

**Some Sketches of History
of
England and English People**

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M. Badre Alam Khan



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You are a British citizen, you should know a little of
history of England and English people.

Preface

This is not a detailed history of England and English people. It is primarily designed for the students of school and colleges and not for the scholars. Some sketches of history or some important facts of history have been arranged here chronologically for the students of history. History proper tells us the facts of history, narrates the characters of history along with comments and references.

History of England began with the Roman conquest in the middle of the first century B.C. Roman general Julius Caesar, pursuing the Gaules who created disturbances on the fringes of Roman Empire, came to the south-east coast of England and occupied it. Julius Caesar followed the Gaules for punitive action for their offences. The local chiefs of the old Brythons could not oppose the Roman general. They surrendered to the Romans. Julius Caesar made England the 45th province of the Roman Empire. England was a Roman colony for about four hundred and fifty years (45 B.C. to 410 AD).

Roman colonial rule had a great impact in the history of England and English people. Before the Roman came to England the old Brythons or the Druids were savage people and used to live nomadic life. The Romans were a civilized people, they carried with them the Hellenic civilization and Christianity. They taught the savage Brythons agriculture and how to live a settled and civilized life. They built schools for their education and taught them law and literature. They built for them stone villas for their dwelling, constructed road for their communication and trade. The pagan Britons were given the idea of God and converted them to Christianity.

After the departure of the Roman England was opened to the European settlers and invaders. Different European tribes like Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Danes came in marauding bands and occupied different areas of the island and settled there. Fifth and sixth century was a time for settlements of the European tribes. Those settlements later were developed into small kingdoms and they formed the Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy (Seven kingdoms - Mercia, Northumbria, Wessex, Kent, Sussex, Essex and East Anglica). During 9th century, King Alfred, the great, united all these small kingdoms into one kingdom as England. The Angles, Saxons, Danes and Jutes were also integrated into one nation and were known as English. The words English and England come from Angles. The Anglo-Saxon rule in England continued till the Norman Conquest in 1066 AD. The duke of Normandy William defeated the last Saxon king Harold in the Battle of Hastings and occupied the throne of England.

With the Norman Conquest history of England started anew. England became a part of France (Normandy was province of France). England

was ruled by William and his successors from 1066 to 1154. During this time influence of French nobles, French language and Literature was evident in every aspect of state affairs. English nobles were not given any importance. English Language was also pushed aside. French became the language of the Royal Court and Royal household. Feudalism was strengthened and was institutionalized in England like France.

Political history of England from 1154 to 1603, was most eventful. It was the time when despotic English kings could gradually realize that they should listen to the demands of their subjects (local chiefs). Magna Carta of King John and Model Parliament of Simon Montfort were significant political developments of this time. Constitutional monarchy and Parliamentary democracy were taking shape. Four major royal families ruled England during this period they were the kings of the House of Plantagenet, the House of Lancaster, the House of York and the House of Tudor. It was the formative stage of British democracy and constitutional monarchy. King John severed all relation with the continent and England asserted her own position in Europe.

England began her new golden age of greatness and excellence during the reign of the Tudor kings. Three Tudor sovereigns were very illustrious, they were Henry VII, Henry VIII, and Elizabeth I. Henry VII declared the hundred years war with France when France tried to annex Brittany an area of England. Henry VIII and his daughter Elizabeth I were the most illustrious sovereigns of this dynasty. Henry VIII put England on the road of material prosperity, national unity and national greatness. In those days of religious controversies Henry VIII courageously established the Church of England, severed relation with the Pope of Rome. He started the British Navy and expansion of British kingdom beyond seas. Of all the English queens and kings Elizabeth I was the most outstanding, it was during her reign that England reached the pinnacle of prosperity both materially and intellectually. After defeating the Spanish Armada, England became one of the great powers of Europe. She further widened the scope of British colonies in North America.

Political history of England, from 1603 to 1714 under the Stuarts, was a period of political turmoil. Important events of this period were the Gunpowder Plot to kill the King along with his House of Lords. The first British colony was established in North America during the reign of James I which was the beginning of the British colonial empire. The quarrel between the King Charles I and the Parliament began on the issue of Divine Right of the King. The Civil War started between the supporters of the king or royalists on the one side and the supporters of the Parliament on the other. The Royalists were defeated and the king was executed before the public. The Monarchy and kingship was abolished.

Britain from 1714 to 1837 saw five kings (George I, II, III & IV and William IV). During this time the British Monarchy passed over to the House of Hanover. British Parliamentary democracy and constitutional Monarchy took a shape during this time. The power and right of the British Parliament gradually increased and British Parliamentary Democracy was strongly rooted. People's voice was heard and respected in the Parliament, and political parties asserted their power in the Parliament to control the government. Parliamentary form of Government and constitutional Monarchy took their present shape in Britain.

Different reform bills relating to different social and political issues were passed in the Parliament, political parties both the Conservatives and the Tories asserted their position and voiced the people's sentiment in the Parliament. Great politicians like Walpole, William Pitt, Robert Peel, Disraeli and Gladstone made their historic contribution to the development of British Democracy. Great events of the history like French Revolution, Napoleonic Wars, and the American War of Independence, had also been discussed in this Part.

Nineteenth century was the time for Queen Victoria. Queen Victoria was the longest reigning monarch in the history of the British people (63 yrs. from 1837 to 1901). During her long reign the British Empire was expanded over all the continents of the Earth. About 1/3 of the land area of the globe was under her Empire. There was a proverb that the sun does not set in the Empire of Queen Victoria. Colonialism was made and recognized as a political institution. She could build up a bright image of the British people all over the world and British Empire was esteemed by others. Parliamentary Democracy and constitutional Monarchy was deeply rooted in Britain and became an example to others. Britain reached the highest pinnacle of glory materially, politically and intellectually during this time. British Royal Navy was invincible on the sea. The British people used to think themselves as a superior nation and that they had a responsibility to give a little bit of their law and democracy to the lesser breeds of other countries (which Rudyard Kipling boastfully said "Whiteman's burden".)

Queen Victoria ascended the throne after the death of her uncle William IV as the King was childless and she was the next heiress presumptive. Queen's personal image was also very high. She had matrimonial relation with most of the royal families of Europe, and, therefore, earned the nick-name "Grand-mother of Europe".

Early part of the 20th century was a time of political turmoil in Europe. There were unhealthy competitions and rivalries among the European states for occupation of new colonies and control of trade routes and colonial markets. They were in a state of crazy competition for expansion of their colonies, trade routes and for occupying colonial markets. The result was bitter hostilities and ill-feeling among them. Everyday tension

was rising and every state was acquiring war hardware and was getting ready for a War.

Europe was at that time divided into several hostile military groups like the Tripple Alliance, the Double Alliance and the Tripple Entete. Germany, Austria and Italy were in the Tripple Alliance. Russia and France formed the Double Alliance. Britain so long was aloof from any military group, but this time they felt the need of a group and they formed the Tripple Entete with France and Russia. The War was then a matter of time.

The First World War was started when the Arch Duke of Austria was killed on the street in Bosnia on June 28, 1914 by a Serbian student.

The Second World War was the most unfortunate event in the history of mankind. It shattered the whole of Europe. European civilization of two thousand years, of which the European people were so proud of, was destroyed by their own greed for wealth and hatred for others. The loss of lives and material were so colossal that none could even conceive of it (25million people were killed while fighting, 50 million were permanently crippled; and actual loss of material could not be assessed). There was most destructive competition for colonial imperialism on the one hand and bitterest enmity and hatred for others, pride and sense of superiority on the other, were at the root of this War. The injustice done to the defeated powers of the First World War was another major cause of this War.

European political leaders, during nineteen twenties and thirties, became war-crazy, they had no respect for democracy and humanity. They were as if driving their people to a destructive war for destruction of their enemies. During the War the world was divided into two major fighting forces – the Allied Forces (Britain, the U.S.A. France and Russia) and the Axis Forces (Germany, Italy, Japan, Turkey and others).

Seeing the destruction of lives and materials in the War and the holocaust of the nuclear weapon, some of the war-crazy leaders, came to their senses and felt the need of the UNO again.

Britain got deeply involved I both the Wars and was one of the victors in both of them. But in real sense she was the most loser. Her position, in all respects, was lowered. Before the Wars she was number one world power, but after the Wars she became number two and the USA became number one. Independence of India and other colonies were the story of her losing Jewells from the British crown.

After the wars, the world was divided into two poles giving rise to communism and Clod War.

Author

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PART I

History started with the Romans

History of England started with the Roman conquest in the middle of the first century B.C. But England had her own history before that, though it was shrouded with mist. The Roman general Julius Caesar invaded South East coast of England in 55 B.C. pursuing the Gaules who created disturbances on the fringes of Roman Empire and took shelter in England. Caesar pursued them for punitive action. The Britons or the people of England could not oppose the Roman general. The Roman occupied England and made it a part of their Empire. From that time on Britain was a Roman colony for more than four hundred years (55 B.C. to 410 A.D.). England was the 45th Province of the Roman Empire. Rome used to rule England by a royal representative or governor who was mostly an army general.

The Roman occupation had great impact in the history of England. The Roman brought with them the Mediterranean and Hellenic civilization to Britain. The nomadic Britons were made civilized by the Romans. They gave up their nomadic life and settled to agrarian life. They came in contact with Christianity and became Christian giving up paganism. The Roman established for them schools and taught them laws and literature, constructed roads for their trade and communication, towns and stone-built villas for comfortable and settled life.

Chapter one

The Country and the People

The Country

England “a precious stone set in silver sea” said John of Gaunt in Richard II.

This description of William Shakespeare is perhaps the best epithet which could be attributed to Great Britain. Britain is an island set in the North Sea. She is unique in her location (on zero longitude, actually between 8 E to 6 W longitudes and between 50 to 60 N latitudes). Her character is greatly influenced by her geography and the sea. She is surrounded by sea (Irish Sea on the West, North Sea on the East and the North and on the South is the Channel). Though guarded by sea, England was not safe from foreign aggression from time immemorial. The sea could not stop the invaders coming from the Continent and stop them to plunder England and slaughter her people. The invaders were fierce Viking pirates who were hungry for wealth and land of this island.

It is believed that the British Isles were once parts of the European Continent. In the very remote past, through some geographical changes, caused by nature or by natural calamities, the islands were separated from the main land of the Continent.

The reasons of such separation might be ascribed to, for example, land erosion, expansion of sea or earthquake which might have separated Britain from the main land of Europe. The English Channel reminds us of such reasons as it is believed, in case of Indonesian archipelago and Australia in the Pacific. Indonesia and Australia are also believed that once they were parts of Asia.

Ethnic origin of the People

The inhabitants of ancient Britain were the kindred of the European Teutonic stocks. They were Iberians, Celts, Goidels and Brythons. Goidels and Brythons were basically two tribes of the Celts. They migrated to Britain in the long past, even long before the Romans came to Britain. It is assumed that some times in the middle of 3rd century B.C. they came to Britain. The Brythons are the forefathers of the Britons. The words Britain, British etc. came from that word - Brython. The Britons had contact with the north European countries particularly the Gaules and the Scandinavians. The Scandinavians were by nature a seafaring people

from the very old days. They having seas, fiords and creeks on all sides, grew up as an adventurous and sea-faring people. They had to go out to sea for food and earning living. Julius Caesar also mentioned that the Britons of the south Britain carried on trade with the continental Celts and Gauls.

Geography

With seas on all sides, the position of Britain is unique among the European countries. Though Britain lies nearer to the North Pole it is warmer in winter than many European countries because of the seas on all sides. The coast line of Britain is irregular, north and west part of the country is mountainous. South and east is relatively fertile and arable.

The British islands were mostly uninhabited before the Romans came, which encouraged the Europeans for coming to Britain. They found the land of the island favorable for tilling. They also found the land smooth and easy for living. Central Britain was covered with deep forest and the south was relatively easier for agriculture. The coastline of northern part of Britain was very irregular and the weather was also rough. People of that area looked to the sea for food and living as the sea was rich in fish. They were used to go to the rough seas for fishing even defying all threats of storm. The lands of the southern England was fertile and prospect of agriculture there was bright. The southern people having trade contact with the continent were relatively prosperous and they used to live a better life. Being set in the sea, the climatic condition of Britain is better than many continental countries.

From the Iron Age Britain had close relation with the continent. Her people carried on trade with their kindred and also with other parts of Europe. But references are often made that Britain was known to the Hellenic Greek world and they had trade relation with Greece and other continental countries.

English people are a mixed nation

The British, whom we know today, are a people of mixed blood. They are a combination of many races of the continent that were known as Celt, Iberian, Dane, Pict, Norse, Celt, Gaul, Saxon, Angle, Jute and many others. The Celts first migrated to Wales and Ireland from the northwest part of Europe (Present Spain and Portugal). Danes and Norse came to Scotland from the Scandinavian countries almost at the same time. All these migrations took place much before the Roman conquest, when the island was open to the adventurous European tribes. The middle part of the island was covered with deep forest and human habitations there were thin. Original inhabitants, who were known as Brythons or Britons, lived

a nomadic life in the forest. They worshipped different spirits, trees and stones as their deities. They are known as Druids. Literacy and concept of political organization was unknown to them. History of the island virtually began with the Roman conquest.

The United Kingdom

The present United Kingdom (U.K.) is a modern concept. The United Kingdoms now means the union of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland into one state. Under The Treaty of Union Act of 1707, the Kingdom of England (including Wales) and the Kingdom of Scotland were politically united under one Crown during the reign of Queen Anne. England and Scotland became the Kingdom of Great Britain with effect from 1 May, 1707.

The process of unification of Wales with England started long before. In 1283, the English army led by Edward I conquered most of Wales and organized it into the Principality of Wales, which was later integrated with the English territory and brought under the Kingdom of England by the Statute of 1284. Later during the reign of Henry VIII the Laws of Wales Acts (1535–1542) confirmed the annexation of the Welsh territories and incorporated them in the legal system of the Kingdom of England. From that time on Wales is sending its representatives to the Parliament of Westminster.

Ireland was a part of English Kingdom from the middle ages. But the Irish people always fought for their national and religious identity and independence. The process of union of Northern Ireland with the U.K. was done in a different way. In the first decade of the 20th century (1912) Ireland got the autonomous status under the Home Rule Act of 1912. The country was divided into two parts - Northern Ireland and the Irish Free State on the basis of religion (Protestant and Roman Catholic) in 1921 under the Government of Ireland Act of 1920. In 1922 the Parliament of Northern Ireland opted for union with the U.K (The process of union of Ireland has been discussed in subsequent chapters).

The Great Britain now means the island which includes England, Scotland and Wales. Great Britain also includes the small islands like Hebrides, Orkney and other small islands on the north of Scotland.

The people of England are called English; the people of Scotland are Scottish, the people of Wales Welsh and the people of Ireland Irish.

The Story of migration of European tribes, invasion of different European tribes and races in Britain and their fusion with the original people of Britain started long before the arrival of Julius Caesar and continued till the Norman Conquest in 1066.

Chapter Two

England under the Romans

England as a Roman Colony (55 B.C to 410 A.D)

Towards the middle of the 1st century B.C. the great Roman general Julius Caesar invaded South East coast of Britain pursuing the Gauls who created disturbances on the fringes of Roman Empire. The Romans pursued the Gauls for punitive action. It took place in 55 B.C. The people of Britain offered resistance to Julius Caesar, but were beaten back. Caesar did not pursue his victory further that time. He came back to Rome and next year with a stronger army invaded England again. The Britons tried to repulse the Romans, but were again beaten back. Their chief Cassivellaunus was defeated and agreed to pay tributes to the Roman Emperor.

Julius Caesar laid the foundation of Roman rule in Britain. Julius Caesar did not stay long in Britain. He did not take any punitive action on the Gauls for which he came to Britain that time, rather he threatened both the Gauls and the Britons for punitive action if they had not been loyal to Rome. His victory that time was confined to the south eastern coast only. He made Britain the 45th province of the Roman Empire. Following the Roman conquest of Britain, a distinctive Romeo-British culture emerged in Britain in next four hundred years.

The Romans ruled Britain for about 450 years by a Royal representative who was commonly known as Governor. Most of the Governors were army generals. They used to serve there for three to four years each.

Roman Governors :

Aulus Plautius (43–46 A.D.) and his rule

Caesar sent Aulus Plautius as the Roman Governor in 43 A.D. for the newly conquered country. His main job was to complete the work of Caesar and conquer the rest of England.

Aulus Plautius defeated the British Chief Caractacus in 43 A.D., destroyed all his strongholds and laid the foundation of Roman colony. Next year he subdued the south eastern part of England and expanded the Roman colony further. It is said that Emperor Claudius himself came to receive the submission of the British Chiefs.

It is under Aulus Plautinus that Roman Colonial rule was first established in Britain. He was followed by Ostorius Scapula. Ostorius Scapula extended Roman rule over Wales defeating all the Welsh tribal

chiefs. He built a fort in Wales and stationed there a Roman garrison. Of the Roman governors few are famous; they left their positive impression in Britain.

Seutonous Paulinius (58 - 61)

The next Roman governor was Seutonous Paulinius. He was determined to complete the conquest of the Wales, which was the last stronghold of the Druids and other ethnic tribal chiefs. But the revolt of Boadicea, the queen of Iceni, brought him back to the east leaving the conquest of Wales incomplete.

Julius Agricola (78 - 84)

Julius Agricola, the next governor, completed the conquest of Wales by defeating other tribal chiefs of Wales. He came to Britain as a governor in 78 A.D. His first duty was to complete the conquest of Wales and then to push the Roman frontier to the north as far as to the Forth. He made York the centre of Roman administration in the north. To keep the Scots and the Picts off from the Roman Boarder he started to build a strong wall along the Roman boarder.

The Hadrian Wall (built in 123 A.D.)

During **Emperor Hadrian** a great wall, to keep off the Picts and the Scots, was built along the Scottish boarder which is still known as The Hadrian Wall. The remains of that wall are still found. Agricola was not only a great general, he was also a good statesman. He undertook a number of steps to consolidate Roman rule in Britain and win the heart of the people. After him the Roman colonial rule continued for a long time. The Romans gave Britain good and peaceful governance. They built roads for communication, schools for education and taught the Britons to live a civilized life in nice villas. The Romans left a very deep social and political impact in Britain. They changed both the social structure of the country and the character of the people.

In the latter half of the fourth century, there was a decline in the Roman rule in Britain. Roman Emperor did not or could not give adequate attention to this remote province of his empire. More over meritorious Roman generals or officers were not willing to come to Britain. The negligence of Rome weakened the colonial rule in Britain. The weakness of Roman rule encouraged the barbarian Celts, Picts and Scots from Scotland in the north and from Ireland in the northwest, to carry on raids on the boarder of England and they plundered the Roman villas of the towns. The Romanized Britons were not a fighting people; they were not trained in warfare also. The peace loving citizen of the towns who used to live in luxurious villas was almost helpless on the face of raids of the barbarians. A chaotic political and social situation prevailed in the country towards the end of the Roman rule. After the

final departure of the Romans from England, continental tribes like Jutes, Angles and Saxons, started their next phase of raids and plunders on the island. They were more warlike and bloodthirsty robbers.

During the later part of the third century the Danes or the Viking pirates from the Scandinavian countries frequently carried on raids on the south eastern coast of Britain. They plundered monasteries, towns and rich Roman villas. The Roman army could not always pursue them as they were not strong enough to fight them back.

The last Roman governor was **Maximus** (?). With the death of Maximus (392 A.D.), Britain came under the direct rule of the Roman Emperor Eugenius. Rome was at that time plunged in internal quarrel. Eugenius was defeated and killed by Theodosius in 395. After the death of Theodosius his minor son Honorius became emperor of the western part of the Roman Empire who called back the remaining Roman army from Britain.

The areas under the true Roman occupation were confined to modern England and Wales. These areas were again divided into two distinctly contrasted regions – the Latinized south and east and the less civilized or barbarous north and west.

London city

The London city which played a great part in the history of England existed even before the Romans came to Britain. But it came to prominence during the Roman rule when London became a river port and a great centre of trade and commerce. The word London comes from a Celtic word Lyndin which means a place by the river side. London stands on the side of the Thames. It was not a great centre of the Iberian or Celtic civilization at that time. During Caesar's time most of the modern London was a marsh. The Thames was the best waterway for trade and communication both for the continent and for the inland transport. The Romans utilized that waterway. They constructed a wooden bridge over the Thames at the present site of the London Bridge and connected the roads coming from both south and north. London was made a river port for commerce with the continent. Commercial goods coming from the continent were unshipped well inside the land and sent to its distant destinations by road. Similarly goods and slaves bound for Europe were loaded at London port. The Romans constructed a wall round the city of London. The traces of that wall are still found. London city developed much during the Roman Rule.

Chapter Three

England after the Romans

Withdrawal of Roman army

Towards the end of the fourth and the early fifth century the vast Roman Empire could no longer defend itself. Internal rebellions or civil wars and attacks from the Goths and other barbarian tribes from the north further weakened the mighty Roman Empire. Emperor Honorius was at last compelled to call back the Roman armies stationed in Britain for the protection of his empire against the attacks from the Goths and other barbarians. Britain thus ceased to be a Roman province.

Impact of Roman colonial rule

The Romans brought with them the Mediterranean and Hellenic civilization to Britain. The Britons were devoid of such civilized life, though they had some ideas about the Nordic civilization. They were, for the first time, brought in contact with the Greek and Roman culture and civilization. Mediterranean and Hellenic civilization was much superior to that of the Nordic or Celtic Civilization. However the direct impacts of Roman colonial rule were :

1. The Romans set up a strong central administrative system in Britain. Though it was a colonial and military rule, it put an end to the tribal feuds and wars among the small principalities. A good central administration was established by the Romans which minimized tribal bitterness and rivalry among the small kingdoms. They established peace in Britain.
2. The Romans also carried with them a highly civilized way of living and taught the Britons how to live a civilized life like the Romans. They built walled towns at different places and connected them with a network of beautiful roads. These roads opened up a new opportunity for trade and commerce and communication. Many of the national highways of Britain that we see today have been constructed on the remnants of those Roman roads.
3. The Romans built beautiful stone villas, in towns and showed to the Britons how to live a luxurious and civilized life in those villas. The Britons, before the coming of the Romans, used to live in caves, huts and on trees.
4. They constructed public baths, public buildings, market places which were unknown to the Britons. The countryside was dotted with smart Roman villas built of stone, adorned with mosaics and frescoes.

5. They established schools and educated the people of Britain in law and literature. In the towns even the common people could talk in Latin. Many of them could also read and write Latin.
6. The people of England, through the Romans, came in contact with the Greek and Roman philosophy and classical literature. Latin became the language of the educated and upper class people.
7. The Romans taught them laws and show respect for law and live by laws. Justice was done between man and man according to the Roman laws. Influence of Latin in English and Roman law in English law still remind us of that Roman colonial rule.
8. The Romans taught the nomadic Britons agriculture, showed them how to cultivate land and produce corns from land. The people of Britain, learning agriculture from the Romans, settled to agrarian life and gave up their former nomadic life.
They cleared forest, drained out water from marshes and improved land for agriculture and farming.
9. The Romans brought with them Christianity. They converted the heathen Britons to Christianity and taught them about God, Hell and Heaven. Nordic gods like Thor, Woden were replaced by God and Christ. The Britons and the Druid priests, at that time, for satisfying their deities and as part of their religious rites, used to sacrifice human beings, but the Romans stopped it.
10. Since the Roman rule in Britain was a military occupation, Roman garrisons and forts were established in almost all big towns. The presence of the army was always a threat to the local people and they did not dare to break laws or being indisciplined. The people of Britain became a docile and submissive people. They lost their all defying and independent characters and became a law abiding people.
11. With the withdrawal of Roman garrisons and in absence of the Roman colonial rule, Britain was hopelessly exposed to lawlessness and foreign aggression. When the Romans suddenly withdrew the small kingdoms again started to fight each other. Stronger kings used to occupy the territory of the weaker kings. It so happened as there developed no central administrative system. The exotic life which the Roman planted in Britain collapsed with the departure of the Roman army.

Part II

European Settlers in Britain

After the departure of the Roman invaders and settlers from the continent came to England. It took place through 5 to 7th century A.D. England during this time was open for the European invaders and Settlers. The invaders and settlers were Angles, Saxons, Jutes and later Danes. They came to England in marauding bands and occupied land for settlement in different parts of Britain. Their settlements later developed into small kingdoms and formed the Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy.

Kingdom of Kent, Northumbria, Mercia, Wessex and some other kingdoms were developed on those settlements. There were frequent feuds among those kings. The Danes also came from the continent and ruled England for 25 years (1017 to 1042).

8 and 9th century was a time for unification. Different tribes (Saxons, angles, jutes and Danes) were united as one nation of England (Anglo-Saxons) and the smaller Kingdoms were also united as one Kingdom of England. The Anglo-Saxon Kings ruled unified England till the Norman Conquest. Some of the Anglo-Saxon Kings of the House of Wessex were great rulers. King Alfred, the great, was one of them who united the small kingdoms of England and made England a great kingdom. Edward the Confessor was the last great Anglo-Saxon king of this line. After him the throne of England went to Godwin's family. The defeat of Harold by William, the duke of Normandy, in the battle of Hastings in 1066 A.D. ended the Anglo-Saxon Rule in England.

Chapter One

European Settlers in Britain

When the Romans withdrew from Britain and closed their garrisons from the towns, Britain and the Britons were left to themselves for their own defense. Britain at that time had no organized and central administration, nor did they have any defense system. This situation tempted the European invaders to invade Britain. They came in greater number and in greater strength in marauding bands. History of fifth and sixth century of Britain was the period of invasion and settlement of different European tribes and races. They started to come in larger number and occupied lands wherever they could. Although some Roman chiefs for example Baeda in Bedford were left behind as the remnant of the Roman rule (in Bedford the remains of Roman fort is still found), they were quite unequal to meet the situation. It may be mentioned here that the Romans did not want to live in Britain permanently; they did not do anything on permanent basis. They came to rule; they, therefore, maintained a distance with the local people whom they considered as barbarous and inferior. So when they withdrew, they withdrew all leaving few Romans behind.

It can be said here that the intrusion of European tribes in Britain started long before, even before the Romans came to Britain. European intrusion was rather interrupted by the Roman occupation for the time being. The sudden withdrawal of the Roman armies from Britain, in 410 AD, put the people of Britain in an awkward situation. Although the Roman ruled over Britain for over four hundred years, they did not organize the local people politically; they were not also organized for any central government or anything of the like for their defense. The whole of Britain was then divided into numerous independent and small chieftaincies, and they were always involved in bloody feuds among themselves. Under the Roman army rule they rather refrained from quarrel among themselves. But the absence of the Roman army inspired them again to fall fighting among themselves. There prevailed a total chaos all over Britain which encouraged the European settlers to invade Britain anew.

As soon as the Roman withdrew from Britain the country was in a political chaos. The Romans did not leave behind any central administration. They did not prepare the natives to defend themselves or

face any aggressor. The stronger kings and chiefs started again to attack the weaker ones and occupied their territories. They again fell to fight each other. Moreover the Picts from the north and Scots from the west continued to raid the Romanized countryside and towns where the people were well off and used to live luxurious life in their villas. The people of Britain sought help from the Roman governor of France and from the Emperor of Rome, but no help came. This situation encouraged the European settlers and invaders to come to Britain. They found Britain open for the immigrants and also for the invaders. The Jutes, Saxons and Angles felt encouraged in such a situation and started to come in marauding bands. The local chiefs could not offer any strong resistance. The invaders were more skilled in warfare and stronger with better arms than the natives. They carried on raids on towns, plunder the houses and slaughtered the people indiscriminately.

Early stages of Anglo-Saxons settlement

When the European invaders found Britain politically disorganized and in turmoil, Angles, Jutes and Saxons from Germany and other parts of the continent, started to come to Britain in larger number and with greater strength. They were all marauding bands of robbers and pirates. They occupied different parts of the south and eastern coast of Britain. They occupied the establishments which the Romans left. They also occupied the Romanized villages and villas. It was the early stage of their settlement in Britain. Within a short period of time they outnumbered the natives. They established colonies at different places of importance. They occupied most of the cultivable lands. The colonies or settlements they established in course of time grew up into small kingdoms. Jutes, Saxons and Angles were different branches of German tribes and were from the same Teutonic ethnic group.

