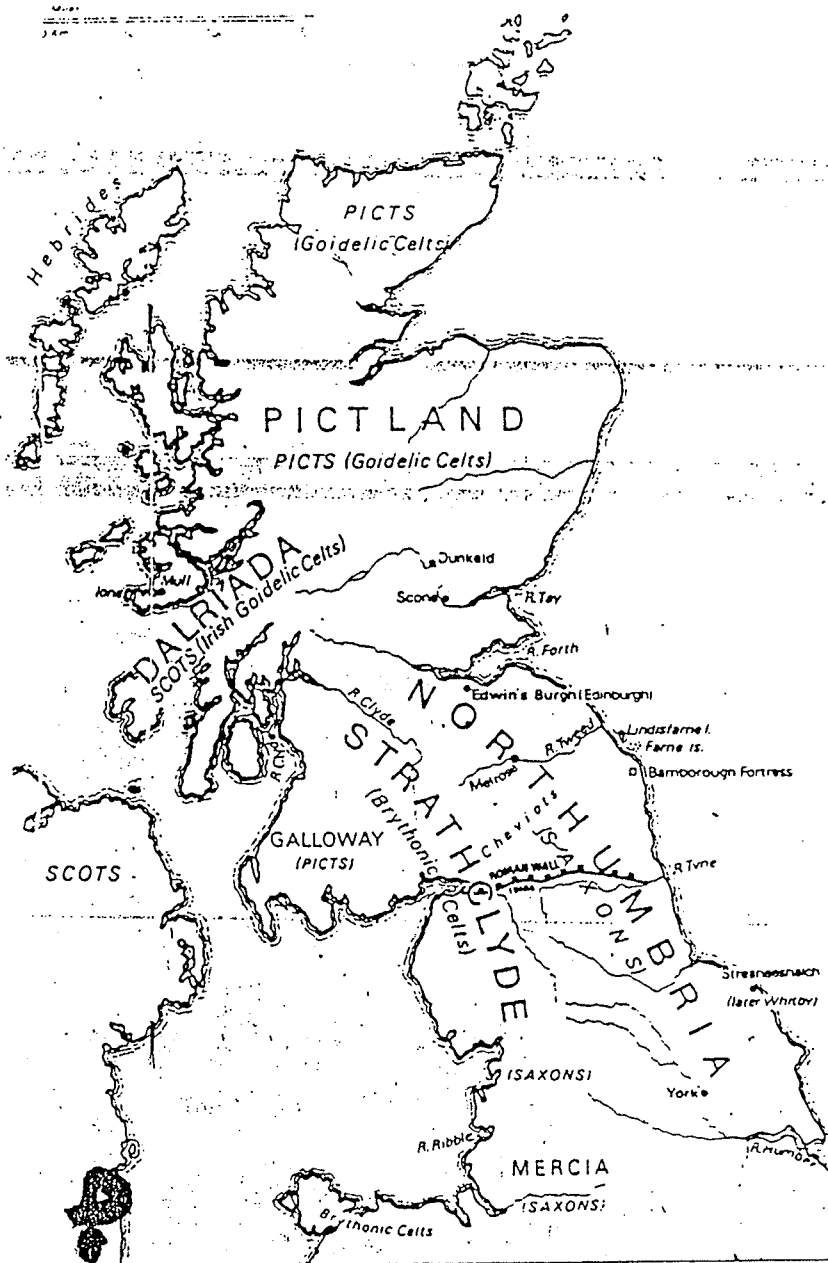
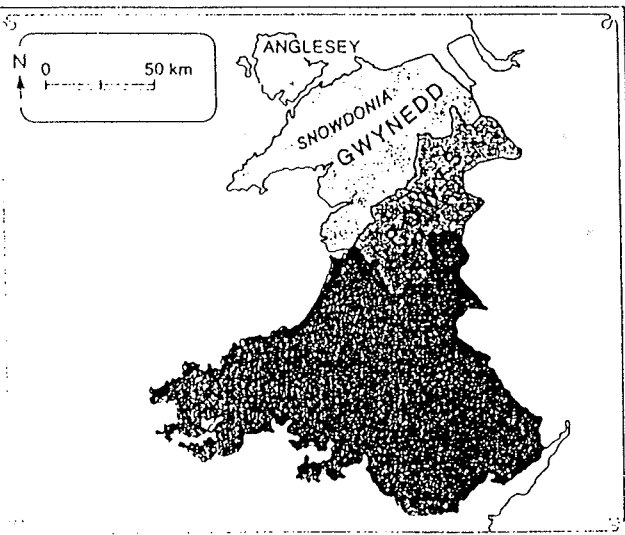
THE DUCAL HOUSE OF NORMANDY

911 991 **Rolf/Rollo the Ganger** was ceded the Duchy of Normandy as a fief by Charles III
 (Simple) of France

feudalism - a system of mutual contractual obligations and personal service based on land
 fief/feuda - a holding of land, acquired from the lord by investiture, a ceremony by which a
 lord 'invests' a vassal with a fief by giving him a symbolic stone or clod
 vassal (medL *vassalus* - manservant, retainer/kaaskondlane)
 king (OE *cyning* - kin, race + *-ing* - one of, descendant)
 duke (L *dux* - leader)
 baron (medL *baro* - man, warrior)
 knight (OE boy, youth, soldier) knight's fee
 serf (OE *serf* - L *servus*) villein (OF *vilain* - L *villa*)



Henry II's empire



MAP 7. Scotland and Northumbria in the Dark Ages.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST 1066 THE HOUSE OF NORMANDY

EDWARD the Confessor 1042-66, 1045 married Edith, daughter of Earl Godwin of Wessex
Westminster Abbey consecrated on Dec. 28, 1065

HAROLD Godwinson, son of Earl Godwin nominated as successor by the Confessor and
accepted by the Witan

William (the Conqueror) Duke of Normandy accused Harold of breach of promise, called
him usurper and undertook a crusade against him with papal blessing

Halley's Comet

Sept. 25, 1066 Harold Godwinson defeated by William at Stamford Bridge

Oct. 14, 1066 Harold defeated by William at Hastings

Bayeux Tapestry - 70 m of embroidered linen, made either by Queen Matilda or
commissioned by Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, William's brother

Gytha, Harold's daughter with his mistress Edith Swanneck married Vladimir Monomakh of
Rus; her descendant married a French king, Isabella of France married Edward II of England

1068 the North subdued by **WILLIAM I**

1086 Domesday Book

WILLIAM II Rufus 1087-1100

Westminster Hall

death in the New Forest Walter Tyrel/Tirel the main suspect

HENRY I Beauclerc ("fine scholar") 1100-1135

daughter Matilda married 1) Henry V, the Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, 2) Geoffrey,
Count of Anjou

son William drowned in 1120 in the wreck of the White Ship

1135-53 the civil war between Matilda and Stephen of Blois

THE HOUSE OF ANJOU ANGEVINS PLANTAGENETS (planta genista -
leopards)

HENRY II Curtmantle 1154-89

1150 Normandy, 1151 Anjou and Maine, 1152 married **Eleanor of Aquitaine**, 1154 England

Thomas á Beckett, Chancellor, later Archbishop of Canterbury murdered at the altar in

Canterbury Cathedral on Dec. 29, 1170, later pilgrimages (like in Chaucer's

Canterbury Tales) to the shrine of St. Thomas

RICHARD I Coeur de Lion (Lionheart) 1189-99, married Berengaria of Navarre Sancho

1187 Sultan Saladin (Salah-ad-Din) recaptured Jerusalem from the Christians

Richard I, Philip of France, Friedrich I Barbarossa (Holy Roman Empire) went on the Third
Crusade to free Christ's Tomb from the Infidel (i.e. the Saracens = Moslems)

St. George adopted by Richard I as the patron saint of England

After the shipwreck in the Adriatic captured by the Duke of Austria and imprisoned,
Minstrel Blondel, singing Richard's songs at every castle in Austria, located his
whereabouts and the ransom was paid

JOHN I Lackland 1199-1216, 'archetype of a bad king', married Isabella of Angoulême

Arthur of Brittany, son of John's elder brother Geoffrey, had a better claim to the throne,

was murdered at John's instigation in 1203, this served as a pretext for Philip

Augustus of France for attacking and taking of Normandy. With the fall of Rouen in 1204
the Anglo-Norman barons' ancestral estates were lost to them.

1205 John quarrelled with the Church over who should be the next Archbishop of
Canterbury, England placed under an interdict (kirikuvanne), John excommunicated

(kirikust välja heidetud), the Pope's nominee Stephen Langton became Archbishop, of Canterbury

1215 **Magna Carta** signed at Runnymede

"No freeman shall be taken and imprisoned or disseised or exiled or in any way destroyed, nor will we go upon him nor will we send upon him except by the lawful judgement of his peers or/and the law of the land"

HENRY III 1216-72, married Eleanor of Provence, daughter of Raymond Berenger V, Count of Provence, whose court saw the last flowering of the troubadour culture
The barons rebelled under **Simon de Montfort**, Earl of Leicester, the **parliament** convened in 1265 contained 2 burgesses from every town and 2 knights from every shire.

EDWARD I Longshanks 1272-1307, married Eleanor of Castile, sister of king Alfonso
1295 **Model Parliament** 'Father of the Mother of Parliaments'

WALES

the Welsh March Marcher Lord Gwynedd Powys

Llewelyn ap Iorwerth/the Great c.1173-1240

Llewelyn ap Gruffyd/Griffith d. 1282

The campaigns of 1277 and 1282-84 subdued north Wales to the Crown, great castles Caernavon, Conwy, Harlech, Beaumaris. Rhuddlan, Denby served as signs of the new power
1301 the Investiture of the Prince of Wales, the last Prince of Wales created on 1 July, 1969

IRELAND

Romans: people - Ibernii, country - Hibernia

Irish chronicles: people - Uib-Erne, descendants of the fertility goddess Eire ("noble").
country - Eireland

Scoti/Scottas (corruption of Irish for "raiders") - Goidelic Celts, spoke Q-Celtic, the mother-tongue of Gaelic, Irish, Manx; also called the Gaels (derivation of 'Gwyddel', the name given to the Irish by the Welsh)

498 **Fergus Mor Mac Earca**, the first king of the Scots in Scotland, initiates a large-scale migration to Scotland which results in the establishment of a Scottish kingdom in Pictland called **Dalriada**, in 9C the Scots subdue southern Pictland

heptarchy High King at Tara

5C Christianity introduced by St. Patrick

2nd half of 8C Viking raids start and continue into the 11C

1014 at Clontarf the allied Irish forces under **Brian Boru** win a decisive victory over the allied forces of the Vikings, end of Viking raids

1170 the deposed king of Leinster asks for help from the Marcher Lord, Earl of Pembroke who leads the Anglo-Norman invasion into Ireland

the Pale - the area around Dublin directly subjected to the English crown

SCOTLAND

Romans: people - Picti/Picts ("the painted ones") spoke P-Celtic, the mother-tongue of Welsh, Cornish and Breton (spoken in Brittany/Bretagne); country - Caledonia

Strathclyde - the kingdom of Brythonic Celts (Britons) stretching from Wales to Dalriada,
King Arthur of the Round Table legends and medieval romances may have been a 5th-century chief who organized resistance to the Anglo-Saxon invaders

843 **Kenneth MacAlpin**, king of the Scots of Dalriada had himself crowned King of Picts and Scots

Viking kingdoms in the Hebrides lasted until 1266,

in the Orkneys and Shetland Islands until 1472
Malcolm II, by pushing the English south and annexing Strathclyde carried his border to the River Tweed

the Gaelic system of choosing a king from a group of pretenders and the Pictish preference for matrilinear descent created a tradition of choosing a king alternately from 2 different stems of the royal house - the Atholls and the Morays

THE HOUSE OF CANMORE 1057-1290

Malcolm III Canmore (Bighead) 1058-93

married Margaret of the House of Wessex whose favour secured Anglo-Norman secular and ecclesiastical influence on the kings of the House of Canmore

THE SCOTTISH WARS OF INDEPENDENCE 1286-1371

1286 all **Alexander III**'s children dead, he himself killed, the only heiress to the kingdom was his only granddaughter Margaret 'Maid of Norway' (daughter of A's daughter Margaret who had married Eric III of Norway)

the child-queen's great uncle Edward I of England considered himself Lord Paramount of Scotland

E's son Edward of Caernavon, Prince of Wales, was considered a suitable husband for the Maid of Norway

1290 the Maid dies in the Orkneys on her way home

12 claimants to the throne, Robert de/the Bruce the Elder and and **John Balliol** (de Baliol) had best claims

1292 Balliol was made king by Edward I, 1296 rebelled against him

Edward I's punitive expedition to Scotland took the **Stone of Scone**, the Scottish Coronation Stone, to London where the English **Coronation Chair** was built around it

"Wherever the stone should rest a King of Scots would reign"

1603 James VI of Scotland became James I of England

William Wallace John de Warenne Earl of Surrey

1297 Stirling 1298 Falkirk 1305 Wallace captured and executed in London

1306 **Robert Bruce** (grandson of the Elder) crowned himself King of Scotland at Scone 'Hammer of the Scots'

Eleanor Crosses (13 in all, 2 originals survive) Elephant and Castle

Margaret of France

EDWARD II (Edward of Caernavon) 1307-1327

married **Isabella of France** (the She-Wolf of France)

1312 favourite **Piers Gaveston** kidnapped and murdered by Earl of Warwick

1314 the battle of **Bannockburn**, English forces crushed by the Scots

1328 Robert Bruce recognized as Robert I King of Scotland

1324 father and son the Despensers made an attempt to deprive Isabella of her estates

1323 **Roger Mortimer**, Isabella's lover, escaped from the Tower to France

1325 Isabella to France

1326 Isabella and Mortimer land in Harwich, Edward deposed

1327 Edward killed in Berkeley castle

EDWARD III 1327-1377 married Philippa of Hainault

permanent irregular war on the border with Scotland

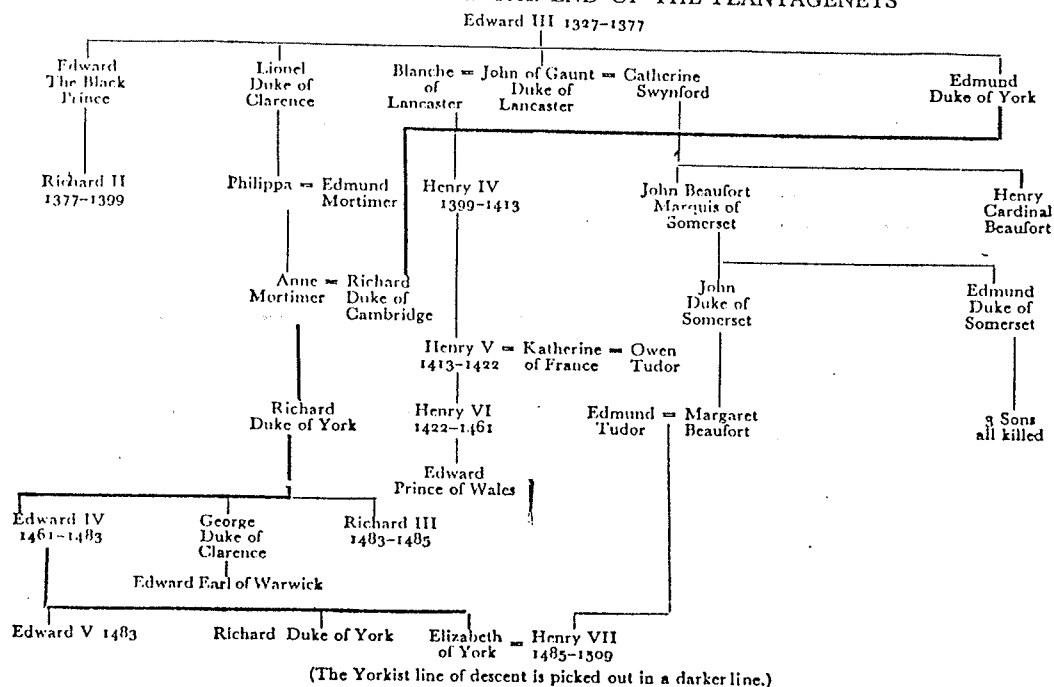
THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR 1337-1453

causes: a dynastic quarrel between England and France over the duchy of Guienne for which

9

Edward refused to pay homage to Philip IV of France and part of which was held by France;
 English attempts to gain control of Flanders, a French possession; Philip's support of
 Scotland in its war of independence
 wool merchants of the cities of the County of Flanders supported Philip IV of France while
 the weavers and the Count of Flanders supported Edward III of England
 1337 Edward claimed the French crown through his mother, Isabella of France
 Philip retaliated by declaring Edward's French fiefs forfeited (arestitud)
 1346 Crécy 1356 Poitiers
 1360 the peace of Bretigny: Edward gave up his claim to the French throne but received the
 greater part of France south of Loire and Calais, the key port for the English wool trade
Edward the Black Prince "model of chivalry"
 1348 the Order of the Garter founded Countess of Salisbury
 "Honi soit qui mal y pense" (Shame on him who thinks evil of it)
 1348-50 **Black Death**, an outbreak of bubonic plague (muhukatk) kills off 1/3 of the English
 population
 1369 Edward reopens the war with France
 Bertrand de Guesclin 1358 Jacquerie
 1369-77 no battles but the English lose one province after another
RICHARD II 1377-99 son of the Black Prince
 married Anne of Bohemia and Isabella of France but remained childless
 1381 the **Peasants' War**
 poll tax (peamaks) "Great Society" Home Counties and East Anglia Wat Tyler
 John of Gaunt Duke of Lancaster, 4th son of Edward III, Richard's uncle
 1387-9 the Lords' Appellant *3rd surviving*
 1389 Richard's coup d'état
 1397 opposition crushed, Henry Bolingbroke, Gaunt's son, banished for settling a quarrel
 with the Duke of York by armed combat
 1399 Bolingbroke returns from exile, Richard surrenders his crown to Bolingbroke and
 starves to death (murdered?) in Pontefract (Pomfret) Castle
HOUSE OF LANCASTER
 John of Gaunt had married the heiress to the great house of Lancaster and was consequently
 created Duke of Lancaster
 Bolingbroke claimed the throne through his father, John of Gaunt, *3rd* son of Edward III
 Duke of Clarence, E III's *2nd surviving* son had a better claim through his mother
HENRY IV Bolingbroke 1399-1413 married Mary de Bohun and Joan of Navarre
 brigandage private armies gangster chiefs
 1403 the rebellion led by Henry Percy 1405 the rebellion led by Thomas de Mowbray
 1400-9 the last bid for Welsh independence under **Owen Glendower/Glyn Dwr**
HENRY V 1413-22
 civil war in France between the houses of Burgundy and Orleans
 the Burgundians allied themselves with Flanders and England
 the Orleanists controlled the imbecile king Charles VI of France
 1415 Agincourt
 1420 Treaty of Troyes recognizes Henry's claim to the French throne in preference to that of
 the French Dauphin, Henry marries Catherine of Valois
 Owen Tudor

YORK AND LANCASTER. THE END OF THE PLANTAGENETS



HENRY VI 1422-61 and 1470-71 married Margaret of Anjou
Duke of Bedford

1428 Orleans Joan of Arc (Jeanne d'Arc)

1453 Chatillon Calais

1453 Henry's first attack of insanity

1454 **Richard Duke of York** proclaimed Protector of the Kingdom

Edmund Beaufort Duke of Somerset

THE WARS OF THE ROSES 1455-85

rose = the symbol of Christ's passion on the cross

white rose - York red rose - Lancaster

the pro-king (Lancastrian) party headed by Earl of Suffolk

1450 the Kentish revolt/Jack Cade's rebellion

May 22, 1455 the battle of St. Albans, Yorkist victory, Somerset killed

THE HOUSE OF YORK

EDWARD IV 1461-70 & 1471-83 married Elizabeth Woodville

July 10, 1460 the battle of Northampton, Henry VI captured, forced to recognize Duke of York as heir in preference of his own son, the Prince of Wales

Dec. 29, 1460 the battle of Wakefield, Queen Margaret's victory, Duke of York slain

Feb. 17, 1461 the battle of St. Albans, Henry VI freed

March 29, 1461 the battle of Towton, the new Duke of York, Edward, defeats the king who flees with his family to Scotland, before the battle Edward crowned king

1464 the battle of Hexham, Queen Margaret and her Frenchmen defeated in an attempt to invade Northumberland

1465 an abortive uprising led by Henry VI who is imprisoned and kept in the Tower until 1470, Queen Margaret and the Prince of Wales flee to France

1469 the battle of Banbury, Richard Neville Earl of Warwick the "Kingmaker" defeats Edward ~~IV~~, the Prince of Wales marries Warwick's daughter Anne Neville

IV

1470 the battle of Dartmouth, Warwick lands, defeated Edward VI flees to France, Henry VI dragged out of the Tower and restored as puppet in Oct. 1470

1471 the battle of Tewkesbury, Edward VI victorious, the Prince of Wales and Henry VI murdered, Queen Margaret imprisoned in the Tower until 1475, Duke of Clarence murdered as traitor

1477 Caxton's printing-press set up at Westminster

EDWARD V April - June 1483

Richard of Gloucester proclaimed Protector of the Realm

the meeting at Stony Stratford, Earl Rivers and Lord Grey killed

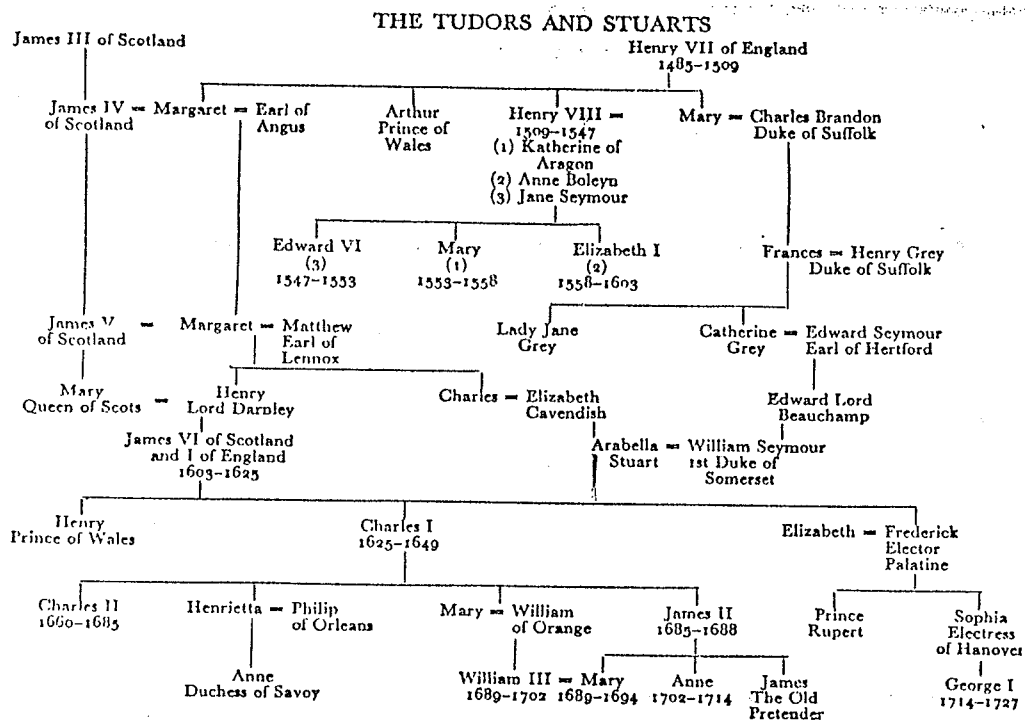
'the Princes in the Tower' mystery Richard Duke of York