The Celts and Danes first came to Wales, Scotland and Ireland; they also settled there and established their colonies. The settlement of the Angles, Jutes and Saxons took place over sixth and seventh centuries in the south eastern areas of England. The Danes came later in eighth and ninth centuries and they occupied some areas of the eastern coast.

The Jutes came first

According to tradition, the Jutes came first to Britain. They were a small tribe; they belonged to the German Teutonic stock. They mostly came from Jutland. There are references that they were invited by the Britons for assistance against the Romans. The Celtic legend says that the Jutes first landed in Kent in 449 (?). Their first settlement was at a place called Ruim, now identified as Thanet. They gradually expanded the areas of

their colonies, occupied more lands and the Roman forts (Rochester) and other establishments which the Romans left.

The Saxons and Angles came second

The Saxons came second in order of time, if we believe the legends. In 477 Aelle with his three sons landed on the south coast of England. He founded his colony there which was South Saxons and now called Sussex. In 495 Cerdic and Cynric led another kindred horde to south western coast and made their settlement in West Saxons, now Wessex, and then in East Saxon now Essex. Thus the Saxons community gradually founded Middlesex, Essex etc.

The Angles or the English (the word English came from Angle) were from the lower Teutonic stock of Germany. The Jutes, Saxons and Angles were basically different branches of the same German Teutonic stock. Though they came earlier for piracy, but this time they came not for piracy and plunder only, their purpose was migration in large number and to settle permanently. They were skilled in warfare and advanced in education. There are few historical evidences of their coming to Britain and their settlement in England. It is only the legends that we know about their coming. We know that in 547 an Angles chief namely Ida succeeded the Kingdom of Northumbria which indicates that the Angles settlements were in existence there long before. The Angle settlements were extended from the Forth to Essex. These settlements were divided into three areas - Bernicia, Deira and East Anglica.

The King of West-Saxon Ceawlin defeated the Britons in a battle at Derham in 577 A.D. The victory of this battle destroyed the fighting force and all strongholds of the Britons. The Britons being defeated moved to the north and to the centre of the country. In the battle of Chester in 613 A.D. the rest of the Britons were vanquished and the surviving few took shelter in the deeper forests and mountains. The Angles after that had no other problems with the natives. They established the kingdom of Northumbria in the north, East Anglica in the east and Mercia in the middle of England.

Fate of the Brythons or Britons

It is said that the Brython chief Vortigern being unable to protect themselves from the attacks of the Picts and Scots, invited the Jutes for help. The Jutes drove the Picts and the Scots, from Britain, but afterwards they turned against Vortigern and conquered Kent for themselves. Both Saxon and Angles were fierce warriors. They slaughtered most of the Britons and the rest were driven to the north. The

Britons who survived the Saxon slaughter took shelter in mountains and forests of the north. Ultimately they were all perished.

Brythonia or Britain thus went under the occupation of the invaders - Angles and Saxons, and Briton became England or the land of the Angles. The descendants of the Brython or the Britons were either perished in war with the invaders or were lost with the invaders in the mountains and forests.

Danes came last

The Danes and the Viking pirates used to plunder coastal areas of Britain even before the Romans came to the island. They continued their raids even during the Roman occupation. After the departure of the Roman, piracy and plunder of the Danes increased. When they found the Jutes, Angles and Saxons had occupied most of the area of England; they appeared in greater number and stronger bands. They also wanted some share in England like the Jutes and Saxons.

The Danes carried on both trade and piracy on the eastern and southern coasts of Britain. Towards the end of the seventh century the Danes came with intention to settle in Britain like other European settlers. They made their position stronger in East Anglica by occupying a large portion of England from the kingdoms of Northumbria and Mercia.

Chapter Two

Anglo-Saxon England

Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy

After the departure of the Romans, seven independent kingdoms grew up in England. They were known in history as the Heptarchy of Anglo-Saxon England. They were Mercia, Northumbria, Wessex, Kent, Sussex, Essex and East Anglica. There was no unity among them and they were always fighting among themselves. Of these seven kingdoms Mercia, Northumbria, Sussex and Kent were more powerful. They used to dominate over other smaller kingdoms. Mercia during the glorious reign of Offa (757 - 96) held leadership over others (remnants of Offa's Dyke still exist and can be seen in Wales. It was a great engineering achievement of that time). Offa called himself *Offa Rex Anglorum*.

Wessex became more powerful during King Egbert (802-839) who curbed the power of Mercia and extended the boarder of Wessex. There were some talented kings in the royal family of Wessex. Northumbria during Edwin held stronger position among these Anglo-Saxon kingdoms. Towards the ninth century the royal House of Wessex became more prominent. It is said that the history of England would have been different had the royal family of Wessex not offered a series of able warrior and statesmen kings. Of them Alfred was the greatest who united England and gave it a national identity.

The three major Kingdoms which were established in England during this time (7th century) – were Kent, Northumbria and Marcia. They were established on the settlements either of the Angles or of the Saxons. In Scotland the Celt kingdom of Alba was the strongest, among other kingdoms of North. The Kingdom of Alba was dominated by the Celts. Alba had over lordship on other small kingdoms.

Kingdom of Kent

Of the seven Anglo-Saxon Kingdoms four were prominent as said earlier. They were Kent of the south England, Mercia of the middle, Northumbria of the north and Wessex of the southeast. The position of the kings and the boarder of their kingdoms were not fixed or definite. They depended on the statesmanship and the war skill of the king. Kent under its Christian king Ethelbert became very powerful in the early part of the seventh century; he became overlord of South England. Kentish political supremacy did not last long. But ecclesiastical supremacy of Kent lasted long; they rather took a leading part in preaching Christianity in Britain. St. Augustine first came to Kent; the king of Kent not only received him cordially, but also helped him to build the first Church at Canterbury. St. Augustine became the first Archbishop of the Canterbury Church. He made Canterbury Church the centre of his mission and preached Christianity in England from that Church.

Kingdom of Northumbria

The kingdom of Northumbria grew up on the settlements of the Angle and the Saxon. Ethelfrith was the founder of this kingdom. He drove away the invading Scots from the boarder and also pushed his boarder into the Welsh. Edwin was the most famous king of Northumbria who ascended the throne in 617 A.D. defeating and killing his father's rival Ethelfrith. He was a great warrior, and extended his boarder upto Edinburgh and named the city after his name. He became overlord of all the small kingdoms of the south except Kent. Kent became his ally as he married the daughter of the Kentish king Ethelbarga. Edwin was not Christian although his queen Ethelbarga was a Christian. Ethelbarga converted Edwin to Christianity. When the kings of Kent and Northumbria became Christian, conversion of their subjects to Christianity was easy and rapid. But Edwin being Christian fell in trouble with the Mercian king Penda and other non-Christian kings. Penda with other non-Christian kings killed Edwin in 633 in the battle of Heathfield and also his successor in 642 A.D in Maserfield. The supremacy of Northumbria declined for some time, but it revived during the time of king Oswy who defeated and killed Penda in a battle on the Riverside Winwed in 655. The supremacy of Northumbria ended with the death of king Egfrith.

Kingdom of Mercia

Mercia under the leadership of Penda became a powerful kingdom. Penda defeated and killed Edwin and his successor in 633 and 642 A.D. respectively. Penda was a great enemy of the Christians. He drove out all the Christians from Northumbria and Mercia. Of the Mercian kings, Ethelbald and Offa were most famous. Offa is still remembered for his dyke which he constructed from the mouth of the river Dee to the Wye to protect his people from flood and invading enemies. Offa extended his kingdom over Wessex and Essex. He was a great warrior king, he died in 796 A.D.

Kingdom of Wessex

With the death of Offa supremacy of Mercia declined and Wessex grew stronger. Wessex proclaimed her over lordship in the South. King Egbert of Wessex defeated the Mercians in 825 A.D. He compelled other smaller kingdoms to accept his over lordship. He made Wessex a powerful kingdom in the South. Some illustrious kings of this family were: Egbert, Ethelwulf, Ethelbert, Ethelbald, Ethelred and Alfred.

Danish Occupation of Anglica

During the first half of the ninth century the Danes came again to Britain in greater number and in greater strength. This time they did not come for piracy and plunder only, but to settle in Britain like other European invaders. They occupied a large portion of Mercia and Northumbria and made a stronghold in East Anglica. The Danes of East Anglica were looking for an opportunity to extend their power to the south and west.

Chapter Three

Royal House of Wessex

Egbert (802 - 839)

Egbert was the founder of the Wessex Royal family. He was succeeded by his son Ethelwulf (839-859). Ethelwulf ruled for about twenty years. He had four sons. They were Ethelbert, Ethelbald, Ethelred and Alfred. Ethelwulf was succeeded by his son Ethelred (871-871). During his reign the Danes again attacked Wessex. The Danes were sea pirates and fierce warrior. Ethelred was killed in a battle with the Danes. Ethelred was succeeded by his brother Alfred. Alfred though spent most of his time in war and struggle, proved to be the most illustrious king of this family. He has been compared with the great Frankish king Charlemagne. The royal family of Wessex did two great things— first they united all the small kingdoms of England against the Danes and secondly successfully warded off the Danish pirates. Alfred of this family was a great king. He was a great warrior, a scholar and a skillful diplomat.

Alfred the great (871 -901)

Alfred succeeded his brother Ethelred to the throne of Wessex in 871 A.D. He started his reign with a legacy of war with the Danes. He could rightly realize that they could not defeat the Danes unless all the small kingdoms of England were united. He considered it his first duty to unite England and drove the Danes out from England. In one battle with the Danes, the same year, he was defeated by the Danes. He retreated for sometime and gathering sufficient force met the Danes again in 878. This time he defeated Guthrum, the Danish chief, in the battle of Edington in 878. The Danish defeat was so crushing that Guthrum had to agree to a treaty the terms of which were dictated by Alfred himself (the treaty of Wedmore).

Alfred was a great king and was famous for his many noble qualities. (1) He united all the kingdoms of England – both Danes and English as a united nation; (2) His skillful diplomacy made the English supreme over the Danes; (3) He promulgated some laws for the English people following the Roman laws; (4) He himself was a great scholar in Latin and was a great patron of scholars and learning. He made English the language of the state and of the English people. He got the Bible and other classical and law books translated from Latin to English. Of these

translations, the Ecclesiastical History of English People of Venerable Bede was most outstanding; (5) He first felt the need for a naval force for the protection of the coastal areas against the Viking pirates and he started to build up a navy.

Edward the Elder (901-925)

Alfred was succeeded by his son Edward the Elder. Edward was determined to recover the boroughs which the Danes of Anglica snatched away from the kingdom of Wessex. He was so powerful that Scots of Northumbria and Welsh of Mercia accepted him as their over lord.

Athelstan (925-940)

Athelstan succeeded his father Edward the Elder. He followed the policy of his father towards the Danes. The Danes with the support of Scots and the Welsh tried to overthrow him. But Athelstan defeated all the allied forces in 937. The aggression of the Danes was also checked. The fame of Athelstan reached other countries of the continent.

Edmund (940-946).

Athelstan was succeeded by his half brother Edmund. He made some arrangement with the king of the Scots Malcom giving him some area of land on condition that he would fight for him when it was necessary and would accept his suzerainty.

Edred (946-955)

Edmund was succeeded by his brother Edred. Edred defeated and deposed the Danish king of Northumbria. He became so powerful that he claimed to be the Caesar of Britain. Dunstan a clergyman was his adviser, who guided him properly.

Edwy (955-959)

After Edred his nephew Edwy came to the throne. He was an unpopular king. He banished Dunstan from the country and ruled the country autocratically. People rebelled against him, deposed him and put his brother Edgar on the throne.

Edgar (959-975)

Edgar was a good king; he is also considered as one of the most powerful kings of England. He called back Dunstan and made him the Archbishop of Canterbury. Edgar like Alfred gave some new codes of law for his people. He maintained peace and order in his kingdom. He was therefore called Edgar the Peaceable. He like his predecessor made a peaceful

relation with the king of Scots. He also won the goodwill of the Danes by giving them some high position in the government. His conciliatory policies, with the Danes and the Scots, helped him to consolidate the power of Wessex. He made Dunstan his minister.

Edward (975-979)

The next king was Edward, the son of Edgar. But he was killed in a conspiracy of his stepmother. He was respected by the people as a holy man and was given the respect of a martyr.

Ethelred II (979-1016)

After Edward, Ethelred II the Unready came to the throne. He was a foolish and weak king. Because of his foolishness the nobles of his court gave him that knick name 'Unready'. During his reign the Danes started fresh raids on Wessex and on the coastal areas. Ethelred II could not deal with the Danes successfully. He gave them money to go away and levied new tax on his subjects for that. This new tax was ridiculously called Danegeld. But this did not stop the Danes, rather they began to come in greater number and with bigger demands. The Duke of Normandy was an ally of the king of Denmark. Ethelred II married the daughter of the Duke of Normandy. He with the help of his father-in-law tried to make a peaceful settlement with the Danes. This effort did not prove successful. He then took a treacherous plan and ordered for general massacre of the Danes. The Danish king Sweyn was infuriated when he learned that his own sister was also killed in the massacre. He hurried to Britain with all his might to take revenge on Ethelred II. Ethelred II had not the courage to face Sweyn, he fled to Normandy to his father-in-law. The Danish king took over the kingdom of Wessex and England. The people of England were annoyed with Ethelred and his misrule; they accepted Sweyn as their king. From that time for next twenty-four years (1017 to 1042) England was a province of Denmark.

Danish Rule in England (1017 to 1042)

The Danish Rule in England was for a short time. Sweyn did not survive long after his conquest. Sweyn was succeeded by his son Canute. Canute was simultaneously king of England, Denmark and Norway. Initially Canute was very cruel and he put all his opponents and critics to sword. But once he was settled on the throne of England, he tried to win the heart of the people of England. He treated the English and the Danes equally, and wanted to be a king of Englishmen too not as a foreign conqueror. He wanted to make England the centre of a great northern empire of Europe with England, Denmark and Norway. The reign of Canute was peaceful. The subjects of his kingdom were happy.

Canute died in 1035. After his death his two sons – Harold and Hardicanute – fell to fighting for the throne. The nobles of England were divided into two groups. North and central England supported Harold, when Earl of Wessex Godwin and the west supported Hardicanute. Since Hardicanute spent most of his time in Denmark and was less interested in England, the people of England were not happy with him. They withdrew their support for him. The whole of England thus came to support Harold. Harold was not a popular king. He was oppressive, he ruled England as a conquered country. Harold died in 1042 and with his death, the Danish rule in England ended.

Chapter Four

Edward the Confessor (1042-1066)

The people of England were tired of the foreign rule. Sweyn defeating Ethelred II made England a province of Denmark, but the English nobles and people did not like the Danish rule. They wanted Edward the son of Ethelred II (the Unready) as their king and the restoration of the royal line of Alfred. Edward was in exile in Normandy. After his father was defeated by the Danish king, he also took shelter in Normandy with his father. The English people wanted him back and see him on the throne of England. They wanted the restoration of the line of King Alfred.

Edward came back to England and was coronated as the king of England. In history Edward is known as Edward the Confessor. Since he was brought up in Normandy, he was fond of Norman habits and Norman nobles. He made one of the Norman nobles the Archbishop of Canterbury and openly showed favour to the Norman nobles. His partiality to the Normans was not liked by the English nobles. There arose a strong opposition against Edward under Godwin, the Earl of Wessex, who opposed the king for his favour to the Normans. Edward married the daughter of Godwin Edith. Godwin hoped that one day his grand son or grand daughter would be the king or queen of England. But Edward was childless; Godwin still did not give up hope. The King was not happy with Godwin and his family. He banished Godwin, his daughter Edith, the queen, and his sons from England for not punishing those insurgents who insulted his Norman brother-in-law at Dover.

In absence of Godwin, the Norman nobles again started to control all the state business and affairs of the Church. The English nobles did not like the supremacy of the Norman nobles in England; they secretly maintained relation with Godwin and his son Harold. Edward used to live a very pious and saintly life, to many of the Englishmen he was a saint. He constructed the Westminster Abbey in London on the west bank of the Thames. He made pilgrimage to the Pope of Rome. Edward's nephew William was the Duke of Normandy. William came to England to pay a visit to his uncle during the absence of Godwin. It was said that Edward nominated him to be his heir and successor to the throne of England.

Godwin and his Position in the Royal Court

Godwin and his sons, however, manage to come back to England. Edward restored him in his previous position; his earldom was also restored to him. Edith, the queen of Edward and daughter of Godwin, also came back. She was reconciled with the king and their old relation was restored. Godwin and his sons again became powerful in the court. They prevailed upon the king and the king also became dependent on them. Godwin and his sons took this opportunity and drove away all the Norman nobles and courtiers including the Archbishop of Canterbury from England. Edward the Confessor died in 1066 childless.

Throne of England goes to the family of Godwin

Godwin's son Harold became king of England (1066). His other son Tostig became Earl of Northumbria. Harold became king of England in a confused situation. The Witans or the Council of the State did not consider Edgar the Aetheling, a minor son of Edward Etheling and grand son of Edmund Ironside, suitable for the throne of England.

It was a difficult time for England as another brother of Harold, Tostig formed an alliance with Harold Hardrada of Norway and attacked northern England. Harold Hardrada also claimed the throne of England. At that difficult situation a strong king was needed for England. The Witans selected Harold as the king of England considering the situation and his ability to face the situation. Harold became king of England as Harold II.

Harold was a strong king, but political situation of that time was against him. His brother Tostig was ousted from his Earldom of Northumbria for his misrule. He joined with Harold Hardrada, king of Norway, to recover his lost Earldom and attacked north England. The allied force of Tostig and Hardrada defeated Edwin, Earls of Mercia and Morcar of Northumbria. Tostig rebelled against his own brother Harold. Harold rushed to the north to help Edwin and Morcar and faced the rebellion of his brother. He defeated Tostig and Hardrada in a battle at Stamford Bridge. Tostig was slain in the battle. But a more difficult situation was created in the south by the Normans. Harold had to move to the south again in haste as the Norman Duke William attacked south England. Harold was not sufficiently prepared to meet an enemy like William. He expected help from Edwin and Morcar, the Earls of Mercia and Northumbria, but they did not come to his help. Harold met William at Hastings and in a battle of Selac was killed. The victory of William ended the Saxon rule in England.

Defeat of Harold and end of Saxon Rule

Harold was defeated for a number of reasons. Many of the English nobles did not accept him as their king after Edward the Confessor. They did not consider him the rightful king of England, though he was chosen by the Witans. In their opinion Edgar Aetheling a grandson of Edmund the Ironside was the rightful heir to the throne. Internal quarrel and rebellion of Tostig against Harold contributed greatly to the defeat of Harold. England and English nobles were not united to face the invasion of William. The Earls were divided among themselves. Edwin and Morcar did not come to the help of Harold when he needed their help most. Harold was not sufficiently prepared or ready to face a strong enemy like William. He spent most of his energy in quelling down the rebellion of his brother Tostig and the Danes in the north. On the other hand William took sufficient time to prepare his army for the attack of England. His cavalry was much more superior to the English infantry who used to fight from the saddle. Harold's infantry was routed by the Norman cavalry.

Chapter Five

Social life of Anglo-Saxon England

History of England in fifth and sixth century was stuffed with stories of settlements of the Saxons (also Jutes and Angles) and the annihilation of local Britons. The settlements of the Jutes, Saxons and Angles, in course of time, grew up into small kingdoms. But those kingdoms were not in good terms with each other. They were always fighting each other. Towards the middle of the ninth century the Danes or the Vikings came as a new threat to the Saxons. The Vikings were sea pirates who carried on piracy on the coastal areas with their long and swift moving ships. They also, like the Europeans, pressed for land and settlement in Britain. King Alfred united the Saxons and Angles to face the Danes and that unity was fruitful. Alfred raised the united England to the height of a great kingdom. The Danes came again and occupied the throne of England for sometime (1017 to 1042). Canute, the Danish king of England was very sagacious. He could foresee that with the support of the English nobles he could only continue his rule peacefully in the country. He tried to unite both the Englishmen and the Danes and wanted to build a great empire in the North with England as its centre. He tried to legitimize his position in England by marrying the widow of the English king. But the English people and the Danes were again disunited. The defeat of Harold was the result of that disunity. The Norman Duke William was waiting for an opportunity to lay his hand on England and the death of the Confessor gave him that opportunity. With the Norman Conquest the history of England began anew.

English Society under the Anglo-Saxon Kings

The Anglo-Saxon kings brought with them the Continental feudal system in England. The ancient tribal system was transformed into feudal system during Anglo-Saxon rule in England. The king was above all, but not always absolute. The king had to listen to the Witan, the council of the elders and wise men. The Witan was constituted with the elder members of the royal family, Earls, Archbishop, Bishops, Knights and other social magnets.

All power of the state during the Anglo-Saxon rule was vested in the king. The claim on the throne, though not hereditary in law, was hereditary in practice. The opinion of the Witan was necessary for succession to the throne, for declaration of war, treaty and peace. In the

case of succession of Harold to the throne, after Edward the Confessor, the Witan took the decision. Under the king there were the Thegns, Earls and Knights they constituted the aristocracy of the society. The Anglo-Saxon society was run by both aristocracy and democracy. The church and the king were very closely tagged. Many noted clergymen advised the king as his minister. The status of Thegns, Earls or Knight was determined by the area of land they held and the number of soldiers with which they used to fight for the king. There were also free landholders. The peasants or the serfs were the lowest strata of the society and their job was to till land and raise cattle for their lords and pay them taxes.

The Saxons destroyed many of the Roman establishments, still some Roman towns existed. Around those Roman towns new boroughs and shires developed. The Saxons had a natural inclination for local self government. Around those towns they developed town moots (council) where they used to discuss local problems and take decisions for local problems.

Dispensation of Justice

For dispensation of Justice and trial of criminals, some peculiar practices of trial prevailed in the Anglo-Saxon society. The accused had to produce 10 to 15 honest persons as witnesses to prove his innocence. The other method was that the accused had to undergo certain terrible ordeal to prove his innocence which they called the justice of God. These ordeals were of many types for instance to put the hand of the accused in fire or in boiling water, if the hand of the accused was not burnt, then it was presumed that he was innocent. In another case the accused was blindfolded and asked to walk on red hot iron or pass through burning fire to prove his innocence. Local church or bishop used to play great role in such dispensation of justice. Punishment in most cases was fine, compensation etc.

Religion in the Saxon Society (Old Paganism and Christianity)

The Roman brought Christianity to England along with them. With the departure of the Romans and most of the Roman missionaries, Christianity lost its importance in England. Those who were converted to Christianity during the Roman rule went back to their old pagan religion and started to worship again Thor, Woden, Twig, Frig etc. (they were the Nordic gods. English week days were named after their names. For example Thursday for Thor, Wednesday from Woden, Tuesday from Twig, Friday from Frig etc.). The religion of the Briton at that time included a huge number of pagan faiths and some conditions of confused beliefs. They were in the primitive stage of pagan religious beliefs and

practices. Their faith or religion was represented by worshipping animals, plants, stones, Totems etc. They believed in amulets, incantation of spells and charms. They worshipped nature or natural powers like Thunder, Storm, Rains, Rivers, Hills like the Aryans of ancient India. Ancestors or hero worship was also in practice. They believed in Ghost and Spirits and worshipped them in different rituals. They believed in some abstract ideas like fate, death, destruction, natural calamities. The religion of the average heathen Britons was a vast mass of superstitions.

The Christian saints and missionaries, who remained in England after the departure of the Romans, continued their missionary works with difficulties, but with full dedication. They were Roman, Celts and Welsh. The Saxons, Jutes, Angles and Danes were heathen. They had bitter hatred for the Christians. They slaughtered the Christians both Celts and Brythons and drove them westward. They destroyed the Christian churches and monasteries which were built during the Roman rule.

The missionaries (Roman, Celts and Welsh) who were still preaching the Gospel and the Bible in England had their own problems too. They were always in dispute and controversies over religious matters. Some times their controversies took serious turn. In order to avoid all controversies, they decided that they should request the Pope of Rome to send some one on his behalf who could guide them to settle the controversies and guide them on correct path of Jesus Christ. Pope Gregory, on their request sent Saint Augustine to England to help them preach the Gospel and remove the differences among the missionaries. Saint Augustine first landed in Kent in 597. The king of Kent Ethelbert received Saint Augustine cordially. The queen of Ethelbert was a princess of France and she was Christian. She converted her husband to Christianity. The pious and unselfish lives of the Saints and other missionaries attracted the people and they accepted Christianity.

Saint Augustine built a monastery at Kent for education of the young people the teaching of Jesus. Ethelbert built a church in Kent and made Saint Augustine its Archbishop. That was the first and the mother church in England. From Kent Christianity spread to Northumbria. Ethelbarga, daughter of Ethelbert was married to Edwin the king Northumbria. Ethelbarga induced her husband to be converted. Ethelbarga took Paulonius her priest with her to Northumbria. Edwin being Christian annoyed other heathen kings of the north. Penda a heathen king of Mercia attacked Umbria and killed Edwin. Penda was a great enemy of Christianity. Ethelbarga, after the death of her husband, came back to her father in Kent. But Paulonius remained at York where he built the York Minister. Yorkminister was the second Church in England.

Penda of Mercia was killed by the successor of Edwin Oswy in 655 at Winwidfield. After the death of Penda, spread of Christianity in Mercia and Northumbria was easy and rapid. Towards the later part of the seventh century almost the whole of England accepted Christianity. Like Saint Augustine Saint Patrick started preaching Gospel in Ireland. By the Irish missionaries north and west Scotland were converted to Christianity. Thus the whole of the Great Britain became a Christian country.

The Christian missionaries were the pioneers who brought civilization in Great Britain. They brought not only the light of new faith; they also civilized the entire mass of people by educating them and showing them a better way of living. The church became the centre of education and learning. In a few years the barbarous and heathen English warriors, who were always engaged in fighting and quarrel among themselves, had changed their habit of life. They settled down into a social life. Instead of quarreling they took up toilsome agriculture for living. They became eager scholars, peaceful lawgivers or earnest priests in a few decades. The change was not merely a change of religion, but it was a revolution from a life of barbarism to a life of incipient culture, and slow but progressive civilization. The barbarous Nordic and Scandinavian life was smothered and civilized when they came in contact with the Christianity and Mediterranean civilization. The Scandinavian deities like Oden, Thor were replaced by God and Christ after they had the teachings of Jesus.

Church and the King

The relation between the Church and the King was very close during Anglo-Saxon time. Sometimes the Bishop or the Archbishop acted as the adviser or minister to the King (Archbishop of Canterbury acted as chief advisor to the King). Some of the kings were educated in the early age in monasteries (Alfred). The Church and the King were complementary to each other. Pope or Bishop was the spiritual head, in other words, God's representative on Earth and King was the temporal head of worldly affairs. Bishop was the religious head or representative of God on Earth for religious affairs. No coronation of the king was complete unless it was presided over by the Archbishop and such ceremonies would give the king a divine sanction. Many of the kings lived saintly life (Edward the Confessor), went on pilgrimage to Rome and showed all allegiance to the Pope of Rome (King John). The Church and monasteries were established under the patronization of the king. The monasteries were the centres of education for the clergies and for other people also. The king used to make lavish endowments to the Churches for their maintenance and such endowments were considered as an act of piety.

Difference between Roman Colonization and Saxon's Settlement

We find a marked difference between the Roman colonization of England and the Anglo-Saxon settlement. The Roman colonization was a military occupation; on the other hand, Saxon settlement was a permanent migration of the continental people in England. The Roman did not want to live in Britain or make Britain their home. They wanted to conquer the land and rule the people. The Romans were a civilized people and their purpose in Britain was constructive. The Saxon tribes were barbarous and heathen, their purpose was to exterminate the local Britons and make their position stronger in their place. They came to live there permanently. They were also determined to erase all the remnants of the Roman rule in England.