Bishop of Bath and Wells Lady Eleanor Butler Lord Hastings

RICHARD III 1483-5 married Anne Neville, widow of the Prince of Wales

1485 Henry Tudor lands at Milford Haven

Aug. 22, 1485 the battle of Bosworth Field, Richard III killed, the treacherous Lord Stanley crowns Henry Tudor king



THE HOUSE OF TUDOR 1485-1603

the Tudors traced their ancestry back to Coel Hen Godebog (Old King Cole of nursery rhymes) and King Arthur of the Round Table and Owen Tudor, lover of Catherine of Valois
HENRY VII 1485-1509 married Elizabeth of York, daughter of Edward IV, thus uniting the two roses into the red-and-white Tudor rose

divide et impera

THE AGE OF EXPLORATION

1275 Marco Polo from Venice travelled with his father and uncle to the court of Kublai Khan in Cambaluc (or Khan-balek, modern Beijing) and remained in his service in

China (Cathay), India and other parts of the Khan's great realm, after returning home in 1295 wrote an account of his travels which remained the chief European source of information about the fabulous riches of the East

Venice and Genoa dominated the Mediterranean trade with the East

the Hanseatic League of North German towns monopolized the Scandinavian trade

1497-8 Vasco da Gama reached the Cape of Good Hope

1492 Columbus reached San Salvador

1497 John Cabot, a Genoese in English pay, under a patent granted by Henry VII reached Newfoundland, his son Sebastian searched for the **Northwest Passage** and may have reached Hudson Bay

1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert claimed Newfoundland for England

1576-78 Sir Martin Frobisher explored the NW Passage

Hugh Willoughby and Richard Chancellor explored the **Northeast Passage**, Ch. reached Archangel, was taken to Moscow to meet Ivan the Terrible

1577-80 Sir Francis Drake circumnavigated the globe on *Golden Hind*

HENRY VIII 1509-47

Catherine of Aragon 1509-33 daughter Mary, later Mary I

Cardinal (Thomas) Wolsey

REFORMATION

Martin Luther denounced the dispensation of indulgences, held that the Scriptures contained all that was necessary for salvation ('justification by faith'), the intermediary role of the Church and the 'good works' were unnecessary

Anne Boleyn 1533-36 daughter Elizabeth, later Elizabeth I

Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury

The Church of England Supreme Head Fidei Defensor

Jane Seymour 1536-7 son Edward, later Edward VI

Thomas Cromwell, Chancellor

the dissolution of the monasteries 1536-9

Anne of Cleves 1539

Catherine Howard 1540-1

Catherine Parr 1543-

EDWARD VI 1547-53

Council of Regency Edward Seymour Duke of Somerset (Protector Somerset)

Cranmer's Prayer Book

Earl of Warwick, later Duke of Northumberland

Lady Jane Grey July 10-19, 1553

MARY I Bloody Mary 1553-1558 married the later King Philip II of Spain

Marian Persecutions

Calais

ELIZABETH I 1558-1603 Good Queen Bess Gloriana

Church of England (the Anglican Church)

THE HOUSE OF STEWART 1371-1714

of Breton origin Stuart Steuart

MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS 1542-87

Mary of Guise regent for her daughter

1558 Mary Stuart married the French Dauphin, later Francois/Francis II who died in 1560

1536 **John Calvin** formulated his creed in his *Institutes of Christian Religion* which rejected papal authority, accepted justification by faith alone and formulated the doctrine of predestination

John Knox - the Calvinist leader of Protestants in Scotland
the Presbyterian Kirk

1565 Mary married Henry Stewart, Lord **Darhley** who was murdered in 1567
David Riccio

1567 Mary married James Hepburn Earl of **Bothwell**

1567 Mary abdicated in favour of her son James VI

1568-86 Mary Elizabeth's prisoner in England, executed at Fotheringhay Castle Feb. 8, 1586

William Cecil, 1st Baron Burghley, Elizabeth I's principal adviser for 40 years (1558-72
secretary of state, 1572-98 lord high treasurer)

1572 Philip II of Spain demanded that the Channel fleet of privateer ships should be expelled from English harbours

1577-80 **Sir Francis Drake** circumnavigated the globe

1584 Drake harried the Spanish West Indies with 25 ships

1587 Drake destroyed a mass of shipping and stores at Cadiz

1588 the Spanish **Invincible Armada** destroyed by the English fleet in the Channel
the age of maritime expansion

chartered companies:

1579 the Eastland Company for trading in the Baltic and Scandinavia

1581 the Levant Company for trading with the Middle East

1588 the African Company for trading in African slaves Sir John Hawkins

1600 the East India Company for trading with the Far East

1606 the Virginia Company for trading with America

JAMES I of England, **JAMES VI** of Scotland 1603-25 married Anne of Denmark
"the Wisest Fool in Christendom"

kingcraft "the divine rights of kings"

Nov. 5, 1605 Guido (Guy) Fawkes

baronet

George Villiers 1st Duke of Buckingham

1618-48 Thirty Years' War

colonial expansion

Jamestown, Virginia (on James River)

the West Indies

1609 Bermuda 1627 Barbados

the Leeward chain:

1623 St Christopher

1628 Nevis & Barbuda

1632 Antigua & Monserrat

1629 the Bahamas 1638 Honduras 1655 Jamaica from Spain

1783 Grenada & Dominica from France 1802 Trinidad from Spain

1803 St. Lucia from France 1814 Tobago

Puritan - a term loosely applied to people still inside the Anglican Church but desiring minor
changes in ritual and discipline

"No Bishop, no King"

"A Scottish Presbytery agreeth as well with monarchy as God and the Devil"

After rejecting a petition from a few hundred Puritan clergy of the Anglican Church, J. I undertook a purge of the Church in the course of which 300 clergy who refused to conform were deprived of their living

Archbishop William Laud, a right-wing Anglican enthusiast intent on regulating the morals and the behaviour of the people as wholly as possible

The use of parish churches as places of meeting and business was prohibited, strict censorship of press and pulpit established

1620 *Mayflower* Pilgrim Fathers Plymouth Rock Plymouth Colony New England Boston Massachusetts

1592 Sir James Lancaster the first Englishman to reach the Indies by the Cape route Molucca Sea islands

1612 Capt. Thomas Best visited Surat in India and defeated a Portugese squadron, the Mogul rulers gave them permission to set up a factory (Est. faktooria)

1620 English factory at Madras 1633 at Hoogli (on Calcutta River)

1680 the island of Bombay in the dowry of Catherine of Braganza, wife of Charles II

CHARLES I 1625-49 married Henrietta Maria of France

1628 Buckingham assassinated by a Puritan fanatic

1628 the House of Commons formulated, under the leadership of Sir John Eliot, the Petition of Right ("No man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax or such like charge, without common consent by Act of Parliament.")

1629 Parliament did not vote certain taxes for life for Charles and passed 3 resolutions declaring that 1) anyone who attempted to introduce Popery, 2) who advised the levying of any tax not authorized by Parliament or 3) who should voluntarily yield to pay any such tax was an enemy of the kingdom and the liberty of England

1637 Laud, wanting to impose the structure of the Anglican Church on the Scottish Presbyterian Church (the Kirk), planned to impose the English Prayer Book on the Kirk

1638 Charles faced the necessity of imposing the Prayer Book on the Scots by force of arms **Sir Thomas Wentworth, later Earl of Strafford** Charles' ablest minister

April 1640 the **Short Parliament** (sat for only 2 weeks) organized a petition against war in Scotland and was dissolved

The truce with the Scots occupying Northumberland included a large indemnity (kahjutasu) for their withdrawal to Scotland

Autumn 1640 the **Long Parliament** was dominated by Puritan squires and nobles, a party of big bourgeoisie intent on establishing their control over the arbitrary rule of the King; it attacked absolutism and demanded the removal of Strafford, its first session **abolished all prerogative courts and declared illegal any taxation without parliamentary consent** - in fact a **revolution** had taken place, the first

Nov. 1640 Strafford and Laud arrested

March 1641 Strafford tried and found guilty of high treason (now meaning, instead of treason against the King, treason against the state and the liberty of the subject)

A plot in the army was hatched with the full support of the King and Queen to march into London, release Strafford and dissolve Parliament.

May 1641 Parliament passed the Act of Attainer (lindpriiks kuulutamine) against Strafford

and a Bill forbidding the dissolution of the existing Parliament without its own consent; Strafford publicly executed on Tower Hill with 200,000 onlookers present. Before it adjourned, the first session passed a series of measures declaring extra-parliamentary taxation illegal.

During Long Parliament's second session religious differences surfaced:

- 1) the **Puritans** pressed for parliamentary reformation of the Anglican Church on presbyterian principles and pushed through the Commons the Root and Branch Bill (abolishing episcopacy) and the grand Remonstrance (demanding that the King's Councillors should be men trusted by Parliament and that the Church should be organized on presbyterian lines by laymen appointed by Parliament);
- 2) the **Moderates** both in religious and political matters felt threatened by the radicalism of the reformers and started to drift over to the forming Royalist party.

Nov. 1641 the Puritans pushed through (by 11 votes) another Grand Remonstrance declaring the King unfit to command the army; the King retaliated by forcing his way into the house of Commons with 100 armed followers and demanding the arrest of parliamentary leaders who had been warned and had escaped to the City.

Jan 1642 Parliament transferred its sessions to the Guildhall in the City and Charles fled to York, both parties began to prepare for war.

Cavaliers (cf. Italian - knights) long-haired members of the loyalist country gentry who fought for the King in 1642-52 and later supported the Tory party) came from among the old aristocracy in the North and West, country squires, cathedral and small towns, all Roman Catholics; headquarters at Oxford; a regular cavalry under the leadership of **Prince Rupert**, Charles' 22-year-old nephew of some military experience.

Roundheads (from the closely cropped hair of the adherents of the Parliamentary party) came from among the newly rich in the East and London, the merchant class and new landowners, most towns, esp. with sea and cloth trade connection, the Reformed Church, the Royal Navy, the merchant fleet; headquarters at London; infantry.

Jan.-Aug. 1642 both parties raised armies and supplies and secured territories under their control.

1642-3 the King, with the best cavalry and infantry on his side, successful but too weak to take London, decisive advance on London planned for the spring of 1643 and stopped only by some desperate victories of the Parl. army in the summer of 1643.

the **New Model Army**/the **Ironsides** grew out of and around **Oliver Cromwell's** regiments and developed into a political force, the **Independents** (from the Congregationalist principle: every congregation or local church is independent, i.e. an autonomous body free from ecclesiastical control) setting the tone in the soldiers' councils which in their prayer meetings discussed political and religious affairs, thus shaping the Army's theories about Church and State which included demands for religious toleration except for Roman Catholics and High Anglicans on the Right and Freethinkers and Unitarians on the Left.

autumn 1643 the New Model Army under Cromwell and the Presbyterian Earl of Manchester fought their way north and joined the Northern Army of Sir Thomas Fairfax; at the same time English Presbyterians had formed an alliance with the Scots in return for a promise to establish presbyterianism in England and to pay the expenses of the Scots' campaign who invaded England from the north.

July 2, 1644 the battle of **Marston Moor** secured a triumphant victory for Cromwell, Fairfax

and the Scots over the Royalists and strengthened the Left-Wing Win-the-War-Party in Parliament

Sept. 2, 1644 the battle of **Lostwithiel** marked a crushing defeat and loss of prestige for the Moderates under the Earl of Essex who abandoned his army and escaped by the sea, the whole of the foot surrendered with their arms and stores

The issue of whether and how the war should be won became tied up in Parliament with a **controversy between the Presbyterians and unorthodox Puritan sects**: the English and Scottish Presbyterians demanded the persecution of all unorthodox Puritan sects which were rapidly and vigorously gaining ground all over England and in the Army; the sectarians (i.e. the unorthodox Puritans, but especially the Baptists) demanded liberty to serve God as they pleased.

Self-Denying Ordinance - the resignation of all officers, Fairfax Captain-General, Cromwell General of the Horse and second-in-command of the whole army

June 14, 1645 the battle of **Naseby** marked the destruction of the Royalist army

June 24, 1645 the fall of **Oxford** to the parliamentarians marked the end of the war, the King had escaped and surrendered to the Scots at Newcastle

The Presbyterian majority in the House of Commons consolidated its victory by:

- 1) requisitioning (ûle vôtmine) the estates of the Crown, Church and Royalists and keeping them as a bargaining weapon for a compromise settlement with the King;
- 2) establishing Presbyterianism as a state religion;
- 3) passing repressive laws against Independent sects;
- 4) disbanding the new Model Army without paying a considerable portion of their wages;
- 5) negotiating with the Scots who were asking £ 700,000 for their services in the war; after much haggling the Scots agreed to hand over Charles for £ 200,000 down and as much in two years' time and left England.

The Commons now planned to use the authority of the King against the New Model Army, collect the scattered remains of the Royalist army and force the Independents into surrender.

Cromwell had the King kidnapped from Holmby House where Charles was kept by the Commons and taken to Newmarket; the Council of the Army opened negotiations with Parliament which after 2 months had led to nothing and the Army began to move on London.

The **second revolution** took place when the Army marched into London, **expelled the leading Presbyterians** from Parliament and forced the remaining members of the Commons to annul the Acts directed against the Army and passed under pressure from the London mob (lifelong imprisonment of Baptists, the prohibition of laymen from preaching in public, the dismissal of all Independent officers from the New Model Army etc.).

The Army which had acted as the left wing of the revolution now developed within itself a left wing, the **Levellers**, who came forward with **extreme republican ideas** which they formulated under the leadership of **John Lilburne** in *The Agreement of the People* (total religious and social equality; free parliament elected every two years by all males over 21, with the exception of wage earners; complete religious toleration, democratic control of the Army, the abolition of all taxes, except tax on property) and who opposed themselves to a group of higher officers whom they called 'Grandeess'.

In the late summer of 1647 the negotiations between the 'Grandees' and the King culminated in a treaty called the **Heads of Proposals** in which Cromwell and general Henry Ireton offered the King terms that were better than any the Commons had put forward: 1) the return of the Royalist estates, 2) the retention (alles jätmine) of bishops, 3) the toleration of other forms of religion, 4) guarantees for the control of the Crown by Parliament, 5) a wider franchise (valimisõigus) than had hitherto prevailed)

Nov. 1647 the King escaped to the Isle of Wight and was prepared to launch a new war in which Presbyterians (with whom he had conducted secret negotiations unknown to Cromwell) and Royalists would be allied.

1648 Cromwell is forced into a change of policy by 1) the refusal of the dishonest King to consider his terms, 2) the Levellers' pro-"Agreement" unrest in his own army, 3) another pro-Royalist Scottish invasion which he brilliantly crushed

Dec. 1648 **Pride's Purge**: acting on the orders of the army council Colonel Pride kicked out 143 Presbyterian members from Parliament (some were imprisoned), leaving less than 100 Independent members to represent the Commons - the "Rump" which 1) passed a resolution, its tone and language echoing the "Agreement" which stated that "**the Commons of England in Parliament assembled have the supreme power in this nation**", 2) abolished the House of Lords, 3) confiscated the Crown, Church and Royalist lands and sold them outright, 4) set up a commission to try the King.

The King who refused to plead (i.e. answer charges) was tried in Westminster Hall before a tribunal of 135 judges and was found guilty by 68 votes to 67, a majority of only one.

Jan. 30, 1649 **Regicide** (kuninga tapmine): Charles I executed in front of Banqueting House, Whitehall

A few weeks after regicide the Leveller's unrest blazed up again when they realized that the Rump and the Army's high officers had no intention of carrying out a social revolution; they withdrew in disgust from the Council of State (a temporary executive body), their leaders, Lilburne and others were arrested, examined before the Council of State and committed to the Tower; massive protests and mutinies in the Army which followed this were put down by Cromwell and Fairfax; many disillusioned Levellers became Quakers and developed naive utopian communist ideas.

Quaker: a member of a Christian religious body, the **Society of Friends**, founded in mid-17C by an English religious leader George Fox. In revolt against Calvinism and against the externals of religious expression Fox preached the perfectibility of Man through inward personal experience (revelation, Est. ilmutus). The Friends believe that the Holy Spirit shines in the heart of every man (the doctrine of "inner light"). They have few rites and no consecrated ministry, their meetings are characterized by much silent and free prayer. Friends are opposed to war, sponsor humanitarian and educational work. The name comes from a nickname given to Fox by a judge after Fox had told him not to quake at the word of the Lord.

the Commonwealth (the government for the common good) i.e. the republican government consisted partly of army officers and partly of members of the "Rump"

1649-50 Cromwell put down the rebellion in Ireland and conquered it for England

1650 Charles II, having been proclaimed King in Scotland on the death of his father, landed in Scotland at the invitation of the Presbyterians, his army crushed by Cromwell the Commonwealth Admiral Blake put down the Royalist mutiny in the Navy

- 1653 the "Rump" dissolved after having become corrupt and notorious for taking bribes and nepotism (onupojapoliitika) and proposing to prolong its existence indefinitely by coopting (koopteerima e. liikmeks kutsuma) only such members as it approved
- Under the influence of the radical Left Cromwell summoned the **Assembly of Nominees**, known later as **Barebone's Parliament**, consisting of men chosen by Independent congregations and ministers. It proved too radical (left wing) and was dissolved in Dec. 1653
- The new parliament elected according to the new constitution which also proclaimed Cromwell **Lord Protector**, included for the first time members from Scotland and Ireland. It proved too right wing and was dissolved in Jan. 1655
- 1655-56 Cromwell ruled without parliament
- The new parliament summoned in 1656 was very right wing and offered Cromwell the title of "King" which he refused, this parl. marked the return to old traditions and institutions
- 1658 on Cromwell death his son Richard ("Tumble down Dick") was declared Protector but the army refused to recognize him and he resigned.
- The generals, in order to legalize their rule without a Protector, reassembled the notorious "Rump".
- 1660 **General Monk**, commander of the garrison in Scotland, witnessing the degeneration of the army into fighting factions, the renewed activity of the forces on the Left and the threat it posed to the propertied classes, marched south, joined Fairfax at York, entered London and forced the "Rump" into dissolving itself, after having made the arrangements for a new election.
- At the same time Monk began negotiations with the exiled Charles II which culminated in the **Declaration of Breda**, April 1660 in which Charles promised: 1) religious toleration, 2) liberty of conscience, 3) general amnesty (except for those directly involved in the execution of Charles I), 4) respect for existing property relations.
- May 1660 **Restoration** (restauratsioon): the newly assembled parliament, predominantly Royalist and Presbyterian, on the strength of the Declaration of Breda invited Charles to return which he triumphantly did.
- The **Restoration or Cavalier Parliament** 1661-1678 passed a series of acts with the intent of destroying the Presbyterian/Puritan party. The Church and Crown lands which the revolutionary parliament had confiscated were restored to the previous owners. These owners fell into two groups: 1) the Cavalier Royalists who got back most of their estates which had been confiscated and sold but could not get back those estates which they themselves had sold to make money and pay heavy Commonwealth taxes; 2) these lands had mostly been bought by Presbyterian Royalists who had gone over to Charles in 1647 and whose claim on them was confirmed by the restoration settlement. The measures adopted to destroy this Presbyterian Royalist party are collectively known as the **Clarendon Code**, after Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, Charles advisor in exile and his chancellor in the first years of his reign, later made into a scapegoat for Charles' mismanagement of state affairs. It included:
- 1) **Corporation Act** 1661 which recognized only those governing bodies of towns who accepted the dogma and discipline of the Anglican Church. It was a heavy blow to most towns as most were still Puritan;

- 2) **Act of Uniformity 1662** which robbed some 2,000 Puritan clergy of their jobs when they refused to declare their unequivocal support for the Anglican Church Prayer Book. The same was demanded of teachers. With this act the Puritans were ousted from the apparatus of the State and the State Church;
- 3) **Conventicle** (lahkusuliste salakoosolek) **Act 1665** prohibited public worship outside State Church;
- 4) **Five Mile Act 1665** prohibited the expelled ministers and teachers from coming within five miles of any corporate (linnaalitsusega) town, thus cutting them off from most of their supporters.

The emergence of the two-party system resulted partly from the controversy surrounding the succession of **James Duke of York**:

- 1) the **Exclusionists** or **Whigs** (from *Whiggamore* (Est. märaajaja), an insulting nickname applied to anti-Royalist Scottish rebels during the Revolution) wanted to exclude James from the succession to the throne; supporters mostly merchants, rising finance capitalists, landed magnates and the Puritan lower middle class of towns;
- 2) the **Anti-Exclusionists** or **Tories** (from Irish "pursuer" (Est. lindpää röövel), a nickname for the dispossessed Irish outlaws who supposedly killed and robbed English settlers) were in favour of James' succession to the throne; supporters mostly Royalists, Cavalier landed gentry intent on strengthening the monarchy and its alliance with the Anglican Church, rural masses.

The end of the Thirty Years' War (1648) marked the beginning of French ascendancy in Europe west of the Elbe. The absolute rule of monarchy in France was strengthened under the clever rule of cardinal Richelieu (1630s/40s) and reached its apogee under Louis XIV who assumed full powers in 1660. The French Church was declared independent of Rome but heretics were not tolerated. The French Wars of Religion were ended by Henri IV with the Edict of Nantes in 1598 which had granted certain autonomy to Huguenots (French Protestants). This autonomy proved incompatible with the centralizing policies of Richelieu, Mazarin and Louis and persecution began after 1665, Louis revoking (tühistama) the Edict in 1685. Many Huguenots fled to England with tales of terror to tell about the treatment of Protestants in France.