Part III

The Normans in England

The Norman Conquest is a great landmark in the history of England. With the Norman Conquest in the battle of Hasting, political history of England started anew. The old age ended and England entered into the Medieval Age. Normandy was a province of France. William was the Duke of this Normandy. William defeated and killed the last Saxon King of England Harold in the battle of Hastings. William the Conqueror occupied the throne of England on the right of conquest. William, the Conqueror and three other kings of his line ruled England from 1066 to 1154. William from 1066 to 1087, William Rufus (the second son of the conqueror) from 1087 to 1100, Henry (another son of the conqueror) from 1100 to 1135, Stephen (the son of Adela, the daughter of the conqueror) from 1135 to 1154. England became a part of Normandy and a province of France. During this period influence of French nobles, French language and Literature were evident in every aspect of English life. French became the language of the Royal Court and Royal household. Feudalism was strengthened and was institutionalized in England like France.

Chapter One

The Norman Conquest

The name Norman is the softer version of the word Northmans. Normandy is the shortened form of Norman land. The men or people who are known as Normans were basically Scandinavian. They came from Scandinavia to north France and occupied the northern part of the country. They came to France in 9th century. The leader of these Scandinavians was Rollo who reached an agreement with the French king Charles the Simple in 912, almost in the same way as Alfred reached an agreement with the Danes in England. According to the agreement with the French King, Rollo got the recognition as the Duke of Normandy, and Rollo in return paid his allegiance to the King of France as his overlord.

The Normans bore in their vein the fierce Viking blood of the Norse. But those fierce and savage Danes and Scandinavian people became civilized coming in contact with the sophisticated French and Roman civilization. They gave up their savage way of living and pagan beliefs and adopted the polished French life, learned French language and mixed themselves with the French people through inter-marriage and inter-living. They accepted Christianity and took Christ in place of Woden (Nordic pagan god). The Christian way of life made them more civilized and sophisticated. But the name Norman remained with them as before. The union of the Norse and French blood had produced a new race who had the best qualities of these two races – the courage, will power and the energy of the Norse and eager curiosity and clear imagination of the French.

When these Normans (the Norman French) came to Anglo-Saxon England, they brought with them three important things – a lively Celtic disposition, a vigorous and progressive Latin civilization and a refined language or a language of literature. The language of the Conqueror's Domesday Book and other contemporary literature bore the reflection of that. We can assume that Normans were superior to the Anglo-Saxons in warfare, in thinking and in action. The feudal system which the Conqueror brought to England was far better than that Anglo-Saxon kings developed in England. The administrative and judicial systems which William introduced in England were also much superior to those of the Anglo-Saxons.

The Norman Conquest is regarded as one of the most decisive event in the history of England. It had left a very deep and lasting impact in the

socio-cultural life of England. The long rule of Anglo-Saxon-Danes in England ended with the defeat of Harold in the battle of Hastings in 1066. The Scandinavian influence in England ceased and in its place came Frankish influence. Although the Normans had Scandinavian blood in their vein, they lost by that time much of their Scandinavian rustic character. With the Hastings the Ancient age or Old Age came to an end and the Medieval History started in England.

William the Conqueror and the King of England

William's claim to the throne of England was on the right of conquest as he defeated and killed the last Saxon king of England Harold. Though the Witan accepted William as the king of England, question of his legitimacy still remained. He could not be called the rightful king of England. He was a foreigner and a conqueror. The English people were not ready to accept him as their king. William put forward some pretexts for his claim to the throne of England beside his victory in the battlefield.

There are many stories about the early life of William. William was the only son of Robert I, the Duke of Normandy, by an informal marriage with Herleva. Since the marriage of his parents was not formal, technically he was illegitimate. When he was still a small child, his father went to Jerusalem on pilgrimage and never returned. Thus he had to inherit one of the most wild and turbulent principalities of Europe at the age of eight. William's upbringing was not also very smooth and his illegitimacy added to his difficulties. It also influenced the pattern of his domestic and private life. In later years when he married Matilda, the daughter of the count of Flanders, a descendant of King Alfred, the church prohibited the marriage. But William wanted a dispensation from the Pope and he was later permitted.

William was a nephew of Edward the Confessor. He said that Edward the Confessor, since had no children, once nominated him to be his successor to the throne of England. He could, therefore, rightly claim the throne of England. His second pretext was that Harold, when he was held in Normandy, promised to support him in achieving the throne of England after Edward, the Confessor. William set Harold free on that promise. These are all unfounded stories as neither Harold nor Edward had any right to nominate their heir to the throne. English kingship was both elective and heritable and it was the Witan (the council of the state) that took the final decision. The elective character of English monarchy became an established fact from the time of Canute. Canute, Harold or William none had a valid legal title to the throne of England. But they were the choice of the Witan. What was this Witan? Witan was not the origin of British Parliament, but it was the original idea of the Parliament.

It was not a popular or representative body of the people. It was a political body which grew up out of some Anglo-Norman institutions. It was a haphazard assembly of Bishops, Earls, Royal officials and other magnates of the society.

William's Early Troubles

Though Hastings gave William a decisive victory, his first few years were not smooth and peaceful. The battle of Hastings had only overthrown Harold and made William master of the southeast of England. The rest of England and the English people were not ready to submit to the Normans so easily, they offered resistance to William and his authority. The resistance started from the north. Rebellions at different places broke out and William was challenged. Edwin and Morcar first revolted against him and with them joined Malcolm III of Scotland. William hurried to the north, and forced the rebellious leaders to submit. But this was not the end of the rebellion. Northumbrians put up Edward Aetheling (Son of Edmund Ironside) as their king and with the help of the Danes occupied York and killed all the Normans there. William again rushed to the north, made some deal with the Danes and bought them with money. When the Danes withdrew from the English side and surrendered to William, the English were in awkward situation. William then could easily quell the English rebellion.

The last effort of staging a revolt in the fen or low-lying district was made by a band of patriots which was led by Hereward and Morcar. That effort also failed and the English then had no other alternative than to submit to the Conqueror. They formally invited him to London. William came to London and on the Christmas Day of 1066 and his coronation was held in the Westminster Abbey. William had problems in Normandy also. He had to rush to Normandy after his coronation in London. During his absence from Normandy, the people of west Normandy revolted. William had to hasten to Normandy leaving his conquest of England incomplete. When William was busy with the war in England, people of the west Normandy revolted for the oppressive rule of Bishop Odo of Bayeux and Fitzosbern whom William authorized to rule there on his behalf. William came to Normandy and put down the rebellion of the Normans nobles in 1067.

William came back to England after settling the troubles in Normandy and took a stern attitude to the English rebels. He ruthlessly put down the rest of the rebels. Thus William had to spend his first five years in quelling the rebellions. By 1072 the whole of England was under his control.

Chapter Two

Consolidation of William's power in England

William was very ruthless in suppressing the rebellions. He did not hesitate for mass-massacre or destroying town after town and village after village for eliminating rebels and rebellions. Once all the rebellions were quelled down, William devoted all his attention for consolidation of his power and making his throne of England secured. He knew that the English nobles and the English people would never accept him as their rightful king, and they would rise against him when they find an opportunity. Their power should, therefore, be curbed. First he cut the power of the Earls, Barons and other nobles and brought them to size. He confiscated the lands and powers of the English Earls and Barons and in their places put the Normans or his own people. There was mutual hatred between the English and the Normans, William took this advantage as he knew that the Normans would always work for him and give him military services and other supports at times of need.

Those who fought against him in the battle of Hastings and in subsequent rebellions were branded as traitors. Their lands and military power were taken away and they were made poor and insignificant. His second step was to build numerous forts and castles all over the country and garrisoned them with sufficient Norman soldiers, so that they could promptly face any rebellion, should there be any. He did not crush the English lords, Barons and Earls altogether, but made them poor and weak so that they could not have organized any revolt against him. He was also careful about the Norman lords and Barons and did not let them grow too strong. He used the English Barons against the Normans and Normans against the English.

His Feudal Policy

The Norman Conquest brought about some major changes in the feudal system of England. The feudal system that was developed in France was superior to the existing Anglo-Saxon feudalism. William the conqueror introduced the new feudal system for two reasons – first to weaken the English feudal lords and then to develop the feudal system in such a way so that he could control feudal lords more effectively. William first confiscated all the lands of rebel English Thegns, Nobles and Barons. He gave those lands to the Normans nobles and his favorites. In doing that he followed the continental feudal policy. He granted land or estate to a

tenant-in-chief on condition that he should give him military services and other revenues. The tenant-in-chief, in his turn, could grant land to subtenants for similar services and revenues. The tenant-in-chief could raise his own army, build his own castle and could live a princely life. But William wanted to clip their power.

William knew the danger of the feudal system, which he experienced in Normandy. He, therefore, adopted some anti-feudal policies. He did not grant any big estate to a particular person. He divided the big estates into smaller ones. By dividing the big estates into small ones he could accommodate more favorites. He scattered the portions of the estates in different areas. So that the barons or the feudal lords could not accumulate large estate, raise big army and become too much powerful. To keep control over them he retained the Anglo-Saxon courts of hundred and court of shires. He appointed king's representative in each town. Lastly he issued order that not only the tenants-in-chief, but the sub-tenants, and the under-tenants should also have to swear oath of allegiance to the king. Thus he made it clear that the king is the over lord of all tenants-in-chief, sub-tenants and under-tenants. He held the famous Oath taking of all tenants-in-chief, sub-tenants and under-tenants at Salisbury in 1086. He made each of the tenants or land-holders swear allegiance to him directly and each of the tenants pledged that he must obey the King in all circumstances. From that time on it became the duty of all tenure holders to obey the king first, and then his immediate overlord. This new imposition marked a difference with the Anglo-Saxon feudalism and also that of the Continental and traditional feudalism.

The Anglo-Saxon feudalism was a social organization which worked from bottom to upward. The freemen held lands as of right and chose their Eldermen, The Eldermen in their turn chose the barons or Thegns and the Thegns chose the king. The king was the supreme owner of all land of the kingdom. He used to make grants of lands to his nobles and favourites. It is true that William gave the feudal system a rigorous discipline and he did it to control the barons and the tenants.

His Policy to the Feudal Lords and Barons

William rewarded the Normans with grants of land and different positions, both in government and in the Church, but did not forget to keep them under control. He knew that both the English and Norman lords and Barons could be equally unruly if they are given too much loose. They could destabilize his government, as they did in west Normandy in his absence. He first abolished the big earldoms and divided them into small ones. Big Barons were always a threat to the crown but smaller ones were not. He granted them to more people who were loyal and submissive to him. This kept the Barons under his control. Secondly

he made those grants of land or estates scattered in different parts of the country. This piecemeal distribution of estates checked the growth of territorial aristocracy and made it difficult for the Barons to collect army secretly and quickly against the king. He curtailed the local power of the Barons by strengthening the local institutions of the Anglo-Saxon period like town moots, shire courts etc. In every shire he appointed a sheriff who used to look after the interest of the crown. Finally he modified the feudal system. The under-tenants were so long responsible only to the barons or lords; they had no direct relation with the crown. He made it mandatory that all the under-tenants should also pay homage to the Crown as well as to their immediate lords and barons. This again diminished the hold of the barons and lords over their tenants and vassals.

His policy to the Church

William wanted to reform the Church and keep the clergies under control. In his Church policy he was assisted by his friend Lanfranc whom he made the Archbishop of Canterbury. He removed all the English Bishops, abbots and other clergies from the Churches, monasteries and other ecclesiastical positions and filled them up with the Normans. He made important changes in the Church and Ecclesiastical order. He established separate Ecclesiastical courts for trying the ecclesiastical cases and ecclesiastical people. This made the Church independent of the jurisdiction of the Crown law and Crown courts. He insisted that the Clergies, Abbots and Bishops must maintained a strict moral order and live a life of celibacy. Marriage was forbidden for them. They were also ordered not to sell benefices for money.

William's reforms in the Church did not come in conflict with the Pope of Rome and he maintained good relation with the Pope. But when Hilderbrand became Pope of Rome as the Gregory VII, there arose some problems. The Pope made the Church completely independent of the State. William did not like it. He did not like the Pope to encroach any royal jurisdiction. He issued some orders to maintain his control over the Church. He said that the clergies should pay homage to the king. He refused to pay homage to the Pope of Rome. He said that he could not do it because his predecessors had never done it. He also issued order that none of his vassals should pay homage to the Pope; none should receive Papal Bulls (letters or orders from the Pope) without his consent. No vassal should be excommunicated without his consent; no Church law should be passed without his expressed order. All these measures curtailed the power of the Church in England and annoyed the Pope of Rome.

His Scotland and Danish Policy

From the Anglo-Saxon period Scotland was a separate kingdom, sometimes as an ally of England and at other times independent.

Malcolm, king of Scotland, joined Edwin and Morcar against William. William did not forget that. Being settled in power he invaded Scotland and compelled Malcolm to pay homage as his vassal. As regards the Danes, he took a different policy. He kept the Danes away with money.

His France Policy

French king Philip never liked William. He helped Robert, the eldest son of William, to revolt against his father. William declared war against Philip captured his territory (Mantes) and terrorized the people by mass massacre and setting their houses on fire. While he was suppressing the rebels and carrying on massacre and devastation in Mantes, his horse threw him off the saddle and he was seriously wounded which caused his death in 1087.

William's Government and Achievement

William the Conqueror was on the throne of England a little more than twenty years (1066 - 1087). During this period he not only united England, but also gave it a definite shape of government. It is, therefore, rightly said that history of England began from 1066 with the Norman Conquest. He was known to be a strong monarch. He was terrible and merciless to enemies or who opposed him but he was not unscrupulous. He did not carry on any devastation without reason. He wanted to establish a strong rule in England. He cut the power of the barons and brought them under his strict control. He also made his relation clear with the Pope. He did not like that the Pope should encroach his jurisdiction in state affairs.

William was a very brave warrior and a foresighted king. In 1085 he ordered for a total and minute survey of the wealth and resources of his kingdom. His object was to assess the taxable properties of the kingdom. He collected all the information in a book known as **the Domesday Book**. **The Domesday Book** was a great state document of William which showed his great political sagacity. It carried great historical value also. His other great achievement was that he united England and gave England a strong government. We find three great monarchs of England who made great contribution in uniting different races in different circumstances. They are Alfred the Great, who united the small warring states of the Saxons, the Angles and the Jutes; then King Canute who united the English and the Danes to live together; and then William who united the Englishmen and Normans. William gave England a strong government and made England a great power in Europe. He made the Normans and English live together. During his time French and English language came closer and initiated a new culture which subsequently enriched English language and literature.

Chapter Three

(Continuation of Norman Rule)

William II (William Rufus) (1087-1100)

William the Conqueror had two sons (Robert and Rufus), in his death bed he wished that his second son Rufus (red face) should succeed him in England. William's friend and adviser was Lanfranc. He made him the Archbishop of Canterbury. Lanfranc had good relation with the Pope of Rome. Lanfranc came to help Rufus for fulfilling his father's last desire. Within three weeks Rufus was crowned at Westminster Abbey by the Archbishop as William II. William's eldest son Robert became Duke of Normandy. William Rufus was like his father a vigorous king, energetic and ambitious, but he had not those good qualities of his father. He was cruel, greedy and oppressive. He has been portrayed as "...a foul incarnation of selfishness in its most abhorrent form, enemy of God and man.

Early Problems of William II (Rufus)

The Norman Barons knew that William Rufus would, like his father, keep a tight hold on the Barons and extract money from them more unscrupulously. They gathered under his uncle Odo and revolted against him. Odo was rather a soft-natured man and was more favourable to the Barons. William appealed to the English Barons to help him. The English Barons got an opportunity to take revenge on the Normans. William suppressed the rebellious Barons and Odo. But this was not the end of his troubles, his brother Robert also revolted against him. Roger Montgomery and Mowbray two powerful Barons of Normandy were helping Robert. William without losing time invaded Normandy and compelled them to submit. But the quarrel of two brothers was however patched up as there developed a new situation in Europe that time. The Pope of Rome Urban II was instigating the Christian World particularly the Christian Princes to wage a Holy War against the Moslems to liberate Jerusalem. The Christian World waged a number of Holy Wars against the Moslem. In history these Holy Wars are known as the Crusades. The first Crusade was organized in 1095. Christian Kings and Princes of Europe joined the Crusade with army and with money. Robert was collecting money for the Crusade and was going to take part in the first Crusade. Robert compromised with William II (William Rufu) on condition that he would surrender Normandy to him for ten thousand marks for the Crusade.

During his absence in Normandy, Malcolm, king of Scotland invaded England but was defeated by the English army. Malcolm was compelled to pay homage to William and accepted his suzerainty. Scottish king though submitted continued his raids on the borders. William annexed Cumberland and some other areas of Scotland and posted there strong border guards.

After Scotland there were problems in Wales. The Welsh people always tried to maintain their separate identity. They considered the Normans as foreigners and defied the Normans occupation in England. William came up to meet the Welsh, but having problems in Normandy he could not give full attention to Wales. He took a different policy to the Welsh. He built up a number of castles in Wales and told the Norman Barons that if they could occupy any portion of land from the Welsh that would be theirs. This policy of William was successful. Within a short time coastal areas of south Wales fell in the hand of the Normans.

Rufus Reign

William Rufus was not a popular king. His reign was not also very popular. He diverted all his energy to extract money from the people rich or poor. His chief agent of financial extortion was Ranulf Flambard. He made him the Archbishop of Durham in recognition of his services. Flambard generalized the feudal doctrine that the king had every right to make profit by his position as the supreme owner of all lands of the kingdom. He not only exacted the feudal dues, sometime he increased it unscrupulously. Under the feudal law the king could take over an estate if it had no legal heir, or even when the heir was minor.

It was a popular saying of that time that the hands of William Rufus and Flambard fell equally heavy on Churches and the clergies. Bishoprics were kept vacant so that the king could collect their revenues. When a new Bishop was appointed the king expected a huge sum of money and presents from him. It was also a popular saying that Flambard had made the king “everyman’s heir,” layman or clergyman.

William Rufus owed his crown much to Lanfranc, the Archbishop of Canterbury. Lanfranc died in 1089. The king did not make anyone the Archbishop in his place; rather he himself was enjoying the revenues of Canterbury. Anselm was an abbot of Bec. After Lanfranc there was none among the Anglo-Norman clergies higher in prestige than his friend and disciple Anselm. When Anselm came to England in 1092, everybody thought that he was going to be appointed the Archbishop of Canterbury as he had very fair reputation. In 1093 the king fell sick and he believed that he was going to die. He wanted to atone for his sins. He made Anselm the Archbishop of Canterbury and asked him for his atonement

services. Anselm accepted the position against his will. After few months the king recovered and went back to his evil ways. The Archbishop warned him and reminded him of his promises. A quarrel then cropped up between the King and the Archbishop.

Meanwhile a dispute arose about the Papacy in Rome. There were two persons who claimed to be the Head of the Christendom - Pope Urban II who was supported by the majority of the Churches of Europe and Clement III (Gregory VII) who was supported by the Emperor. Anselm took the side of Urban II, which was not liked by William Rufus. Anselm asked for permission to go to Rome to take the Pallium from the Pope which was the symbol of the office of Archbishop. William replied him that England did not accept him as the Pope. On this issue England was divided, the Baron supported Anselm and the bishops supported the king. Anselm defying the sentiment of the king went to the Pope. But when he realized that the king would persecute him on his return, he remained in Rome in the hospitality of the papacy court till the death of William Rufus in 1100.

Death of William Rufus

The death of William Rufus had left a mystery which is till today not resolved. Many people believed that his death was a divine judgment, while others took it as an accident. There were still many others who thought it a conspiracy, in which the hand of his brother Henry was involved. In August of 1100 Rufus went for hunting in the New Forest with his friends. His younger brother Henry was also there in the party. While he was waiting for his prey, an arrow from some unknown hand struck him dead.

Henry was at that time in another area of the forest, in the same hunting campaign. As soon as he learned about the death of his brother, he without waiting for removal of the dead body of his brother or its burial, turned his horse's face and galloped to Winchester to grab the royal treasure and royal power. Henry was allowed to take over the royal treasures and royal power and was passed to London. On August 5 he was crowned in the Westminster Abbey as the King by the bishop of London as the Archbishop Anselm was still in exile.

Henry I (1100-1135)

When William Rufus died, his elder brother or the eldest son of the Conqueror Robert was still in Jerusalem. His youngest son Henry promptly occupied the Crown of England. He persuaded the Witan to choose and accept him as the King. He knew that when his eldest brother Robert returned from the Crusade or the Holy Land, he would legally claim the Crown of England. He felt the need of making his position

stronger in England. There were rumours and whispers that Henry was involved in the killing of his brother William Rufus. He was scared of those rumours. He would have been in problem, if those rumours were substantiated. He started to distribute favours to the English Barons and Earls. He took some direct measures to make some compromise with the bishops and the clergies. He recalled the Archbishop Anselm who was in exile in Rome to England and imprisoned Ranulf Flambard, the most hated man of Rufus' revenue collectors. To win the English support he married an English Princess Matilda, daughter of Saint Margaret of Scotland, the niece of Edgar the Aetheling, a descendant of Alfred.

His Charter with the Barons and the Church

Henry issued the Charter of Liberties. It was a step forward to recognize the right of all classes of people. It was in other words, the precursor of the Magna Carta. It enhanced his popularity and made his position a little more stable. His steps were: (1) He agreed to give election to all the Churches and Bishoprics for selecting their Bishops; he also said that he would not keep any bishopric vacant and enjoy its revenues. (2) He promised to the feudal lords that he would not extract excessive or undue taxes from them. (3) He tried to unite all factions of the nobles of the nation and rule the country by the laws promulgated by the Confessor. (4) He further promised that he would follow the feudal laws of the Confessor.

His quarrel with Robert

Having settled his position in England he diverted his attention to Normandy. Baron of Belleme, most strong opponent of Henry, revolted against him. Henry came to Normandy, defeated him and sent him on exile.

Robert, on return from the Crusade, demanded both English and Norman Crown. Norman feudal lords and barons were not happy under the rigorous rule of Henry; they rallied under Robert against Henry. Henry invaded Normandy, this time the English barons and knights were with Henry. Henry defeated Robert in 1106 in the battle of Tinchebray. The English soldiers did their best to help Henry I and avenged the defeat of Hastings. The victory of the battle of Tinchebray was decisive and it made Henry King of both England and Normandy. Henry held Robert a prisoner for life.

Henry's Church Policy

Church, Monastery and See were great social institutions in those days. They used to render both religious and social services. For their religious services and establishment the king or the monarch used to make huge endowment of land. Moreover people used to donate money, materials to

the Church or the monasteries as act of piety. Bishops or clergies used to enjoy those properties. In return they rendered religious, educational and other welfare services to the societies. The Churches and monasteries were like fiefdom and enjoyed some special facilities. They had their own laws and court which were known as canon laws and canon court. Some of the Churches had their own army to enforce their laws. A Church was, so far their properties were concerned, a dukedom and the Bishop was a Duke. The Bishops or the Archbishops used to maintain direct relation with Pope of Rome. They showed greater allegiance to the Pope than to the king. They believed that Pope was their spiritual head and the king had nothing to do there. This was the crux of bitterness between the King and the Church.

Henry wanted that the Church and the Bishop must be under the control of the King. Though Henry called back Anselm and gave back his position, soon quarrel surfaced between them. Henry questioned the right of Anselm to grant Investitures, Ring and the Staff to the subordinate bishops and abbots which were the symbol of spiritual jurisdiction. Henry said it was only the King who could grant such Investitures and it was only the king who could claim homage from the bishops and abbots. But the clergies believed that the king was a layman in religious matters, he cannot interfere in the spiritual jurisdiction of the church. He refused to accept those bishops and abbots who received investitures from Anselm.

At last there was a compromise between the King and the Archbishop. The Archbishop agreed that the new bishops and abbots should do homage to the king for their temporal possessions. Henry also gave up his claim for granting spiritual investitures. The election of Churches was conducted under the king's office. King's hand was therefore longer than that of the Archbishop. The bishops and abbots both were made subordinate to the king so far they were related with the lands.

Henry's Rule and Achievement

Henry was a very shrewd king and a foresighted statesman. Of all the Norman kings he was the most popular. His sense of justice was appreciated by his subjects. He improved the judicial and administrative system of the country with the help of Roger, the bishop of Salisbury. His main objective in administration was to keep the Barons and Earls under control. He also curbed their powers by curtailing the power of Baronial Court. He retained the power of the shire-moots and hundred-moots and asked them to meet regularly like the Anglo-Saxon days. The revival of local judiciary acted as a check on the baronial courts. He formed a Great Council of the state named as *Megnum Councilium* with the big feudal lords or Tenants-in-Chief. He formed a small Court for helping the king

and named it Curia Regis. The members of this Curia Regis were trained persons; they looked after the exchequer and supervised the assessment and collection of revenues. The Curia Regis also supervised the local courts. This strengthened the administration of the king and reduced the power of the private court of the barons. By selecting people from all classes Henry created official nobility, which in course of time countered the feudal families. Henry's 35 years reign brought about great social changes in England. Commerce and industries grew up and township expanded rapidly. He repealed all the evil customs of the days of Rufus. He saved the churches from plunder, freed the barons from unlimited extraction. But he did not forget to control the turbulent barons. His compromise with the church as regards investitures was a great political sagacity.

Stephen (1135-1154)

Henry's only son William was drowned in the Channel. He left daughter Matilda as his heir to the throne. Though some of the barons took oath during his life time to support Matilda to be the Queen of England, but after his death they refused to be ruled by a woman. They preferred Stephen of Blois, as their king. Stephen was the son of Adela, daughter of the Conqueror.

Stephen first faced the revolt of king David of Scotland. David was an uncle of Matilda, and he supported her cause. David invaded England, but the Archbishop of Yorkshire Thurstan, with his other saints, opposed and defeated him. David was then won over by Stephen giving him Cumberland. He then became a vassal of the king of England. Though David was purchased, the barons remained divided as regards the claim of Matilda to the throne of England.

After subduing David, Stephen was in a stable situation. But the situation soon went against him and he alienated the support of his people by recruiting mercenary army from abroad. He also offended the clergy by attacking Roger, the Archbishop of Salisbury and his supporters. All these measures made Stephen unpopular. Matilda, who was in Normandy, took this opportunity. Robert, the Earl of Gloucester, came up to help Matilda when she landed on the soil of England in 1139. She was welcomed by many of the barons. She stayed in England from 1139 to 1148. Throughout this time she had a secured base in the west part of the country. She had the full support of Earl of Gloucester. Matilda had some initial successes and in the battle of Lincoln she defeated Stephen and took him prisoner. It seemed that Matilda was going to hold the power of England. Many of the Londoners wanted that Stephen be set at large. But Matilda's insolence and hot-headed actions made her

supporters again alienated particularly when she imprisoned Robert, Earl of Gloucester. Stephen was however set free in an exchange of prisoners. With the help of Robert Stephen besieged Matilda, but she could manage to escape to Normandy. Her departure however gave England a respite for some time.

In 1153 Matilda's eldest son Henry invaded England and claimed his mother's crown. Stephen fought stubbornly, but the Church wanted to end the war. Archbishop Theobald who was a supporter of Stephen came up with a compromise formula for peace and unity. This was further strengthened by the sudden death of Eustance, the eldest son of Stephen. Stephen was not willing to continue war with Henry. He agreed to the compromise formula of Theobald of Canterbury. In November an arrangement was made that Stephen should be the king of England until his death and after his death Henry, Matilda's son, should inherit him on the throne of England. Stephen died on 25 October, 1154 and on 19 December Henry was crowned as Henry II and under the title, "...King of the English, duke of the Normans and Aquitanians and count of the Angevins." It showed that he was not the king of England only.

Reign of Stephen

The reign of Stephen was an interlude between the two Henrys. Stephen was a weak monarch, his weakness helped give rise to anarchy and civil war in the country. Barons, bishops all equally took the advantage of his weak administration. Feudal Lords built indiscriminately forts and castles, hired mercenary army and fell to fight each other. They sometimes took side with the king, at other times against the king. The anarchy reached such a height that people used say that, "Christ and his saints are asleep." The Chroniclers have described the reign of Stephen as "Nineteen Winter." The worst aspects of feudalism were exposed during the reign of Stephen. People could realize that Feudal system worked well only under a strong king.

Changes that Norman Conquest brought to England

Norman Conquest is a great event in the history of England. But it is not only a great historical event, it made great changes in political, social and cultural life of England also. It started the new history of England. Most important changes took place in the administration and in the political arena. The changes can be listed as :

1. The Norman Kings were strong rulers and were gifted with greater organizational capability. England was united politically as a kingdom under them. Kingship was strengthened, feudalism was brought under a definite system and the power of the barons and feudal lords were

cleft. Baron or Earl of big Estates could not behave like independent prince.

2. Different races like the Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Danes and Normans were united to live together as one nation and this fusion made them a great nation in future. Scotland and Wales could feel that England was a greater power both politically and militarily.
3. So long England was an island and separated from the continent. Norman Kings made England a part of the Continent. The King of England was also the Duke of Normandy, a great part of France. England evolved as a great political power of Europe.
4. The Norman kings gave England a strong and organized government. England became a strong and organized Christian state of Europe and established a good relation with the Pope of Rome. The rights and powers of the Church and those of the King were made distinct and clear. The position of the Church was made subordinate to the king.
5. The Norman kings brought England under a strong central government, organized administration, and judicial system.
6. The Great Council of Tenants-in-Chief with big Barons, Dukes and other magnates of the society was organized which replaced the Witan and Witenage. The king's Council or Curia Regis laid the foundation of bureaucratic nobility beside the feudal nobility.
6. English Language and literature was enriched by French language and French literature. A new age of English literature started

Part IV

England in the Middle Age

Like other European countries Feudalism and Theology took root in all state affairs of England during the Middle Age. The King was the supreme Lord of the country and owner of the land. The King used to distribute land to his dukes, barons and other favourites. The Pope, the clergies and the Church on the other hand, used to control the spiritual affairs of the country. The feudal lords used to help the King at the time war with army and replenish the treasury of the King. They also helped the King in running the state affairs.

The society was classified on the principles of feudalism and possession. Role of the Church and Pope in the society and state affairs was dominant. The Crusades or the holy wars of the Christian world for liberation of Jerusalem and other holy places from the Moslem occupation were most important political and historical events of the Middle Age. King Richard I took part in the crusade. The whole of Christian world and Pope of Rome were involved the Crusades. The Middle Age ended with the fall of Constantinople to the Ottoman Turks in 1453 and the coming of the Renaissance.

Chapter One

England in the Middle Age

What is Middle Age and when it started is a question which needs some explanation. The Christian World of Europe will agree that the Middle Age started when the Christians of Europe organized the Crusade against the Saracens to liberate Jerusalem from the Moslems. It was in 1095 when the first Crusade was started (1095-99). In England, the Middle Age started with the Norman Conquest in the battle of Hastings in 1066 and William, the conqueror occupied the throne of England. The end of the Middle Age in Europe may be dated with the fall of Constantinople in 1453 which gave birth to the European Renaissance.

In history the Middle Age is very distinct from the Old Age or from the Dark Age and also from the Age of Renaissance or the Age of Reason and Humanism. Middle Age is separated from other ages for three major distinctive reasons. It was the time when people believed that the king was the representative of God on earth and he ruled the people by Divine Right. The Pope on the other hand was the representative of God on earth to determine the spiritual affairs of people on earth. The distinctive features of the Middle Age are (1) Feudalism as the social order and the supremacy of the Church. The king was the supreme lord of the country. Feudalism was a social, economic and political institution. (2) Supremacy of the Church and Papacy in social, political and religious life was dominant, and (3) The Crusades : The Christian World was united and organized for the Crusades against the Saracens.

Feudalism and Feudal society

History of Feudalism is very old. It first developed in ancient Roman Society and in the Roman Empire. It took a definite shape in ninth and tenth century in France and Germany. The great Frankish King Charlemagne gave it a systematic, organized and institutional shape. It was not only in Europe, but in other countries of the world also, feudalism became a recognized social order in the medieval age. It came into the society as a political and economic institution, when the people were in desperate need of protection for their lives and properties. They surrendered their liberty to those who could protect them from violent hands and from the enemies.

Feudalism gave a system of social order where society was structured on the basis of land and land tenure. The relation of man with the land, holding of land and the interest derived out of it, were the major factors which determined the strata and status of the man in the society. Society was thus organized on the basis of man's relation with the land. It is a

complete system or organization of the society where from the King down to the lowest land owner and the man who tilled the land were bound together by obligations and defenses.

The idea of feudalism grew up from the need of protection in lieu of service and payment. Those who needed protection from their enemies used to surrender to a strongman, showed to him allegiance for protection and agreed to give him services or pay him fees. This strongman became the lord and the man seeking for protection was the vassal.

The term feudal comes from the root '*fee*' or '*fief*'. It derives from the Gothic source '*faihu*' which means and signifies property. In ancient German society this '*faihu*' meant '*cattle*' and both money and cattle was property for them. But in the classical sense it means holding of land and land tenure. There are many varieties of feudalism. It is to be understood that there was only one absolute owner of the land in a feudal system, and he was the Monarch or the King. The King was believed to be the vassal of God on earth and he had the divine right to rule people. The whole kingdom was the property of the King. The King or Monarch could make grants of land to his nobles, knights, favorites on different tenures and conditions as much land as he thought appropriate. The man who held land from the King on different tenures was known as vassal of the King. He was also known as tenants-in-chief. Under him there were sub-tenants. At the top of the feudal pyramid there was the King. Feudal system included the king, tenants-in-chief, sub-tenants, free-men and even the serfs who were bound with the land.

The relation between the king and the vassal or tenure-holders was clearly defined. Before a king could make grant of land to a vassal, the vassal had to show complete allegiance to the King. He had to appear before the King without any weapon, had to kneel bareheaded before him and pay homage in a ceremonial way and took oath of fealty. The King then raised him and granted him the '*fief*' handed over him as a token flag, a stick, and a written deed. The king and the vassal, on that ceremony of homage, entered into a contract in which the vassal accepted the suzerainty of the king and promised to fight for the king at his command and the king agreed to protect the vassal from external forces. The vassal also promised to pay the king other dues and services.

Lord and Vassal Relation

Before a Lord could grant land (*fief*) to a tenant he had to make that person his vassal. This was done at a formal and symbolic ceremonial way which had two parts – the act of Homage and the oath of fealty. During the Homage, the Lord and the Vassal entered into a contract in which the vassal promised to fight for the Lord at his command while the Lord agreed to protect the Vassal from external forces. The Vassals should also pay to the king and to his lord other rents and taxes as agreed

upon in the contract. The obligations and the corresponding rights between the lord and the vassal or the tenant for the fief were the basis of feudal relationship.

European feudalism had some defects. Sometimes the estates were very big, their army and resources were also huge. Feudal lords of those big estates considered themselves as small kings. As feudal lords had their own army and own castle, they could be a threat to the king when they were organized and united. The sub-tenants or the under-tenants were under the feudal lords, the king had little control over them. The solvency of King's treasury depended on the contribution of the feudal lords. The strength of King's army also depended on the supply of army of feudal lords.

Tenants-in-chief

In feudalism the tenants-in-chief or the lords enjoyed high position in the society. They were granted by the King a big chunk of land along with the people living there. They were not subjected for manual labour or they did not soil their hand. They were the top nobility of the society and courtiers in King's court. Their main duty was to rule over the people and fight for the King in time of war. There were different grades of tenants-in-chief: Duke, Earl, Marquis, Baron etc. They could sublet their land to a smaller tenant or sub-tenant almost in the same condition as he accepted those from the King. The country was divided into a number of feudal units which were known as feudal manors. Land tenures and the feudal manors were not equal or similar everywhere. It used to depend on the prevailing circumstances, relation between the King and the lord. Some manor were big, almost the size of a district while others were only a town. The manorial chief used to live in his manor castle with family. He used to maintain his army or his knights and troops. For protection of the castle from the enemies there was deep moat around it. Each manor had a church with a parish priest. The church was the centre of religious and social life.

Knight

In feudal society the knight was a professional soldier. He had to distinguish himself in acts of warfare and in acts of chivalry. He had to equip himself with his own horse and weapons. He had to serve his lord at least forty days a year. The knight was assisted by a esquire who was also a soldier. In case the knight was wounded, the esquire would come to help him. The esquire was also equipped with his own horse and weapons. The knight was considered to be a man of honour who was always ready to uphold justice and fairplay. In feudal system the knights formed the finest armies in Europe. The status of a lord was determined by the number of knights he could command for military service during war.

Feudalism and Church

The Church in feudal system played an important role. It played double role. On the one hand the Church was the centre of all spiritual activities and the Bishop was its head, on the other the Church also received land from the King and Archbishop acted as a manorial lord. The Archbishop could also retain a title like Duke or Count. He had his own troops, court and mint. For this dual role there was often dispute between the Church and the Crown.

Freeman

Feudal tenants were of two categories – the Freeholders and the Villains (those who belonged to a Villa or manor). The nobles, the clergies, people following different vocations, trades and owning land on lease from the king or lord, were freemen. The Freemen could live freely in their manors or go away as and when they wished transferring their land.

Serfs and Slaves

The serfs were bound with the land on certain conditions. When the owner of the land sold the land, the serfs were also sold along with land. They (serfs) cultivated a piece of land owned by the lord or baron on their behalf and paid rent and taxes. They had to pay annual rent in terms of produces, labour and money. They paid three taxes in money - a head tax to the king or the government through the baron, a rent or charge arbitrarily fixed by the lord for the land they held, and thirdly one tenth of their produces (crops and cattle) to their land lords. Besides, in many manors the serfs had to give free labour to their lords for repair of their plough, house and road. They had also to dig ditches, tend the sheep of their masters, and render other services as needed. The serfs had many other restrictions like they could not sell their house, cattle, or could not give their daughters in marriage to others without the consent of their lords. The lord could not only possess their person as they did in case of the slaves. The slaves were like cattle and goods and could be bought and sold. The church was against slavery, but it was not against non-Christian prisoners to employ as slaves. The serfs and slaves were of the lowest rank in the society and they were badly exploited by their masters. In the feudal hierarchy everyone was linked with land, whether he was a king, a lord or serf or slave.

Good Side of Feudalism

Protection of weak from the strong was a good side of feudalism. Civilization and social order was saved from the barbarians. Feudal system created a social order and harmony also. Every person in a feudal society knew his position, according to that he rendered his services, made payment and enjoyed his rights. The society was bound by mutual obligations, royalty and services. The lord depended on his vassal and the vassal, in turn, depended on the lord.

Feudal Economy

Land and labor of the serfs were the source of income and base of the feudal Society and feudal Economy. The feudal economy depended on the land and labor of the serfs for food, money and services. The manor was the economic unit of the society in which grains, vegetables and fruits were produced. One of the main duties of the manorial lord was to increase production of the land by making the serfs work harder. He also invested the surplus income of his manor for development of land and agriculture. This had helped create a prosperous feudal society. In subsequent times when the lord of the manor could make bigger surplus from his land, he invested that surplus for other trades and industries. The beginning of industry in England started with the surplus money from the manorial agriculture. But all this economic prosperity was at the cost of the exploitation and extortion of the serfs.

Feudal Politics

In feudal system the manorial units were also administrative units. The lords were local administrators they used to look after the local law and order, local justice and local development. The king ruled the country with the help of these feudal lords. They were pledge bound to help the king in time of war and foreign aggression. A weak king was strong when all the feudal lords were by his side. Local self governments which are still very strong political institutions in European countries developed from the concept of feudal administration.

The feudal system did not last after the Renaissance. It declined in the thirteenth and fourteenth century. The greed of the feudal lords and their inhuman extortion of the serfs destroyed feudal system. We find the ugly aspects of extortion and exploitation of the serfs in France and Soviet Russia which led to the French Revolution and the Russian Revolution. In England Feudalism was abolished in 1660 under Tenure Abolition Act.

Change in Warfare

A great change occurred in the art and technique of warfare under the feudal lords during the Middle Age. The spear, sword, arrow and bow were not only improved, but new and more fierce weapons were added to the armory. The knights took the horse for swift action; they now attacked the enemy from the saddle. When horse came to the war field, infantry became weak in front of the cavalry. The invention of gunpowder changed war technique completely. Spears and arrows were then obsolete before the gun and cannon. Stone throwers were mere toys.

Chapter Two

Role of Church in the Middle Age

Like the Synagogue of the Jews, the Christians have their place of worship which they call Church. The Christians congregate for their prayer in the Church, and this congregation or assemblage used to choose or select the presbyters or the elders to carry on the functions of the Church and implement other instructions of the sacrament. Deacons were the officers of the Church who used to supervise the congregation of the Church and other charitable works. The Church officers were appointed on the approval of the congregation. The officers who supervised the presbyters and other officers were later known as the Bishops. The word Catholic (a Greek word) means “for all or of all.” The Roman Catholic Church was open to all people and all nations. The Catholic Church thus could create some universal appeal.

The Church played the most important role both in matters of religion and politics in the Medieval Europe. The Holy Roman Empire which was the protector and guardian of Christianity was divided into two parts - East and West Empire. The western Empire was destroyed in 476, but the eastern part of the Empire, in the name of Byzantine Empire, continued for another thousand years till the fall of Constantinople in 1453. The reign of Caesar in Rome though ended by the end of 5th century; the Church of Rome became the spiritual capital of the Christian Europe.

The Church of Rome which was constructed on the remains of the Apostle Peter has a Long history. Apostle Peter and Apostle Paul were two of the twelve Apostles of Jesus Christ who attended the Last Supper. It is believed by the Catholic Christians that Jesus gave Peter “the key of the kingdom of Heaven”. After Crucifixion of Jesus Christ, Peter after a long and hard journey came to Rome. It is for the tireless endeavor and sacrifice of Peter and Paul that Christianity was spread in Europe. It is believed that apostle Peter came to Rome in 42 A.D. On his way to Rome he converted a large number of people to Christianity. It was during the reign of Emperor Nero. It is said that apostle Paul came to Rome almost at the same time. Both of them (Peter and Paul) were put to death by the emperor Nero in 64 A.D. Saint Peter is said to have built a Church in Rome, it was the centre of his mission from where he preached Christianity. He was the first Bishop of that Church and that was the first Church of Rome. Subsequently after his death on his grave, a great Cathedral was built. This Cathedral became the mother Church of

Europe, the capital of Christendom. Saint Peter and Saint Paul are considered as Martyrs by the Catholics.

Pope and Papacy

Papacy is one of the strongest and enduring institutions of the world and it had played a great role in giving the shape of European societies. The Pope and the Church have also played a great part in creating European history. In the past the Church was centres of education and preaching the teaching of Jesus Christ. The bishops and monks were the teachers and preachers. In course of time Papacy took both the Spiritual and temporal (worldly) responsibility. Church and the Pope played a great role both in secular and in spiritual affairs of Europe in the Middle Age. They not only resolved the spiritual controversies of the churches and clergies, but also many political disputes. They played a great political role in resolving political disputes between the monarchs and kings and could avoid many bloody wars.

The Popes of Vatican were considered to be the symbol of spiritual purity of Christianity. They were dedicated to the spiritual and religious works only. But they are now engaged to many non-religious, inter-religious and charitable works besides preaching Christianity. Vatican is now a state within the city of Rome (The main Basilica stands there.) and the Pope is the head of that state. His role is now three-fold -: religious, political and humanitarian at international level. Vatican is the seat of the Papacy. The Pope now offers a great defense for human right along with his Catholic preaching. So far we find a list of 265 Popes from Apostle Peter to Pope Benedict XVI.

All Bishops or heads of the Churches, were supposed to be equal. But in course of time some of them became more important than others. Considering their positions, responsibilities and importance of their dioceses, the status and position of the Bishops are now determined. The Bishop of Rome was known as the Pope which means Father. The word Pope came from the word "Papa" which also means father. Rome being the capital of the Roman Empire and Christianity being the State Religion (Roman Emperor Theodosius declared in 392 A.D. that Christianity was the only recognized religion of the state), importance of the Bishop of Rome was above all. Though the Roman Empire declined, the Pope and his position remained in Vatican. The authority of the Roman Church replaced, in a way, the authority of the Roman Empire. The seat or place of the Caesar was occupied by the Pope.

The image and fame of Papacy rose and fell with the personal quality of the Pope. It is Gregory the great who raised the image of Papacy. He established the medieval theme and concept of the Church and Papacy.

He established the spiritual supremacy and authority of the Pope of Rome over all the Churches of Europe. He introduced the custom of Allegiance to, and Investitures from, the Pope of Rome for other Churches. He also introduced strict discipline and celibacy in the Church and among the clergies. The Spiritual supremacy of the Pope continued over centuries in Europe. The Pope and Papacy became so important and strong an institution that no coronation of the European Kings could take place without the blessings of the Pope. The Church was made indispensable for Christian life. The father of the Church administered all religious services, issued instruction on basic sacraments. Baptization, marriage, funeral, everything came under the jurisdiction of the Church. The clergies created an impression in the mind of the believers that the key of heaven lies with the Church. But the Church could not retain this high position of esteem for long. The church used to extract money from the people for some rituals like *Penance, Redemption of sin or Indulgence*. It defamed the spiritual image of the Pope and Papacy.

After the fall of the Holy Roman Empire, Europe was divided into a number of Nation States. But Christianity remained as ever. The Pope of Rome also retained the Spiritual Unity of the former Holy Roman Empire. The successors of Gregory were largely dominated by the Emperors of Constantinople. But the Emperors of Constantinople became gradually weaker. He could not protect the Christians and Christian territory from the Muslim advances. At that time the Frankish king was stronger than the Byzantine Emperor. Pope Stephen II turned his face from the emperor Constantine V and sought help of the Frankish King. Pope Leo III crowned Charlemagne; he made it a precedent that no king should be anointed without the blessing of the Pope. This spiritual supremacy of the Pope continued till the twelfth century. At one time there developed disputes between the king and the Pope over authority. Christianity was also divided into different groups. Schism made both the Pope and the Papacy weak. The seat of the Pope and Papacy was shifted from Rome to Avignon in France and the Pope became dependent on the Frankish king which was not liked by other European kings. The kings would rather look for the blessing of the Pope and the Pope to the king for worldly benefits. Corruptions, debauchery and malpractices became very rampant in the Churches and monasteries.

Pope and King

Pope used to exert great influence on the King. The institution of the Pope was considered to be the authority of God on earth. No Christian King could ascend the throne without the sanction of the Pope. He was considered to be the symbol of unity of Christian World. He could punish

a disobedient king by way of admonition, excommunication, and even passing order of deposition. Pope Innocent III deposed King John of England and asked the King of France to implement it.

Canon Law

Pope Gregory VII reformed the Papacy. He gave a number of Papal laws for conduct of business of the Papacy and enforced them for strict spiritual, moral and behavioral discipline among the Ecclesiastical people. Gregory also laid down some laws for the Pope and Papacy. These laws were called canon laws. Other Churches had also their own laws in the light of those laws. The Church had their canon court to try offences of the clergies. The Pope and Papacy thus became independent of the control of the kings. In spiritual and Church affairs the king had no jurisdiction. These laws were applicable to all the Catholic Churches and to the Catholic Christian World. Since the days of Gregory I these canon laws have been repealed and changed from time to time.

Conflict of Investitures

Pope Gregory VII brought about a number of reforms in the Papacy. He really wanted to establish the kingdom of God on Earth and the power of the Pope supreme in Christendom. As the successors of Christ he claimed the supreme authority of the Pope both in affairs of Spiritual and Secular questions. In this spirit he claimed supremacy of Pope above the Emperors, Kings and the Princes. This Papal supremacy did not continue for centuries. In the twelfth and thirteenth century, when Papacy was corrupted, disputes between the King and the Pope surfaced. Disputes between the Pope of Rome and German Kings Henry IV and Henry V were at the height. The disputes occasioned from the prohibition of investiture. In fact it was a dispute over power - who is above whom. To whom the Bishop or the Archbishop should pay his homage or fealty - the king or the Pope. Within his imperial territory the king used to appoint the Bishops which was forbidden by the Pope. The Pope imposed prohibition, but the king defied it. The Pope retaliated by excommunicating the king. But the king took diplomatic measures, won over the supports of other Bishops. Sometimes the king sought for some dispensation, which the Pope refused or ignored. King Henry VIII of England wanted some dispensation about his second marriage, which Pope refused. Henry VIII severed relation with Rome and established the Church of England.

Church as Landlord

The Churches held land, fiefs and other revenue earning properties. These properties were either granted by the king or endowed by the landlords.

So far these properties were concerned, the king could control the Church or the Bishop. Bishop or the Church enjoyed many manorial privileges as feudal lords and they were to that extent under imperial laws.

The Roman Catholic and the Protestant

The Roman Catholic Christianity was what Vatican established in Rome in 4th and 5th century. In course of time many unnecessary and corrupt rituals entered into the Christianity. The Pope and the clergies indulged in corruptions and worldly pleasures forgetting their spiritual obligations. They deviated from the purity and simplicity of the primitive Christianity. They were given to the pursuit of wealth and power. They abused the Church and Christianity. The people were annoyed with the Church and they wanted reforms in the Church and the clergies. John Wycliffe in England and John Huss in Germany protested against corruptions of the Church and the clergies in 13th and 14th centuries. The followers of Wycliffe were known as Lollards, they carried on reforms movement against the corruption and lavish life of the Pope and the clergies. The reforms movement they started could not achieve the desired results at that time. In the 15th century the reform Movement got momentum again. Martin Luther of Germany started it again with new vigor. Luther himself was a clergyman. In 1517 a Catholic monk named Tetzel appeared in Germany to raise money by the sale of *Indulgence*. Luther raised a Protest against that scandalous practice. The Pope Leo X of Rome was unhappy with Luther; he issued a Bull against Luther. But Luther defied the Bull of the Pope and publicly burnt the papal Bull. The Pope in retaliation excommunicated Luther. Luther did not care; he set the authority of the Bible against the prevailing idea of papal infallibility. This challenge to the authority of the Pope started the reformation in Germany. The followers of Martin Luther were known as the Protestant as they protested.

There are fundamental differences between the Roman Catholics and the Protestant. The Roman Catholics believe that Apostle Peter was the first Pope and the direct successor of Jesus Christ. The Protestants do not agree to this, as they do not find it based on historical facts. Redemption from sin or atonement with money is unacceptable to the Protestants while it is widely practiced in the Catholic Churches. The Catholics advocated strict celibacy, the Protestant did not. The Roman Catholics believed in the doctrine of Transubstantiation, the Protestants did not believe it.

Chapter Three

The Crusades

Pop and the Crusades

The political history of Europe and the Middle East during the 13th and 14th centuries is dominated by two important events – the rise of the Muslim Power and the Crusades of the Christian world against that Muslim power. In 1095 Pope Urban II of Rome, on the request of the Byzantine emperor, called an Assembly of kings and princes of Christian World at Clermont in France. The Byzantine Emperor Alexius Comnenus urged upon the Pope to use his spiritual office to motivate the Christian Kings and Princes of Europe for coming together under the Cross for protection of the Christian World and liberate the Holy Land of Jerusalem from the Muslims. On the 27th of November of 1095 Pope Urban II addressed the Assembly and his fiery speech created great impact upon the Christian Princes and Kings. The Knights of the Cross agreed to launch religious wars on the Moslem Caliphate. There were nine Crusades against the Muslim Caliphate from 1096-1204.

It was not only the strong religious emotion that worked for the crusades. There were political and commercial reasons equally strong. In seventh and eighth century the Muslim Power occupied all the countries from the Atlantic coast in the west to the Black sea in the East. From Morocco to Anatolia all areas were under the Muslim Caliphate of Bagdad. The European Christian countries were frightened when they saw that the Muslims had occupied half of the Spain crossing the Mediterranean. In the East they threatened the Byzantine Emperor in Constantinople. The Muslim merchants occupied all trades and commerce from the Indian Ocean to the Mediterranean Sea. They carried spices from India and sold them at ten times higher prices in the European market. The European merchants could not compete with the Muslim merchants as the Muslim navy was behind them. European Kings were interested for the profitable spice business. They wanted to carry on trade with the East. They were, therefore, bent on curbing the Muslim power.

The first Crusade

The first Crusade was launched in the early part of 1096. The goal was to liberate Jerusalem and other Holy lands from the Muslim control. Saint Peter led the Christian Knights (30,000 Knights, 4,00,000 Christian religious zealots took part in the first crusade). Among others who took

part in the crusade were Robert of Flanders, Bohemond of Taranto, Godfrey of Bouillon and Raymond of Toulouse. The Muslims were disunited. The Muslim army was defeated. The first crusade was a grand success. Jerusalem was liberated in 1099. After the liberation of Jerusalem the crusaders carried on untold atrocities on both the Muslims and the Jews. The first crusade ended in 1099.

The Second Crusade

The success of the first crusade encouraged the Christian World. The second crusade was launched in 1145. Pope Eugene III took the lead this time. The second crusade was not successful. The crusaders were defeated by the Muslims at Damascus in 1148. From the second crusade there was disunity among the crusading knights and the princes. The Bishops and the Pope were also divided among themselves.

The Third Crusade

The Muslims recaptured Jerusalem in 1187. The defeat of the Christian Knights in the second crusade and the recapture of Jerusalem by Saladin created a new situation for the third crusade. Pope Gregory VIII excited the Christendom again for the third crusade and to liberate Jerusalem again. Federick I of Germany raised a huge army for the crusade. Other European kings and princes also responded. Philip II of France and King Richard I of England took part in this crusade. King Richard, who was known as the lion-heart, came in person to fight with the knights of the Cross. The crusaders though won several battles, failed to liberate Jerusalem from Saladin. They were rather forced to submit to Saladin. King Richard agreed to sign a treaty the terms of which were dictated by Saladin. The Christians were allowed to perform pilgrimages to Jerusalem and other Holy places. The third crusade ended in 1192.

The Fourth Crusade

Pope Innocent III in 1202 called for the fourth crusade. The call was for recovery of Jerusalem from the Muslims. The crusaders also planned for an assault on Egypt on the way. But they never went up to Egypt or Jerusalem; they rather attacked Constantinople, the seat of the Byzantine Empire a Christian kingdom. They did it for commercial reasons other than religion. The crusaders sacked the city for three days and mercilessly massacred its citizens.

The Fifth Crusade

Pope Innocent III in 1213 called for the fifth crusade, but till 1217 it was not ready for launch, after Pope Innocent died. The goal of the fifth crusade was also Jerusalem, but they could not go up to Jerusalem. They were bogged down in Egypt and the crusade was again a failure.

The Sixth Crusade

The sixth crusade was not at all effective and it never went off. After the fourth crusade, the crusades were not any mass movement for religious goal. They were military enterprises of individual rulers or kings for their personal motives. The Holy Roman Emperor Federick II vowed to lead a crusade in 1215, but for domestic and political reasons he dropped his plan. Under the pressure of the Pope Gregory IX, Federick and his army sailed in August, 1227 from Italy for the Holy Land, but came back to the port within few days as Federick fell ill. This delay enraged the Pope Gregory; he was very unhappy with the Emperor and excommunicated him. But on being recovered he started again for the Holy Land in June, 1228. He conducted his unconventional crusade by diplomacy. He conducted a series of diplomatic negotiations with the Sultan of Egypt and they agreed to a peace treaty which restored Jerusalem to the crusaders and guaranteed a ten-year respite. Federick was, for this diplomatic gain, ridiculed in Europe for using diplomacy rather than his sword.

The Seventh Crusade

Following the example of Federick II, Louis IX, the king of France, launch the seventh crusade in 1248. The goal of this crusade was not to liberate Jerusalem, but it was directed against the Sultan of Egypt, because the seat of Muslim Caliphate shifted to Cairo by that time. The crusaders thought that any war, against the Muslim power, was a crusade. Louis landed in Egypt in June, 1249 and the following day captured Damietta and some areas of Egypt. Then they advanced towards Cairo in spring, 1250. The attack on Cairo was a catastrophe for the Crusaders; they were surrounded and trapped by the Muslim forces in the Nile valley. Louis had to surrender to the army of the Sultan and freed himself and his crusaders paying a huge ransom. After that he returned to France in the spring, 1254 with head low. During the seventh crusade the Christian knights came across the Mongol hordes of central Asia. They were a new threat to the Christian Europe. The crusaders had to fight this Mongols too.