Louis also detested the United Provinces, the Dutch Protestant republic. In the 16C the Netherlands were part of the Duchy of Burgundy, being under Charles V, the Holy Roman Emperor, part of the huge Habsburg empire comprising Spain and the Americas, Sicily, Austria, Tyrol and Germany. After Charles/Karl V's abdication the Spanish inheritance and the Netherlands went to his son Felipe/Philip II, the leader of the Catholic Counter-Reformation (and husband of Bloody Mary and the enemy of Elizabeth I) whose policies goaded the Spanish Netherlands into revolt (the 80 years' war). In this struggle the northern provinces of what is modern Holland which were agricultural, maritime and Protestant mostly attained independence from Spain under the leadership of William of Orange (the Silent) in 1581. The southern provinces of what is modern Holland obtained independence in 1648 when the treaty of Westphalia recognized the independent Dutch republic (under the name the United Provinces until 1795). The southern part of the Spanish Netherlands, French in character, urban and Catholic remained under Spanish rule, was annexed by France in 1795, given to Holland in 1815 and granted independence in 1831 when the Kingdom of

Belgium was established.

1662 Charles married the Portugese Infanta Catherine of Braganza who brought him a dowry of £ 300,000 and the naval bases of Tangier and Bombay

12 illegitimate children, the present Dukes of Buccleuch, Grafton, Richmond and St Albans derive their origins from Charles

1665 the Great Plague, the last great visitation of its kind, killed 68,000 people

1666 the Great Fire of London destroyed £ 10 million worth of commercial property

1670 the Dutch republic was reluctant to appoint Charles' nephew (Charles' sister's son) William of Orange stadthouder/chief magistrate (asehaldur), a position hereditary in the family

1674 Charles submitted to parliament

1679-1681 Parliament was dominated by the Whigs who kindled anti-Catholic hysteria

1681 the Tories gained the upper hand in Parliament, the Whigs plotted an insurrection and fell into disgrace

JAMES II (1685-88) Anne Hyde Mary of Modena

June 1685 Duke of Monmouth, the eldest of Charles' illegitimate children, landed at Lyme Regis as a Protestant champion, the rebellion was bloodily crushed

Declaration of Indulgence removed restrictions imposed on those who did not conform to the Anglican Church and opened the way for Catholics into key positions in the army, the law courts and even into the Anglican Church itself

10 June, 1688 Mary of Modena gave birth to a boy, later (since 1701) James III in exile ("Old Pretender")

Nov 5, 1688 William of Orange landed at Torbay *the glorious revolution*

John Churchill, later Duke of Marlborough

Dec. 1688 James fled to France, 1689 landed in Ireland

July 1, 1690 the battle of the Boyne, James defeated

WILLIAM III & MARY II (1689-1694, William alone 1694-1702)

Convention Parliament

1689 Bill of Rights incorporated by statute the Declaration of Rights accepted by William and Mary and registered the results of the struggle between the Stuart kings and Parliament. It stated that **no Roman Catholic would rule England**; it gave inviolable civil and political rights to the people and **political supremacy to Parliament**. It was supplemented

in **1701** by the **Act of Settlement** which provided that should William III and Princess (later Queen) Anne die without heirs, succession should pass to Sophia, electress of Hanover, James I's granddaughter (J's daughter Elizabeth had married the Elector Palatine (Est. valijavürst, kuurvürst; one of the German princes who had the right to elect the Holy German Emperor), and to her Protestant heirs.

1689 Toleration Act left the church Anglican but granted a limited right of religious worship to Protestant nonconformists; Roman Catholics obtained no legal rights.

1689-97 the War of the Grand Alliance was fought between Louis XIV and the Grand Alliance - the League of Augsburg (i.e. the Austrian emperor, some German princes, Sweden and Spain, the Netherlands, Savoy (in Italy) and England). The French were defeated at sea but were victorious on land. The war ended with the Treaty of Ryswick but the same opponents were at war again in

1701-1714 in the **War of the Spanish Succession**. In 1700 the Habsburg King of Spain, the

feeble-minded Charles II, died childless. A huge dynastic inheritance was at stake and a tangle of marriage claims arising from marriage alliances in the past meant that the Habsburg emperor and Louis XIV (who had passed his rights in the matter to his second grandson Philip, Duke of Anjou) were the ones who would have to dispute the matter. The prospect of an undivided inheritance going either to Bourbons or Habsburgs alarmed everybody. Partition treaties had therefore been made but Charles II's will left the whole of Spanish inheritance to Louis' grandson. Louis also offended the English by recognizing the exiled Stuart pretender as James III of England. The English were interested what would happen to the Spanish trade, the United Provinces were interested in what would be the fate of the Spanish Netherlands (modern Belgium); both England and Holland were opposed to the extension of either French Bourbon or Austrian Habsburg power into Spain. England, Holland, Austria and most of the German states went to war against France. Bavaria sided with France, so did Portugal and Savoy until 1703, when they switched sides. The great allied commanders, the English **Duke of Marlborough** and the imperial general Prince Eugene of Savoy, won such major victories as **Blenheim** and **Gibraltar** (1704), **Ramillies** (1706), **Oudernade** (1708) and **Malplaquet** (1709). In 1711, after the fall of the Whig ministry, England abandoned the war under the new Tory ministry. In 1713 England, Holland and France signed the **Peace of Utrecht** (The Habsburg emperor continued the war until 1714) which declared the crowns of Spain and France forever incapable of being united. The first Bourbon king of Spain took his place on the Spanish throne, taking with him Spain and the Indies but not the Netherlands which went to the Habsburg emperor as compensation and to provide an automatic defence for the Dutch against further French aggression. The Stuart pretender was expelled from France and the Protestant succession was recognized by Louis. Britain also took Gibraltar from Spain at the negotiation table.

ANNE (1702-1714) George of Denmark

Sarah Churchill, Lady Marlborough, keeper of the Queen's Privy Purse

John Churchill, 1st Duke of Marlborough

1707 Act of Union with Scotland: England opened its home and colonial markets to Scotland in return for Scotland giving up its independent Parliament and Privy Council in Edinburgh

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER

common male line of descent with the Italian house of Este

1055 Azzo II, Marquess of Este married the daughter and heiress of the Count of Altdorf, thus acquiring possessions in Germany to which later generations added Bavaria, Saxony and Brunswick. The branch of the family that acquired the British throne was a junior line of Brunswick-Celle

GEORGE Louis I (1714-1727)

George's father, duke of Brunswick-Lüneburg-Calenberg in 1692 acquired the much coveted title of **Elector of Hanover** which his son inherited.

Sophia Dorothea

Melusine von der Schulenburg (later Duchess of Kendall)

Count Philip Christopher von Königsmarck

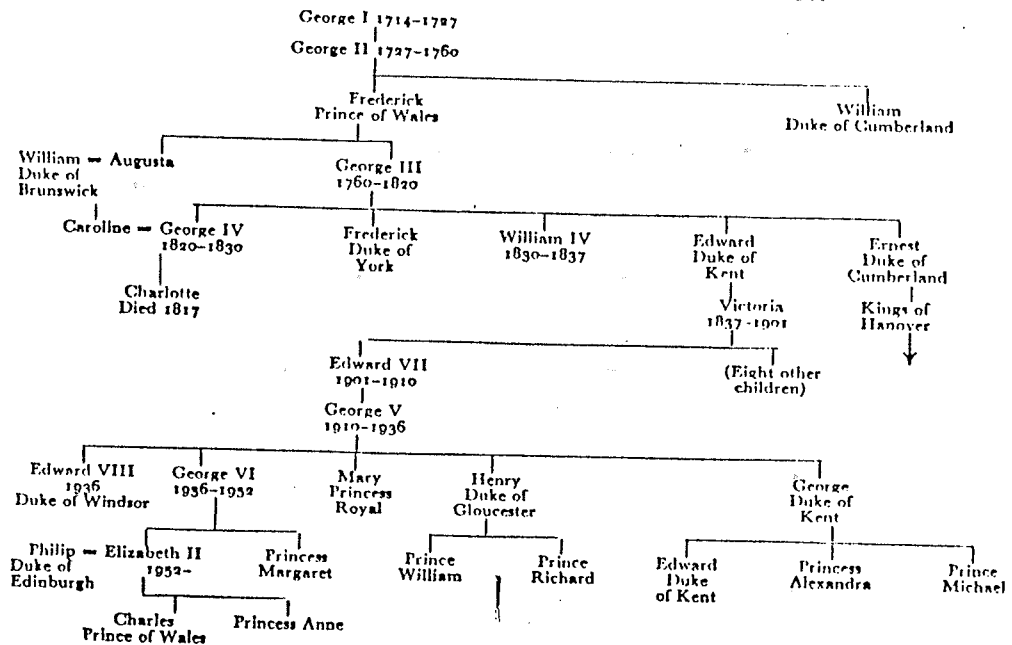
Handel

GEORGE Augustus II (1727-1760) Caroline of Brandenburg-Ansbach

"You may strut, dapper George, but 't'll be in vain,

We know 'tis Queen Caroline, not you that reign"

THE HANOVERIANS AND THE HOUSE OF WINDSOR



Frederick

the Hallelujah Chorus in Handel's "Messiah"

Prime Minister Robert Walpole

JACOBITES IN SCOTLAND

- 1) the patronizing attitude of the English
- 2) a series of bad harvests, no immediate economic gain after 1707
- 3) the heavy taxation of the Marlborough wars
- 4) fears concerning religious matters (Episcopalianism increasingly more popular with the nobles)

a motion in the House of Lords to rescind (tühistada) the Act of Union

1708

James Edward Stuart, Chevalier de St George ("Old Pretender") attempted an invasion of Scotland with a French fleet and 6,000 men. Bad weather, faulty navigation, lack of enthusiasm among the French, the arrival of 28 English men-of-war prevented the invaders from making a landing.

1715 "the Fifteen"

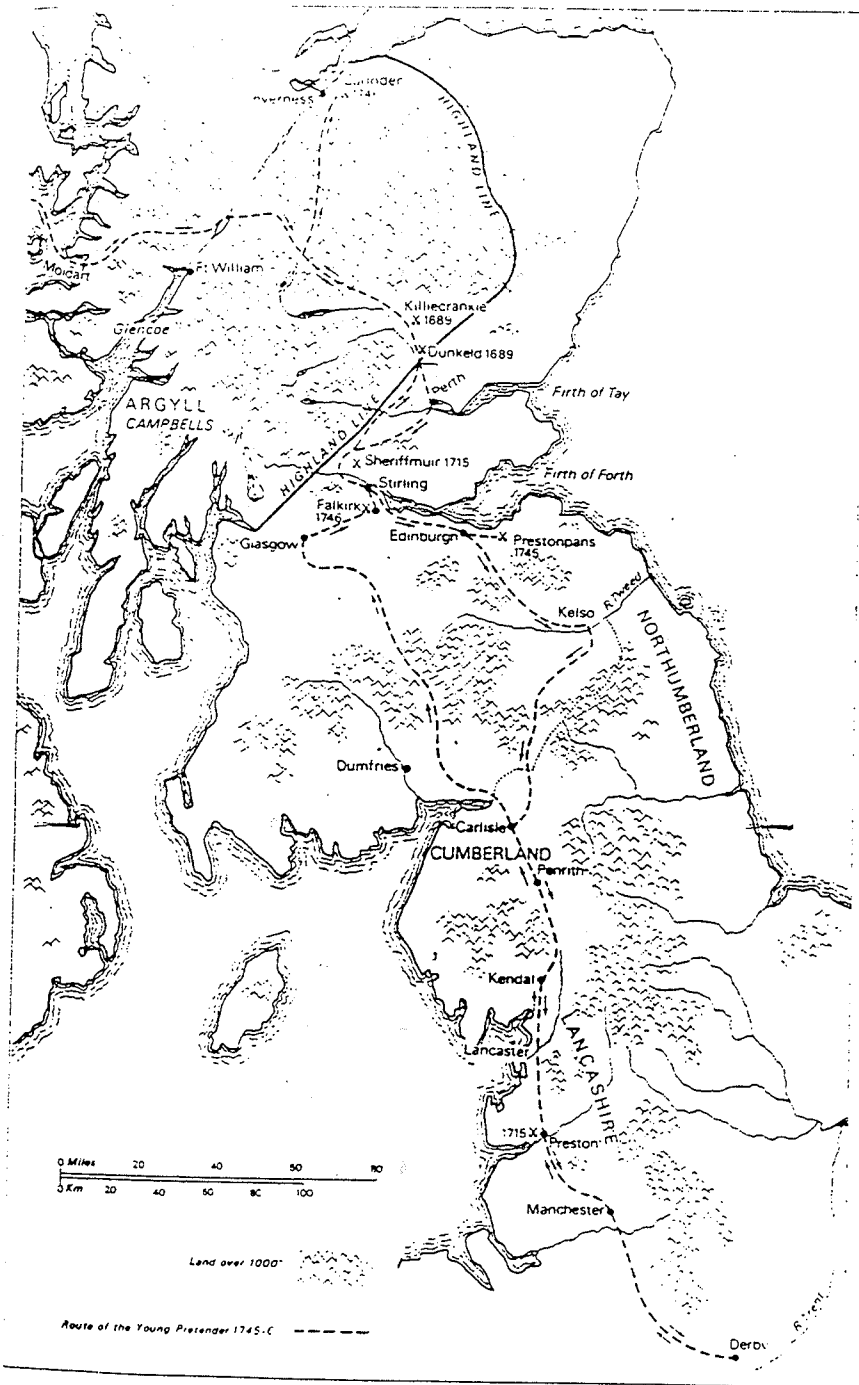
the abolition of the Union

Sept. 6, 1715 Braemar: John Erskine, 6th Earl of Mar ("Bobbing John"), former Secretary of State for Scotland raised the Stuart standard to fight for the rightful king, for "the relief of our native country from oppression and a foreign yoke too heavy for us and our posterity to bear."

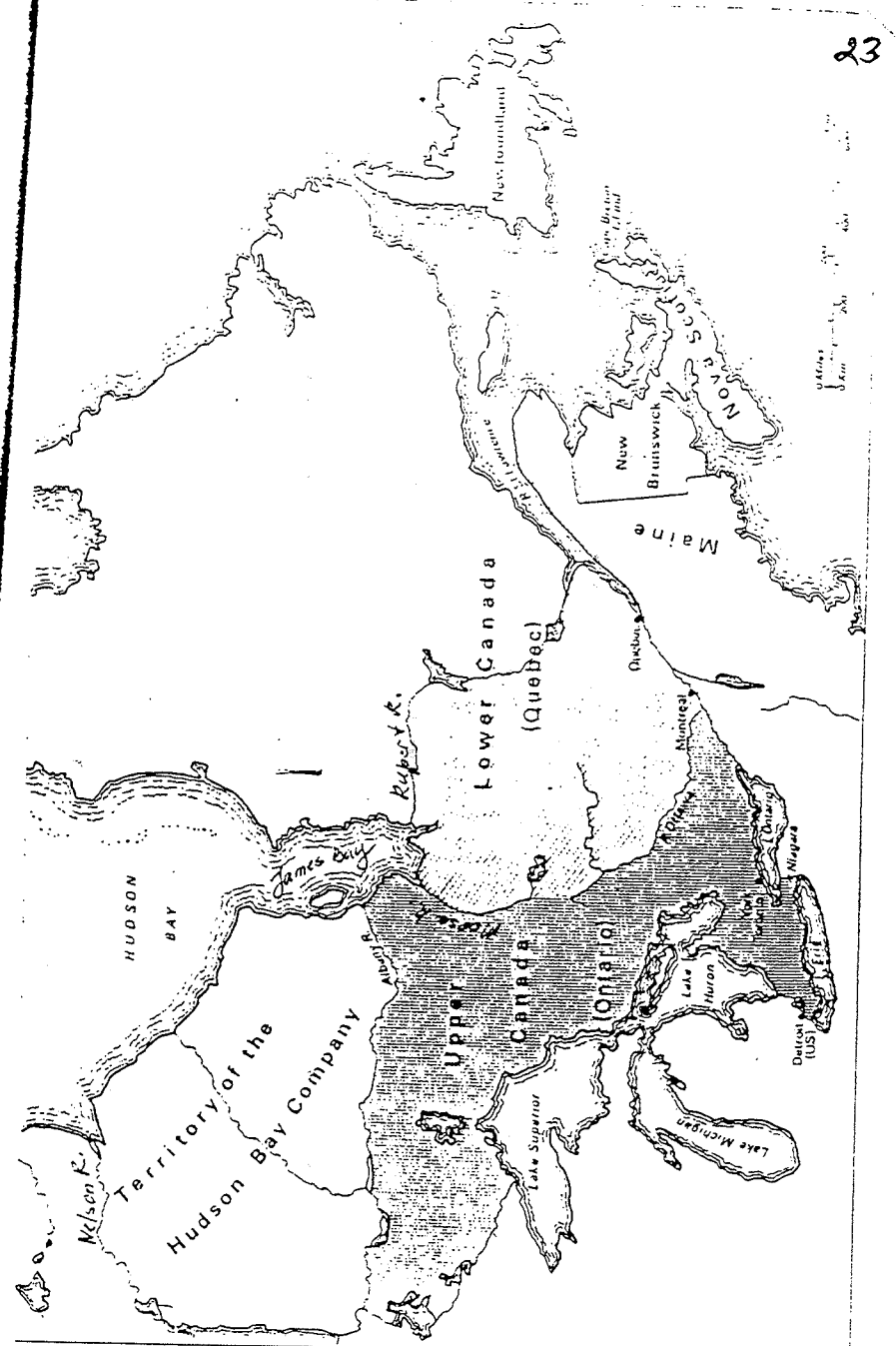
chiefs from the western and central Highlands

Mar occupied, with 12,000 men, Perth and Inverness

towns south of the Tay held fast for the government, the Earl of Sutherland raised the extreme north for the Crown, less than 5,000 men under the Duke of Argyll held the Stirling plain for the government



MAP 29. Scotland and North England in the time of the Jacobites.



MAP 32. The two Canadas and the Maritime Provinces, 1791.

Sept. 8 Louis XIV died, Regent Orleans sought peace with England

William Mackintosh of Borlum with 2,000 men, joined by a few Jacobite Border lords and a few hundred Englishmen under Thomas Forster, MP for Northumberland, invaded England, were surrounded at Preston where Forster surrendered everybody to the government troops without a fight

Mar fought his own battle with the Duke of Argyll at Sheriffmuir which ended in a draw
Mar retreated to Perth, Argyll held the Strling plain and the roads to the south for government

Dec. 22 the Chevalier (Old Pretender) landed at Peterhead, in Feb. 1716 he quietly slipped off with Mar by sea from Montrose never to return

1717 Act of Grace and Free Pardon to all except the Macgregors (Rob Roy et al) whose name was forbidden and who were deprived of their civil rights until 1774

the War of Jenkins's Ear (1739-41) was fought between Britain and Spain for reasons of commercial rivalry. Captain Jenkin's alleged loss of his ear in 1731 (supposedly cut off by the Spanish coast guard) which he produced pickled in the House of Commons to inflame the MPs' patriotism was but one of the atrocities used to stir up feeling against Spain in the late 1730s. Despite the opposition of Prime Minister Robert Walpole war was declared. Britain captured Porto Bello (1739), but, after the failure to take Cartagena (1741), the war became inconclusive, as both powers devoted their energies to European struggles and the conflict merged into

the War of the Austrian Succession (1740-8), the first phase in the struggle between Prussia and Austria for mastery of the German states which developed after 1744 into a colonial conflict between Britain and the Franco-Spanish bloc. Hostilities were prompted by Frederick II of Prussia's seizure of the Habsburg province of Silesia on the succession of the Archduchess Maria Theresa to the Habsburg lands by virtue of the Pragmatic Sanction issued in 1713 by the Roman Emperor Charles VI whereby all the Habsburg lands would be inherited by his daughter Maria Theresa (but not the imperial dignity, which was elective). Owing to a long campaign by the emperor, most of the European powers accepted the sanction, the major exception was the Bavarian elector (later Emperor Charles VII), who was married to one of the Habsburg princesses passed over in favour of Maria Theresa. In spite of the guarantees her father had obtained, when Maria Theresa acceded to the Habsburg succession in 1740, she had to defend her rights in a long and bitter struggle. She was challenged by the elector of Bavaria (who became emperor Charles VII in 1742), Philip of Spain, and Augustus III of Poland. Frederick II of Prussia, claiming part of Silesia, opened hostilities by invading that region. Prussia was joined by France, Spain, Bavaria, and Saxony. Saxony went over to Austria in 1743 and England (at war with Spain), the United Provinces, and Sardinia became Austrian allies. Maria Theresa's husband was elected emperor, as Francis I, in 1745, on the death of Charles VII. The fighting spread from Central Europe to the Austrian Netherlands, the Mediterranean and Italy, embroiling the New World and India before peace was concluded at the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) which confirmed the Pragmatic Sanction but left the balance of power between France and England undecided. The final solution to the rivalry came with the Seven Years' War.

1745 "the Forty-Five"

July 25, 1745 Charles Edward Stuart (Bonnie Prince Charlie, "Young Pretender") landed with 7 companions in Moidart

the Duke of Argyll raised the Campbells for the government

Sept. 1745 Bonnie Prince Charlie scattered the government army at Prestonpans and held court at the Palace of Holyroodhouse in Edinburgh for 5 weeks

Nov. 1745 Charlie invaded England and on Dec. 5 reached Derby

April 16, 1746 Charlie defeated near **Culloden House** by the Duke of Cumberland, son of George II

Sept. 20, 1746 Charlie sailed for France from Moidart after 6 ^{months} weeks on the run in the Scottish Highlands

the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) expelled the Stuarts court from France, on the Old Pretender's death (1766) the Pope did not recognize Charlie as king; the last of the exiled Stuarts, Charlie's younger brother Henry, Cardinal of York, died in 1807, having received in his later years very discreet financial support from George III.

repressions after 1745: 120 prisoners executed, 1,150 banished (maalt välja saadetud), the fate of 700 rebels unknown, the ban on Highland dress until 1782

WHIG OLIGARCHY

George I and II had abandoned to the Whig leaders of the House of Commons certain prerogatives of the Crown: the formation of Ministries, the dissolution of Parliament, the patronage of the Crown in Church and State

"the House of Gentlemen", "the best club in London", "the Roman senate"

the Cabinet: a group of advisers to the head of government, the **Prime Minister**, who are usually also the heads of major government ministries and departments; the Cabinet ministers are usually drawn from the majority part in the House of Commons and Lords; the Prime Minister appoints and dismisses cabinet ministers, chairs cabinet meetings and controls the agenda; the Cabinet members are subject to the principle of collective responsibility which means that ministers must defend Cabinet decisions in public, whatever their personal views, or resign.

Robert Walpole, Whig Prime Minister 1721-42, 1st Earl of Orford (his younger son, Horace Walpole, the 4th Earl of Orford is the author of the first Gothic novel "The Castle of Otranto")

INDIA & the EAST

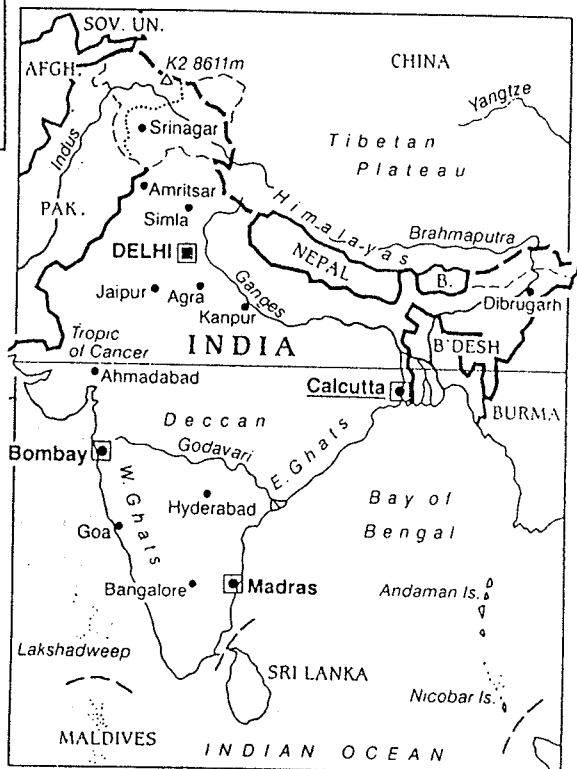
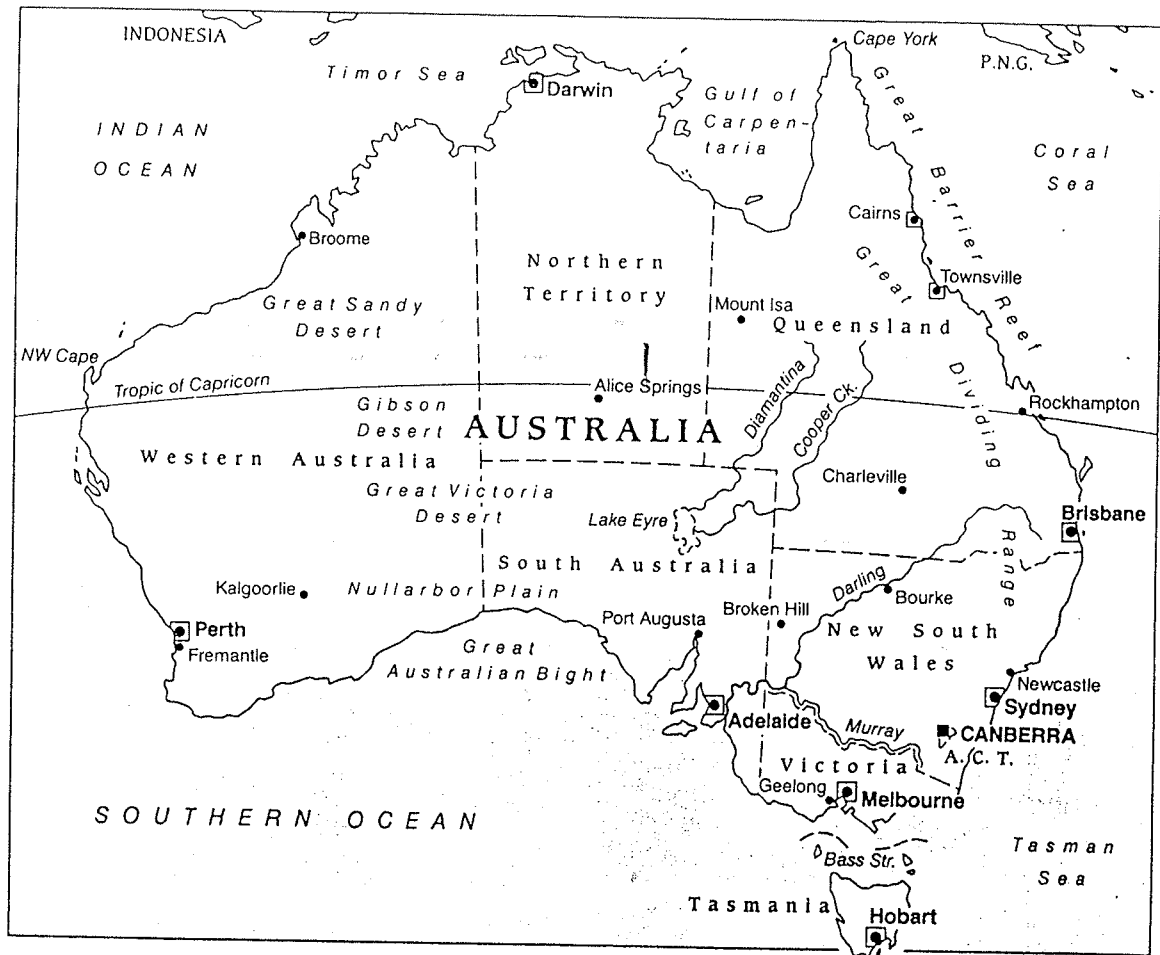
The Europeans sought in the East secure and profitable trade which necessitated the multiplication of trading posts (factories), concessions in port facilities, the building of protective forts and bases on the coast

16C the eastern trade dominated by the Portugese until Portugal was weakened by its union with Spain in 1580

17C the Portugese in the East replaced by the Dutch who built a spice trade empire (centred on the Malacca Strait and comprising Malaysia and Indonesia) and also took over from the Portugese the carrier trade (vahekaubandus) with China and Japan; they were also established in Calicut in Ceylon, at the Cape of Good Hope in South Africa and had factories in Persia

the **British East India Company** (founded 1600) established its first factory in India at Surat (1612), others at Madras (1639), Bombay (1688), Calcutta (1690) followed; the British traded in coffee and textiles, later also in tea from China

1707 the Mughal/Mogul empire (established in 1526) collapsed into a collection of autonomous states with no controlling power over them, thus becoming a tempting prey to competing European powers in the East, the biggest rival of the English in



India being the French who had established trading posts in Pondicherry and Chandernagore

England and France fought for supremacy in India in the **Seven Years' War (1756-63)** which was a world-wide conflict fought in Europe, North America and India between France, Austria, Russia, Saxony, Sweden, and (after 1726) Spain, on the one side, and Great Britain, Prussia and Hanover on the other. The main issues were French and English colonial rivalries in North America and India and the struggle for supremacy in Europe of Maria Theresa of Austria and Frederick II of Prussia. The war confirmed Prussia's new rank as a leading European power and made Britain the world's chief colonial power, France lost most of its overseas possessions. The treaty of Hubertusburg (1763) ceded French Canada to Britain, in the Caribbean Britain took the sugar islands Grenada, St Vincent, Tobago and Dominica, also Florida from Spain and ousted France from India.

British success in the war was largely due to **William Pitt, 1st Earl of Chatham, "the Elder Pitt", "the Great Commoner"** (1708-78).

The hostilities in India started in 1746 when the French captured Madras, the decisive struggle taking place in 1757 when **Robert Clive**, the East India Company official, won a series of brilliant victories against the French that broke French power in India. He brought Bengal under British control after his victory over its last nawab (provintsikuberner) at **Plassey** in 1757 and was its first governor. In his second term as governor (1765-67), he reduced corruption and inefficiency and formally assumed responsibility for the civil government of Bengal, still nominally under the Mughal emperor. Financial indiscipline among company servants led to the 1773 Regulating Act and Pitt's 1784 India Act, which established a Board of Control responsible to Parliament. Thereafter the Company gradually lost independence, its monopoly being broken in 1813 and its powers being handed over to the British crown in 1858. The Company ceased to exist as a legal entity in 1873.

CANADA

1497 discovered by John Cabot

1534-42 Jacques Cartier explored the St. Lawrence River

1608 Samuel de Champlain founded Quebec and penetrated the interior beyond the Great Lakes in search of beaver pelts (kopranahad)

1609 Henry Hudson in the service of the Dutch explored the Hudson River, in English pay in 1610 he reached Hudson Bay

the English fur traders established posts at the mouths of Rupert and Moose Rivers on James Bay and Nelson River on Hudson Bay

1670 Charles II granted about 1/4 of North America to a group of London merchants and courtiers who formed the Hudson Bay Company with Prince Rupert as its first governor; the Company grant covered all the land drained by the waters flowing into Hudson Bay.

1713 the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) secured the English possession of the Hudson Bay area, made Newfoundland British and ceded French Acadia to the English who renamed it Nova Scotia

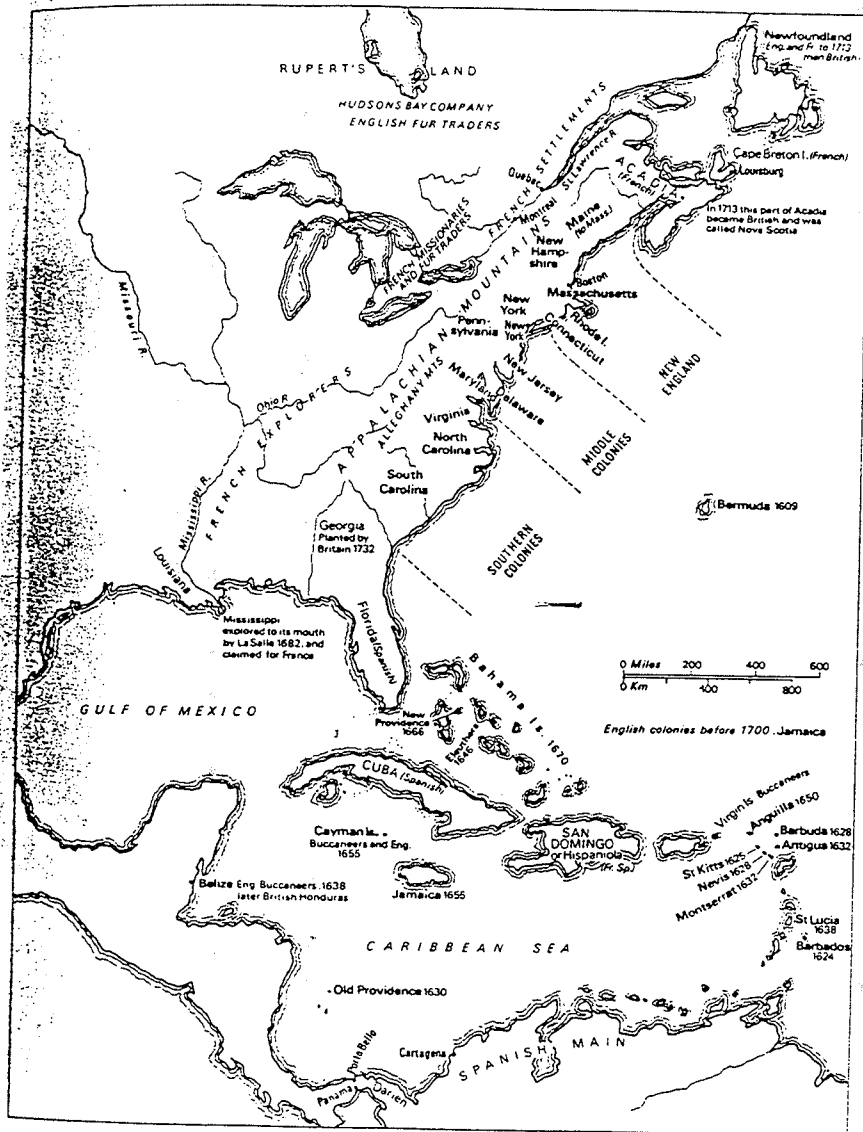
1774 French liberties in Quebec granted by the Quebec Act

1791 Upper Canada (British) and Lower Canada (French) created

1848 by the Act of Union the two provinces united into one and given internal government

GEORGE III (1760-1820) "Farmer George" Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz
"King's Friends"

- 1762 Buckingham House bought
- 1764 first attack of porphyria, "the royal malady" (degeneration of brain tissue due to the shortage of some vital substance in the body, cause unknown)
- 1760-82 personal government of G. III through his party, the "King's friends"
- the revival of the Tory party under William Pitt, "the Younger Pitt" (1759-1806), Prime Minister 1783-1801, 1804-6; restored the power of the Prime Minister as the true governor of the land, not the puppet in the King's hands
- Tory oligarchy
- rotten borough - a constituency that possesses the right to elect MPs even though its population has dwindled or is nonexistent
- movement for parliamentary reform
- 1789 George III's second attack of insanity, from 1810 onwards irrevocably insane
- 1811 the Regency Act made George, Prince of Wales, Prince Regent
- THE AMERICA WAR OF INDEPENDENCE (1776-1783)
- 1763 Pontiac's rebellion, an Indian revolt in the Ohio valley
- 1764-5 duties on sugar imported to the colonies, Stamp Act to raise money from revenue stamps
- Stamp Act Congress - 9 colonies protested against the Stamp Act which was withdrawn
- 1773 the Boston Tea Party - destruction of a cargo of tea, the only commodity still taxed
- 1774 the Quebec Act
- 1774 Sept. - the Continental Congress at Philadelphia severed commercial relations with the United Kingdom and demanded the repeal of much of existing legislation
- 1776 July Declaration of Independence
- 1783 the Peace of Paris
- 1787 Philadelphia constitutional convention
- 1789 April George Washington first president
- 80,000 loyalists left for Canada
- AUSTRALIA
- c. 40,000 years ago the Aborigines arrive from South East Asia
- 1606, 1642 the Dutch explored the coast of the Gulf of Carpentaria
- 1770 **Capt. James Cook** landed at Botany Bay and claimed the East coast for Britain
- 1786 the Br. government decided to dump its surplus felons on the territory explored by Cook, 1788 New South Wales established as a **penal colony**, 1787-1840 prisoners transported annually, 180,000 in all; transportation of convicts to East Australia ended in 1840, but continued until 1853 in Tasmania and 1868 in Western Australia
- 1851-1861 500,000 free settlers from the United Kingdom arrived; the country becoming more attractive when the breeding of Spanish Merino sheep was introduced and gold was discovered, in New South Wales and Victoria in 1851 and in Western Australia in 1892.
- the separated colonies which set up their own governments in the 19C (New South Wales in 1855, Tasmania and Victoria in 1856, South Australia in 1857, Queensland in 1860, Western Australia in 1890) established the Commonwealth of Australia in 1901 with the capital in Canberra
- SOUTH AFRICA
- the region originally inhabited by Khoisan tribes
- c. 1000 Bantu tribes moved in from the north



MAP 27. English American settlements, latter part of the seventeenth century.



MAP 37. South Africa, 1899.

late 15C the Portuguese reached the Cape of Good Hope

1652 a permanent colony established by the Dutch (Cape Colony)

g 1795, 1806 Britain captured the Cape of Good Hope

1814 British annexation of the Cape Province formalised

Veld Boer (D. farmer)

Hottentots Bushmen Kaffirs (Bantu tribes) Matabele Zulus

1812, 1819, 1834 Kaffir invasions

missionary society

1833 slave trade and slavery in the British Empire abolished by Act of Parliament

1836 the Great Trek (trek - journey by ox wagon) across the Orange River to Natal to establish an independent Boer republic, 1839 the first Boer republic founded there,

1846 it annexed by the British

1852 the Sand River Convention recognized the independent Boer republic of Transvaal

1854 the Bloemfontein Convention recognized the Orange Free State

1866 diamonds discovered, 1886 gold

1880-1, 1899-1902 South African Wars between the British and the Boers

THE FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY & NAPOLEONIC WARS

Until 1793 when the attempt of the European monarchs to smother the French Revolution failed and the victorious French invaded Savoy, the Rhineland and the Austrian Netherlands (modern Belgium), besides declaring to offer armed assistance to all countries desirous of overthrowing their old governments, the British stayed neutral spectators.

the Rhine delta

1793-4 a disastrous British expedition to the West Indies and the defeat of British and Austrian armies in the Netherlands

1797 the British excluded from the Mediterranean

1798 Napoleon's expedition to Egypt, the French took Malta from the Knights of St. John; Horatio Nelson annihilated Napoleon's fleet at the mouth of the River Nile and recaptured Malta, in 1801 he destroyed the Danish fleet at Copenhagen, thus putting an end to a Russian-Scandinavian pact of "armed neutrality" directed against Britain

1802 Napoleon first consul for life; peace with Italy, Austria and Britain (traditionally taken to mark the end of the French Revolutionary Wars)

1803 Britain again declared war on France

1804 Napoleon crowned emperor

21 Oct. 1805 - the battle of **Trafalgar**: 1st Viscount **Nelson** destroyed the combined fleet of France and Spain, making Britain the undisputed master of the seas

1805 the defeat of the Russian and Austrian armies in the battle of Austerlitz marked Napoleon's subjection of Eastern Europe

1806 Pitt died; Robert Stewart, Viscount Castlereagh foreign secretary 1812-22

1807 Napoleon's treaties of Tilsit with Russia and Prussia left him master of the Continent

1806, 1807 Napoleon's Berlin and Milan decrees forbid the French allies and neutrals to trade with Britain or her colonies

1807, 1812 Orders in Council established a British sea blockade of European ports which led to war with the United States in 1812-14

1808-14 during the campaign known as the Peninsular War British army under Arthur Wellesley, 1st Duke of **Wellington**, "the Iron Duke", and the local guerillas drove the

- French from the Iberian Peninsula
- 1812 Napoleon invaded Russia
- 1813 Britain, Prussia, Sweden and Austria defeated Napoleon at Leipzig, pursued him into France and took Paris; Napoleon abdicated and was taken to the island of Elba
- 12-18 June **1815** at **Waterloo** Napoleon defeated after his rule of a Hundred Days by the British army under Wellington and the Prussian army under Blücher
- 1815 the Congress of Vienna: Castelreagh refused even to discuss maritime rights, so secure was the British dominance on the seas; the Dutch got back Java and their East Indies but lost the Cape of Good Hope and Ceylon to Britain; the French could keep some of her establishments in India but lost Mauritius in the SW Indian Ocean to Britain; St. Helena in the S. Atlantic became the East India Company colony, since 1834 the crown colony; Ascension Island in the S Atlantic became British, 1922 became part of the colony of St. Helena; Britain was given the protectorate of the Ionian islands; Britain also took Heligoland in the North Sea which she exchanged for Zanzibar in 1890; the British West Indian possessions were enlarged by Trinidad (taken from Spain 1802), Tobago (from Holland, France 1814), St. Lucia (from France 1814); Britain was also given a part of the Dutch Guyana (renamed British Guyana) in Latin America
- 1819 Sir Thomas Stamford Raffles bought Singapore, a sparsely populated island south of the Malay Peninsula, for the British East India Company; in 1824 it became a British colony, since 1959 a self-governing state
- 1839 Britain occupied Aden, the chief port in Souther Yemen and governed it from India until 1947
- 1839-42 Britain fought the Opium War with China and took Hong Kong island in 1842, the Kowloon peninsula in 1860 and leased the New Territories, a mainland area adjoining Kowloon in 1898 for 99 years along with Deep Bay, Mirs Bay and some 235 offshore islands. Hong Kong reverts to Chinese rule on July 1 1997
- 1846 Britain acquired the island of Labuan off the coast of North Borneo
- 1800 Act of Union with Ireland, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland formed
- GEORGE IV** (1820-30) Caroline of Brunswick
daughter Charlotte (died 1817)
Carlton House
Brighton Pavilion
- Mrs (Mary Ann (Maria)) Fitzherbert secret marriage 1785
Dukes of Clarence, Kent, Cambridge
"the trial of Queen Caroline"
- Lady Conyngham
- 1819 "Peterloo massacre" St. Peter's Field, Manchester
- 1829 Catholic Emancipation
- WILLIAM IV** (1830-37) Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen
"respectable old admiral" (Admiral 1799)
an affable, garrulous, eccentric buffoon
- 1789 Duke of Clarence
- Dorothea Bland (Mrs Jordan) 10 illegitimate children Fitzclarence
- the Great Reform Bill
- rotten borough

THE AGE OF REFORM

16 and 17C commerce and trade dominated by **mercantilism** (a country's strength and prosperity depend on the amassing of bullion reserves which is to be achieved by developing production for export, limiting imports and prohibiting the export of bullion)

18C **physiocrats** believed that only agriculture yielded wealth and condemned any interference by government agencies as being harmful, they adopted the term

"Laissez-faire, laissez-passer" (Fr. let act, let things alone)

Adam Smith (1723-90) *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* 1776

division of labour accumulation of capital private enterprise competition free trade
"hidden hand" economic liberalism

the new ascendancy of the Tory party and **Tory oligarchy** under **William Pitt**, the "Younger Pitt" (Prime Minister 1783-1801, 1804-6)

1787, 1789 Pitt opposed the abolition of Acts which debarred Protestant and Catholic Dissenters from civil office; consequently the Dissenters saw no chance of admission to full civic rights except through parliamentary reform

1794 Habeas Corpus (enforced since 1679) suspended

1799, 1800 Combination Laws (repealed 1824) made workers' clubs, unions and friendly societies illegal

the 1815 Corn Law artificially raised the price of imported corn to keep it out of the British market (various other corn laws had had been imposed since the 12C to regulate the export and import of grain)

1819 Peterloo Massacre - a peaceful crowd of petitioners (50,000-60,000) for the repeal of the corn laws in St. Peter's Field, Manchester dispersed by cavalry, 11 killed, 400 wounded

Parliamentary representation had changed little since Charles II. It was in the hands of large landed families while recently established big industrial centres were unrepresented. A borough (valimisjaoskond) with a small electorate could be controlled by a patron who, by using money or territorial power, could send his candidate to parliament. Thus a handful of dependent electors forming a "rotten borough" could be bought and sold in the open market by men who sought control in the House of Commons. As new interests grew up (like the big cotton towns in the north or colonial interest) and remained unrepresented in parliament, they were forced to buy votes. It was reasoned that in such a manner all interests in society could be represented (a member for Old Sarum, not even a village, could represent "millions of India"). Municipal corporations, the church, the universities, the courts of law were in need of reforms which could only be accomplished if the House of Commons were to be reformed first. A wider franchise in the lower house was needed to counter the reactionary influence of the House of Lords. The fear of mob violence after the French revolution of 1830 (the fall of the Bourbons) speeded up the reform process.

the **Reform Act of 1832** gave the vote to freeholders in the rural areas and to almost all male members of the middle class in towns; the result was an electorate of 650,000.