The Eighth Crusade

French king Louis IX again organized a crusade to the Middle East. This time the king did not get any popular support from the nobility. Louis set out from Sicily in summer, 1270. His target was to strengthen the operation base at Tunis in North Africa to launch crusade against the Sultan of Cairo. But for extreme hot climate Louis himself and his army fell sick and ultimately the king died. His crusade ended with no result. The crusade by this time had lost all its appeal to the Christian World.

The Ninth and the Last Crusade

The Ninth and the last crusade against Islam was launched by Prince Edward of England in 1269. He reached Tunis after Louis IX and wanted to use the base created by him. But the situation by that time went against the crusaders. Edward reached North Africa when the Christians were being defeated everywhere. Utterly disappointed Edward returned home in 1291. After his return, all the strongholds of the crusaders were wiped out from North Africa.

Effect of the Crusades

From military point of view, the Crusades were a failure. Only the first Crusade was successful. The impact of that victory was great, but it was steadily lost. The territories which came under the occupation of the Christian rulers in North Africa, Syria or Asia Minor were all lost to the Turks. In the fourth Crusade we find that the Crusaders did not fight against the Muslims or Islam, they ransacked Constantinople the capital of the Byzantine Empire, part of the Holy Roman Empire. From the fourth Crusade disunity among the Bishops, Popes and the Christian Princes was evident, they could never be unanimous which caused the failure of the Crusades.

The Christian world coming in contact with the Muslim forces could learn the weaknesses of their war techniques. The Islamic civilization enriched their culture and education. The Arab culture and the Arab luxurious life attracted them. Those Arab luxuries became fashion of the Europeans. In the field of medicine and mathematics Christian scholars borrowed many things from the Eastern learning. Muslim scholars were equally benefited from the West particularly from the Greek and Latin classics. Muslim learnt the weaknesses of the European Kings and Princes which helped them to occupy Constantinople in 1453. The fall of Constantinople inspired the Europeans for the Renaissance.

The Christian World gained most in the area of trade and commerce. They extended their trade routes beyond the Mediterranean and gained most by establishing trade links with the East. European traders were allured to silks, spices, porcelain and other luxurious goods of India and China. They were earnest to find out new trade routes to the East. Columbus in quest of the East went to the West Indies in 1492. John Cabot and his son Sebastian Cabot discovered Newfoundland and Labrador. Vasco da Gamma of Portugal found the route to India in 1498.

Chapter Four

Renaissance in Europe and end of Middle Age

In European history, Renaissance is a great event which shook the European mind set and bade farewell to the Middle Age. It freed European intellect from the dominance of religion, theology and control of the Church of the Middle Age. It opened a new horizon before the educated European people for free and rational thinking. The connotation and denotation of Renaissance are very complex and comprehensive. The word Renaissance means 'rebirth'. It comprises a number of concepts and refers to religion, art, sculpture, literature and any other aesthetic concept. It is fundamentally a concept of rational thinking or freedom to think or to act independently without any bias to any particular idea or faith. It was as if the European people were reborn and started to think everything anew after a long sleep of the medievalism.

The year 1453 is a landmark in the history of Europe. The great Byzantine Empire fell to the Ottoman Turks and the Turks occupied Constantinople, the capital of Byzantine Empire and the seat of western culture and civilization. The fall of Constantinople in 1453 indicates a dividing line between the end of the Medieval Age and the beginning of the Modern Age in Europe. In other words it indicated the end of medieval ideas of civilization, which Europe developed for long fifteen hundred years and it initiated the intrusion of Islamic civilization in Europe.

In Medieval Age allegiance to Christianity and the Church was the order of life. To say anything against the Church was a blasphemy and libelous. The Church, clergies and religion used to dominate the society and influence the mind and life of people. Rational reasoning and intellectual freedom were denied. The Church and clergies did not allow study of anything of art and literature which they did not consider useful for the moral of the Christian and Christianity. Medieval scholasticism was also formed in that context. It contradicted in many ways with the ancient Greek and Roman classical literature and sophist ideas. The Church banned those pagan classics and sophist philosophies for the Christians. They considered that those pagan classics and sophist ideas would corrupt Christianity, though many of the ancient classical literature were translated into Latin and other European language and were taught in different universities.

Though 1453 has been marked as the beginning of the Renaissance in Europe, in fact the causes of Renaissance started to work long before. The reasons can be listed as the following:

The Fall of Constantinople in 1453

Constantinople was the Capital of the Eastern Roman Empire (Byzantyne). The Capital was sieged by the Ottoman army under the command of 21 year old Sultan Mohammed II. The Romans under the Emperor Constantine XI tried to defend the city with his own and other European armies, but failed. The siege continued for about a month (April 6 to May 29, 1453) and then the city fell to the invaders.

After the fall of Constantinople most scholars, teachers, artists, painters and musicians did not feel secured to live under the Turks. They were so long living in Constantinople and carried on their works under the patronization of the emperors and other rich people. But the defeat of the Byzantine emperor by the Turks, was a great shock for them. They all fled to the west and took shelter in different cities of Italy. They fled firstly in fear of life and secondly they believed that the new conquerors might not like their works as Islam was opposed to art, sculpture and painting. Most of them gathered in Florence, Naples and Venice in Italy and also in other cities of Europe. The defeat of the Byzantine Emperor was also a great threat to Christian Europe. It gave rise to many questions in their mind. They started to think if the Moslems started to do what they did in Spain, Christianity would be in danger. The European scholars raised the question why they were defeated? What were their flaws? Had they been degenerated and deviated from their past heritage, culture, faith and history? Were the Islamic civilization, life and culture superior to those of the Europeans? In finding out the answers of these questions, they started to study their past. They went back to the Greco-Roman classical age.

They started to study the ancient classics

The scholars could identify that they had been degenerated from their intellectual tradition and martial heritage. They were too much occupied with the Church and theologies and old ideas and life style. The Renaissance created a new spirit of rationalism, a new curiosity and urge for creativity among the scholars of Europe. They started to study again the ancient and old classics of the ancient Greece and Rome with more rationalistic attitude. Theologies and Church had so long made those classics forbidden for the Christians as those were written by the pagans and they exalted paganism. The Church believed that those pagan works would destroy the morals of the Christians.

In studying those ancient classics with rational attitude they developed a new kind of fascination for learning the past. Their inquisitiveness and appreciation for the old Greek and Roman classics of Homer, Horace, Virgil, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle and others, were so high that many of them named their children after the great men and women of ancient Greece and Rome, instead of the Biblical names. Thus the names of Horace, Homer, Virgil, Solon, Pericles, Caesar, Plutarch, Julius Caesar, Augustus etc. became popular.

Intellectual Changes

The Renaissance gave birth to a new spirit of inquisitiveness and scholasticism. In broader sense it was much more than a mere revival of study of the ancient classics. It was a great movement which burst out with great creative urges and curiosity in all directions particularly in the field of new knowledge. It widened the mental horizon of men and built up an attitude to study art, science and literature from rational point of view instead of religious and dogmatic beliefs.

Deviation from the Medieval Education

It is true that education in Middle Age was spread by the Church and monasteries. Monasteries were, at that time, the centre of education particularly the theological education. The Pope of Rome was the ecclesiastical head of the Christendom. The Pope used to determine the areas of studies which were to be taught in the schools and Universities and which were not to be included in the educational curriculum. What they thought against the Bible, the Genesis or against the sayings of the Apostles were forbidden. Ancient Greek and Roman classic were written by the pagan writers, and were, therefore, considered un-Christian and against the moral of the Christians and the Bible.

Spread of Education

Renaissance created a new spirit of inquiry and curiosity as it encouraged secular education. With the spread of education the people were gradually developing a kind of disrespect for the theology and the Church. Schools and Universities established in Paris, Heidelberg, Oxford and Cambridge brought about intellectual revolution. A great intellectual change occurred among the educated people who were thirsty for knowledge to know more and see more. So long this inquisitiveness was suppressed by the Church and theological schools and monasteries. They came out of the orbit of the Bible, Genesis and the sayings of the apostles. The excess formalities of the Pope and the Church annoyed the people and they began to lose respect for the Church and the clergies as they were often found in corrupt practices and immoral acts. This

disrespect for the Church developed at the later part of the middle age over two centuries (13th & 14th centuries).

Geographical discoveries

Geographical and scientific discoveries widened the mind of people. A sense of internationalism occurred among them when they found the route to Americas and India and came in contact with the new world and Indian ideas.

Independent and Original thinking for art and sculpture

Since they were not bothered by theological limitations they could create independently new art, sculpture and painting. It thus created new scope for Renaissance art and sculpture. The Renaissance made human intellect free from the slavery of the Scriptures and the Church. The Renaissance scholars began to think clearly, logically and rationally which ultimately laid the foundation of the modern European education. Art like women figures, sculptures like nude Venus were no more immoral. Medieval style of chivalry and romance of the feudal society were no longer appreciated in the literature.

Rationalism and humanism

All pursuits of knowledge, all efforts of studies were made by the Renaissance scholars and artists from humanitarian and rational point of view. Religious restrictions, theological bindings, blind faith were ignored. Reason and rational judgment got greater importance. In the field of art, painting, sculpture and literature man and life of this world were given greater importance. Life of this world was reflected more prominently in art, sculpture and in literature than before. They found that this world and life of this world are more important and worth thinking. They negated the teaching of the Church that this world is given to the Satan, people should come to the Church for heavenly salvation. They should please the Pope and the Priest who would pray for them to God and God would pardon them for their sins. But people refused to accept those concepts.

Freedom of Women

The concept of the Church about women, in the middle age, was negative. The church considered that the women were the bait to all sin. They should be restricted in their life. But the Renaissance humanists found that women are neither a satanic bait to catch the soul of men, nor a supernatural object of chivalric devotion. They are companion of men in life. Love, friendship, jealousy, marriage, hatred, revenge, ambition loyalty, ingratitude – they are all part of life. Women should not be kept aside. More freedom was given to women. Women were no longer

thought as the door to hell as was preached by the Church and the Pope; they were rather considered as partners of men in life and have equal right.

The Renaissance movement was first started in Italy particularly in Florence. What was Athens in ancient Greece, Florence became that during the Renaissance movement. All scholars, artists, poets, philosophers came to Florence from Constantinople. After Florence we find the names of Venice, Milan, Naples and many other cities.

Renaissance in Italy

The Medici families of Italy patronized Renaissance

In Italy the Medici families established the tradition of encouraging art and learning. They established schools for learning, gave funds to Universities and supported the great scholars, poets, painters, artists, sculptors, architects, and musicians with money and other facilities. Lorenzo de Medici, the Magnificent of Florence, lavished patronage for learning, literature and art. Florence became the centre of learning, literature and art in Europe in 15th century as Athens was during the time of Pericles and Bagdad during Harunor Rashid. The Medici family extended their lavish patronage to the great artists of the caliber of Michael Angelo, Leonardo de Vinci, Verrochio and Bertoldo. Cosimo de Medici established the Platonic Academy in Florence; Florence became the centre of Renaissance and centre of culture and learning of Europe.

The invention of the printing press

No single factor did so much for the Renaissance as the invention of Printing Press. Printing Press spread knowledge far and wide. Scholars found it easier to read printed books than hand-written manuscripts. It made books easily multiplied, cheap and easily available to the readers.

Development of vernacular

When the whole of Europe was under the Holy Roman Empire, Latin was the state language and the language of the church. It was also the lingua franca of Europe. Latin was also the language of the elite class. But with the fall of Constantinople, the Holy Roman Empire was completely disintegrated and a number of nation states emerged in Europe. Native languages became their medium of learning and education. The use of vernacular in learning and education gave rise to nationalism in Europe.

The Crusades had influenced the Renaissance

The crusades had great effect on Renaissance. The Christian world organized a number of wars against the Muslims as the Muslim victory in Spain threatened them. They were afraid that the Muslim would one day occupy the whole of Europe. Though the missions of the crusaders were

not successful, Muslim aggression was stopped for that time. During the crusades the Christian world came in contact with the Islamic Civilization. They were impressed by the Islamic civilization and cultural achievements the Muslims made. They were also astonished seeing the tremendous progress made by the Muslims in the field of education, art and literature. They studied the reasons of their development. This changed the attitude of the Christians of Europe and they were encouraged to reform their Churches.

Renaissance in France

French Kings and nobles evinced keen interest in new learning which the Renaissance initiated. They invited the classical scholars of Italy to their country and engaged them in their Universities to teach the students ancient classics. Erasmus was a great Renaissance scholar of ancient classics. He was appointed a teacher in the Paris University. He taught the students ancient classical literature and encouraged secular education. Most of the Greek and Roman classics were translated in French by the Renaissance scholars and teachers. Not only in literature, in other forms of art like sculpture and painting, the artists initiated new ideas reflecting Renaissance spirit.

Renaissance in Germany

Germany could, perhaps first, realized the spirit of Renaissance by the second half of 15th century. Erasmus a great champion of Renaissance said that the beginning of Renaissance in Germany started when Agricola an Italian professor of classical literature was appointed in the Heidelberg University of Germany. By teaching classical and secular literature, he initiated the beginning of Renaissance in Germany. Agricola introduced the secular education of the Sophists of ancient Greece. He taught students ancient Greek classics and the works of Homer, Horace, Virgil, Seneca and other secular poets and writers in the Universities. Unlike Italy and France, Germany could also realize that the spirit of Renaissance should also be applied for reformation of the Churches and theological institutions. The educated young people, who were not happy with the Churches and the clergies, had already started movement for reformation of the Churches. They said, the activities of the Churches should be based on rational and humanitarian considerations. They shook off the medieval ideas from their head. The reformation of Churches in Germany gave greater results. The efforts of reformation of Churches reached its climax with the Protestant Movement by Martin Luther.

Renaissance in England

The waves of Renaissance reached England a little late. It reached England in early 16th century, during the reign of Henry VIII. Henry

could understand the essence of Renaissance, but it was in full start during the reign of his daughter Queen Elizabeth I. She was a sovereign with all modern outlook in those days of religious and theological controversies. Like Germany, England could also foresee the need of supporting the ideas of Renaissance for the reformation of the Churches.

It was Erasmus a Dutch classical scholar who first brought the ideas of Renaissance in England (Erasmus came to England in 1499). Erasmus with his English disciples Linacre, Colet, and Thomas More, who were well conversant with Greek Classics, started to spread Renaissance ideas in England. Erasmus and More began to teach Greek and Latin classical literature in English Colleges and Universities beside Greek and Latin Testament.

The impact of Renaissance in English literature in 16th century was great and distinct and it all happened mostly during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I. There appeared in England at that time a good number of poets, essayists, prose writers and dramatists who were fully imbibed in the spirit of Renaissance. They were poets - Geoffrey Chaucer, Edmund Spenser; dramatists-Christopher Marlowe, William Shakespeare; essayist like Francis Bacon and many others. Chaucer who is called the father of English poetry reflected his Renaissance ideas in *Romance of Roses* and *Canterbury Tales*. He laid the foundation of modern English poetry. In the *Canterbury Tales* he told the stories of life. Here he did not hesitate even to ridicule with the clergies. It is a great literary work of English poetry. It told the stories of that time and stories of English life, living and thinking of that time. *Canterbury Tales* was popular to the readers during his life time as it is now. Chaucer had readers, reproducers, and imitators but not successors.

Francis Bacon, who is well-known for his philosophical essays, is a great Renaissanceman, he could rightly understand the spirit and philosophies of Renaissance. He, giving up Latin, started to write in English. He showed it to the English readers that English prose could be used as the vehicle of literature like Latin and French. Thomas More, who was more known for his *Utopia*, Edmund Spenser, who wrote the epic poem the *Faerie Queene* in dedication to Queen Elizabeth I, Ben Jonson (for *Volpone*) and Christopher Marlowe (for *Doctor Faustus*) were best known renaissance men and for spreading Renaissance ideas. They brought radical changes in forms and ideas of English Literature. Ben Jonson and Christopher Marlowe were great play wrights of the time and they reflected much of their Renaissance ideas and spirit in their writings.

Secondly we find William Shakespeare who is not only the greatest dramatist of English literature but also a great Renaissance man and “the

star of poets”. John Milton has been immortal for his great epic the Paradise Lost and the Paradise Regain. Because of his Renaissance awareness, Satan has been more luminous than the God. Milton was also a great prose writer and his Ariopagitica is an example of Renaissance rationalism. His total poetic and intellectual spirit was driven by the Renaissance spirit.

Establishment of Oxford and Cambridge University

One of the most important events of England in the Middle Age, was the establishment of two Universities—one at Oxford and other at Cambridge. Oxford and Cambridge University were established during this time for education of the clergies. The Universities played a great role in spreading education, giving the shape of the English intellectual life of the English people in the Middle Age. They contributed greatly to frame the social, religious and intellectual mind-set of England and English people.

In 1167 there was a quarrel between the king of England Henry II and the king of France. French king stopped training of English monks and priests in the Paris University. The Augustinian saints then started a theological school at the Christ Church of Oxford for education of the English monks and priests. With that theological school Oxford University started its works and became a World Symbol of learning in itself. In the Middle Age though it was started for theological education, in course of time, other branches of learning were also included in the university curriculum. It became the number one Secular University of England and that of the world. Cambridge University was started in a different way, but the motto and purpose was the same. Some expelled students of Oxford came to Cambridge and they started the University in the old Cambridge theological school in 1209. Almost all the English priests and monks who preached Christianity world over were taught either at Oxford or at Cambridge University.

Part V

England under the Plantagenet kings

Political history of England from 1154 to 1603, was most eventful. It was the time when despotic English kings gradually understood that they should listen to the voices of their subjects. Magna Carta of King John and Model Parliament of Simon Montfort were significant developments in the process of British Constitutional monarchy and Parliamentary democracy. Four major royal families ruled England during this period. They were the kings of the House of Plantagenet (1154-1399), the House of Lancaster (1399-1461), the House of York (1461-1485) and the House of Tudor (1485-1603). It was the formative stage of British democracy and constitutional monarchy. Britain separated herself from the Continent and established her own position in Europe.

The Plantagenet Kings : eight Plantagenet kings ruled England from 1154 to 1399. Most important events of this period were murder of Thomas a Becket, the Arch Bishop of Canterbury during the reign of Henry II. King Richard I went to Jerusalem to fight for the third Crusade. King John was compelled to sign the Magna Carta and John's humiliation by the Pope.

England severed relation with Normandy and France. Simon Montfort gave his model Parliament. King Edward tried to unite different feuding factions of the nobles and groups of politicians and agreed to give the country a constitutional government. In the Parliament the Commons took their seats and asserted their position. Hundred years war with France started. Black Death tolled one third of the people of England. Farmers revolted in 1381 for higher wages and other privileges. The fall of Richard II was another important event of this time.

Chapter one

Henry II (1154-1189)

Henry was the son of Matilda daughter of Henry I. Matilda was married to the Duke of Anjou. Anjou was a Dukedom (a province) of France. His claim on the Throne of England was on his right of descent. His predecessor Stephen also agreed in the treaty of Wallingford (1153) that after Stephen Henry would succeed him.

The Angevins (The kings or Dukes of Anjou) who ascended the throne of England are known as the Plantagenet Kings. Eight Plantagenet Kings ruled over England from 1154 – 1399. It is said that the father of Henry II Geoffrey liked to decorate his cap with a spring of broom plant. In Latin this plant is called Plantagenet. From the name of that plant, the family was named; in fact it was the nick name of Geoffrey.

Henry could realize that the weak administration of Stephen created anarchy in the kingdom which led to the civil war and made the position of the king weak. The feudal lords (barons and dukes) during Stephen were united and revolted against the king. Henry wanted to establish the authority of the king over the barons and dukes by curtailing their powers. He then thought of cleaving the privileges and powers of the Church and the Bishops. Next he wanted to get rid of the disturbing elements, particularly the mercenaries who were hired from abroad during Stephen. He not only sent those mercenaries back to their countries, but also those nobles who created problems. He forced King Malcolm IV of Scotland to surrender those lands he occupied during the civil war. Above all Henry wanted to establish the authority of the king over both the Church and the barons. First he brought discipline in the revenue administration by resuming the lands Stephen granted to the disturbing Barons. He stripped them off their power.

Quarrel with Thomas a Becket

Thomas a Becket was a close friend of Henry, with his advice he made several reforms in the Church. He made Becket the Archbishop of Canterbury. But being Archbishop he became a changed man. He turned into a great champion of the Church and privileges and rights of the Church.

William I had allowed the clergies some special privileges for example they were allowed to be tried by the canon laws in separate church courts. But the punishment in the canon law and church court was

inadequate. The clergies taking this advantage escaped from grave offences. This unfair discrimination between the clergies and the laymen created dissatisfaction among the people. The Church also claimed the right to try not only the priests and clergies but all other people whoever any way came with the affairs of the Church. Henry did not agree to this claim but Becket was obstinate in upholding the rights and privileges of the Church. The King was very much angry with Becket when he defied the king's law and king's jurisdiction. Becket was killed by order of the king on 29 December, 1170 in the Cathedral. The murder of Becket created serious repercussion both at home and abroad. Henry had to give in and amend his laws (Constitutions of Clarendon). It was remarked that if any dead man ever won a war, it was Becket. Henry had to agree that the verdict of the church court would be heard in the Court of the Pope as the appeal court.

Henry curbed the power of the barons. He reduced their military power and their authority in the local court. So long the king depended on the army and military assistance of the barons and feudal lords. He did not think it wise to depend solely on the feudal lords; he wanted to have his own army and military force. It was a very far-sighted policy of Henry. He imposed a new tax on the local lords which was called Scutage or Shield Money and exempted the local lords from the personal military services. With the money collected from the local lords he raised a professional militia of the king who would be under his direct control and would fight for the king. The king could also use that military force against the rebellious barons and feudal lords when they were arrogant. Without their military force, local lords would no more be a threat to the king.

So long the local lords were the local sheriffs, Henry appointed royal officers in their places. He made great changes in the judiciary and enacted a number of new laws. He imposed new taxes on his subjects and the feudal lords for military services. It was the time when the whole of Christian world was mad for the Crusades. Huge money and resources were raised for the Crusades and Crusaders, big armies were organized to liberate Jerusalem and other Holy lands from the Muslim occupation. Henry to raise money for the Crusades imposed a new tax "Saladin Tithe" on his subjects (Saladin was the Moslem Caliph of Bagdad who repulsed the Crusades.).

Henry was one of the most powerful and strong kings of Europe of his time. His empire was extended over England, Ireland, Scotland and half of northwestern part of France (he was king of England; over Lord of Ireland and Scotland; got Normandy and Maine from his mother; Anjou

and Touraine from his father; Pointou, Aquitaine, Gascony, Guiene from wife). He developed matrimonial diplomacy with the neighboring kings. He got his eldest son married with the daughter of the French king, gave two daughters in marriage – one to the king of Castile, another to the Duke of Saxony. But these measures did not give him any good result. Towards the end of his life he had problems with his own sons. His sons revolted against him. Though he could put down their rebellions, he died broken heart in 1188.

Richard I (1189-1199)

Henry II was succeeded to the throne of England by his son Richard I. Richard was a great warrior than a king. During his ten years of reign, he spent most of his time outside England leaving the business of the kingdom to a State Justiciar. He wanted to distinguish himself in the Crusades as a true Knight of the Cross. He raised money for the Crusades and actively took part in the 3rd Crusade. For his active participation in the Crusade, he earned great fame. For his bravery in the Crusade Richard earned the name, Richard the Lion Heart, and became an English Icon. His statue outside the Westminster Palace still tells us of that.

Richard himself went out with other Crusaders to liberate Jerusalem and other holy Lands from the Moslems. He could not recover Jerusalem from the Moslems, though he fought bravely. He was defeated by the Moslems and had to sign a treaty with Saladin, the Caliph of Bagdad. Many of the European Princes who were supposed to help him in the 3rd Crusade, worked against him. He got involved in quarrels with some European Princes in Palestine. He planned to return England through Germany. In Germany he was imprisoned by those people who opposed him in Jerusalem. They handed him over to the Emperor of Germany. But England got their king free at a cost of huge ransom. His younger brother John with the help of French king, during his absence from England in Palestine, planned to depose him from the throne. But Hubert Walter, the regent, frustrated the design of John. Richard forgave his brother John for his faithlessness. But later he was killed in a battle in 1199, while he was besieging the Castle of Chaluz.

King John (1199-1216)

John succeeded his elder brother Richard I on the throne of England. After the death of his elder Brother Richard I he crowned himself king of England. John had another brother Geoffrey and Richard had a minor son Arthur. According to heredity law, Arthur should have been the king. But the barons put his claim aside and made John the king. John was the choice of the barons.

King John is said to have been the worst of English kings. He was cruel, treacherous and very selfish. His reign is noted for three great quarrels – quarrel with the king of France, quarrel with the Pope and quarrel with Arthur. In all these quarrels he was defeated and disgraced.

John's quarrel with the King of France

By marrying Isabella, a married lady and wife of a French noble King John incurred displeasure of many French nobles who complained to the French king Philip against him. Philip was his overlord and asked him to appear before him, but John refused to appear before him. Philip then confiscated all his possessions in France for his disobedience. Philip took over Normandy, Anjou and other provinces which were his fiefs. Philip also took the side of those barons who supported the claim of Arthur on the throne of England. John imprisoned Arthur and later murdered him. This treacherous act of John made him more unpopular and his position more vulnerable. A good number of barons went against him for that.

John tried to get back his French possessions from Philip. He made an alliance with the Emperor Otto of Germany. Otto was his nephew and with his help he attempted to recover the lost possessions in France. With the help of Otto he marched against Philip, but their combined forces were defeated by Philip in the battle of Bouvines in 1214. The defeat was crucial for John and it ended all his hopes for recovery of French possessions.

Though John lost all his French possessions and was defeated at the hand of French king Philip, it was a very significant event for England and the English people. England and Englishmen gained greatly from this defeat. Since the Norman Conquest England and English people were being dominated by the French nobles and the Normans. French culture and language dominated in England and English life. The Norman nobles and barons did not consider England their homeland, they always thought that France was their homeland and England was their possession. They considered the English people inferior to them. The Norman kings also used to think that way. Now when relation with France was severed, they started to think that England is their home and they shall have to live in England. Normandy, Anjou or Maine were parts of France and people there were their enemies. Thus the Normans and the Englishmen were amalgamated in England and into one nation. Influence of French nobles and French language gradually diminished and English language and English nobles recovered their position.

John's quarrel with the Pope: On the death of Hubert Walter the Archbishop of Canterbury, the monks of Canterbury secretly elected

Reginald as the Archbishop and sent him to Rome to obtain the blessing of the Pope. When John came to know about it, he ignoring the election of Reginald, got John de Grey elected as the Archbishop. This election of John de Grey created a deadlock in Canterbury. An appeal was made to the Pope to settle the issue of election. The Pope setting both the election aside, appointed Stephen Langton as the Archbishop of Canterbury. King John refused to accept Langton as the Archbishop of Canterbury. Pope Innocent III forbade all religious services in the Churches of England as punishment under an interdict. King John also reacted against this interdict by attaching the properties of those clergies who obeyed the order of the Pope. Pope next excommunicated the king. But John remained as defiant as before. The Pope then deposed the king and asked the king of France Philip to carry out his order. King of France was waiting for a chance to humiliate John. King John then had to make a compromise with the Pope and agreed to accept Langton as the Archbishop. He surrendered to the Pope. Most humiliating part of the matter was that John went to the Pope, surrendered his crown to the Pope and took it back from him as his vassal. He also agreed to pay 1000 marks a year as tribute to the Pope.

The Magna Carta

The Magna Carta is a great landmark in the history of England and English people. It was for the first time that the rights of the people, feudal lords and the king were written in a form of charter. It was a check on the whim of the King. The king could not do what he liked; he had to obey the law of the Parliament.

The Barons and the Clergies were equally unhappy with the king John for his oppressive exaction of money. When he needed money he used to extract it from the feudal lords, and even from the clergies. The feudal lords and the Bishops in their turn extract that money from the villains or people. The King thought that by making peace with the Pope he had won over the support of the clergies, but the way he made peace with the Pope was a humiliation for the country and the nation. Thus for his iniquities the Barons and Clergies revolted against him. The Barons, who did not support him during his French expedition, met under the leadership of Archbishop Langton in St. Paul Cathedral in absence of the king and drafted the Magna Carta or the Great Charter. They besieged the King and forced him to sign it in 1215.

The Charter contained 63 clauses. They were all relating to local and personal grievances of the barons and land lords. The major clauses were:

- a. The Church shall be free, shall enjoy all its rights and privileges and shall have the freedom of electing the bishoprics.

- b. No freeman shall be punished without any trial under the law of the country. Right of Justice, should not be sold, denied or delayed. This clause provided the safeguards to personal liberty of the people.
- c. Feudal rates and dues shall be fixed on reasonable rate and no taxes or scutages should be levied without the approval of the Parliament (Common Council).
- d. The feudal lords shall treat their tenants leniently. They should extend to their tenants the similar rights and privileges as they had secured them from the king.
- e. The city of London and other towns shall enjoy their privileges; the traders shall enjoy the freedom of trade.

The Magna Carta has been highly acclaimed by many as the “The Bible of the English Constitution”. It has been also said to be the foundation of English Liberties. It has clearly said the relation between the king and the Barons. Winston Churchill called it a long list of privileges of the feudal lords from the king at the cost of the state and the people.

Chapter Two

Henry III (1216-1272)

King John died in 1216 when the country was in serious political turmoil. He was succeeded by his minor son Henry. He was only nine years old when he ascended the throne. During his minority two talented persons – first William Marshal and then Hubert de Burgh – were his regent. In history he is known as Henry III.

Being annoyed by the tyrannical rule of King John, towards the end of his rule, some of the Barons invited Louis of France to invade England. But with the death of the king, those Barons changed their mind; they wanted to see the new king. Louis invaded England but was defeated by William Marshal and Hubert de Burgh, and was forced to leave England. Hubert de Burgh wanted that no foreign king should rule England. England should be ruled by the English Kings only. This attitude of Hubert was not liked by the foreign nobles; they all started to work against him and caused his fall.

Henry's own rule: After the fall of Hubert, Henry took the administration of the country in his own hand. He went back to the old policy of giving importance to the French nobles and officials. He made Peter des Roches of Poitou his confidant which was disliked by the English nobles and Barons. Peter could not prevail upon the situation, he soon fell in disgrace. Henry's wife then brought some other foreigners; they were also disliked in England. Henry himself was pious, but was vain, irresolute and extravagant. His too much dependence on the French nobles and officials was widely criticized. The situation was further aggravated by the unscrupulous exaction of money by the Pope from England. The abject submission of King John to the Pope made England a vassal of the Pope. The Pope used to select all the Bishops of England which was utterly disliked even by the monks and Bishops, and the common people of England. It was a great humiliation for the whole nation. The Pope offered the Crown of Sicily for the son of Henry if he had borne the cost of the war. Henry levied new tax on the Barons for this war. The Barons refused to pay this tax and were united under the leadership of Simon de Montfort.

Simon de Montfort held a Parliament with all recalcitrant Barons at Oxford in June, 1258. The Parliament severely criticized the misadministration of the King, formed some committees to control the

King and operate administration. One of the major decisions of this Parliament was that all foreigners should be expelled from the important offices. The supporters of the king mockingly called it a Mad Parliament.

The Provisions of Oxford of June, 1258 was the first step to make the English King a Constitutional monarch. But it laid greater emphasis on making the administration a Baronial Oligarchy. Henry though promised to obey the Provisions of Oxford, deviated from his promise. The Barons then took up arms against the king and Simon de Montfort was made their Commander. In the battle of Lewes in 1264, Simon de Montfort defeated Henry and captured his son Edward. There was mediation between the King and Simon for the time being.

Simon became the de facto ruler and dictator of the country. He knew that he cannot always depend on the Barons, because if their interest was affected, they would go against him. He wanted to depend more on the people. To get the popular sympathy in his favour he called the Parliament. That was his famous Model Parliament which sat for the session in 1265. In this Parliament, Simon called beside the Barons, Nobles, Bishops and Knights, two citizen from some towns and two gentlemen from some boroughs. This is for the first time that the citizen of the towns and boroughs got the chance to share in the administration of their country. Simon basically was a native of Savoy of France, though his grandmother was an English princess (Daughter of the Earl of Leicester). He came to England to claim his inheritance. Henry III gave his sister in marriage to Simon. The English Barons were jealous of Simon's power and popularity. More over they did not like the representatives of the towns and boroughs to sit in the Parliament. Some of the Barons went against him and sided with the king. Meanwhile Prince Edward escaped from the prison. He organized those Barons who were against Simon, with their help he attacked Simon and at the battle of Evesham killed him.

Simon de Montfort is a great name in the history of British Parliament and British Constitutional Government. He showed his great talent of statesmanship in giving the outlines of British Parliamentary form of Government. He took the helm of the state when Henry III made a great mess of the state affairs. His alien origin ultimately went against him. After the death of Simon, Henry was restored to power again and remained in power till his death in 1272.

Edward I (1272-1307)

Edward was engaged in war in the Holy Land when Henry II died in 1272. He ascended the throne of England as Edward I. He was a much

better king than his father. He had both administrative and war experience before his accession to the throne of England. He ruled Gascony and the Marches of Wales during his father's life time. As a warrior he fought in Palestine for the Crusade. He fought a battle against Simon de Montfort, defeated and killed him. With these experiences he became king of England.

Edward I was the greatest of all the Plantagenets. He started his reign with three aims. (1) He wanted to unite the whole of British Isles and brought them under one rule. (2) Then he thought to consolidate the authority of the King by efficient administration and by curbing the powers and privileges of the Barons and the Church. (3) He also thought to give the people some share in the administration of the government and keep the Barons in check.

Edward's Wales policy: Wales was a vassal kingdom of England. Its feudal princes owed allegiance to the English Crown. Edward himself was also a feudal lord of Marches of Wales. Llywelyn a feudal king of Wales increased and consolidated his power during the chaotic reign of Henry III. Llywelyn and his brother David combined their forces and refused to owe allegiance to Edward when he ascended the throne of England. Edward invaded Wales, killed Llywelyn in a battle and captured David. David was later executed and Wales was annexed to England in 1284.

Edward enforced English law and administration in Wales. He declared his newborn son (Edward II) to be the Prince of Wales. From that time on the next heir to the British Throne is called the Prince of Wales.

Edward's Scotland Policy: Edward's policy towards Scotland was a little bit complicated. First he tries to unite Scotland with England by a matrimonial relation. After the death of Alexander III, the king of Scotland, his grand-daughter Margaret, the Maid of Norway, became the only heir to the throne. Alexander was Edward's brother-in-law. Edward wanted to get his son married with Margaret, the Maid, and unite the two kingdoms. But unluckily the Maid, a child of nine years, died on her voyage to Scotland from Norway. Then a number of claimants appeared for the crown of Scotland. John Balliol and Robert Bruce were the main claimants. They appealed to Edward for settlement of their dispute. Edward called all nobles of Scotland at Norham and made them to acknowledge him as their overlord and decided the dispute of crown in favour of John Balliol.

The Nobles of Scotland first thought that Edward's this over lordship would be purely formal. But Edward started to show his supremacy over the Scottish people and considered Scotland as his dependency. The Scottish people were disappointed when Edward directed that the appeal of the Scottish court should lie with the English court. They were very angry when Edward called Balliol to England to defend one of his decisions. The Scottish Nobles asked Balliol not to comply with the order of the king of England and severe relation with England. They also decided not to extend military support to the English King if such support is called for. About this time war broke out between England and France. Balliol and the Scottish Nobles supported France. This betrayal of Balliol and the Scottish Nobles infuriated Edward. He marched to Scotland to punish Balliol. He defeated the army of Balliol at Dunbar in 1296, deposed him and in his place an English regent was appointed with a council of English nobles. Thus Scotland became an English dependency.

The English regent and the English nobles did not treat the Scottish people properly which further wounded the Scottish sentiment. They were organized under a new leader Wallace and revolted against the English rule in Scotland. Wallace collected a big army and defeated the English in a battle in 1297 at Starling Bridge. Wallace became a national hero of the Scottish people and he organized the whole Scottish nation – nobles and peasants against England. This time Edward was scared seeing the might of Wallace. He himself came to Scotland with a big army to deal with Wallace. He defeated Wallace and took him as a captive to London for negotiation, but he was treacherously executed in London. The Scottish people held Edward responsible for this treachery, and remembered Wallace as a national hero and martyr.

After the death of Wallace Edward annexed Scotland with England, but the Scottish people again revolted under Robert Bruce. This Robert Bruce was the grandson of that Robert Bruce who claimed the Scottish Crown with Balliol. He killed his rival John Comyn, and crowned himself as the king of Scotland. Edward was marching to Scotland to quell the Scottish revolt for the third time, but on the way he died in 1307. The name of Robert Bruce is remembered with respect in the Scottish history. He continued his struggle for long against England

Edward's Model Parliament: It was a very bad time for Edward. He incurred the displeasure of the Barons, had quarreled with the king of France and the French army was on the boarder to invade England. Scotland under Wallace had revolted against England and took side with French King. The Welsh people had again revolted against Edward. The Royal treasury was empty. The Royal Army was afraid to face the French

army. Under such circumstances the King Edward was compelled to call the Parliament in session. The King this time honestly wanted cooperation from all classes of people. It was like that Parliament which Simon de Montfort called in 1265.

The Model Parliament sat in session in 1295. Who came to participate in the Parliament were : (1) the Spiritual Lords or Archbishop and Bishops; (2) Lay Peers as Barons, Earls and senior Nobles; (3) two Knights from each Shire; (4) two citizens from each city and boroughs; and (5) representatives from all Cathedral and Parish. It was called the Model Parliament because it formed the model upon which the British Parliament was later given the shape, though the Parliament was not divided into two houses at that time.

The main differences of the Model Parliament with that of Simon de Montfort were that : (1) It gave the lay-out of the future Parliamentary form of Government; (2) It included the lower clergies and other classes of people of the society; (3) Simon called the representatives of his own party in his model Parliament, but Edward called representatives irrespective of religious and political affiliation; (4) Since it was called by the King it had a legal basis and national character; (5) Simon's Parliament was a factional one. But it is true that the King had before him the model of Simon de Montfort, when he called for this Parliament.

The English Justinian: Edward is called the English Justinian. His contributions towards the legal system and administration were remarkable. He cut the power and privileges of the Barons and Earls and he equally curbed the privileges of the clergies by enacting some new laws.

1. **The Statute of Mortmain, 1279** : He forbade grant of any land to the Church without the consent of the king. As the Churches were exempted from many feudal dues, which affected the revenue of the king. The Statute limited the wealth of the Church. It aimed at preventing the fraudulent transfer of land to the Church to avoid some feudal obligation and dues.
2. **Circumspecte Agetis**: By this law he confined the Church Court strictly within the ecclesiastical matter and not to encroach the jurisdiction of the laws and courts of the crown.
3. **The Statute of Westminster III**: By this Statute he forbade the landlords the practice of sub-letting a portion of their land to sub-tenants. The Statute said that if any feudal tenant would sell, let or grant any part of their land, the receiver had to get it not from the

feudal tenant but from his overlord or the Crown. Its aim was to bring all the land holders under the direct control of the Crown.

4. **The Statute of Gloucester, 1278:** By this Statute Edward enquired into the title of the Barons under which he held the estate and enjoyed the feudal privileges. This checked the growth of jurisdiction of baronial courts, prevented the barons from acquiring new rights and privileges without the consent of the king.

Other Laws of Edward

The First Statute of Westminster

The Provisions of Magna Carta were re-enacted by this Law. It provided for the free election to the Parliament.

1. **The Statute of Winchester I :** This Statute made provisions for all freemen, free-holders, to possess arms according to their means and form a national militia and extend armed services (police services) to the king at time of need for law and order in the country. It made provisions for maintaining law and order in the country.
2. **The Westminster Statute II:** This Statute made some provisions for the land-holders to make conditional grant to others confining it to a particular family or line of succession.

Edward's Judicial Reforms: (a) He divided *Curia Regis* into three divisions— The Court of the King's Bench, (b) the court of the Exchequer and (c) the court of Common Pleas. For each court he appointed separate Judges and their staff.

Chapter Three

Edward II (1307-1327)

Edward II succeeded his father Edward I, the same year he died. He was polar opposite of his warrior and statesman father. He was neither a good statesman nor a good warrior. Edward I died on his way to invade Scotland. Edward II instead of following his father's expedition picked up quarrel with the Barons at home. Robert Bruce of Scotland, taking the advantage of internal troubles of England, consolidated his position and strength. He recaptured the lost castles one after another. Edward became very unpopular to the Englishmen for his policy towards Scotland. He at last set out to face Robert Bruce at Bannockburn in 1314. In that battle of Bannockburn Robert Bruce inflicted a crushing defeat on the English force. After that defeat Edward made several attempts to reconquer Scotland, but failed. He had to accept the defeat and agree to a humiliating treaty. This victory of Robert Bruce secured the Independence of Scotland.

His reign

Edward II was one of the most unpopular kings of England. He was idle, as a warrior hopeless and was always led by his illmotived favourites. The Barons became very annoyed with the king when he recalled Piers Gaveston a Gascon Knight whom his father banished from the country. He annoyed the Barons for many other reasons. The Barons and nobles decided to check the unilateral decision of the king. They drew up the following proposals for the king – (1) Piers Gaveston was to be banished again from the country and for life; (2) Senior posts of the government should be filled up in consultation with the Barons and the Nobles; (3) the king should not go to war or leave the country without their consent; and (4) the Parliament should be called for session minimum once a year. The king was compelled to accept all these proposals. Gaveston was apprehended and killed.

The step taken by the Barons and Nobles was rather a step backward, as the king was confined in the hand of some Barons and Nobles. The leader of these Barons and Nobles was the Earl of Lancaster. Lancaster's high-handedness irritated other Barons. By this time, the king could have gained over some of the powerful Barons. He then took arms to protect his favorites against those Barons who compelled him to accept the Ordinances. Edward defeated Lancaster at the Borough Bridge battle in

1322 and held Lancaster as a prisoner. Later Lancaster was beheaded as a traitor.

The Parliament of York

After the death of Lancaster Edward, at the instance of Dispensers, called the Parliament at York. It revoked the Ordinances of the baronial clique and freed the king from the obligation of those ordinances. Most important aspect of the York Parliament was that it laid the foundation of the Constitutional Principles. It said that what affects the king and the people of the realm, shall be discussed in, and approved by, the Parliament with the consent of the prelates, earls, barons and the commonalty of the realm and shall be enacted as law. The Parliament thus admitted the Commons to take part in the process of Legislation of the Parliament.

The fall of Edward

Edward became so unpopular that even his French queen Isabella went against him. Isabella with her paramour Mortimer conspired to depose the king. The Parliament that met in session at Westminster declared the king unfit to rule the country and asked him to resign in favour of his son. He was confined in the Berkeley Castle and was executed there in 1327. Thus ended the inglorious reign of Edward II.

Edward III (1327-1377)

Edward III was made the king when he was only fifteen years old. A council of Regency was formed with the Earl of Lancaster to run the administration. First three years of his reign was virtually run by his mother Isabella and her paramour Mortimer.

Mortimer had troubles with Scotland from the beginning. Robert Bruce was determined to extort a formal recognition of Independence of Scotland from England. Taking the advantage of minor age of the king and internal problems of England, Robert Bruce carried on raids on the England's borders. Mortimer sent the young king to Scotland with a large army. But the young king had not the courage to fight a war with Bruce. He on the advice of Mortimer signed a treaty with Bruce and recognized Scotland as an Independent Kingdom. This treaty was known as the treaty of Northampton. The treaty of Northampton made Mortimer very unpopular in the country. The people were not happy with him from the beginning for his relation with the queen. The young king also became unhappy with Mortimer. Mortimer was imprisoned and was killed in 1330.

Edward's own reign

After the death of Mortimer, Edward himself took up the rein of the kingdom. He was a very ambitious king. He wanted to win fame both at home and abroad as an illustrious monarch. He therefore took up two adventurous steps – expedition against Scotland and then a war against France. Both his adventures failed disastrously.

At home Edward's policy for increase of trade and commerce with the continent was successful. His policy with the local lords was also fair. He was not happy with the Treaty of Northampton which recognized Scotland as an Independent Kingdom. It was also a humiliation for the English people. He was waiting for a chance to deal with Scotland. After the death of Robert Bruce his minor son David became the king of Scotland. But Balliol's son Edward Balliol another claimant of the throne of Scotland, with the help of Edward III of England, deposed David and occupied the throne. He accepted the suzerainty of England and surrendered some of the castles and land of southern part of the kingdom to England. But the Scottish people loved independence, they were not ready to bow down their head to the Englishmen, they drove Balliol out from the Scottish throne. Edward this time took the side of Balliol, invaded Scotland defeated the rebellious Scots and restored Balliol to the throne of Scotland. David Bruce took shelter in France.

The situation in Scotland again went against Balliol, as a war between England and France broke out. The French king Philip VI invaded two English provinces – Gascony and Guinne to drive all the Englishmen from these two provinces. More over he incurred displeasure of Edward of England by giving shelter to David Bruce. Edward diverted all his strength and attention to France. By this chance Scotland revoked their allegiance to England and saved their Independence. David Bruce came back from exile and sided with the king of France in war against England. David attacked the northern boarder of England, but was repulsed by the English army under the Queen Philippa in 1346.

Hundred years' war with France

Though it is called the Hundred Years War, it was not a continuous war for hundred years. The war broke out in May, 1337 during the reign of Edward III and continued intermittently for nearly hundred years till June, 1453 during the reign of Henry VI. In other words, during this period of hundred years the relation between England and France was not at all friendly. They were always engaged in wars, they fought a series of wars, though there was some peace time also.

The bitter relation between the two royal houses – the House of Plantagenets of England and the House of Valois of France were the basic reasons of this war. There were three phases of these wars – (1) 1337 to 1360 which covers the reign of Edward III and the wars of this time are called Edwardian wars, (2) the Caroline wars 1369 – 1389, and (3) the last phase or the Lancastrian wars was from 1413 – 1453.

The War with France had many reasons. Of them primogeniture claim was on the one hand and political and economic reasons were on the other. Edward III was the son of Isabella and Isabella was the daughter of Philip IV king of France. She was the only surviving heir to the French throne, after the death of his brother Charles IV, who died without a male issue. Isabella claimed the throne of France. Edward III claimed the throne of France as the son of Isabella. But the French nobles refused to recognize this primogeniture claim. The French contended that by their Salic law, female heirs were excluded from succession to the crown. But Edward maintained that though the female could not succeed to the throne, they could transit succession over to their male issues.

England held two provinces of France namely Gascony and Guenne. Philip VI forfeited these two provinces on the plea that Edward being a vassal of France had disobeyed the order of the French king. The French king had tried to drive all the Englishmen from these two provinces. He further irritated Edward by interfering into the Scottish affairs and giving shelter to the Scottish king Robert Bruce.

The French king threatened to stop the English wool trade in France. French navy created problems for the English trading ships in the channel. The English navy was frequently coming in confrontation with the French navy. The English wanted to get the control over the channel in the interest of their trade in France and other European countries. The English people were not ready to lose their commercial interest in France.

In the early part of the war, Edward III had two remarkable victories – the victory of the naval battle of Sluys in June, 1340 and the victory of Crecy in August, 1346. In the battle of Sluys, the English navy could destroy the French navy and took the control of the channel and stopped the French ever to attack the English shore. In 1347 English army besieged Calais and captured it. Edward followed this victory and his second campaign began in 1355 under the leadership of his son the Black Prince. He inflicted a crashing defeat on the French army in the battle of Poitiers. It was a great victory for the English, the king of France John II was captured along with his 17 lords, 13 counts, 5 viscounts and over 100 knights. Casualties on the French side were more than 2500. In this battle the Black Prince showed his gallantry. Black Prince was called so

because of his black armours actually he was not black. He always put on black armors. He was the eldest son of Edward. The French were compelled to sign a treaty. The treaty which was signed between Edward and the French king, was known as the Treaty of Bretigny. By this treaty England got a huge ransom for the release of the king of France and his lords, counts and others. Edward gave up his claim for the throne of France, but retained Calais. In Scotland also the Scots were defeated at the Nevelle's Cross in 1346. But later Edwardian wars with France were not all successful. For example the battle of La Rochelle was a disaster for the English.

The Black Death

The black Death was a terrible plague which devastated a greater part of Europe in 1346-7 and it came to England in 1348-49. It swept away one third of the population of England. The poor working class, villagers and villains were the main victims of this calamity. It affected so much that for want of labour force agrarian economy of England fell flat. Feudal lords had to face serious economic loss as the cost of labour went high. They had to keep most of their land fallow. They changed their use of land from cultivation to cow and sheep rearing pastures which required less labour. The situation was so grave that the Parliament had to go for labour wage control legislation in 1351 (Statute of Labourers). Despite all these odds at home Edward carried on his military expeditions in France.

Development of the British Parliament

The reign of Edward III is particularly remarkable for the development of the British Parliament. During his reign the British Parliament took its modern shape. The king to have the popular support gave a number of concessions to the Parliament. He surrendered many of his legislative and tax imposing authorities to the Parliament. The Barons and Earls talked of their interest in the parliament. The Archbishops and Bishops placed the demand of their privileges. There was none to talk of the problems of the common people and protect their interest. During this time the Parliament was virtually divided into two houses – the house of the Lords and the house of the Commons. The Temporal and Spiritual Peers formed the House of Lords. The Temporal Peers were Barons, Peers and Earls, and the Spiritual Peers were Archbishops, Bishops and others from the clergies. The Knights, representatives of Boroughs and Cities formed the House of Commons.

Edward's relation with the Pope

Edward had quarreled with the Pope and the Bishops. The Pope of Rome at that time lived at Avignon in France. From 1309 to 1377 the Pope

resided in Avignon instead of Rome. The Avignon Papacy was noted for their greed, notoriety and corruption. The Pope was under the influence of the French King. Since the English people were at war with France, the English people and the English king did not like the Pope and his decisions. The Parliament by Statute stopped the power of the Pope to appoint his nominees in England. The Parliament also passed laws that no order of the English court should go to the Papal court for appeal hearing. There were widespread accusation against the clergies for their avarice and deviation from spiritual life. Many of them held large estates and lived idle and voluptuous life. The Parliament curtailed many of their privileges. The king gave the Parliament authority to trim the privileges of the Bishops and clergies. He did not take this responsibility on his person. All these steps contributed greatly to the reformation of the English Church later.

Edward needed money for his military expeditions to France. For that he needed the support of the Parliament and the support of the Barons. He also wanted the support of the people for raising money for the war. He therefore included the people representatives in the Parliament. For all these purposes he let the Parliament to be more effective. He wanted the general people with him in the war with France. Hence he had to give concessions to the Barons and traders for both money and support.

Richard II (1377-1399)

Richard was the grandson of Edward III and the son of the Black Prince. Edward III had six sons (Edward the Black Prince, the eldest; William the second, died earlier; Lionel, 3rd and the Duke of Clarence; John of Gaunt, 4th and Duke of Lancaster; Edmund, 5th and Duke of York and 6th was the Duke of Gloucester). Of them the Black Prince was the eldest, but he died before his father in 1376. The primogeniture law made Richard the King and he was crowned as Richard II. Richard was a mere boy when he ascended the throne (ten years old). A strong council of regency, headed by the uncle of the king John of Gaunt, actually ran the administration of the country. After the death of the Black prince and the king Edward III, John of Gaunt became very powerful. But he earned bad reputation as an oppressive ruler.

The condition of England was deplorable during the last few years of Edward's reign. The war with France, Black Prince's heavy debts for helping Pedro of Spain left England in both financial and political turmoil. The Black Prince was a great warrior, his death created some adverse reaction in the English army. French took this opportunity and dared to plunder the English coast. The Scots again revolted and created disturbance on the northern boarder. The war with France did not bring

the desired profits from France. The people were heavily taxed for the war which created dissatisfaction among the people. The Black Death severely affected the agrarian economy of England. The serfs and the peasantry suffered most in the Black Death and they were on the verge of ruin. More over they were miserable for over taxation. All these situations drove the peasants to rise in revolt in 1381.

The Peasants Revolt of 1381

The Peasants Revolt was the most important event during the early part of the reign of King Richard II. In the Black Death about one third of the rural peasantry died. The labour force particularly agricultural labour of the country was seriously affected. There was a dirth of labour for agriculture. The wages of labour went up very high which affected the interest of the feudal lords. The feudal lords, to protect their interest, passed by the Parliament the Statute of Labourers to control the serfs and the peasants. The Statute brought the peasants under certain obligations. The feudal lords could exact free services from the peasants, which the peasants did not like. The tyrannical oppression of the landlords made the peasants further agitated, particularly the oppression of John of Gaunt. The government in 1380, to raise money for the war, imposed a new tax on every citizen of the country above 15 years. This new tax was known as Poll-tax which was resented by the serfs and the peasants, because they were already over taxed. The tax-collectors were oppressive and there were frequent clashes between the tax-collectors and the peasants. The insulting behavior of a tax-collector with the daughter of Wat Tyler a Kentish peasant ignited the revolt.

The peasants of Kent and Essex were united under the leadership of Wat Tyler and Jack Straw. They rose in revolt and burnt the manor houses, destroyed the courts, killed dishonest lawyers and did all sorts of atrocities on the feudal establishments. They killed the Archbishop of Canterbury Simon Sudbury who was at that time Lord Chancellor of the king. John Wycliff's followers who were known as Lollards also instigated the peasants to rise against the corrupt Clergies and oppressive landlords. There was another clergyman to inspire the peasant, and he was John Ball. John Ball was against the oppressive landlords, lawyers and corrupt clergies. He asked the aristocrats of that time the famous question, "When Adam delved and Eve span who was then the gentleman?"

The rebels came to London in large number, attacked the palace of John of Gaunt and burnt it. They surrounded the Tower, the king's castle and threatened the King to come to terms. The king Richard faced the rebels with courage and promised them to redress their problems and

fulfill their demands. The Mayor of London William Walworth came to face the rebels in favour of the king. He had some hot altercation with Wat Tyler and at one point he pulled down Wat Tyler from his horse and killed him. The death of Wat Tyler created confusion among the rebels. They dispersed and went back to their homes. Richard could not keep his promise he made with the rebels at Mile End under the pressure of the Barons and nobles. He promised that he would abolish serfdom and that he would pardon the rebels, but no clemency was shown to the rebel leaders. The feudal lords after suppression of the rebellion started to take revenge; they hanged most of the rebel leaders. Serfdom gradually became less effective and was ultimately extinct.

Truce with France

Richard took the government of the country in his own hand in 1389 and first started to run the government as a constitutional monarch. But soon he became very unpopular for his special favours to some particular courtiers and nobles. He lost support in the parliament. His uncle John of Gaunt by this time went against him. Richard wanted to make some compromise with France and he married a French Princess. But this marriage was not accepted by the English nobles and by the Parliament. Though the marriage could make peace for some time, it could not end the war. Richard made some punitive expedition against Scotland an ally of France, but that was not also successful.

Richard's rule and his fall

Richard was not a warrior like his father or grand father. But as a young king he showed enough courage to face the peasants Rebellion. He was basically a weak but cruel ruler. He earned unpopularity for his misrule and cruelty. He distrusted his nobles and the feudal lords. He took some of the nobles into confidence and showed special favours to them. His chief favourite was Robert de Vere, the Earl of Oxford, whom he made the Duke of Ireland. His favourite was Michael de la Pole whom he made Earl of Suffolk. The English nobles disliked them both and requested the king to dismiss them. The king did not comply with their request. The nobles then, under the leadership of the Duke of Gloucester, formed a strong regency committee to control the king. The king defied this committee and started to run the country autocratically. The king took arms against those nobles who tried to confine him, but was defeated. Those nobles were charged of treason and were executed. Richard tried to win over some of the nobles, but that plan also failed.