1872 voting by secret ballot (salajane hääletus)

1867 the vote to all settled tenants in the boroughs, a substantial-working class franchise created for the first time (an electorate of 2 million men)

1884 similar franchise extended to rural and mining areas

1885 parliamentary constituencies of broadly equal size created

1918 universal male suffrage, vote to women of 30 years and over

1928 universal female suffrage

The Conservative Party, the successor of the Tory Party, created by **Sir Robert Peel** (Prime Minister 1834-5, 1841-6) after the Reform Bill of 1832. It continued the Tory policy of the protection of agricultural interests and the defence of the Church of England against Dissent, later staunchly advocated imperialism. The repeal of the Corn Laws under Peel in 1846 caused a split in the party and resulted in its loss of power for most of the period 1846-73. **Benjamin Disraeli** (Prime Minister 1868, 1874-80) who had opposed Peel's free trade policies and had assumed the leadership of the Conservatives in Parliament after the Peelites left the Party, secured the half-ownership of the **Suez Canal** for Britain and gave the Queen the title **Empress of India (1876)**. The dominant party under Stanley Baldwin (Prime Minister 1923-4, 1924-9, 1935-7) during the 1920s and 30s, it lost prestige with the failure of **Neville Chamberlain's** (Prime Minister 1931-40) appeasement of Nazi Germany (1937-40), but the country rallied to his successor, **Sir Winston Churchill** (Prime Minister 1940-5, 1951-5) during World War II. Heavily defeated by Labour in 1945, the Conservatives returned to power in 1951, being led by Churchill until 1955 and then by Sir Anthony Eden (1955-7), Harold Macmillan (1957-63) and Sir Alec Douglas-Home (1963-4). In 1970 Edward Heath led the party to victory and negotiated Britain's entry into the European Community in 1973. The Conservatives went into opposition in 1974 but returned to power in 1979 under **Margaret Thatcher** (Prime Minister 1979-90).

The Liberal Party grew out of the Whig Party after the Reform Bill of 1832 as a representative of industrial and business classes. The party advocated Laissez faire and initially opposed social legislation. Under **William Gladstone** (Prime Minister 1868-74, 1880-5, 1886, 1892-4) it accepted electoral and social reforms, in his last two ministries he introduced bills for Irish Home Rule which were rejected. The Party under **David Lloyd George** led a coalition government during World War I. Thereafter the Party became divided and went into decline, a process accelerated by the rise of the Labour Party. By the 1930s the Liberals had become a small third party, a status which endured in the postwar era. In 1988 the Party merged with the Social Democrats, creating the alliance of Social and Liberal Democrats.

The Labour Party grew out of the Labour Representative Committee which adopted the name Labour Party in 1906. Labour rose to official opposition status by 1922 and formed minority governments in 1924 and 1929-31, both under Ramsay MacDonald. After serving in the all-party wartime coalition, the Party won an overwhelming victory in the 1945 elections under the leadership of **Clement Attlee**. Attlee's government instituted extensive nationalization and welfare state measures, including the creation of the national health service. In opposition from 1951, Labour returned to power in 1964 under Harold Wilson, but faced serious economic crises and lost power in 1970. Returning to power in 1974, it lost it again in 1979. *It returned to power in May 1997 under Tony Blair.*

1807 abolition of slave trade in the British Empire

1834 abolition of slavery in the British Empire; on 1 Aug all slaves under the British flag free

VICTORIA (1837-1901)

1840 married Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Prince Consort 1857

children: Victoria, Princess Royal; married Frederick III, German Emperor and King of

Prussia 1831-88; son William II, Emperor of Germany 1888-1918
 Albert Edward (Bertie), later King Edward VII; m. Alexandra of Denmark; son
 George V, daughter Maud wife of Haakon VII, King of Norway 1905-57
 Alice; m. Louis IV, Grand Duke of Hesse and Rhine; daughter Victoria is the
 grandmother of Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, consort of Elizabeth II;
 daughter Alix m. Nicholas II, Tsar of All the Russians 1894-1917

Alfred, reigned as Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha
 Helena, m. Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein
 Louise, m. Duke of Argyll
 Arthur, Duke of Connaught
 Leopold, Duke of Albany
 Beatrice, m. Prince of Battenberg

Uncle Leopold, King of Belgium Lord Melbourne Highland servant John Brown
 Indian secretary "the Munshi"

1851 the Great Exhibition in Crystal Palace in Hyde Park
 1861 death of the Prince Consort "the widow of Windsor"
 1876 Empress of India
 1887 the Golden Jubilee (the 50th year of Victoria's reign)
 1897 the Diamond Jubilee (the 60th)
1846 the Corn Law Repeal

the "repealers"/supporters of laissez-faire or economic liberalism, leader Richard Cobden:
 with the repeal of the corn laws the production of wealth would be accelerated; the
 general well-being would increase if the use of economic resources followed the
 "actual" demands of the market; individuals know their own business best,
 consequently society should be organized around the rights and interests of
 individuals; the retention of duties on grain demonstrates the grip upon the legislative
 machinery of the agricultural interest, the traditional ruling class - the landowners -
 who ought not to be allowed the monopoly of power at everyone else's expense

the "anti-repealers": industrialists want cheap bread to keep the wages down; if they want to
 help the poor, let them improve working conditions, especially for the women and
 children; the inhumanity of the industrial production process displays a callous
 disregard for the obligations of privilege to take care of the less privileged which
 would never have been tolerated in rural England

"repealers'" response to this: cheap food would mean cheaper good for export, a world-
 wide expansion of Free Trade, untrammelled by the interference of mercantilist
 governments, which would lead to international progress, both material and spiritual
 as trade would bring peoples together, exchange and multiply the blessings of
 civilization and increase the power in each country of progressive forces and, finally,
 Free Trade was the expression of Divine Will

1849, 1854 the Navigation Acts abolished (The Navigation Acts were a set of regulations
 designed to give English shipping monopoly in the colonial trade. Earlier regulations
 (1382, 1485, 1540) were intended to protect English shipping. The acts of 1650,
 1651, 1660 forbade foreign ships to trade in England's colonies and specified that
 colonial goods must be carried in English or colonial ships and that certain colonial
 goods were to be shipped only to England. These protective measures had been
 directed mostly against the Dutch.)

1853, 1860 the British Tariff Acts removed the last obstacles to the triumph of Free Trade. The advance of the imperial trade went hand in hand with the steady extension of naval bases, coaling stations and dockyards.

Pax Britannica - peace according to Britain, the maintenance of peace under British rule, a notion analogous to Pax Romana, was popularized by the British government in the 1840s and 50s and became a commonplace of imperial thought thereafter. PB was Britain's monopoly of world trade under the umbrella of Free Trade. Nevertheless, PB was not just restraint imposed on rivals by the self-appointed policeman of the world. All markets in the UK and her colonies were open to everybody which stimulated general economic activity and contributed to the relaxation of tension within the entire trading world; consequently there were no colonial wars of the type of the 17C and 18C. British naval supremacy was a precondition of the informal expansion of European civilization to all continents. Traders of all nations could move without let or hindrance on the surface of the seas, in their wake, or frequently preceding them, went missionary societies.

By 1900 a **world economy** existed. Its centre was Europe, its focal point was London where the financial services which sustained this world trade were centred. A huge amount of world business was transacted by means of the sterling bill of exchange which rested upon the international gold standard which, in turn, ensured that the main currencies remained in a fairly steady relationship with one another. Though the UK's gross output was overtaken by 1914 in important respects by that of the US and Germany, Britain was still the greatest of trading nations - the bulk of the world's shipping and carrying trade was in British hands. She was the main importing and exporting nation and the only one which sent more of its manufactures to non-European nations than to European. Britain was also the biggest exporter of capital and derived a huge income from her overseas investments. Free Trade contributed to the general alignment of British policies toward reform and liberalization in the central third of the century.

During this time a beginning was made with local government reform, a new Poor Law was introduced, factory and mining legislation was passed and began to be effectively policed by inspection, the judicial system was reconstructed, the police force was established, disabilities on Protestant nonconformists, Roman Catholics and Jews were removed, a postal system (the penny post) was set up which became the model on which all others were based, the educational reform was undertaken (the 1870 Education Act made elementary education compulsory and universal).

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Oxford History of Britain. Ed. by Kenneth O. Morgan:

What gave Britain a lead over other European competitors in industrial development were not her natural resources but rather qualitative changes in marketing, technology, government intervention and her capitalist agriculture. While the French could still produce enough charcoal (puusüsi) for their industries, the British, who had taken down all their trees already, had to turn to coal. While the French woollen industry still relied heavily on cottage industries, the enclosures and the growing agricultural efficiency in Britain set limits to domestic industries and encouraged the building of large industrial plants which needed water or steam power or systematized production. Most important of all, Britain had won the global trade war, pushing her rivals out of profitable markets.

Trade and distribution provided the central impulses for industrialization. No other European country had 30 per cent of its population in towns, to be fed, clothed, and

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warmed, or controlled such vast overseas markets. At home, the expanding "respectable class" provided a market for clothes, cutlery, building materials, china; this domestic demand grew by some 42 per cent between 1750 and 1800. But in the same period the increase in export industries was over 200 per cent.

Besides agriculture, three sectors were dominant - coal, iron and textiles. The first two provided much of the capital equipment, infrastructure, and options for future development; but textiles made up over 50 per cent of exports by value in 1750, and over 60 per cent by 1800. Cotton, insignificant in 1750, was dominant with 39 per cent in 1810. Coal output doubled between 1750 and 1800, as steam pumps enabled deeper and more productive seams to be mined, and horse-worked railways bore coal ever-greater distances to water transport. Iron production, boosted by war demand, by the use of coal instead of charcoal for smelting, and by the perfecting in the 1780s of "puddling" and "rolling" wrought iron, rose by 200 per cent between 1788 and 1806. But it was the textile industry which became the flagship of the industrial revolution.

18/5 Cotton rose to prominence largely through its adaptability to machine production and the rapid increase in the supply of raw material that slavery in the American south made possible. John Kay's fly-shuttle loom (which doubled a weaver's output), destroyed when he tried to introduce it in the 1730s, was taken up in the 1770s, along with James Hargreaves' hand-operated spinning jenny (a multiple-spindle wheel) and Richard Arkwright's water-powered spinning-frame. The last, and the great factories it required, spread from the Derbyshire valleys to Lancashire and Scotland. Before competition brought prices down - by two-thirds between 1784 and 1832 - huge fortunes could be made. For some twenty years a modest prosperity extended, too, to the handloom weavers, before the introduction of power-looms and the flooding of the labour market with Irish immigrants and, after 1815, ex-servicemen. This turned the weavers' situation into one of the starkest tragedies of the age. Cotton technology spread to other textiles - speedily to Yorkshire worsteds, slowly to linen and wool. But it also boosted engineering and metal construction. Powerful and reliable machinery had to be built to drive thousands of spindles (värten); mills had to be fireproofed with metal columns and joists. Mill-design and machine-building soon became a specialized job, with water-wheels of up to 150 horsepower, complex spinning mules (ketrusmasinad) and the increased use of steam-power.

James Watt patented his separate-condenser steam-engine in 1774 and its rotative version in 1781. By 1800, cotton mills were its chief users, as it supplied reliable and continuous power for mule spinning. In its turn, the increasingly sophisticated technology required by the steam engine enhanced both its further application - to locomotives in 1804, to shipping in 1812 - and the development of the machine-tool industry, particularly associated with Henry Maudslay and his invention of the screw-cutting lathe (treipink). This (and its associated invention, the micrometer) made possible the absolutely accurate machining of parts. From now on, machines could reproduce themselves and be constructed in ever-greater complexity. The creation of a transport infrastructure made for a golden age of civil engineering, as men such as Brindley, Smeaton, Telford, and Rennie strove to exploit water-carriage and horse-power as efficiently as possible. In a parallel exploitation of wind-power, sailing ships became so sophisticated that they remained competitive with steam until the 1880s. The country's awful roads were repaired and regulated, and in some cases built from scratch, by turnpike trusts, even by government. It took nearly a fortnight to travel from London to Edinburgh in 1745, two and a half days in 1786, and around 36 hours by coach or steamer in

1830. In 1764-72, when money was cheap, all the major navigable rivers were linked by a network of canals. The next boom of canal building in the 1780s pushed the system beyond what was commercially feasible but Britain now had a transport network without parallel in Europe.

The most spectacular instrument of change which brought the gains of the industrial revolution home to everybody was the railway. Railways of various primitive types had since the early 17C carried coal from mine to port or river; by 1800 there were perhaps two hundred miles of horse-worked track scattered throughout the country, built to various gauges and patterns, with wooden and later with iron rails. Cast iron was used from the 1770s, wrought iron "edge-rail" - much more reliable - from the 1790s. Steam traction then appeared in two forms - stationary low-pressure engines dragged wagons up inclines, and light high-pressure "locomotive" engines moved themselves on the rails. In 1804, Richard Trevithick demonstrated the locomotive in Wales and it was soon adopted in the northern coalfield where large-capacity edge-railways were built as coal production doubled between 1800 and 1825. Throughout Britain by 1830 375 miles of lines, authorized by Parliament, had been built.

The commercial boom of the mid-1820s gave the next boost to railway building with the promotion of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway. Cotton production had almost doubled between 1820 and 1830 and Manchester's population had risen by 47 per cent. Transport of the necessities for both was checked by the monopolistic Bridgewater Canal; a large-scale competitor was necessary. Its demand almost exceeded the technology available: only on the eve of its completion, and under pressure of an open competition, was an efficient enough locomotive produced by the Stephensons. The difference between the award-winning *Rocket* (1830) and the production-line *Patentee* (1834), however, was almost as great as that between the *Rocket* and its clumsy forerunner, the *Locomotion*. Locomotive design did not subsequently change for half a century. In the 1830s railway development was buoyed up by another speculative boom and by 1840 nearly 2,400 miles of track connected London with Birmingham, Manchester and Brighton; by the end of the 1840s the mileage had risen to over 8,000.

THE AGE OF IMPERIALISM

1st half of the 19C - the Age of Missionaries, the 19C the greatest century of Christian expansion since apostolic times

1792 the Baptist Missionary Society founded

1795 the London Missionary Society

1799 the Church Missionary Society

1804 the British and Foreign Bible Society

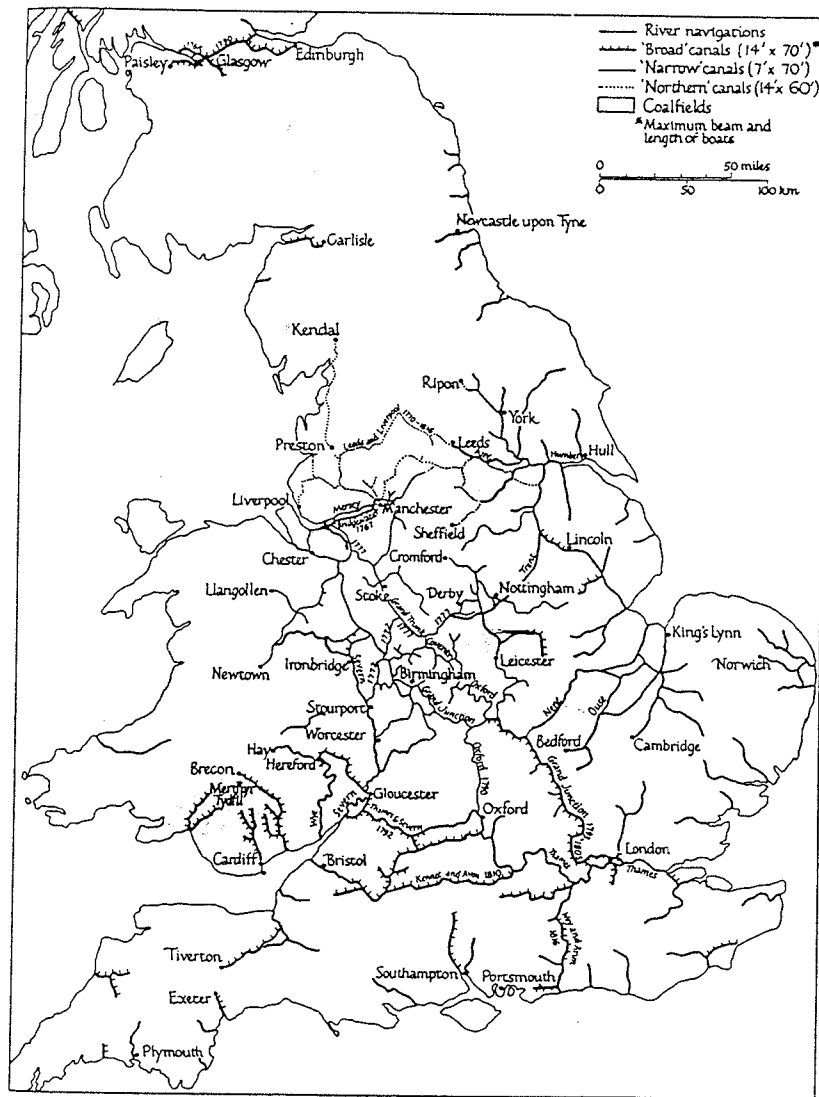
William Wilberforce, parliamentary leader of the movement to abolish slave trade and slavery, speaking of India in 1813: "Must we not endeavor to raise these wretched beings out of their present miserable condition, and above all, to communicate to them those blessed truths which would not only improve their understanding and elevate their minds, but would, in ten thousand ways, promote their temporal well-being, and point out to them a sure path to ever-lasting happiness."

NEW ZEALAND

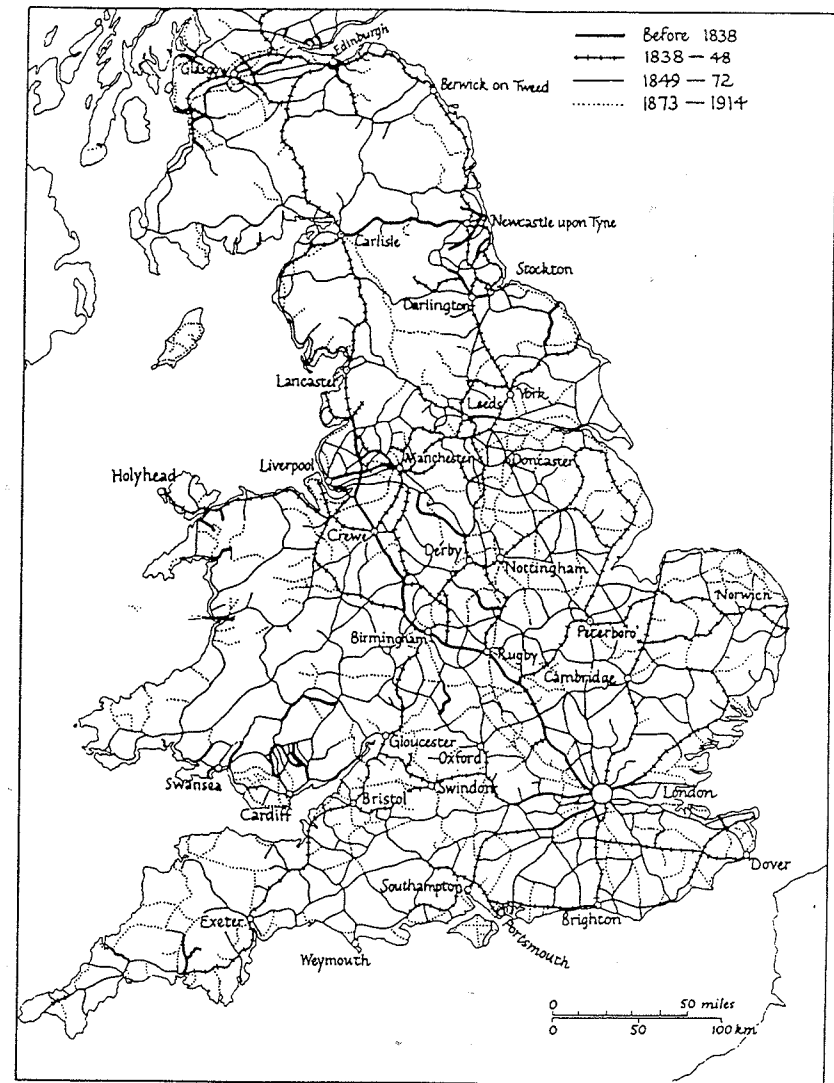
before 1400 the Maoris, a people of Polynesian stock, arrived

1642 Abel Tasman visited the islands which were named Zeeland after the Dutch province

1769-1777 Capt. Cook visited the islands four times and gave a detailed description of them



THE CANAL SYSTEM IN THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY



RAILWAYS IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY 1825-1914

which ignited a wider interest in whalers, missionaries, traders and escaped convicts from Australia

1814 on Christmas Day William Marsden landed and proclaimed to the natives: "Fear not, behold I bring you glad tidings of great joy which shall be to all people", starting the missionary conquest of New Zealand

the Church Missionary Society

1840 the first permanent European settlement established at Wellington (now capital), annexation of New Zealand to the British crown proclaimed, the Maoris signing the Treaty of Waitangi, recognizing British sovereignty in return for guaranteed possession of their land

1841 formerly part of the Australian colony of New South Wales, New Zealand became a separate colony, in 1852 it became self-governing

1845-8. 1860-72 land disputes between white settlers and the Maoris led to war

1861 gold discovered

1882 the introduction of refrigerated ships greatly increased the meat and dairy trade