In 1399 Richard with his favourites and knights went to visit Ireland. In absence of the king Bolingbroke, son of John of Gaunt who was

banished from the country by Richard, came back to England. He had a hidden desire to become king of England. On coming back he organized his supporters against the king. Most of the nobles came under his banner and supported him. Bolingbroke almost without resistance occupied the country. Richard when returned from Ireland found himself helpless and surrendered to Bolingbroke on 19 August, 1399 on condition that his life would be spared. He was imprisoned and kept in the Tower of London. Bolingbroke was not the next man to be the king of England according to primogeniture law. But the Parliament keeping aside the hereditary law elected Bolingbroke the king. On 13 October, 1399 Bolingbroke was crowned as Henry IV.

The fate of Richard II was not clearly known after his imprisonment. He was shifted from the Tower of London to the Pontefract Castle. He was either killed there or died there of starvation. The death of Richard and the accession of Bolingbroke as Henry IV heralded greater troubles in the country and the War of Roses followed. With the death of Richard the monarchy of the House Plantagenet ended, though Henry IV was the son of John of Gaunt, the 4th son of Edward III (he was also a Plantagenet).

Part VI

England under the House of Lancaster

Three kings – Henry IV, Henry V and Henry VI - of the House of Lancaster ruled England from 1399 to 1461. Bolingbroke became king as Henry IV, by the Parliament. Since some nobles showed sympathy for Richard II, his execution was hastened. The position the Parliament was strengthened and Parliament got the power of taxation. The revolutionary Lollards were suppressed, War with France renewed. The patriotism of a French farmer girl Joan of Arc led the French army against the English and defeated the English army in the Battle of Castillon. The Hundred Year's War with France ended during Henry VI. The War of Roses started.

England under the House of York

Three Kings of the House of York ruled England from 1461 to 1485; they were Edward V and Richard III. Richard III was accused to have illegally ascended the throne. The most heinous crime of his reign was his killing the young king and his brother. Henry Tudor killed Richard III in the battle at Bosworth and occupied the throne of England.

Chapter One

Henry IV (1399-1413)

Bolingbroke duke of Hereford and Lancaster became the king of England by the decision of the Parliament under the title Henry IV. The Parliament kept aside the law of hereditary and selected Bolingbroke for the throne of England. Bolingbroke was crowned on 13 September, 1399. His right to the throne, according to the principle of primogeniture, was inferior to the right of Edmund Mortimer, son of Lionel and Earl of March. The decision of the Parliament strengthened his position. And he was made a constitutional monarch. It was a landmark in the history of England that the Parliament could take a decision at the time of national crisis by nominating a king.

The accession of Henry IV to the throne was possible because the Parliament was at that time dominated by the Lancastrians. It was a triumph of the party struggle and it opened dynastic quarrel which led to the War of Roses.

The reign of Henry was not peaceful at all. Initially he had to face a number of revolts and uprisings. A group of the nobles, who had some sympathy for Richard II, were secretly plotting to overthrow Henry. But the intrigue was exposed by the intriguers and they were put down. This intrigue hastened the execution of Richard. Next trouble came from Wales. Owen Glendower a landlord of Wales rose in revolt against the king and declared himself the Prince of Wales. Glendower could not be subdued until his death. There were problems from the Scotland. The Scots invaded northern boarder of England. Henry Percy, the Earl of Northumberland and his son Hotspur defeated the Scot invaders and held a good number of them prisoner. The Earl of Northumberland and his sons (The Percys) were strong supporters of Henry; they fought against the Scots for him. But they revolted when Henry refused to compensate the loss they had incurred for the war against the Scots. Henry further provoked them when he demanded to handover the Scottish prisoners to him. Henry planned to deprive them of the profits of ransom for the war prisoners. The Percys then revolted against Henry and made an alliance with Glendower of Wales and rebels of Scoland. Henry dealt with the rebellion of the Percys in stern hand, he defeated and killed Hotspur in a battle at Shrewsbury in 1403. Henry Percy continued his revolt against

Henry, but he was also killed in another battle at Bramham Moor in 1408. With the death of Henry Percy other rebellions were easily put down.

Henry and the Parliament

Henry knew it well that it was the Parliament which made him the King. He knew it also that the Parliament could throw him away. He therefore always tried to keep the Parliament in humour. More over he needed money for the wars against the rebels. The nobles and the members of the Parliament took this advantage. They increased the power of the Parliament and put some restrictions on the discretion of the king particularly in selecting the ministers, the Parliament also cut the household expenditures of the king. The Commons secured the right of taxation.

Henry and the Church

The Church supported Henry to secure his throne. He wanted to get sympathy of the Church and the clergies in his favour. The Lollards a revolutionary group, who preached against the corruptions of the Church and the clergies, became very loud against the Church and clergies for their corruption and luxurious life. Henry took the side with the Church. He passed an act in the Parliament to suppress the Lollards. By the Statute *Heretico Comberendo* anybody criticizing the established creed of Church and heretics could be tried and could be ordered to be burnt alive when found guilty. This was for the first time in England that a law was enacted for stopping criticism of Church and religion.

Last few years of Henry were marked by his serious health problems. He was suffering from some ailment probably from leprosy and died in 1413 and was succeeded by his son.

Henry V (1413-1422)

Henry V, son of Henry IV ascended the throne of England on 20 March, 1413 at the age of 27. By that young age he proved to be a great soldier and a shrewd statesman. He had two objectives before him to fulfill. He first wanted to raise the glory of his family the Lancastrian dynasty and then establish himself as a great monarch of England by conquering some foreign territory. Secondly he tried to uphold the prestige of the Church by dispelling the differences among the clergies and suppressing the Lollards who were very critical about the Church and the clergies.

Suppression of the Lollards

Sir John Oldcastle, a close friend of his father, was a leader and staunch supporter of the Lollards. He refused to give up his heretical opinions about the Church; he was, therefore, arrested and condemned to prison in

the Tower of London. But he by some means escaped from the Tower. The Lollards, having their leader imprisoned, became desperate to take revenge. They plotted to kill the king. But Henry nipped all the plots in the bud. Oldcastle was caught and was executed. With the death of Oldcastle, the movement of the Lollards gradually died out.

Renewal of War with France

Henry's next objective was to go to war again and revive the war with France. He like Edward III claimed the throne of France. His French Campaign was different from that of Edward III. Edward had reason to attack France (French navy attacked English navy and the French king gave shelter to the rebel Scottish king), but Henry's campaign was an act of aggression. He had some political design behind it. If he could conquer some foreign territory that would heighten his position. Any foreign expedition would unite the quarreling English nobles and lords and they would again gather around him. It would strengthen the position of the Lancastrians on the throne of England.

The situation in France was chaotic at that time and it was favorable for Henry. The French king Charles VI was hopeless and lunatic. The people of France wanted to get rid of a lunatic king and some nobles invited Henry to attack France. Henry landed on the shore of France in 1415 and occupied Harfleur after a strong resistance by the French army. But his army was reduced by disease and war and he had to retire for the time being to Calais. On his way he won another victory at Agincourt. Henry's these two military victories raised his prestige in Europe and strengthened his position at home. The nobles who were against the Lancastrians were now silenced.

Henry's second campaign to France was in 1417. He occupied the whole of Normandy this time. The Burgundians and his other allies of France joined him. The French king was compelled to conclude a treaty with him and agreed to give his daughter in marriage to Henry. This treaty was known as the treaty of Troyes. It was agreed that Henry would succeed the French king after his death. Meanwhile Henry would rule France by a regent. Henry returned to England leaving his brother Duke of Clarence as his regent. The treaty of Troyes was the highest achievement for any English king in the Hundred Years War with France. Henry married Catherine the daughter of the king of France on 2nd June, 1420 and was declared the next heir to the French Crown. But his success did not last for long. In 1421 Henry returned to England. Many of the French nobles including Dauphin refused to accept the treaty of Troyes because it denied the Dauphin's claim to the French Crown. Fighting started anew. The Duke of Clarence was defeated and killed in a battle

with the French army. At the news of this defeat Henry started his third campaign to France in 1422. He recovered a great portion of Normandy, but his victory was cut off by his sudden death on 31 August, 1422.

Henry VI (1422-1461)

Henry VI was crowned on 31 August, 1422 as the king of England when he was only a boy of nine months. He succeeded his father, Henry V. He was both King of England and the King of France. After the death of his grandfather (mother's father) Charles VI of France, he inherited the throne of France on 21 October, 1422 two months after his coronation in Westminster. His uncle John the Duke of Bedford was appointed his protector and regent of France. In absence of the Duke of Bedford, his brother Humphrey the Duke of Gloucester, was the protector of Henry. Henry's claim on the throne of France was the right of hereditary according to the treaty of Troyes.

Henry's uncle Duke of Bedford was in France as his regent and was conducting the war with France. He pursued the expedition which Henry V started in France. He was a brave soldier and won victories in two battles one at Cravant another at Verneuil. He brought under English subjugation a greater portion of north France. After the death of Charles VI of France, Charles of Dauphin and the nobles of the southern France revolted. They refused to accept the treaty of Troyes. Duke of Bedford decided to invade southern France.

Joan of Arc

On his way to south Bedford laid siege on Orleans. In a battle at Herrings the French army was beaten. At this time Joan of Arc, a peasant girl with extraordinary martial capability appeared in the scene. She claimed to have the instructions from God to save France from the English occupation. She claimed that from her childhood she used to hear supernatural voices. She organized the French peasants and inspired them against the English. The French people were charmed at the patriotism and piety of Joan of Arc, they gathered under her banner. She led the French army in men's attire and the army believed her to be a prophetess and a saver of France. They followed her order and fought courageously against the English. She helped Dauphin to be crowned as Charles VII. Joan of Arc was captured by the English army. She was tried as a witch and was burnt alive. Joan of Arc left great impact among the French people. She infused in them the spirit of patriotism. From that time on the English were being beaten back in France.

The end of Hundred Years' War

The English army withdrew from the south. By this time there developed some misunderstanding between Bedford and Burgundy. Burgundy offered some peace term with England. The French offered the whole of Normandy and Gascony to England on condition that England would give up the claim on the throne of France. Bedford did not agree to these terms. It was a mistake for England. Meanwhile Bedford died which was another great loss for England. Burgundy denounced his alliance with England and joined the French king. At home the nobles of England were divided into two groups one group supported the war with France and other wanted peace. King Henry himself was also in favour of peace.

In 1451 the French army conquered Gascony. The French gradually conquered all the French territories which the English held. With the defeat of the English army in the battle of Castillon, the Hundred Years' War with France ended. This battle was fought on 17 July, 1453, and French general Jean Bureau defeated and killed John Talbot, the Earl of Shrewsbury who led the English army.

Henry's Rule

In 1437 Henry's mother died and he was declared to be of age (16 years) to assume the Royal Power. He was pious, shy and averse to war with France. He showed favour to a group of nobles which ultimately divided the courtiers and the Parliament. Humphrey the Duke of Gloucester and Richard, Duke of York, were strongly in favour of continuation of war with France. On the other hand Cardinal Beaufort and William de la Pole were for the peace with France. The Cardinal advised the king to make peace with France and marry the French princess Margaret of Anjou, a niece of the queen of the French King Charles VII. Henry agreed to the proposal. This was not liked by Humphrey, the Duke of Gloucester.

Henry VI was king of England for two terms from 22 August, 1422 to 4 March, 1461 and then from 30 October to 11 April, 1471. Ten years between these two terms during the Wars of Roses, Edward IV of York, was the king. Henry died in the Tower of London on 22 May, 1471.

The disputes between the two groups reached an alarming height. Humphrey was arrested for treason against the king and was sent to prison where he died. About this time the Cardinal also died. Richard, the Duke of York became the leader of the opposition. The disunity at home weakened the expedition in France. The rise of Joan of Arc and her patriotic efforts raised the national feeling and moral of the French people. The French were determined to beat the English back.

The disaster of the English army in France and loss of French territory and his misrule at home made Henry most unpopular king. More over his occasional insanity created great disorder throughout the country (Of his 39 years reign he was insane for one year. It was said that Henry inherited this insanity from his maternal grandfather Charles VI, the mad king of France). During his insanity the nobles did whatever they pleased.

The people of Kent rose in revolt under the leadership of Jack Cade, an Irish adventurer. It was a political movement against the abuse of power by the king and his officials. The rebels demanded to the king the expulsion of his corrupt and naughty nobles from their positions. The rebels defeated the troops of the king and came up to London. They carried on all kinds of atrocities in London city for which the Londoners turned against them. In a fierce fight near the London Bridge, the rebels were beaten and persuaded to go back. They were assured of general pardon. Jack Cade again tried to revolt but was killed.

The revolt of 1450 under Jack Cade, was different from that of Wat Tyler of 1381. Jack Cade wanted to create a pressure on the king for his misrule and for expulsion of his corrupt nobles, while Wat Tyler wanted a social reform and redress the oppression of the landlords and unscrupulous extortion of money from the poor peasants.

The Wars of Roses

The Wars of Roses were a series of wars between the House of Lancaster and the House of York for the Crown of England. Both the Houses descended from King Edward III, the Plantagenet King. John of Gaunt, the 4th son of Edward III, was the founder of the House of Lancaster. The House of York was founded by a union of the descendants of the 3rd and 5th son of Edward III. King Edward III took a policy of controlling all the big baronial powers by matrimonial relations among his sons, daughters and their descendants. Though the policy served his purposes, later such relation became bitter among his descendants and gave birth to the Wars of Roses. The two Houses fought tooth and nail for the Crown. These wars were called the Wars of Roses because the White Rose was made the War Emblem of the Yorkists and the Red Rose for the Lancastrians.

The wars of Roses were perhaps most important events of the reign of Henry VI. In 1455 Henry regained his sanity. The Yorkists nobles first tried to control the Regency, and then to get the Crown. The war started in 1455 with the battle at St. Alban. The wars continued for long 30 years in three phases. In the battle at St. Alban the Yorkists were victorious, Somerset was slain and the king Henry was captured by Richard of York. Richard claimed the Crown but a compromise was reached that Henry

would remain king so long he was alive, and after him Richard would become king. But this compromise formula was not accepted by the queen of Henry as it excluded her son from succession. She collected a big army and defeated the Yorkists in a battle at Wakefield in 1460 and Richard of York was killed in the battle. Edward, the son of Richard of York, was determined to take revenge of his father and continue the Wars. Edward defeated the Lancastrians at Mortimer's Cross and marched to London. On the other way Margaret defeated another group of the Yorkists in the second battle at St Alban in 1461 and she also proceeded to London. The people of London welcomed Edward and but turned their face from Margaret. The Parliament proclaimed Edward King and Edward ascended the throne of England under the name Edward IV, he vowed not to have coronation ceremony until Henry VI and his queen were executed or exiled from the country (his official coronation took place in June 1461 in London, though he was proclaimed king on 4 March, 1461).

The second phase of the Wars

The second phase of the Wars started after the accession of Edward IV on 4 March, 1461. Richard Neville, the Duke of Warwick was with Edward with all his support. Warwick was the most powerful man at that time with the largest estates and military troops. Edward IV and Warwick marched to the north with a large army and in the battle of Towton near York they won a decisive victory over the Lancastrians and the supporters of the queen Margaret in 1461. The battle of Towton was the biggest military engagement in the Wars of Roses (40,000/men took part in the battle, 20,000 were killed in the battle in a single day, the largest casualties on English soil). The Lancastrians were routed and most of their leaders were slain in the war field. Queen Margaret and Henry fled to Scotland. Queen Margaret, with the help of Scotland and France, tried to mobilize against the Yorkists, but was again defeated at Hedgely Moor and Hexam. Henry was taken prisoner and was sent to the Tower of London. Margaret fled to France.

Edward IV was safe for the time being (4 March, 1461 to 02 October, 1470). But he could not be peaceful for long. Soon Warwick went against him and was plotting to overthrow him. He wanted an obedient king, but Edward was not always obedient. Warwick was at that time so powerful that he could make and unmake the king and was called the king maker. Warwick shifted his alliance from Edward IV to Margaret and went to France to meet the queen. He helped the queen to organize a large army with the French help and came back to England with her. They forced Edward to leave England and freed Henry VI from the Tower. Henry was

restored to the throne of England (on 30 October, 1470) again. This time Henry was on the throne for only few months (30 October, 1470 to 11 April, 1471). Edward came back soon reinforced by the Burgundy, defeated and killed Warwick in the battle of Barnet in 1471. Henry was captured and sent to the Tower. The Yorkists again defeated the Lancastrians and the supporters of the queen in the battle of Tewkesbury in May, 1471. The battle of Tewkesbury was a decisive one; in this battle Edward the son of Henry IV was killed. Margaret was captured and was sent to the Tower. Henry died in the Tower on 22 May, 1471. It was said that he died on hearing the news of death of his son Edward.

End of the Wars of Roses

The last phase of the Wars of Roses was fought during the reign of Richard III, the brother of Edward IV in 1485. The Lancastrians, under the Henry Tudor, defeated and killed Richard III in the battle of Bosworth. Henry Tudor then ascended the throne of England and ended the Wars of Roses.

Chapter Two

England under the House of York

Edward IV (1461-1483)

Edward IV became king of England by defeating Henry VI's army in the battle of Mortimer's Cross. He was king of England for two terms. First he ascended the throne of England during the Wars of Roses on 4 March, 1461 and continued till 2 October, 1470. Then he again ascended the throne and remained king from 11 April 1471 to 9 April 1483.

Edward IV was the son of Richard of York who was killed in the battle at Wakefield. Richard was a rival of Somerset. His right on the throne was based on the right of conquest, and later supported by the Parliament. He was the first king of the House of York (three kings of the House of York ruled England).

Edward IV was a strong king. He controlled the rapacious lords and nobles. He protected the traders and peasants from the unscrupulous extortion of the greedy nobles and lords. He brought back peace and order in the country. He ruled the country almost independently of the Parliament. By confiscating the estates and properties of the Lancastrians he amassed a huge wealth. He also raised money from the people in the name of *Benevolence* (it was free gift to the king by the subjects). Edward IV went back to a new monarchy which was supported by the middle class and the traders

Edward V (9 April, 83–25 June, 1483)

Edward IV died leaving behind two minor sons. The eldest one was only 12 years old. He became king as Edward V on 9 April, 1483. The younger one was made Duke of York. Their uncle Richard, Duke of Gloucester, became the guardian of the minor king Edward V. Richard was not happy with the mother of the minor king and her relations. He proclaimed himself to be the Protector of the realm, and then claimed the crown on a flimsy ground that Edward V was not the legitimate son of Edward IV. Some of the Courtiers supported him in his evil design. He illegally ascended the throne on 26 June, 1483 as Richard III.

Richard III (1483-1485)

After his accession to the throne, Richard arranged to murder the Young king and his brother. For this heinous crime Richard was held responsible and had been condemned in history for all time.

Richard tried to prove himself to be a good king and give the country a good government. He passed some good laws for development of trade and commerce. He stopped raising money from the subjects in the name of Benevolence. But the cruelty and the bloodshed with which he stained his hand made him the most unpopular King in the country.

Taking the advantage of his unpopularity, Henry Tudor one of the Lancastrians with a large army attacked England. Richard march with his army to met Henry Tudor, a fierce battle was fought at Bosworth in which Richard was killed, and the Yorkists were routed. This was the last war of the Wars of Roses and the end of rule of the House of York. Henry Tudor ascended the throne of England on 22 August, 1485 as Henry VII. Henry united the red and white Roses and founded the Tudor Dynasty.

Part VII

England under the Tudor Dynasty

The reign of the Tudor Kings was very illustrious. Five sovereigns (three Kings and two Queens) of this House ruled England from 1485 to 1603; they were Henry VII, Henry VIII, Edward VI, Mary and Elizabeth I. Henry VII declared war with France again when France tried to annex Brittany an area of England. He adopted the dynastic marriage policy to develop diplomatic relation with the continent. During this time the wave of Renaissance came to England and the Middle Age made way for the Modern Age. Of the Tudor kings Henry VIII and his daughter Elizabeth I were most illustrious sovereigns. Henry VIII put England on the road of material prosperity, national unity and national greatness. In those days of religious controversies Henry VIII courageously established the Church of England, severed relation with the Pope of Rome and reformed both the Church and Christianity. He, however, maintained balance between the Catholics and the Protestants. He laid the foundation of the British Navy and began expansion of British kingdom over seas. Edward VI was a sickly man and was on the throne for a short time. The reign of Mary was locked in religious conflicts because of her support for the Catholics. For her persecution of the Protestants, she earned the name “bloody Mary”. Of all the English queens and kings Elizabeth I was most outstanding, it was during her reign that England reached the highest point of prosperity both materially and intellectually. After defeating the Spanish Armada, England became one of the great powers of Europe. She further widened the scope of British colonies in North America.

Chapter One

Henry VII (1485-1509)

Henry Tudor ascended the throne of England on 22 August, 1485 as Henry VII after the battle of Bosworth. Henry, the Earl of Richmond, claimed his descent from the Tudor family of Wales from father's side (Edmund Tudor was his father) and a Lancastrian from mother's family. He defeated and killed Richard III, the last king of the House of York, in the battle of Bosworth. The Parliament later approved his claim. Thus we see that Henry Tudor was king of England primarily on the claim of conquest, on the approval of the Parliament and then on the right of descent. He further strengthened his position by marrying Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV, the first king of the House of York. His marriage with Elizabeth united the rival roses.

Henry Tudor ascended the throne of England at a very difficult time. The glory and position that England held after the victory of Greys and Agincourt, had sunk down very low. Only Calais remained of her vast continental possession. Scotland was a constant problem for England; Ireland was under England only in name. The country was torn into pieces by the thirty years civil war (the Wars of Roses). England was no more an important power in the affairs of Europe. The authority of the king was weakened by the selfish struggles of the barons. There was tendency among the local lords to defy the law of the country and take over others possession by might. He who had money could command mercenaries and show his might and authority. Law and order situation came down to the lowest position. In such a situation Henry Tudor became the king of England.

Henry's Reign

Henry's first task was to restore law and order in the country and then to restore the authority of the king. Since his claim on the throne was not absolute according to primogeniture law, he was always in fear of other claimants of the crown. Edward the Earl of Warwick, the son of Clarence and brother of Edward IV, was still considered to be the rightful heir to the crown. Warwick had also some strong supporters. The Yorkists though lost the war, were still a powerful opposition. Henry imprisoned Warwick and kept him in the Tower of London.

After his accession Henry had to face a number of plots against him by the Yorkists and their supporters. The first plot was led by lord Lovell a

minister of Richard III. He planned to capture Henry at York by some tricks. But his plan failed and Lovel fled to France. The second plot was hatched up by Lambert Simnel, the son of an organ maker of Oxford. He was taught by a priest to impersonate himself as the Earl of Warwick. Lambert Simnel found some supporters in Ireland where the Yorkists were popular and he landed in England with an army sent by Margaret of Burgundy. He was joined by the Earl of Lincoln a nephew of Edward IV, Henry defeated him easily and captured him. The third one was also a pretender Perkin Warbeck. He said that he was Richard, the Duke of York and the second son of Edward IV. He claimed the Crown on primogenital law. The king of France and Margaret of Burgundy supported his claim. Warbeck had a base in France. Henry tried to develop diplomatic relation with the king of France and expel him from France. Warbeck tried to land in Kent but was driven off by the army of Henry. He then went to Ireland and from Ireland to Scotland. King of Scotland helped him and invaded England on his behalf, but that did not produce any result. Meantime the Cornish people rose against Henry Tudor. Warbeck rushed to Cornwall and joined the rebel Cornishmen. But he was defeated in the battle of Tauton and taken as captive. He was sent to the Tower of London. The Earl of Warwick was already there as prisoner. Both of them were executed as they plotted to escape.

Henry VII could rightly realize that the civil war had created a total anarchy in the country. The authority of the king had not only been weakened but dwindled like anything. Only a strong government could restore law and order and peace in the country. The rule of the Parliamentary government of his predecessors failed during the Wars of Roses. Royal authority of the king can only put down the indiscipline and anarchy of the feudal lords. Henry was determined to curbed power and privileges of the barons. He decided to rule the country despotically and independent of the Parliament. Henry took certain measures to make himself strong and independent of the Parliament. He hoarded a huge amount of money and other resources so that he had not to depend on the Parliament for financial sanction. He started his reign in a dictatorial way, which was known as the New Monarchy. It was free from influence of the Barons and the Earls and interference of the Parliament but was based on the tacit consent of the subjects.

He curbed the Power of the Nobles

Henry took a very strong measure to deal with the powerful nobles. These powerful nobles, who had large armed followers, were real threat to peace and law and order. These armed followers, who were called retainers, were mostly unruly and trouble-mongers. The nobles who had

larger armed followers could exert power upon his neighbors, and would indulge in private quarrel. They could prevail upon the local courts and juries. Not only that, they could be a threat to the king even when they were united. Henry forbade the nobles to retain armed followers by enacting new statute for Liveries and Maintenance of the nobles.

Henry set up special courts, the Courts of Star Chamber, for enforcing the new law against the unruly armed retainers of the nobles and against those juries who gave unjust verdict. These courts consisted of two judges and some special members of the king's Privy Council. These courts were strong enough to punish the nobles which the local court could not.

Henry ignored the nobles in selecting his officials. He did not prefer the nobles for his important offices. He picked up his officials among from the educated members of the middle class. It had a very good impact in the society. In the fifteenth century with the spread of education there appeared an educated middle class in the society. They were teachers, writers, poets, philosophers, traders, lawyers and members of other professions. Henry did not ignore this educated middle class. He selected his officials from the educated and meritorious members of this middle class. Geoffrey Chaucer was a civil servant of the Crown. They in later time gave birth to the civil bureaucracy. Henry thus curbed the influence of the traditional nobles in the state business. He pushed the Parliament aside and took almost all the power in his hand.

Henry adopted some special measures for collecting money from the nobles and other subjects, without involving the Parliament. He revived the Benevolence or receiving forced gifts from the nobles and others. He introduced forced loan, fines for violation of laws. For all these measures, he could amass huge wealth and made himself free from the control of the Parliament. Henry thus established a new type of despotic Monarchy which cared the Parliament very little. His policy of consolidating the power of the king was not opposed by the common people as they had very bad experience of the civil war. This new type of Monarchy of Henry VII reached its culmination during the reign of his son Henry VIII and Elizabeth I.

War with France

Henry was averse to war; still he had to involve himself in a war with France, the traditional enemy of England. Charles VII of France wanted to annexe Brittany, an independent duchy and marry its rightful heiress. Brittany was the chief ally of England in the continent. Henry invaded France and besieged Boulonge. There was no serious fight with France.

Both Charles and Henry reached an agreement and a treaty was signed between them (The Treaty of Etaples, 1492). Henry withdrew from France when Charles agreed to pay large sum of money and expel Perkin Warbeck from France. They also agreed not to give shelter each other's enemy.

His Dynastic Marriage policy

Henry knew that his position was not secured enough at home. He needed some strong friends abroad. England had lost all her previous prestige during the civil war (the war of roses). Anarchy was prevailing in the country. There were still many claimants to the throne who were being instigated by foreign powers like France. France was always an enemy of England; France encouraged and helped Perkin Warbeck when he rose against him. Scotland was also hostile to England and Henry. Henry wanted to make some supportable friends in the continent. He adopted matrimonial diplomacy with Scotland and some continental powers. Such matrimonial diplomacy was a popular policy at that time. This matrimonial policy of Henry was known as his Dynastic Marriage policy. He gave his daughter Margaret in marriage to the king of Scotland to alienate him from France. He was successful in this attempt. It paved the way for subsequent union of Scotland with England. Next he married his eldest son Arthur with Catherine of Aragon, the daughter of the Spanish king. Spain at that time was a strong power in Europe and he hoped to counter France with this friendship. But unluckily Arthur died shortly after the marriage. Henry was shocked at the early death of his son, but he was determined to maintain the relation with Spain. He proposed a second marriage of Catherine with his second son Henry. Though the Church did not approve such a second marriage of a widow with the younger brother of the deceased, Henry VII obtained a special dispensation from the Pope. The marriage of Catherine with Henry VIII was unusual. It created complication with the Pope during the reign of Henry VIII and severed the relation between England and the Pope.