1907 NZ was given Dominion status within the Commonwealth

1947 full independence achieved

THE PACIFIC

1836 the London Missionary Society sent missionaries to Tahiti and Tonga

1849 the Church Missionary Society undertook the conversion of Melanesia

1871 Bishop Patterson murdered in one of the islands

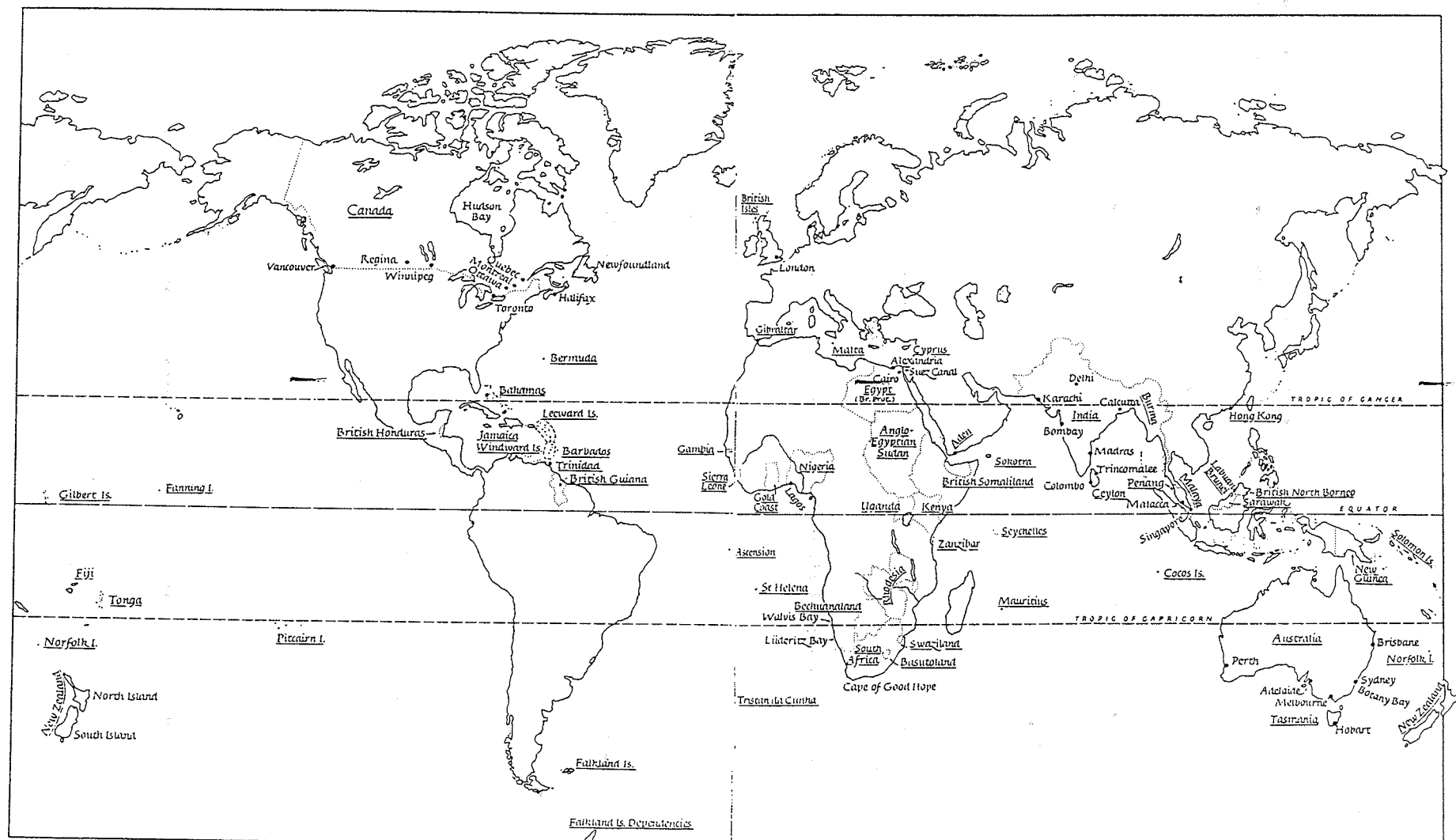
1874 High Commissioner for the Western Pacific, claiming jurisdiction over all the islands of **Polynesia** and **Melanesia** not already annexed by other powers, took up residence in Fiji

1893 the High Commission authority, a form of protectorate, extended to Tonga, Samoa, the Union, Phoenix, Ellice and Gilbert Islands, the Marshalls, the Carolines, the Solomons, Santa Cruz, Rotuma, New Guinea (east of 143 E); New Britain, New Ireland and the Louisiade Archipelago, organizing what amounted to a new colony of **Southern Oceania**

AFRICA

By the 1870s the Industrial Revolution had spread beyond the boundaries of the United Kingdom and was transforming Western Europe. Advancing industrial techniques represented by machine equipment, steel, railways and mass production generally, were promoting a thriving interest in tropical and semitropical countries whose unsophisticated and teeming populations would eventually become large-scale buyers of manufactures as well as suppliers of useful raw commodities. To guard their economies against the competition of their neighbours, the newly industrialized nations of Europe began to close their markets by tariff barriers, and to seek, under pressure of overproduction, additional world outlets for their surplus goods. In this period of extending political rivalries, the protection of home industry and the acquisition of productive overseas colonies offered a prospect of greater self-sufficiency and power. By the end of the 1870s the general abandonment on the Continent of free trade principles under pressure of industrial growth had opened the way to new and aggressive policies of colonial expansion. The British governments were forced to recognize that unclaimed and unoccupied territories would sooner or later fall to other European powers. Hence the object of British policy became one of "keeping the other fellow out".

1869 the opening of the **Suez Canal** by Napoleon III



The British Empire on the eve of the First World War.

1839 **Aden** had been occupied to secure the Red Sea passage, from 1869 onwards the chief British concern in the area was to keep rivals out of Eastern Mediterranean and the Middle East to safeguard the shortest route to India

1854-6 the **Crimean War** had a complex series of causes but the root one was Russian aggrandizement against the sprawling and feeble Ottoman Empire. Russia, the self-proclaimed protector of the Slav Christians living under Turkish rule, occupied (July 1853) the Danubian principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia (present-day Romania), which then formed part of the Ottoman Empire. Turkey retaliated by declaring war (Oct. 1853) and was followed by Britain and France (March 1854). British and French fears of Russian expansion into Europe at Turkish expense were an underlying cause of the conflict. Campaigning (apart from two ineffective Baltic expeditions) was confined to the Crimea, where much of the allied effort was directed towards reducing the Russian fortress of Sebastopol. The early allied success at the battle of the Alma (Sept. 1854) was confined by the failure of Russian attacks at the battles of Balaclava (Oct 1854) and Inkerman (Nov 1854). Winter put an end to further campaigning and it was not until Sept 1855 that the Russians withdrew from Sebastopol, effectively signalling the end of hostilities, which were formally concluded by the treaty of Paris (March 1856). Most of the massive death toll of the war (some 45,000 British, 180,000 French and 450,000 Russians were killed) was attributable to disease and deprivation. **Florence Nightingale**, appointed (1854) superintendent of nurses in British military hospitals in Turkey during the war, helped to remedy their scandalous conditions and was named the Lady with the Lamp by the soldiers. A fund in her honour financed the establishment of the first modern nursing school at the St Thomas's Hospital in London.

1874-80 the Disraeli government continued the Crimean policy of defending Turkish integrity. the Liberal opposition under Gladstone argued that this was no longer feasible and supported the division of much of "Turkey in Europe" into separate, Christian states

1878 the **Congress of Berlin**, attended by representatives of Russia, Great Britain, France, Germany, Austria, Italy and Turkey, attempted to settle the eastern question following the Russo-Turkish war (1877-78). Bulgarian autonomy was recognized and Montenegro, Romania and Serbia were acknowledged as independent principalities. Britain gained Cyprus (thought to be of strategic importance for the Eastern Mediterranean but in fact useless as a naval base) and Disraeli returned home announcing his achievement of "peace with honour" (a phrase later adopted by Neville Chamberlain to describe the "Munich agreement")

EGYPT

1875 Ismail Pasha, the khedive of Egypt, since 1863 viceroy under the nominal suzerainty of the Sultan of Turkey, let it be known that he needed £4 million immediately to pay his debts; Disraeli, acting on his own initiative, persuaded the Rotschilids to find the money on the British government's behalf and acquired the khedive's shares in the Suez Canal Company, making Britain a major partner in the Canal enterprise

1876 Ismail Pasha declared himself bankrupt; Britain and France, the principal stockholders in the Canal business, made arrangements to set up a joint control board to regulate the country's economy and thus reassure future investors; the situation worsened and both countries appealed to the Sultan of Turkey, urging him to depose Ismail Pasha; IP's son became the new khedive; the general Turkish mismanagement of affairs in Egypt led to a nationalist military revolt which was anti-European also, but basically anti-Turk, led by a man called Arabi; to minimize possible damage to trade and communications in the area France and Britain came to a joint decision to uphold the Turkish rule (i.e. the khedive); to force the rebels to submit to their dictate, they

organized a fleet demonstration before Alexandria; its immediate consequence was an upsurge in anti-foreign feeling and 50 Europeans were murdered; British ships retaliated by bombarding the harbour; France considered that an act of aggression and drew out of the conflict for fear of Bismack's actions at home if she were to be dragged into a foreign war; consequently, British forces alone defeated Arabi at Tel-el-Kebir in 1882 and Britain found herself in single occupation of Egypt; Britain intended to withdraw from Egypt as soon as possible but due to various considerations, not least among them the fact that Britain became the guarantor of the Suez Canal Company's neutral status in 1888, she remained in Egypt until 1954; the country was never formally annexed and was thus similar in status to the theoretically independent states of India; after the British troops had left Egypt, Egypt nationalized the company (1956) and a joint Anglo-French force attacked Egypt; in the face of international opposition they were forced to withdraw.

SUDAN

since 1821 Sudan had been ruled by the khedive of Egypt, since 1869 with the assistance of British administrators

1881 Muhammad Ahmad, the Mahdi (the title means "the guided one"), a Muslim leader and founder of the Mahdiya brotherhood in Islam, proclaimed a holy war (jihad) to purify Islam and overran Sudan; his Pan-Islam movement threatened to spread into Egypt

1884 **General Gordon** hastened southward to quench the Mahdi's revolt and evacuate Egyptian forces from **Khartoum**. General Gordon, the hero of the Crimean and the Chinese wars, had served as the governor of the equatorial provinces of the Sudan under the khedive of Egypt in the 1870s. Ignoring the orders to evacuate the area as soon as possible, he found himself besieged in Khartoum (March 1884-January 1885, 11 months) and died a martyr's death when the Sudanese followers of the Mahdi took the town just 2 days before relief arrived.

1896 the Egyptian army was completely reorganized and the khedive was determined to reconquer the Sudan; the Nile expedition under General Kitchener defeated the rebels at Omdurman (their capital) and two days later British and Egyptian flags rose above Khartoum and at the place where General Gordon had died a funeral service was held the Sudan became a condominium (i.e. a territory jointly controlled by two or more states) and attained independence in 1956

1890, 1894 the extension of British dominion in central Africa led to the completion of agreements with Germany, Italy, and the Congo Free State (established under the personal rule of Leopold II of Belgium (1885), later annexed to Belgium (1908), now Zaire) by which "spheres of influence" of all four states were defined, with the object of excluding the possibility of an invasion of the Upper Nile Valley; France preferred not to tie herself down with any agreement of the kind

July 10, 1898 Captain Marchand's expedition, consisting of a dozen French and a hundred Senegalese, having left Brazzaville in March 1897, suddenly emerged at **Fashoda**, 300 miles south of Khartoum; Marchand hoisted the French flag; General Kitchener at Khartoum, hearing of the arrival of six white men at Fashoda, hastened southward to satisfy his curiosity and reached the spot on Sept 8; he complimented Marchand on his amazing journey but pointed out that Fashoda belonged jointly to the British and Egyptian governments and handed him a written protest against any occupation of any part of the Nile Valley by France; the parting at Fashoda was amicable but the Fashoda incident created a furore in France; in 1899 France concluded with Britain a comprehensive

1897

agreement whereby the rights of Great Britain over the whole Nile basin from the source to the mouth were acknowledged; France was confirmed in possession of her West African empire, but the whole of the Egyptian Sudan was recognized as subject to the government of Cairo; in 1904, with the initiation of entente cordiale, France agreed to give Britain, for thirty years, a free hand in Egypt

THE INTERIOR

David Livingstone (1813-73), the greatest and most dedicated British explorers, with a degree in medicine from Glasgow University, was sent by the London Missionary Society in 1840 to their northernmost station in Bechuanaland (now Botswana); in 1849 he pushed northward, past Lake Ngami, to the Zambezi River; four years later he was following that river to its source, reaching westward to Loanda on the Atlantic coast of Angola, and then, on the return journey, eastward along the Zambezi to its mouth in the Indian Ocean. In 1866 he set out on his last and most strenuous expedition. Before he died in 1873, he had mapped a substantial part of the continent.

Livingstone's work was completed by Lieutenant **Verney Cameron**, who had been sent by the Royal Geographical Society in 1872 to assist him, and who explored with infinite care and resource the upper waters of the Congo Basin. His effort to annex the area was hastily repudiated by the Disraeli government.

Meanwhile, in 1858, **Sir Richard Burton**, explorer, orientalist and diplomat, and **John Speke** had discovered Lakes Tanganyika and Victoria, and between 1860 and 1864 Speke and **J.A. Grant** traced the main stream of the Nile from Lake Victoria to Khartoum.

WEST AFRICA

The unprofitable coastal stations at the mouth of the **Gambia River**, in **Sierra Leone** and along the **Gold Coast** had provided useful bases for the campaign against the slave trade.

1850, 1871 the Dutch governments sold their Gold Coast forts to Britain, leaving the British government in control of the entire coast, as well as the hinterland some forty miles in depth

1873-4 Sir Garnet Wolseley broke the power of the Ashanti, one of Ghana's major ethnic groups, and cleared the route to the interior (in 1901 the region of Ashanti became part of the colony of the Gold Coast)

1861 the island of **Lagos**, to the east of the Gold Coast was occupied as a base for combating the slave trade, it later proved a useful commercial port and the gateway to the rich palm-oil regions of the Lower Nile

1885 the Berlin Conference attempted to regularize the process of occupation in Africa, but, on the contrary, opened the continent to the European invaders, Britain's chief rivals being France, Belgium, Portugal and Germany

1886 an amalgamation of small British trading firms known as the United Africa Company (founded 1879) was reorganized as the Royal Niger Company

1888 charter to the Imperial British East Africa Company granted

1899 the territories of the Royal Niger Company taken over by the crown and reorganized as the protectorates of Northern and Southern **Nigeria**, in 1914 the two regions united into the colony and protectorate of Nigeria (independent since 1960)

EAST AFRICA

1887 the Sultan of Zanzibar received, in exchange of some of his territory in the north, a strip of ten miles broad along the coast which the British East Africa Company (established 1888) leased

1890 the annexation of **Zanzibar** (an island off the East African coast) annexed and recognized as a British protectorate (Zanzibar regained its independence in 1963. in 1964 it joined Tanganyika to form the republic of Tanzania)

1894 protectorate established over **Uganda** (independent republic since 1962)

1895 British East Africa became a protectorate (in 1920 a crown colony of **Kenya**, since 1964 a republic)

RHODESIA

1884 **Cecil Rhodes** (1853-1902) appointed deputy commissioner of Bechuanaland: Rhodes went to South Africa at the age of seventeen, in the Kimberley diamond mines and the Transvaal gold mines he amassed a stupendous fortune; after completing his education at Oxford, he founded the De Beers company; in 1881 he entered the Cape Colony parliament, obtained in 1884 the British annexation of **Bechuanaland** (north of South Africa between the Orange and Zambesi rivers, since 1966 Botswana) and gained the monopoly of mineral rights in the **Matabele lands** (later Southern Rhodesia); he was the prime minister of the Cape Colony 1890-6, resigning after the popular criticism of the Jameson Raid and retiring to Southern Rhodesia

1889 the British South Africa Chartered Company founded which gave Rhodes a free hand with his project, the "Cape to Cairo" railway; the company developed and administered a region north of the Transvaal, subsequently named **Rhodesia** in Rhodes' honour; the new colony, divided (1911) into Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia, was administered by Rhodes' company until the early 1920s (in 1923 Southern Rhodesia became a self-governing colony, in 1924 Northern Rhodesia became a protectorate); from 1953 to 1963 both Rhodesias, together with **Nyasaland** (a British protectorate since 1891, since 1964 Malawi) formed the Central African Federation; since 1964 Northern Rhodesia is an independent republic of **Zambia**; Southern Rhodesia was renamed Rhodesia in 1964; Britain refused to grant it independence as the white minority of the colony refused to hand over power to the blacks; in 1965 the white prime minister Ian Smith issued a unilateral declaration of independence to which Britain responded with the imposition of economic sanctions; a prolonged guerilla warfare waged by the blacks forced the white government to make concessions; the terms were negotiated in London and in 1980 Rhodesia became an independent republic **Zimbabwe** with a black government

THE BOER WARS

1877 frightened by the imminent attack of the Zulus, the British annexed the Transvaal and imposed a confederation on it

1879, with the Zulus having been liquidated, Boers wanted their independence back

1880 the Transvaal declared itself an independent republic

1881 after a short war (the **first Boer War** 1880-1) and a series of British defeats (notably the fiasco of Majuba Hill), the Pretoria Convention recognized the independence of the Transvaal and Orange Free State, but under British suzerainty

1884 after further appeals the Transvaal was once again declared a republic, wherein white foreigners had full liberty to reside, to trade and to be subject to no higher taxes than those exacted from the citizens of the republic

Paul Kruger, president of the Transvaal, had led the Afrikaners against the British in the war and resisted the demands of the mostly British **Uitlanders** (Afrikaans for "outlander, foreigner") for political equality with the Afrikaners; the Britons were denied elementary rights of citizenship, and against the treaty provisions, were heavily taxed to provide

Kruger with munitions for war

1886 gold was discovered in the Transvaal

Dec 29, 1895 a force of about 500 men under Dr Jameson, the administrator of Rhodesia, and a friend of Rhodes, set off from Pitsami, on the border of the Bechuanaland Protectorate, to support an uprising of the underprivileged Uitlanders in Johannesburg with the aim of overthrowing the Afrikaner government of Paul Kruger. The **Jameson Raid**, as it became known, ended with the surrender of the force four days later but caused irreparable damage to Anglo-Boer relations. Despite the British government's instant denunciation of the participants and the disavowal of foreknowledge, the Boer government suspected that the imperial authorities were implicated. The organized concentration of a large police force on the Transvaal border suggested a deep-laid plot to overthrow the republic and suspicions were by no means dispelled by the conduct of an apparently staged inquiry in 1897.

1899 the Johannesburg Uitlanders petitioned the British crown for support; Kruger demanded the withdrawal of the London Convention of 1884, the Transvaal and Orange Free State continued to arm themselves, Britain refused to waive her quasi-sovereign and supervisory rights; the negotiations broke down and Sir Alfred Milner, the British High Commissioner, goaded Kruger into attacking the Cape Colony

The second Boer War (1899-1902) lasted for 31 months and in the course of it Britain put into the field 458,000 men against two states whose combined population did not exceed that of two counties of England. These forces were used in operations with little regard for the after-effect on civilian relationships. Lords Roberts and Kitchener demanded and received almost full freedom to decide on what measures were "demanded by military necessity". In consequence, almost the whole of the Orange Free State and large parts of the Transvaal were made uninhabitable. The British burned Boer farms, cleared the veldt and systematically herded Boer families into "concentration camps" where the lack of hygienic precautions caused high death-rates among women and children. The hostilities started when the Boers moved against the British in Natal and the Northern Cape, besieging Ladysmith (4 months), Kimberley (4 months) and Mafeking (7 months). The "black week" in Dec 1899 saw major British defeats (at Stromberg (10 Dec), at Magersfontein (11 Dec), at Colenso (15 Dec), nearly 3000 British troops were killed). By June, 1900, the besieged towns were relieved, Bloemfontein, Johannesburg and Pretoria were taken. The war seemed over. Elections were held and won by Unionists. The Boers refused to accept defeat and harassed the British, using guerilla tactics. Kitchener's response was a scorched earth policy and the concentration camps. In the end, "unconditional surrender" was abandoned because Britain could not defeat the Boers in the field and the British public were weary of an expensive, distracting and humiliating war. In 1906 self-government was given to the Transvaal, in 1907 to Orange Free State. In 1910 Natal, the Cape of Good Hope, the Transvaal and Orange Free state formed the Union of South Africa, a British dominion. In 1931 Britain recognized the independence of South Africa. In 1961 South Africa became a republic and left the Commonwealth because its members had condemned the policy of apartheid (complete segregation of the white and non-white population, introduced in 1948).

INDIA

The period between the Napoleonic Wars and the Mutiny of 1857-58 was the greatest age of British conquest and annexation in India. In 18 the East India Company had held effective control over Bengal and a few coastal trading depots like Bombay and Madras. During the first

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half of the C19 she extended her domain from a series of factory sites to the greater part of the sub-continent. The process of expansion involved almost continual conflict with native rulers, and under pressure of events the Company was forced into becoming a governing organization, more conspicuously after 1833 when its trading activities were ended. With the final defeat of the persistent Marathas in 1817-18, the Company controlled nearly the whole of India proper except Punjab and Sind. Under Lord Amherst (1823-28), parts of **Burma** were added for the sake of buffer security. In 1834, Sind was occupied, in 1849 Lord Dalhousie was able to annex the Punjab. Confident of the benefits of British rule and contemptuous of the "barbarism" and inefficiency of the natives, Dalhousie enforced the doctrine of "lapse", namely, when a ruler died without children, the cherished custom of heir adoption was ignored and the Company was designated inheritor. Between 1848 and 1856 seven states, including Oudh, were so absorbed. British authority was now continuous with the future boundaries of India. Dalhousie's reforms were far-reaching and beneficent, extending to education, agriculture, railways, postal service and telegraphs. The rapid rate of change and reconstruction inevitably created unrest, yet military precautions were neglected.

1838-42, 1878-80, 1919 to protect its empire in India against Russian expansion, Britain unsuccessfully attempted to establish authority in neighbouring **Afganistan** with the force of arms, recognizing Afgan independence in 1919

1857-58 the **Mutiny**, also known as the Sepoy Rebellion, revolt of the Indian soldiers (sepoys) in the British army in Bengal, developed into a wide-spread uprising against British rule in India. The Northern Indian soldiers resented British annexation (1856) of Oudh. They were also angered by the issuing of cartridges coated in beef and pork fat, taboo to Hindu and Muslims respectively. Fighting quickly spread all over Northern India and the civil population were involved in the rising. The rebels besieged Lucknow and conquered Cawnpore and Delhi. British reconquest was completed by March 1858. Various reforms resulted, the most important being the transfer of rule from the East India Company to the British crown. Some Indian nationalists described the rising as the first Indian War of Independence. The atrocities committed by both sides embittered race relations.

1885 the **Indian National Congress** founded to promote economic reforms; it became a spearhead of the Indian movement for independence from Great Britain; its memberships became overwhelmingly Hindu, as the Muslim members left to form their own Muslim League. In 1919, led by Mohandas Gandhi, it adopted the policy of nonviolent resistance toward the British. The party was outlawed during WWII for refusing to support the British war effort and most of its leaders were jailed. After India achieved independence in 1947, Jawaharlal Nehru headed both the government and the party.

1947 British India was divided into two separate and independent states: the (Hindu) India and the (Muslim) Pakistan

1950 India became a member of the Commonwealth

SOUTH EAST ASIA

On the **Malay Peninsula**, by successive treaties, Britain added to her Singapore stronghold various crown colonies which included Penang, Province Wellesley and Malacca, known as the Straits Settlement (after Malacca Straits). By 1896 the Malay states of Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan and Pahang were federated under British suzerainty, in 1910 treaties were concluded with Kelantan, Trengganu and Kedah, which remained like Johore unfederated states under British protection. In 1841 the adventurer James Brooke had become Rajah of Sarawak on the north-east coast of **Borneo**. Although maintaining its independence, Brooke's kingdom, like that

of his neighbour, the Sultan of **Brunei**, was eventually accepted as a British protectorate. By 1881, as a result of the efforts of the British North Borneo Company, the whole of the north-east coast of the island had passed under British control and continued to be administered by the Company, even after the establishment of the protectorate.

After occupation by the Japanese in World War II all the Malay states, save Brunei, formed the Union of Malay (1946), reconstituted (1948) as the Federation of Malaya. In 1963 this federation, together with Sarawak (ceded by the third rajah to Britain in 1946) and Sabah (former South Borneo, an independent British colony since 1946, plus the island of Labuan off NW Borneo) formed the Federation of Malaysia. It included, until 1965, Singapore (a separate British colony since 1946, fully independent since 1965). Brunei acquired self-government in 1971 and became independent in 1984.

THE HOUSE OF WETTIN

Burkhard, Count of Grabfeld (d. 908)

997 Count Dedi I received grant of land from the Holy Roman Emperor Otto III

Duchy of Saxony Duke/Duchess of Saxony

Augusta of Saxe-Gotha, Princess of Wales, wife of Frederick, son of George II

Queen Adelaide, wife of William IV

Duchess of Kent, Victoria's mother

Prince Albert, the Prince Consort of Victoria

EDWARD VII (1901-1910) "Good old Teddy", "Tum-Tum" Alexandra of Denmark

Prince Albert Victor / "Prince Collar and Cuffs" Princess Helene of Orleans Mary of Teck Sandringham

Triple Entente: 1902 with Japan, 1903 with France, 1907 with Russia (1908 meeting with the Tsar at Reval in 1908)

first steps towards the 'welfare state':

1906 - local authorities allowed to provide school meals

1907 - school medical examination made compulsory and school medical services established

1909 - Old Age Pensions Act enforced, giving 5s. per week pension to people over 70 years old with incomes less than £31 10s. a year. Labour Exchanges set up to register vacant jobs and provide contact between employers and those requiring work

1911 - National Insurance Act enforced providing insurance against sickness and unemployment to be paid for by contributions from the state, the employer and the employee. It covered those between 16 and 70 years of age, but was limited to industries where unemployment was recurrent. Maternity grants (raised to 10s. in 1920) introduced

1909 Lloyd George's Budget introduced "super-tax"

1911 Parliament Act curtailed the powers of the House of Lords, asserting the legislative supremacy of the Commons. The Lords lost the power to reject public legislation, except bills to extend parliament's life. In the case of other public bills they were permitted only delaying powers - one month for money bills and two years for other public bills (reduced to one year by the Parliament Act of 1949). Parliament's maximum duration was reduced from seven years to five. The House of Commons resolved to pay MPs £400 per annum.

'VOTES FOR WOMEN'

David Powell. "The Edwardian Crisis": Macmillan 1996:

As early as 1792 **Mary Wollstonecraft** had written a *Vindication of the Rights of Women*, claiming legal and civic equality for her sex, but the movement for emancipation made few significant advances before the middle of the C19. The crucial breakthrough which women needed to make was that persuading the law to view them as individuals in their own right. Because, in English law, legal status was accorded largely on the basis of the ownership of property, hitherto only unmarried women (or widows) who were property owners had anything approaching equality of legal rights. Not only were married women deemed to surrender any income or property which they possessed to their husbands as part of the contract of marriage, they also, in the eyes of the law, became themselves virtually the property of their husbands, denied a separate legal existence and the rights and freedoms that followed from it. This was a situation which women in the C19 campaigned to alter, and with some success. A series of **Married Women's Property Acts**, beginning with the Act of 1870, was passed, giving all women the right to retain a separate income after marriage and to possess and administer their own property. Acts of 1882 and 1884 went further in defining the rights of married women as legally recognised individuals, ending a situation whereby in law they could be treated simply as 'chattels' of their husbands. Other changes in the law further strengthened the rights of women as wives and mothers. Already in 1839 the **Custody of Infants Act** had given mothers of 'unblemished character' access to their children in the event of separation or divorce. The **Guardianship of Infants Act** of 1886 made it legal for a widow to act as the 'sole guardian' of her children, ending the practice whereby only male guardianship was recognised by law. An Act of 1884 gave a divorced woman the legal right to 'maintenance' from her former husband.

These reforms were part of a more far-reaching examination of the institution of marriage and of issues of sexual morality, which took place in late-Victorian Britain. In 1857 the **Matrimonial Causes Act**, had for the first time, set up civil courts for divorce proceedings. This made divorce more widely available, at least for those with the money to pay legal fees, although the number of divorces remained comparatively small and a social stigma still attached to those involved. From a woman's point of view, however, the 1857 Act served merely to confirm the 'double standard' that operated in Victorian society, because, while a husband could gain a divorce upon proof of his wife's adultery, a wife seeking divorce would have to prove her husband guilty of a further 'cruelty' in addition. The causes were eventually brought into line, but the need for many years of campaigning to achieve this goal emphasised the precariously subordinate position in which women found themselves. Until 1884, a wife who refused to live with her husband in their marital home was still liable to imprisonment by the courts. The newspapers in the 1880s published exposés of the incidence of 'wife-beating' and physical cruelty within marriage. Attention was focused, too, on the 'white slavery' of prostitution, partly as a by-product of the campaign for the repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts, which provided for the medical inspection of prostitutes and were seen as not only giving official sanction to what was widely considered as a social evil but also as a blatant measure of discrimination against women whose paying customers were free from any censure or opprobrium. The moral values of a society which permitted the exploitation of women for male sexual gratification while hypocritically espousing the ideal of the purity of womanhood were thus brought under increasing scrutiny, and the more open discussion of all aspects of relations between the sexes (including hitherto taboo subjects such as birth control) was one of the features of the C19's closing years.

So, also, were women drawn into a more active involvement in the political arena. Upper-class women had always performed a quasi-political role - as the wives or mistresses of

public men, as the holders of Court appointments, or as hostesses at the endless round of dinners, receptions and country-house gatherings which formed the context of party-political life in the mid-Victorian period. After the Reform Act of 1867 the political parties became more anxious to enlist female support, not yet as voters but as social organisers and volunteer workers in the constituencies. In 1869, the **Municipal Franchise Act** gave women ratepayers the right to vote in municipal elections. In 1870 the same rights were granted in respect of the **School Boards**, of which women could also become members. Since 1907 women could vote and stand for election to the **County Councils**.

Nevertheless, important though these changes were, they were not in themselves enough to effect a dramatic alteration in the lives of the majority of women. In the Edwardian era the desire for change found an outlet in the demand 'Votes for Women'.

The campaign for female suffrage is conventionally dated from the 1860s, at the time of the debate over the Second Reform Bill. A petition in favour of women's suffrage was presented unsuccessfully to the House of Commons in June 1866. In 1867 **John Stuart Mill**, the Liberal MP, a supporter of the 1866 petition, and author of the emancipationist *The Subjection of Women*, proposed an amendment to the Bill to substitute 'person' for 'man' in the wording of the measure. The attempt failed, but the interest it and the earlier petitions had aroused stimulated further efforts by suffrage activists. In 1867 Lydia Becker formed the **Manchester Women's Suffrage Committee**, similar societies were established in Bristol, Edinburgh and London. Through the 1870s and 1880s they maintained a steady level of propaganda, lobbying, arguing and persuading to win converts to their cause. In practical terms, however, their labours brought little immediate reward. There was still considerable opposition to the idea of female enfranchisement, from women as well as men, based on the ideology of separate spheres. Politics lay clearly within the public sphere; women, it was believed, either lacked the intellect or temperament to take decisions affecting public affairs, or else their feminine innocence would be corrupted by the sordid touch of political life and it was better that they should be protected from such by the stronger and more worldly male.

In 1897 the suffrage campaigners regrouped their forces outside parliament, most of the existing suffrage organisations coming together in the **National Union of Women's Suffrage Societies (NUWSS)**, a pressure group of mostly married women preferring conservative fighting tactics. Younger and more radical women tended to support **Women's Social and Political Union**, founded by **Mrs Emmeline Pankhurst** in Manchester in 1903, which came increasingly to rely on violence to draw attention to their cause. Their methods grew more violent after 1905, including demonstrations, rioting, window-smashing, stone-throwing, arson, imprisonment and hunger strikes. It is a debatable question whether their violence furthered or damaged women's cause.

In 1918, in recognition to women's contribution to the war effort which had demonstrated convincingly the feebleness of arguments against women's participation in politics, **Representation of the People Act** gave vote to women over 30 if they were ratepayers or wives of ratepayers. In 1928 the **Equal Franchise Act** gave vote to all women over 21.

THE HOUSE OF WINDSOR

17 July 1917 King George V, by an Order in Council, adopted the name of Windsor for himself and his descendants

8 February 1960 Elizabeth II declared that the third generation of her male descendants should bear the surname Mountbatten-Windsor

GEORGE V (1910-36) Mary of Teck

1901 visit to Australia 1905 to India

1932 the tradition of annual Christmas broadcasts inaugurated

1935 Silver Jubilee "They must love me for myself alone."

WORLD WAR I (1914-18) The Great War

After the defeat of Napoleon, the Continental conservative powers, above all Tsar Alexander I of Russia, tried to establish a system of co-operation in Europe through regular congresses of great powers. But even in 1814 British diplomats preferred security to be achieved by the traditional means of the balance of power, even if this meant resurrecting France as a counterweight to Russia. Friendly relations with France became threatened in 1830 when Catholic Belgium detached itself from Protestant Holland and it looked as if it might fall into the French sphere of influence. The solution was found in **Belgian neutrality** and a new royal family with close links with Britain. Leopold, King of the Belgians from 1831, was Victoria's mother's brother, the widow of Prince Charlotte, the only daughter of George IV who had married Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg Saalfeld in 1816 and had died in childbirth. The new political reality was guaranteed with the Treaty of London (1839) whose violation by Germany in August 1914 forced Britain into a continental war..

The war was preceded by decades of tension during which the great powers aligned themselves into rival groups: the triple alliance of Germany and Austria-Hungary (1879) and Italy (1882) - the **Central Powers**, and the triple entente formed by a Franco-Russian agreement (1893) and the Anglo-French entente cordiale (1904) - the **Allied Powers**. The immediate cause of the war was rivalry in the Balkans between Austria-Hungary and Russia which came to a head following the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, by a Serbian nationalist at Sarajevo on 28 June 1914. Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. Russia leapt to Serbia's defence and Germany declared war on Russia and its ally France. Britain entered the war on 4 Aug 1914 when Germany invaded neutral Belgium.

At first the war was widely expected to resemble the Franco-Prussian War; it would involve swift mobilization, rapid flanking movements, decisive battles and thus reach a speedy conclusion. In a famous phrase, it would be over by Christmas. Britain's role would be primarily naval and economic; her industrial and financial resources would enable the French and Russian armies to overcome the Central Powers. In order to prevent an early capture of Paris by the advancing German armies, the **British Expeditionary Force** was conveyed across the Channel to reinforce the left flank of the French - an important but limited role. At **Mons** (23 Aug) the BEF, which found itself directly in the path of a much larger German forces, quickly joined in the general retreat south. The allies counterattacked and checked the German advance at the first battle of the **Marne** (5-9 Sept). The rival forces then raced to the coast to prevent flanking attacks. Elaborate lines of trenches protected by rolls of barbed wire were dug and from then on the combatants on the western front ranged themselves on either side of a line from Ostend to Switzerland, settling down what turned out to be four years of frustrating war in the trenches.

In February 1915, following the Turkish attack on Russia in the Caucasus, the allies launched the unsuccessful **Gallipoli** campaign. It was a British attempt to end the deadlock of trench warfare in France by forcing a passage through the Dardanelles and forcing Turkey out of the war. The first, purely naval, operation failed in March. Five divisions were landed in April and five more in Aug. Despite the valour of the British and Australian troops, who suffered heavy casualties, the expedition was abandoned in Dec. Failing to break through the Dardanelles, the expeditionary force withdrew in Jan 1916.

Meanwhile, Germany was gaining ground on the eastern front against Russia, and, after Poland, most of Lithuania, and Serbia submitted, the allies began (Oct 1915) the long-drawn-out **Macedonian** campaign. They failed to save Russia, which fell in March 1917, and the campaign continued, without advancing, until Sept 1918, when Bulgaria was at last conquered.

The allies engaged the Turks also in the **Mesopotamian** campaign, which began on 6 Nov 1914, when an Indian force was landed at Abadan for the purpose of protecting oil installations. It was a British campaign in that part of the Ottoman Empire which corresponds to present-day Iraq. Britain's aim was to secure access to the vital Persian oil supplies. In 1914 and 1915 the advance towards **Baghdad** was slow but generally successful. After the Gallipoli disaster the campaign became more intense but received a severe setback in April 1916 when 10,000 allied soldiers were captured by the Turks at **Kut-al-Amara**. After substantial reinforcements had been sent in, Kut was captured in Feb 1917 and Baghdad fell in March. The Turks were defeated, aided by the Arab revolt in Palestine (1917-18) led by Thomas Edward Lawrence, or **Lawrence of Arabia**, as he became known. Jerusalem was taken in Dec and Damascus and Aleppo fell in Sept 1918.

The war at sea was fought chiefly between Britain and Germany. Submarine attacks posed the worst naval threat to Britain, which lost about 6000 vessels as a result of actions by the German U-boats. The unrestricted submarine warfare was instrumental in bringing the **USA** into the war in April 1917 and was only countered by the introduction of the convoy system (merchant vessels escorted by warships).

In the air, German zeppelins, pioneering strategic bombing, attacked British cities from 1915. The Royal Flying Corps supplemented balloons for reconnaissance, and air combat occurred on both the western and eastern fronts. In 1918 the Royal Air Force was formed and began to bomb German cities.

On the western front combat continued relentlessly. There were occasional British attempts to seize the initiative which always resulted in huge casualties. At **Ypres** (April-May 1915) the German used poison gas for the first time. The British offensive at **Loos** (Sept 1915) was beaten back. A proposed German assault was thwarted at **Verdun** (Feb-June 1916) but the British advance on the **Somme** (June 1916) proved a calamitous failure, with 60,000 men falling on the first day and the total number of British casualties alone amounting to 420,000. The most terrible of these failures occurred at **Passchendaele** (Aug-Sept 1917) where British troops got stuck in the mud, with the loss of 250,000 lives to show for a five-mile advance. Germany's powerful offensive in 1918 was halted by the second battle of the **Marne** (July-Aug). The allied forces, strongly reinforced by American troops, resumed the attack and broke through German defences in Sept. The German leaders agreed to an armistice in Nov and the war came to a sudden end on 11 Nov 1918. The Paris Peace Conference imposed peace treaties on the Central Powers. Germany signed the treaty of Versailles in June 1919 and Austria that of Saint-Germain in Sept. Some 10 million combatants may have died in the war, the number of casualties of the British Empire being some 1,089,900.

IRELAND

For the story of the Irish Home Rule movement up to 1914 consult the handout from David Powell's book *The Edwardian Crisis*, Chapter 5, *Ireland and the Crises of Nationalism*.

1916 24-29 April **Easter Rising** in Dublin. Five battalions of the Irish Republican Brotherhood under Patrick Pearse and 200 men of the Citizen Army under James Connolly, a total of 2000 armed men, took up central positions in the city on Easter Monday. Pearse proclaimed the establishment of the Irish Republic. Vigorous street fighting commenced

but within a week the insurgents surrendered unconditionally to the British troops, their hopes that the rising would spread through the entire country were not fulfilled. 15 of the leaders were executed, 3000 other were interred but soon released. Bitter anti-British feeling the result.

1918 in Dec general election 73 Sinn Fein candidates elected

1919 Sinn Fein members refused to sit at Westminster and set up a provisional government. The unofficial parliament of the Irish republic, Dail Eireann, meets in Dublin. Eamon De Valera, leader of Sinn Fein, escapes from prison and is elected president. Sinn Fein and Dail declared illegal. Clashes between Republicans and the British troops. The Irish Republican Army (**IRA**) formed.

1920 Virtual guerilla war between IRA and the British forces. Government of Ireland Act passed dividing Ireland into two: Northern Ireland, based on the six Ulster counties, and Southern Ireland, consisting of the remaining 26. Each part was to have its own parliament, but was to accept the supremacy of Westminster where both were to retain representatives. Ulster politicians accepted the Act but Republicans refused to agree to it and continued attacks on the British forces.

1921 Southern elections returned 124 Sinn Fein candidates out of 128, but members refuse to sit and parliament is adjourned. Treaty signed with the Southern Irish giving Southern Ireland dominion status as **Irish Free State**. The six northern counties immediately withdrew from it.

1922-23 Dail approved the treaty with Britain. De Valera led anti-treaty "Republican" faction. General election confirmed the majority support for the pro-treaty group. Anti-treaty forces began raids against Ulster and the Free State. Civil war between Free State and Republican forces, Republicans defeated.

1925 A tripartite agreement, signed in London, confirmed the existing boundary between Northern Ireland and Irish Free State

1932 Irish Free State renamed **Eire**

1949 **The Republic of Ireland** proclaimed, the British government formally accepting the **complete independence of Southern Ireland** which leaves the Commonwealth

1921-72 **Northern Ireland** ruled by the Ulster Unionist party who had a constant majority in Northern Ireland's parliament. This rule was opposed by a Roman Catholic minority which desired some form of union with the Republic of Ireland. This minority experienced discrimination in local government, employment and housing; and in the late 1960s a civil rights campaign began to make protest marches. Extremist Unionist reaction to these caused riots

1969 the British army was introduced to keep the peace. The army suffered attacks from the IRA and there were clashes between the Protestant and Catholic communities

1972 the parliament of Northern Ireland suspended and direct rule from Westminster imposed

1974 IRA extends bombing campaign to Great Britain

EDWARD VIII (Jan-Dec 1936)

1930 met Mrs Ernest (Wallis) Simpson, since 1934 the couple inseparable

1936 Dec abdicated the throne in favour of his younger brother the Duke of York and took for himself the title Duke of Windsor, went into self-imposed exile in France

1937 marriage with Wallis

1940-45 Governor of the Bahamas

1972 buried at Frogmore

1984 the Duchess buried at his side at Frogmore
GEORGE VI (1936-52) Elizabeth Bowes-Lion
 1913 entered the Navy as midshipman
 1916 distinguished himself at the Battle of Jutland
 1923 marriage to Elizabeth
 1926 Elizabeth born 1939 Margaret Rose born
WORLD WAR II (1939-1945)

The account is based mostly on two sources: *The Oxford History of Britain*. Ed by Kenneth Morgan, and *The Oxford History of the British Army*.

1933 Hitler came to power in Germany, 1936 Hitler marched into Rhineland (a no-go zone for the Germans and occupied by the allies for 15 years), 1935 Italy invaded Abyssinia, in Munich 1938 Neville Chamberlain came to terms with Hitler, in effect allowing Germany to annex Sudetenland any time he chose, 1939 Hitler invaded Prague, in Sept. 1939 Hitler invaded Poland, **3 Sept 1939 Britain declared war on Germany.**

When Britain declared war on Germany, her army was unprepared to fight an enemy equipped with modern weaponry and innovative tactics. When Germany invaded Poland, the German army had over a million men under arms and three and a half million more available for immediate activation. By contrast, the British Expeditionary Force that was ordered to France consisted of four infantry divisions, which by May 1940 had risen to only twelve.

During the so-called '**phoney war**' (Sept 1939-April 1940) the fighting seemed remote. There were massive air-raid precautions, trenches in public parks; anti-aircraft weaponry deployed on public buildings. 38 million gas masks were distributed to the population; hundreds of thousands of schoolchildren were evacuated from major cities to distant, presumably safer rural areas, though many later drifted back home. Rationing of food, clothing, petrol and other commodities was introduced.

In **April 1940** the first shots of WWII between Britain and Germany were fired in Scandinavia when a small Anglo-Polish Expeditionary Force, sent to occupy Norway, was defeated by a larger German naval and land force with the same objective, the securing of ports of passage for vital Swedish iron. After nearly two months of fighting, much of it around the port of **Narvik**, which a small German force managed to defend stubbornly, the Allies abandoned Norway at the same time as the BEF was being lifted from Dunkirk.

The BEF had been hastily deployed along the southern plains of Belgium on 10 May 1940 when the Germans launched their long-awaited offensive against France, Belgium and Holland with a lightning blitzkrieg attack through the Ardennes forest. The French 9th Army on the right of the BEF bore the brunt of the German onslaught and soon collapsed. Within days the British were cut off from the main elements of the French army and forced to begin retreating towards the coastal city of **Dunkirk** where they were surrounded. Faced with either surrender or somehow escaping across the English Channel, the BEF fought a magnificent delaying action for the main body of the BEF, while the Royal Navy hastily organized an emergency evacuation of Dunkirk (**29 May-4 June 1940**). 339,000 British and French soldiers escaped but with the loss of all their heavy weaponry and transport. The losses of the 850-strong flotilla of naval and civilian craft in the operation were 235 vessels and the aircover cost the Royal Air Force 106 aircraft. The new Prime Minister Sir Winston Churchill, with his powerful rhetoric, could turn a defeat into a victory but the reality was that the British army had barely escaped virtual destruction. Dunkirk's only positive aspect was the saving of the senior officers and men who were the heart of the British army and who were the only professional soldiers capable of defending the UK

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against what was then thought to be certain invasion of Britain. They would also form the core of a newly conscripted, trained and equipped wartime army.

Following the fall of France, the German attack on Britain began. From mid-August onwards, the RAF pilots had to beat back wave upon wave of German Luftwaffe raids on major British cities. From August to October 1940 the **Battle of Britain** raged and became a legend. "*Never in the field of human conflict was so much owed by so many to so few*," was Churchill's famous tribute to the RAF pilots. By Christmas the imminent threat of invasion was past, though the bombings continued.

Until Pearl Harbor brought the USA into the war against Germany in Dec 1941, Britain and her army fought alone against overwhelming German and Japanese strength in a global theatre of war unprecedented in the history of warfare, stretching from Norway and Dunkirk in 1940 to Greece, North Africa and Crete in the west in 1941 and Burma and Hong Kong in Asia to Dieppe and Tobruk in 1942, everywhere suffering one calamitous defeat after another. "*We shall not flag or fail. We shall fight in France, we shall fight on the seas and oceans, we shall fight with growing confidence and growing strength in the air, we shall defend our island, whatever the cost may be, we shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets, we shall fight in the hills; we shall never surrender /.../ Let us therefore brace ourselves to our duties, and so bear ourselves that, if the British Empire and its Commonwealth last for a thousand years, men will still say, "This was their finest hour,"*

Churchill told his people in June 1940 but everywhere the British were on the defensive, with no end in sight to the reversals. An entirely new army had to be created and trained which entailed massive mobilization of the entire nation for war and the enlisting of US help, both with equipping the army with military hardware and to ensure the supplies of food and raw materials (the US lend-lease aid to Britain amounted to about \$27,000 million in the end). Eventually, the British army consisted of 3 million men and 300,000 women.

Unable to attack the German armed forces directly, Churchill resorted to limited operations in **North Africa** against Mussolini's Italian army. Italy had occupied British Somaliland in August 1940 and invaded Egypt but was repulsed and the British retook Somaliland in May 1941. In early 1941 Hitler sent a German expeditionary force under the command of General Rommel to North Africa to bolster the sagging fortunes of the Italians.

In March 1941 Rommel attacked the British at El Agheila and boldly advanced into Cyrenaica towards Gazala and **Tobruk** which was encircled and unsuccessfully attacked in late April and early May. For two months the two sides battled one another to a standstill. In mid-June the British withdrew behind the Egyptian border. Tobruk remained cut-off and under siege, reinforced only by the sea. During the remainder of 1941 the Western Desert Force was reorganized. At the end of the year Rommel was caught off guard and driven back to El Agheila. Rommel was resupplied in January 1942 and counter-attacked the now 8th Army and, despite fierce resistance, attacked and took Tobruk (21 June). 30,000 men and huge food and petrol supplies were captured by the Germans. The 8th Army retreated in disarray into Egypt. In late June Rommel again attacked, with an intent of finishing off the 8th Army and breaking out into the Nile delta. The first battle of **El Alamein** raged for three weeks and when it ended on 3 July the 8th Army had held. In August Churchill visited the 8th Army and decided to change the command. The little-known **Bernard Montgomery** was summoned from England to command the 8th Army. Montgomery galvanized the troops of the 8th Army by restoring their morale and fighting spirit. When Rommel attacked again on 3 August 1942 at **Alam Halfa**, the 8th Army won a defensive victory. For nearly two months afterwards Montgomery continued

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to reorganize and train the 8th Army. New equipment included 300 Sherman tanks furnished by the US and air support was significantly enhanced by the RAF. The **second battle of El Alamein** (Nov 1942) became the first time since 1940 that the British army was on the offensive. The battle raged for twelve days with British superiority in troops, artillery, tanks and aircraft. Rommel's tanks were steadily written off until a mere 35 of an original 500 remained operational. El Alamein was the turning-point of the war in the west, leading Churchill to proclaim: "*Before Alamein we never had a victory. After Alamein we never had a defeat.*" Montgomery's meteoric leap from anonymity to national hero and his extraordinary hold upon the troops of the 8th Army made "Monty" an international legend.

After regrouping, the 8th Army pursued Rommel into Tunisia, on the way relieving Tobruk. There Rommel retreated into the formidable Mareth Line. The final battle between Montgomery and Rommel took place in March and April 1943 when the 8th Army cracked the Mareth Line and joined the Anglo-American force which had landed near Algier and made its way eastwards. The allies took Bizerta and Tunis and on 13 May Germany surrendered in Africa.

Elsewhere Britain had suffered one defeat after another. In March 1941 Churchill ordered a British Expeditionary Force to Greece to reinforce the Greeks who had been attacked by the Italians. The expedition bore heavy losses and ended in an emergency evacuation from the Peloponnese at the end of April. In May German airborne forces suddenly invaded Crete and the British garrison was compelled to evacuate the island. Only in the Middle East was there a semblance of success in 1941 when in June a Commonwealth offensive to protect the vital oil pipelines from Iraq wrested control of Syria and Lebanon from Vichy French forces before the Germans could intervene.

Immediately after the surprise attack on Pearl Harbor on 7 Dec 1941, the Japanese began a series of offensives to capture strategically important locations in the Far East. The first to bear the brunt of Japanese aggression was **Hong Kong** on 8 Dec. The British-Canadian garrison consisted of only six battalions and 28 artillery pieces. After holding out for five days from the New Territories to Kowloon, the remnants of the garrison withdrew to Hong Kong island which the Japanese invaded the night of 18-19 December, after a call for surrender was spurned by the British commander. Despite a gallant stand, the British and Canadian defenders were vastly outnumbered and could neither be reinforced nor escape. The survivors surrendered on Christmas night and those that managed to survive capture were inhumanly treated by the Japanese.

On 8 December the Japanese also landed unopposed in southern Siam (modern Thailand) and northern **Malaya**, quickly seizing Bangkok. The British had no strategic plan for the defence of Malaya and had long gambled on defending **Singapore** and the strategically important British naval base there against an attack from the sea. The 10th Army in the area was undermanned and ill-equipped and, in the end, defended the wrong approaches to the island. In seven days the Japanese overran Singapore and captured the bulk of the 10th army on 15 February 1942 in what is widely regarded as the worst military disaster in the history of the British army. The capture of 130,000 British and Commonwealth troops was not only a humiliating defeat but also the latest in a series of disasters that highlighted Britain's unpreparedness for global war.

Japan's next target was **Burma** which was lightly defended and near the bottom of Britain's military priorities in the Far East. Burma was invaded on 20 January 1942. Although four brigades of British and Commonwealth troops were rushed to Burma, they were only able to delay the fall of the Burmese capital Rangoon, the main target of the Japanese, until early March.

In January 1943 the Allies met at Casablanca, in Morocco, to decide future strategy. The British declined to support the Americans' desire for a cross-Channel invasion of north-west Europe in 1943. Churchill sought to buy time for its planning and preparation by nibbling away at what he termed "*the soft underbelly of the Axis*" (i.e. the alliance of Germany, Italy and Japan). Only in the Mediterranean was there any immediate possibility of continuing the momentum of victory that had begun in North Africa. It was agreed that the Allies would invade the island of Sicily in the summer of 1943.

The **Italian** campaign began 10 July 1943 with the landing in Sicily of Montgomery's 8th Army and the US 5th Army. After Mussolini's fall, the Allies crossed to the mainland (Sept) but did not break through German defences at Rome until 4 June 1944. The Germans surrendered in Italy only on 2 May 1945 when Trieste fell.

Meanwhile, on the western front **the allied invasion of Normandy, Operation Overlord**, was launched. On **D-Day, 6 June 1944**, the greatest amphibious operation in the history of warfare took place. 155,000 Allied troops parachuted from the skies, landed by glider and stormed the beaches of Normandy in three separate sectors. Despite the US troops running into severe difficulties in one of the sectors due to faulty intelligence reports, the landing was a brilliant success. In April Rommel had predicted the importance of this day: "*The first 24 hours of the invasion will be decisive ... the fate of Germany depends on the outcome ... for the Allies, as well as Germany, it will be the longest day.*" Indeed, on that momentous day over 130,000 Allied ground troops and 23,000 airborne were landed in Normandy. In all, 195,000 naval personnel in 6,939 vessels participated in one way or another in the D-Day landings: 1,213 combat ships, 4,126 landing craft, 736 ancillary ships and 864 merchant ships. It was the day that decided the outcome of the war.

The Americans captured Cherbourg on 27 June and went on to invade Brittany, while the British under Montgomery captured Caen (9 July). The Canadians destroyed an encircled German army at Falaise (17 Aug). The US and Free French troops moved north after landing in the south of France and on 25 August the Allies took Paris. They then advanced on the Ruhr. The British failed in the battle of Arnhem (Sept) to penetrate German defences and the German counterattack in the Ardennes pushed a salient in the Allied lines. A US offensive early in 1945 allowed Montgomery in command of the British Second and US Ninth Armies to cross the Rhine (23 March). On 4 May Montgomery accepted the German surrender at Lüneburg Heath. On 8 May 1945 the war in Europe formally ended when Germany surrendered unconditionally in Reims, France.

In Asia, the US halted the Japanese advance with a series of air and naval victories (1942-43) and in Oct 1944 defeated the Japanese fleet. Burma was reconquered by the British (Jan-May 1945) while the allies took the Philippines and Borneo. After the atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japan surrendered (14 Aug).

Casualties suffered by the British Empire in the war were 486,000 killed and 590,000 wounded.

"I have never accepted what many people have kindly said, namely that I inspired the nation. It was the nation and the race dwelling all round the globe that had the lion heart. I had the luck to be called upon to give the roar." (Churchill)

1940-1970 THE AGE OF CONSENSUS

the welfare state:

1942 publication of Beveridge Report advocating a system of national insurance, comprehensive welfare and the deliberate maintenance of a high level of employment

1944 Government White Paper, "A National Health Service Employment Policy" and "Social

Insurance" accept the major principles of a national health service, full employment and a comprehensive system of social welfare

1945 Labour landslide victory

1946 National Insurance Act establishes a comprehensive "welfare state" on the lines advocated by the Beveridge Report. Compulsory insurance provided for unemployment, sickness and maternity benefits, old age and widow's pensions and funeral grants. National Health Service Act provided a free medical service for everyone including free hospital treatment, dental care and optician's services. The Act came into force in 1948

1948 National Assistance Act abolished all the Poor Law still in existence and provided cash payments for those in need and without any other source of income

1945-51 nationalization of key industries - coal, railways, road transport, civil aviation, gas, electricity, cable, wireless (radio), the Bank of England

ELIZABETH II (1952-)

1947 Marriage to Philip, Duke of Edinburgh

1948 Charles 1950 Anne 1960 Andrew 1964 Edward

1970-79 The break-down of the post-war consensus

1979-90 The era of Thatcherism - an attempt to dismantle the welfare state

1990-97 The post-Thatcher era

May 1997 landslide Labour victory under Tony Blair

BACKGROUND TO THE TROUBLES IN NORTHERN IRELAND

- 1170 Anglo-Norman knights from Wales (*Cambro-Normans*), coming to the aid of the deposed king of Leinster, conquered his kingdom in the English king's name. Dublin and its immediate surrounds (the Pale) the king left to himself, accepting tribute from neighbouring kingdoms; in the next medieval centuries Anglo-Norman knights fought to gain control of Ireland but became assimilated to an alarming degree, necessitating a series of laws against using the Irish language, wearing Irish costume, playing Irish games etc. to keep the 'Old English' community from being swallowed up altogether.
- 1534 Henry VIII declared himself supreme head of the reformed English Church and had this move sanctioned by the English parliament, in 1536-7 the Irish parliament passed similar laws. The Catholic Old English community in Ireland, though, resisted religious change to the point of threatening to withdraw their allegiance from the English monarch (Elizabeth I) who in 1570 was excommunicated by the pope. They suggested that they could continue to support the English Crown in temporal affairs but would not participate in services of the state church.
- 1534 the ninth earl of Kildare rebelled against Henry VIII and declared himself champion of the pope. Henry retaliated by confiscating his lands to the Crown and putting all male members of the family to death. The overthrow of the house of Kildare left a power vacuum in the midland area which the Gaelic local lords used for launching sporadic military onslaughts against the Pale. The English responded with the policy of **confiscation and dispossession**. The chieftains who wanted to make peace with the government were expected to recognize the English monarch as their ruler and pursue a policy of **Anglicization** in their family and lordship. The dispossessed lords were driven into the boggy terrain of the West, their territories were parcelled into smaller units, some granted to the relatives, the rest assigned to English adventurers who would, at their own expense, plant these estates with English settlers.
- 1579 James Fitz Maurice Fitzgerald led a rebellion in Munster against "the heretic queen" Elizabeth I, the government retaliated with massive slaughter and **4,000 English settlers were planted** on their confiscated property.
- In Ulster the planters could invade the borderlands but not penetrated the heartland controlled by the **O'Neill** family. Hugh O'Neill, earl of Tyrone, set to establish his jurisdiction over the entire lordship, seeking international aid by advancing himself as a champion of Counter-Reformation. At **Kinsdale in 1601** 4,000 sent by Philip III of Spain and his own forces were defeated by a 20,000-strong government army, inaugurating a new era of expropriation and plantation. James I favoured systematic colonization of Ireland. Plantations were introduced to six of the nine counties of the province of Ulster, to Counties Wexford, Leitrim, Longford, Tipperary and the King's and Queen's counties. Before 1641 about **100,000 new English settlers** arrived in Ireland.
- 1641 2,000 Protestant settlers were massacred, tens of thousands were stripped of their clothes and chattels and driven destitute to the few remaining places of refuge by risen Catholic landowners alarmed by the Crown's preparations for a new wave of confiscations.
- 1649 Cromwell drowned the insurrection in blood and undertook to eradicate Catholicism in

Ireland. The Cromwellians decided to confiscate all Catholic estates in the country and to provide partial compensation in the area west of the River Shannon to those Catholic proprietors who could prove that they had not been involved with the rebellion, only Protestant proprietors were to remain in the provinces of Leinster, Munster and Ulster. The surviving Catholic proprietors were bundled across Shannon and left ²the scramble as best they could for whatever land they could occupy. All the confiscated land was surveyed and mapped and the vacated estates were assigned to Cromwellian soldiers or those in England who had financed his campaign. Thus at one fell swoop the Catholic landed interest was shifted from the most prosperous to the poorest provinces in Ireland.

1660 the restoration of Charles II left the new land settlement intact, choosing only to alleviate the religious persecution of Catholics, enabling the Catholic church between 1660 and 1690 to re-establish itself as the church of the people

1685 James II, an openly Catholic monarch, undertook to promote Catholics to places of influence in all spheres of life, giving fresh hope to Irish Catholic landowners and clergy that their lost position and prestige would be restored

1688 the Glorious Revolution dethroned James II in favour of Protestant William of Orange, James escaped to France but attempted to reclaim his crown in Ireland, arriving with a French army and finding enthusiastic support among the Catholic landed interest and clergy. The Protestants feared the repetition of 1641. Some Protestant towns in Ulster, notably Derry and Enniskillen, denied the authority of James and by holding out against him provided a bridgehead for the army that William brought to Ireland to remove the threat to his throne.

1690 William defeated James at the River **Boyne** and secured Protestant succession for England and Ireland. The defeat of James, followed by a fresh wave of confiscations and a rigid penal code against Catholics, marks the final surrender of the Catholic landed interest and the consolidation of the Protestant interest. Ireland in the eighteenth century would be English and Protestant in appearance but still predominantly Catholic in religion. It would be ruled by **the Protestant 'Ascendancy'**, a small class, or caste, established by the land settlements of the seventeenth century, who executed their power through the Irish Parliament which had no legislative independence from the parliament in Westminster.

1790 Theobald Wolfe Tone and a few other liberal-minded Protestants, stirred by the fall of Bastille in France, began to advocate a re-union of Irishmen of every religious persuasion for the purpose of establishing in Ireland a social order founded on the principles similar to those of the French Revolution. The English administration responded with

Catholic Relief Bills admitting Catholics to the parliamentary and municipal franchise, giving legal validity to marriages of Protestants with Catholics, permitting Catholics to carry arms, to hold commission in the navy and army, to qualify for University degrees, to enter the learned professions and to sit on juries. But the retention of the 'test oath' (of allegiance to the Established Church) still debarred Catholics from taking effective part in government. The radical reformers' organization **The United Irishmen** was driven underground in 1794 where they developed links with **'Defender' societies**, rural Catholic secret organizations. The Protestants, alarmed by new Catholic offensives, organized opposing Protestant societies, the **Orange lodges**. The United Irishmen planned an anti-English rising for the summer of **1798**, but things went wrong and the revolt degenerated into disordered bloodletting and massacre. The English offered the Irish an

Act of Union to pacify their backyard while being at war with Napoleon's France.

1800 the **Act of Union** abolished the Irish Parliament in Dublin, giving Irish MPs 100 seats in the Parliament of Westminster but discontent lingered because **Catholic emancipation** had not been achieved. It was conceded only in **1829**, after mounting agitation led by Daniel O'Connell and the Catholic Association. Catholics could now sit in parliament and hold most high offices.

1840s Daniel O'Connell led a mass campaign for **the repeal of the Act of Union**. His constitutional efforts were shadowed by a more romantic, conspiratorial and revolutionary tradition of Irish nationalism. Groups such as '**Young Ireland**' in the 1840s and the **Fenians** in the 1850s and 1860s, encouraged by the nationalist ideas of continental Europe and by support from Irish exiles in the United States, and tapping a well of grievance deepened by the immense tragedy of **the potato famine of 1845-9**, staged a series of abortive insurrections and symbolic acts of violence in a bid to rouse the Irish people and coerce the British government into making concessions to nationalist demands. In the 1870s mass protests and constitutional action were revived in the activities of Michael Davitt's **Land League** (campaigning for help for tenant farmers hit hard by the effects of agricultural depression) and the organization of an independent **Nationalist Party** in parliament.

1870 the **Irish Home Government Association** was founded. At the general election of 1874 59 'Home Rule' MPs were returned, in 1880 already 65. **1882** the **Irish National League** was formed to provide the parliamentary party with an effective grass-roots organization. In 1885 it had 1,200 branches.

1885 the general election again returned 65 'Home Rule' MPs making the future of the Anglo-Irish Union an urgent problem. **Gladstone's Irish Home Rule Bill** was defeated in 1886 and again in 1893. He argued that a generous concession in recognition of Ireland's separate political identity could reconcile the Nationalist majority to the continued existence of the United Kingdom. **The Unionists** believed that the establishment of a parliament in Dublin, even if at first its powers were limited, would lead inevitably to demands for eventual independence and must therefore be resisted at all costs. English landlords with Irish estates feared that the rights of property would be flouted by a nationalist parliament in Dublin. British Protestants feared that their co-religionists in Ireland would be placed under 'Rome rule'. Businessmen feared that business links, especially with the industrial North of Ireland, would be cut. Imperialists feared sedition in other colonies should the Irish get their way. With the threat from Germany becoming ever more serious, strategists were alarmed by the prospect of hostile Irish ports.

1898 William O'Brien puts new life into the Home Rule movement with the United Ireland League

1902 **Sinn Fein** founded by Arthur Griffiths

1905 **Ulster Unionist Council** established; a large representative body with a permanent executive body

1907 **Sinn Fein** League organized for the "re-establishment of the independence of Ireland"

1910 At the general election 81 Irish Nationalists returned. **Sir Edward Carson** leads the Ulster Unionists in opposition to plans for Home Rule

1911 the Parliament Act removing the power of veto from the House of Lords who had opposed the previous Home Rule Bills opened a way for the favourable settlement of the Irish question. Carson declares in Belfast: "We will yet defeat the most nefarious

- conspiracy that has ever been hatched against a free people": **Ulster Council** prepares plans to take over civil administration in Ulster in event of Home Rule
- 1912 Liberal government introduces a Home Rule Bill for the whole of Ireland. A series of mass meetings throughout the province culminate on 28 September, '**Ulster Day**', in the ceremonial signing of the '**Ulster Covenant**', the signatories pledging themselves to use 'all means which may be found necessary' to defeat Home Rule and to refuse to recognize the authority of the Home Rule parliament. This '**Solemn League and Covenant**' was signed by 200,00 Protestants. Signatures for the Covenant were also collected in Glasgow, Edinburgh, London, Manchester, Liverpool, Bristol and York. A **British League for the Support of Ulster and the Union**, founded in March 1913, received the backing of 100 peers and 120 MPs and had over 10,000 members by 1914. **Ulster Volunteers** formed as a military force to resist Home Rule.
- 1913 Home Rule Bill defeated in the House of Lords, but awaits automatic implementation under provisions of parliamentary Act. The idea of excluding Ulster from its provisions raised by the Liberal government. Citizen Army, later known as the '**Irish Volunteers**', formed in the South
- 1914 Nationalists persuaded to accept exclusion of Ulster from the operation of Home Rule for six years, but Carson rejects compromise. **Ulster Volunteers** import illegally 20,000 rifles and Dublin arms two 'volunteer' forces. Conference at Buckingham Palace fails to reach agreement on Ulster's exclusion from Home Rule. Outbreak of the First World war defers implementation of Home Rule.
- 1918 in Dec. general election 73 Sinn Fein candidates elected
- 1919 Sinn Fein members refuse to sit at Westminster and set up a provisional government. The unofficial parliament of the Irish Republic, Dail Eireann, meets in Dublin. Sinn Fein and Dail declared illegal. Clashes between Republicans and British troops. The Irish Republican Army (**IRA**) formed.
- 1920 Virtual guerilla war between IRA and British forces. **Government of Ireland Act** passed dividing Ireland into two: **Northern Ireland**, based on the six Ulster counties, and Southern Ireland, consisting of the remaining 26. Each part is to have its own parliament, but is to accept the supremacy of Westminster where both are to retain representatives. Ulster politicians accept the Act but Republicans refuse to agree to it and continue attacks on British forces.
- 1921 treaty signed with the Southern Irish giving Southern Ireland dominion status as **Irish Free State**. The six northern counties immediately withdraw from it.
- 1925 a tripartite agreement signed in London confirming the existing boundary between Northern Ireland and Irish Free State
- 1921-72 Northern Ireland ruled by the **Ulster Unionist party** who has a constant majority in Northern Ireland's parliament, Stormont. This rule opposed by a Roman Catholic minority which desires some form of union with the Republic of Ireland. The Catholics adopt the posture of a frightened and alienated minority, sheltering behind priests, fraternities and Catholic socio-economic networks. This minority experiences discrimination in local government, employment and housing.
- 1937 New Southern Irish constitution lays claim to 'the whole island of Ireland'. Beginning of renewed IRA campaign against Ulster.
- 1956-62 a renewed IRA campaign against Ulster
- 1960s Catholic Civil Rights campaigns, extremist Unionist reaction to these causes rioting

1969 British army sent to Belfast to deal with rioting

1971 first British soldier killed in Northern Ireland; IRA bombing campaign intensifies

1972 'Bloody Sunday' (30 Jan.) a banned Civil Rights march in Londonderry leads to 13 people being shot by British soldiers; **Stormont suspended and direct rule from London introduced**

1974 IRA extends bombing campaigns to Great Britain

1995 British and Irish governments publish 'Framework Document on future of Northern Ireland'. First official meeting for 23 years between a British government minister and IRA representative

Suggested reading:

The Oxford Illustrated History of Ireland. Ed. by R.F. Foster. Oxford University Press, first published 1989, latest reprint 1996, ISBN 0-19-285245-0 pbk, £ 13.99.