His Trade Policy with the continent

Henry was interested to promote English trade and commerce within and outside the country. He encouraged ship-building and established trade relation with many countries of the continent and signed with them trade treaties. As a result English traders could carry English goods to other countries. English wool and wine had a good market in the continent. Wool and wine trade of England was flourishing in the continent at that time. English merchants carried on this profitable wool and wine trade with Netherlands, Flanders and other continental countries. Henry passed

the Navigation Act which provided that the English merchants would carry on wool and wine trade with Gascony, Flanders and other European countries unhindered in English ships with English crews.

His Ireland policy

From the time of Henry II, Ireland was a dependent province of England. During the civil war the Yorkists gained some strongholds in Ireland. After Henry Tudor's accession to the throne of England, the Yorkists retained their position in Ireland. Warbeck after being expelled from France took shelter in Ireland. Henry Tudor wanted to sort out the Irish problems once for all. He sent Sir Edward Poynings to Ireland to deal with the rebels. Sir Edward Poynings suppressed the rest few of the rebels. He clearly told the Parliament of Ireland that all English laws should be enforced there and that Irish Parliament should not pass any law without the sanction of the King or his Privy Council.

Henry's estimate

Henry VII died on 22 April, 1509 in the Richmond Palace. He was succeeded by his second son Henry who became king as Henry VIII. Henry VII was one of the great kings of England who put England on the road of progress and prosperity. He was a firm, cautious, crafty and clear-sighted king. He gave a strong government after the long anarchy of civil war which the people wanted most. In his 24 years reign he could give the nation a stable and strong government ending the Wars of Roses. He sowed the seed for England to become a great power in Europe. His new absolute Monarchy and strong administration restored law and order in the country. His statute against the livery and maintenance curbed the power of the quarrelsome barons. His Courts of Star Chambers brought discipline in the judiciary. The educated middle class which emerged during his reign played a great role in the society and supported the king. This new educated middle class gradually replaced the old baronial bureaucracy.

It was because of Henry's fore-sighted policies and the Navigation Act that England emerged as a maritime power. England started to build ships to carry English goods like wool, cloths and wine to other countries. In Bristol and Glasgow ship-building industries got new boost. The English navigators from Bristol first cross the Atlantic and reached North America under a Venetian captain Sebastian Cabot. The route to the North America opened the door of the New World to the English people which heralded the colonial expansion of England.

Henry's continental policy helped England to regain her lost prestige to a great extent. His treaty with France (Etaples Treaty of 1492) helped him to avoid war with France. On the other hand his Dynastic Marriage policy with Spain strengthened his position in Europe. He did not pick up any quarrel with the Church, did not also give the clergies any special liveries. The clergies, on the other hand, came for king's protection when the Lollards were against them.

During his reign great intellectual changes took place in England. The newly educated scholars from Oxford and Cambridge came up with secular and humanitarian outlook to change the society. They were fully imbued in the spirit of Renaissance. The wave of Renaissance greatly influenced the learning and the pursuit of knowledge. It started to reform the Church and establish the Church of England.

The Middle Age made way for the Modern Age

The Tudors though entered into the Modern Age, they did not let the Parliament flourish. The people also had very bitter experience about the Parliamentary government during the Wars of Roses. They could realize the country was not matured enough to have a constitutional government. By establishing a strong government the Tudors did what the people wanted. They established law and order in the country, and never came to offend the feeling and sentiment of the people. The Tudors were absolute and despotic kings still people had respect for them and had trusted them.

Chapter Two

Henry VIII (1509-1547)

Henry was coronated King of England on 22 April, 1509 after the death of his father as Henry VIII. He was a very lucky king who ascended the throne of England when it was very safe and when the royal treasury was full. There was no claimant for the throne. Not only that his father left England prepared for a smooth reign for his son. Henry himself was a very handsome and popular prince when he ascended the throne. People were happy for his pleasant manner. But in later days he was changed and became cruel and a *heartless tyrant*.

Henry wanted to become a great king both at home and in the continent. At home he wanted to rule England as a strong and popular king. In the continental affairs he wanted to play an important role. He followed his father's policy to support the growing middle class and curbed the power of the nobles. He put to death both Empson and Dudley on charges of treason. They were the most notorious agents of his father's tyranny who used to collect money or revenue from the people.

Henry's Continental policy

Henry followed his father's continental policy. He wanted to keep the growing power of France in check. He retained his matrimonial relation with Catherine of Aragon, the princess of Spain and good relation with Spain. Shortly after his accession he got involved in a war with France over Gascony, the lost province of England. He invaded France and in the battle of Spurs defeated the French army in 1513. He joined the Holy League of Europe which was formed by the Pope of Rome with the king of Spain and Germany, two most powerful countries of Europe of that time. But soon he felt the necessity of making peace with France and gave his sister Mary in marriage to Louis XII of France. Both Spain and France were interested in England, and wanted England in their side. Henry took this opportunity and maintained a balance between the two countries.

Henry and Wolsey

Wolsey was the Archbishop of York and the last ecclesiastical statesman of England. He rose to eminence during the reign of Henry VIII. For his services during the France war and subsequently in making peace with France, Henry in recognition of that made him the Lord Chancellor. Wolsey was a very shrewd statesman and diplomat. His relation with the

Pope of Rome was also good. The Pope made him the Cardinal and Papal Legate. Wolsey also became an important personality in the continental affairs for his diplomatic skills. Spain and France were two great rivals at that time. In their rivalries they tried to involve England and England got involved in their affairs as arbiter. Wolsey wanted to make England the arbiter of their disputes and place himself as a diplomatic mediator in European politics. But he could not be successful in his plan in the end.

At home Wolsey soon fell from the grace of the king. His policies were not popular, particularly those by which he extracted money from the nobility and the people to keep the king pleased. He always tried to avoid the Parliament and get things done by the king pushing the Parliament aside. He was disliked by the nobility who considered him as a proud, upstart and greedy man. He was dismissed from his position when he failed to procure a divorce sanction for the queen Catherine from the Pope. He was sent back to York as the Archbishop. Later he was charged for treason against the king and was arrested; he died on the way when he was being taken to London.

Divorce of Catherine

To continue the good relation with Spain his father got him married with Catherine, but Henry VIII did not seem happy with Catherine. All the children by Catherine except one girl Mary died in infancy, Henry believed the superstition that it was a curse from God as he married a widow. He wanted a son to inherit him and to avoid the problems of succession after him. More over Henry was in love with Anne Boleyn and was adamant to marry her. The Pope was hesitant to give any sanction for divorce as Catherine was the aunt of the king of Spain Charles V. Charles was one of the staunch supporters of the Pope and a powerful king. Henry created pressure on Wolsey for the sanction, as Wolsey failed to procure the divorce sanction, he dismissed him from his position. Henry then passed some Acts by the Parliament and severed relation with the Pope of Rome. He divorced Catherine on the verdict of a court presided over by the Archbishop Cranmer.

Breach with the Pope and the Church of England

England's breach with Rome was the outcome of Henry's desire to divorce Catherine and marry Anne Boleyn. Henry was fascinated by the charm of Anne Boleyn, but he could not marry her unless he had divorced Catherine. When the Pope refused to give him the desired sanction, Henry used the Parliament as the instrument to sever relation with the Papacy. After the divorced of Catherine, Henry married Anne Boleyn.

Henry brought the whole clergy and all the churches within England under his control. So long the clergies and the bishoprics considered themselves under the control of the Pope of Rome. He made them realize that their master is not the Pope but the King. He fined those bishoprics who defied his order and confiscated most of their properties. He compelled them to sign an agreement that no canon law should be passed without the consent of the king. He stopped all sorts of payment to the Pope (Annates and Peter's Pence) and transferred them to the state treasury.

In 1531 he got the Act of Supremacy passed by the Parliament, by that Act the King was made the supreme head of the Church of England. He got another Act (the Act of Appeal) passed by the Parliament which said that no appeal of the bishopric courts of England should go to the Papal Court for appeal hearing. These two Acts finally severed all relations with the Pope of Rome.

Henry's bold action against the authority of the Pope, made England ecclesiastically independent. The Church of England became independent of the interference of Rome, and became a national Church. It was brought under the authority of the king. Politically it increased the power of the king. King became not only the head of the state, but also became the head of all the Churches of England. The English people did not oppose it, as it was in favour of the national sentiment. Wycliffe and Lollards started the work long before. General people were against the corrupt Clergies and Churches. Henry found the ground prepared, he had dealt only the final blow. The Pope finding no other way excommunicated Henry VIII and his country from the Christian world which had no major impact on England.

Reformation in England

Establishment of the Church of England and the Reformation are not the same thing. The Church of England was established on a strong national feeling. It was their national Church. The English people did not like the interference of the Pope of Rome in the affairs of the Church of England. The Reformation was, on the other hand, directed to reform the Church, the clergies, the monasteries and the Christianity itself. In England it started with the breach of relation with the Pope of Rome. Primarily it was on the issue of divorce of Catherine. The spirit of Reformation came from the Renaissance. The Renaissance gave the educated people of Europe a new outlook and prepared them to question some practices and doctrines of the Church. As a result men's belief in God, Hell and Heaven was shaken. The authority of the Pope was also challenged.

In England the monasteries and the churches were the strongholds of the Pope and Papacy. After the breach with the Pope, Henry VIII was determined to suppress the disobedient monasteries and the clergies. He set Thomas Cromwell, his chief minister, to deal with them. In 1538 a new version of the Bible was published in Europe. It was published by the Protestants to propagate their ideas. Henry asked all the Parish Churches to follow this Bible. This order was a great impetus to the Reformation in England. Henry himself though believed in Catholicism was not against the Protestant. The Act of Succession of 1534 did not exclude the children of Henry and Anne Boleyn from succession but Catherine's daughter Mary was excluded.

Henry restored some of the Catholic doctrines in the Statute of Six Points. For examples (a) belief in the doctrine of Transubstantiation, (b) celibacy of the clergies, (c) need of auricular confession, (d) private masses, (e) vow of chastity, and (f) only bread for the laity etc. were restored in England. They were all catholic doctrines. Henry though severed relation with the Pope; he adhered to the Catholic Creed. Monks and monasteries that refused to sign the Act of succession were subjected to persecution and their land and other properties were confiscated. Sir Thomas More (writer of the Utopia and his minister) and John Fisher, the bishop of Rochester, who opposed Henry for his policies against the monasteries, were executed. In 1536 he induced the Parliament to pass an Act to abolish the smaller monasteries and abbeys. He acquired all the lands of the monasteries, abbeys and churches by an Act of the Parliament. Thomas Cromwell, his minister, mechanized all these persecution and punitive acts. There was a rebellion against the abolition of monasteries and confiscation of their properties. The rebels demanded the dismissal of Cromwell. But Henry put down the rebellion.

The dissolution of the monasteries created great impact in the social, religious and political life of the English people. The monasteries used to carry on many charitable works in the society. The poor people of the society used to get benefits from them. They were deprived of them. The people who were connected with them were deprived of their subsistence. The number of beggars and paupers increased in the society. The lords of the abbots and monasteries were corrupt, indulged in luxury and easy-going life. They misused the resources of the monasteries. The king after taking over those properties gave them to new managers for profitable management. The new managers managed them with a view to make profits not giving services to the people.

The suppression of monasteries created great impact in the ecclesiastical areas of the country. But the king was determined to carry

on with his programme. The suppression of monasteries and their beneficiaries pushed on the Reformation with greater agility in England. Those people who got grants of lands from those abolished monasteries and were benefited by those properties, enthusiastically supported the king and Reformation as they had a fear in mind if those properties were restored to the Papacy, they would lose greatly.

By carrying on Reformation programmes, the king politically and financially gained most. The spoils of the monasteries increased his wealth. The new managers and officials of these properties formed new nobility who were completely obedient to, and dependent on, the king. The constitution of the House of Lords was changed. The disappearance of the lords of those monasteries from the House of Lords, increased the strength of the lay peers.

Henry's Home Policy

Henry's domestic policy was to make himself an absolute Monarch and make the Parliament his subservient. The Parliament was a tool at his hand. He did not hesitate to raise illegal money from his subjects by using the Parliament. He cruelly persecuted them who opposed his religious policy. He did not show any scruple to behead a man whom he thought his enemy whatever was his position and status. He did not hesitate to execute Sir Thomas More, Wolsey, Cromwell, even his own queen Anne Boleyn for whom he severed relation with the Pope. Despite all these acts of despotism the people did not revolt against him or protest his despotism, because people did not want any civil war like that of Wars of Roses.

The Act of Succession

Henry apprehended that after his death there would be struggle for the succession to the throne. He settled the issue of succession by the Act of Succession. He got the Act passed by the Parliament in 1534. This Act clearly said that after him his son Edward, then daughter Mary and then Elizabeth or their issues should claim the throne. In default his younger sister Mary. He excluded the children of his eldest sister Margaret.

English Navy

Henry VIII showed great interest in ship building which his father initiated. The foundation of modern English Royal Navy was laid by him. He improved the design of the fighting ships making it capable to carry heavy guns. He improved the design of the warships providing side holes through which gun could fire at the enemy ships. Thus he invented the *Broadside* warships which brought about a revolution in the naval

warfare. Because of this improved type of warships the English Royal Navy could easily defeat the Spanish Armada.

Henry's wives

Henry's married life was unlike other sovereigns. He married for six times. His first wife was Catherine of Aragon. By her he had one daughter Mary. The second wife was Anne Boleyn, she was the mother of Elizabeth. She was accused of faithlessness and was beheaded. Third wife was Jane Seymour, the mother of Edward VI who was his only male heir. Jane Seymour died at child birth. Fourth wife was Anne Cleves who was divorced. Fifth one was Catherine Howard who was put to death on charge of faithlessness like Anne Boleyn. Sixth and last one was Catherine Parr who survived him.

Wolsey, Cromwell and Thomas More

They were chief ministers of Henry VIII at different times. Wolsey was a great ecclesiastical statesman of England. He was the Archbishop of York. He was educated at Oxford. Seeing his services during the war with France and his diplomatic skill in making peace with France, Henry made him Lord Chancellor. The pope made him Cardinal and Papal legate. He fell from the grace of the king when he failed to procure a divorce sanction for Catherine from the Pope. He was charged for treason as he tried to protect the interest of the Pope. He was being taken to London as a prisoner when he died on the way.

Thomas Cromwell was the chief instrument of Henry in carrying out his anti Papal policy. He was made Chancellor after the execution Sir Thomas More. His main objective was to exalt the authority of the King suppressing the Parliament and make him a total despot. He made the Parliament a tool in the hand of the king. He incurred the displeasure of the king by advising not to marry Anne Cleves. He was charged of high treason and was executed in 1518

Sir Thomas More was brought up in the household of Cardinal Morton, the minister of Henry VII. More was sent to Oxford for education. At Oxford he was strongly influenced by the new learning of the Renaissance. Henry was attracted by him and made him the Speaker of the House of Commons. Later after the fall of Wolsey he was made Chancellor. He fell from the favour of the king when he refused to sign the Act of Supremacy. He also opposed the divorce of Catherine and supported the cause of the Pope. He was later charged for treason and was executed.

Sir Thomas More is more famous for his book *Utopia*. *Utopia* is basically a satire on the social and political conditions of England of that

time. More in his *Utopia* imagined of an ideal commonwealth and narrated his views on social and political problems of the time in a satirical way. He advocated for communism, religious tolerance and responsible government.

Henry's policy towards Scotland and Ireland

Scotland, from the time of the Anglo-Saxon, was a separate kingdom. The Scottish people were the descendants of the Celts whereas the English people were the descendants of the Angles and Saxons. The Scots always maintain their separate identity. They were always a rival of England. There were many wars between England and Scotland. They maintained relation with France and when there was a war between England and France, Scotland always took the side of France.

During Henry's war with France James IV, king of Scotland an ally of France went against England and invaded England. But James IV was defeated in the battle of Foldenfield and was slain in the battle. Henry gave his daughter Margaret in marriage to James IV with a view to developing good relation with Scotland and alienate Scotland from France. But that relation did not last long. James IV and James V continued their old relation with France. James was a supporter of the Pope and Papacy. James V as an ally of France invaded England when England was in war with France. But he also was defeated in the battle of Solway Moss. He died soon after leaving behind an infant daughter Mary, the only heir to the Scottish throne. Henry VIII planned to unite both the kingdoms by bringing about a marriage between his son Edward and Mary. But that plan fell through because of French intervention.

Ethnically the Irish people were Celtic and religiously Roman Catholic. During the wars of Roses the Irish supported the Yorkists. Perkin Warbeck a pretender of the English throne had a stronghold there. Norman chiefs were still powerful there and they maintained their independence and Catholic faith. Fitzgeralds of the Norman families of Ireland rose again in revolt. Henry sent Cromwell to deal with the rebels. He suppressed all the rebels ruthlessly. He also suppressed all the rebellious monasteries and the abbeys and confiscated their properties. Henry thus put everything in order in Ireland. He then declared himself the king of Ireland. He tried to Anglicize the Irish people, but failed as the Irish people retained their old Roman Catholicism.

Henry's Achievements and failures

Henry despite his despotism and cruelty has been described as a great king who foresaw the bright future of Great Britain. He was, "... the King, the whole King and nothing but the King." During his time Tudor

despotism reached its climax. After the civil war the people of England wanted a strong King. He was that strong King who restored law and order in the country, though at a cost of severe cruelty. Whatever he did, he did in the national interest. His ministers and the Parliament were tools in his hand. He utterly showed disregard for Parliamentary democracy which developed during the reign of Henry IV or during the Plantagenet. He united England and the English people. He made them feel that England is a great power and no continental power should ignore England. Some of his achievements are monumental. For example: Establishment of the Church of England, Reformation of Christianity, Churches and the monasteries each one attracts our attention. All these steps consolidated the national feeling and sentiment of the English people. He curbed the powers of the feuding nobles and the feudal lords. He abolished the lazy and corrupt monasteries, abbeys and churches. His breach with the Pope of Rome and the ecclesiastical independence of England was a bold step and the people of England appreciated it.

Henry laid the foundation of the British Royal Navy. He not only strengthened the British royal Navy, but also improved the design and equipments of the Tudor Warships. With this naval force in course if time England became the world colonial power. During his reign Wales was permanently annexed with England. His idea of unification of Scotland though was not materialized in his time was done in later time. Considering all these achievements of Henry VIII, we can easily call him a strong King and a great King.

Henry VIII died on 28 January, 1547 in the Whitehall Palace and was succeeded by his minor son Edward VI.

Chapter Three

Edward VI (1547-1553)

Edward was a minor boy of nine years when he was crowned on 28 January, 1547 as King of England. Henry VIII told in his will who would be the Guardian or the Protector of his son, but that was not honored. Defying the will of Henry VIII, Lord Hertford became the Protector of the minor king and assumed the title Duke of Somerset and also became the Protector of the realm. Edward was a weakling and died in 1553 after reigning only in name for six years.

Somerset pursued the Marriage policy with Scotland, but when he found the Scots reluctant invaded Scotland. The Scots were defeated in the battle of Pinkie in 1547. To protect their queen the Scots sent Mary to France where she was married to Francis of Dauphin. This marriage led to the Franco-Scottish Alliance. England though had won the military victory, had a political defeat.

Reformation after Henry VIII

Henry VIII though had broken relation with the Pope and the Papacy, retained most of the Catholic doctrines. Somerset introduced a total change in the creed and doctrine of Christianity. As a result Protestantism made rapid progress during Edward VI. He directed all to pull down the images of the saints from the churches, abolished the Statute of Six Points, and introduced English services in the churches in place of Latin services. He introduced two Prayer Books (First and Second Prayer books of Edward VI). He further introduced Forty-two Articles of religion for uniform practices in the Churches. All these new directives created resentment among the people. In 1549 there were revolts in Devon and Cornwall against those reforms.

The two Protectors first Somerset and then Warwick amassed huge properties by confiscating the lands and other properties. The peasants of Norfolk revolted for the oppression of Somerset. Though Somerset was sorry for his actions still he was replaced by the Earl of Warwick. Warwick made himself the Duke of Northumberland. Both of them were corrupt, cruel and oppressive.

When Edward was on deathbed, Northumberland planned to put Lady Jane Gray on the throne. Northumberland was afraid of Mary as she was

a strong supporter of Catholicism. He apprehended a decline in his power and a decline in the Reformation. He with some other supporters tried to set aside Mary and put forward Lady Jane Gray for the throne. Jane Gray was the grand-daughter of Mary the youngest sister of Henry VIII. Northumberland married his son Guilford to Lady Jane. If he could place Jane Gray on the throne, his position would have been secured. But he could not collect strong support behind his plan.

Mary (1553-1558)

Mary was crowned as the queen of England on 19 July, 1553 and the people supported her. Before that Lady Jane Gray was proclaimed queen of England, and she was queen for 9 days (10 -19 July). Mary was the daughter of Henry VIII by Catherine. Since the support of the people was in favour of Mary, the plan of Northumberland failed and he was put to prison and subsequently executed. Lady Jane Gray was also sent to the Tower and later executed.

Mary was brought up in a Catholic environment and had Catholic training. She hated Reformation as her mother's disgrace was associated with the Reformation and the Church of England. She came to the power with the determination to restore Catholicism in England and reverse all those steps taken during her two predecessors. To get support for her policy in Europe she married King Philip II of Spain. Philip was a staunch supporter of Catholicism in Europe. The marriage was not popular in England, the people of England feared that by this marriage England would be a dependency of Spain. The people of Kent and Sussex revolted under Wyatt against this marriage.

Philip II had a war with France; Mary in order to please her husband took the side of Spain and invaded France. This war was a disaster for England as Calais which was the only English territory in France was lost and France took the command of the Channel. The loss of Calais was a great blow to Mary. Shortly after this war Mary died in 1558.

Steps taken by Mary to restore Catholicism

Mary first passed an Act by the Parliament which annulled the divorce of Catherine and thereby made her own position stronger. She then induced the Parliament to repeal all those religious Acts which were passed during Edward VI. She stopped the Prayer Books, English Services in the Churches, restored the Six Articles, turned out the Protestant bishops from the Churches and restored the old people. She re-established celibacy among the clergies restored the relation with the Pope which her

father broke and supremacy of the Pope and Papacy in England. She herself went to the Pope for submission. She took all the measures to wipe out Protestantism from England. The people did not oppose her steps so far they were concerned with Catholicism. But when she restored the supremacy of the Pope over England, the people opposed it. She was an uncompromising Catholic and regarded the Protestants as traitors and enemies of the country. She planned to extirpate the Protestants and those who held Protestant views. It is said that she burned alive more than three hundred Protestants. Of them most prominent were Latimer, Ridley, Hooper, Rowland Taylor and Archbishop Cranmer. For all these cruel acts she earned the name "Bloody Mary."

Mary's plan to extirpate the Protestants failed. The cruelty with which she persecuted the Protestants had very bad effect and it frustrated its purpose. It all went against Mary and her reign. The firmness with which the victims faced their death strengthened the cause of Protestantism and drew sympathy from the people for the victims and hatred for Mary.

Chapter Four

Elizabeth I (1558-1603)

After the Death of Mary the Tudor Elizabeth ascended the throne on 17 November, 1558 as the Queen of England by an Act of the Parliament (Her coronation was held on 14 January, 1559 in the Westminster Abbey). She was called the Virgin Queen, Gloriana or Good Queen Bess. She was the fifth and the last monarch of the Tudor Dynasty. She was one of the long reigning monarchs of England (17 November, 1558 to 24 March, 1603).

No king or Queen had ever ascended the throne of England in so unfavorable and difficult a situation than Elizabeth I. It was a time when the country was torn into factions of political and religious controversies and strives. The Church, the king and the nobles were at daggers drawn. There might any time break out a civil war. Palace and Court intrigues had reached such a height that Elizabeth herself was victimized for that and was sent to the prison cell in the Tower. Every day she was in fear of execution. But God saved her. The defeat of the English army at the hand of the French and the loss of Calais to France was a fatal blow as that was the only English territory in the continent. Elizabeth had enemies both at home and abroad. The cost of the war with France affected the economy of the country. The economy of the country was at low ebb. In such a critical time England badly needed a talented and strong monarch to tackle the situation and that talented and strong monarch was Elizabeth I. She was perhaps a blessing from God for the English people at that time

Elizabeth was a blooming young lady of 25 when she ascended the throne. At that tender age she showed uncommon prudence and foresight in running the state business. When the peers of her council came to show their allegiance, she made a wonderful speech to them which showed how much politically matured she was. She addressed them, "My lords, the law of nature moves me to sorrow for my sister; the burden that is fallen upon me makes me amazed, and yet, considering I am God's creature, ordained to obey His appointment, I will thereto yield desiring from the bottom of my heart that I may have assistance of His grace to be the minister of His heavenly will in this office committed to me. And as I am but one body naturally considered, though by His permission a body politic to govern, so shall I desire you all.... to be assistant to me, that with my ruling and you with your service, may make a good account to Almighty God and leave some comfort to our posterity on earth. I mean

to direct all my actions by good advice and counsel (*Wikipedia, Elizabeth I*).”

Elizabeth and her Home Policy: Elizabeth imagined England to be a great power in Europe. It should be self-dependent and free from foreign interference and threat. With that aim she started her reign. She first restored order and peace in the country removing all internal troubles. Then she like her father thought of a strong government, but not a despotic government like that of her father. She planned a strong government where the monarch, the Parliament and the Church should work in unison. She was the first Tudor monarch who recognized that monarch should rule by popular consent. She always worked with the Parliament, but what she desired the Parliament carried out. She was not a tyrant like her father, nor was she like Mary Tudor a merciless persecutor of the Protestants. She was moderate in her behavior and temperament, but always dominating over her courtiers and nobles. By her unerring instinct she knew when to be firm and when to give loose. Most important aspect of her character was that she deeply loved her country and her subjects. Like her father she was full of courage, determination and confidence. On the other hand like her mother she was fond of pomp, pleasure and coquetry.

By her judicious combination of firmness and moderation she restored peace and order in the state and in the Church. She outwitted the foreign statesmen by her diplomatic skill and kept England out of war. During her reign England had enjoyed a long peace which made England developed in trade and commerce, flourished her culture and literature and expanded her realm beyond the ocean.

Elizabeth was lucky to have the services of a group of trusted and talented statesmen and advisers who guided and served her with rare zeal and devotion. Sir William Cecil was her trusted minister and treasurer who served her throughout her reign. Sir Nicholas Bacon was her Keeper of the Great Seal, Sir Francis Walsingham her secretary of state was especially busy to detect and check the secret plots that were made against her life and throne. She had the services of most talented persons like poet Spencer, dramatists like Shakespeare and Marlowe in literature, navigators like Francis Drake and Hawkins and Raleigh in finding sea routes across the oceans.

Elizabeth and her Scotland Policy

During her early years, Elizabeth had serious problems with Scotland. Mary, queen of the Scots was a cousin of Elizabeth and a claimant of the throne of England. She was always an enemy of Elizabeth. She was the great grand daughter of Henry VII and was thus a descendant of the

English royal line. She claimed the English throne on the plea that Elizabeth was not a legitimate daughter of Henry VIII. The Pope did not approve the marriage of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn and accept Elizabeth to be a legitimate daughter of Henry VIII. All the Catholics held the same opinion and they supported Mary for throne of England. Mary was married to Francis II king of France and it was a political marriage to form a Franco - Scottish alliance against England. By this alliance France planned to invade England with the French and Scottish army. When Mary was in France, her mother Mary of Guise was the Regent for her, she was a devout Catholic. The Scottish nobles formed a League known as the Lords of the Congregation for establishing the Protestantism and for carrying on the works of Reformation in Scotland. Protestantism was popular in Scotland and a Protestant Church was also established there. The Reformation Movement in Scotland was led by the great reformer John Knox. There were clashes between Mary of Guise and the Protestant nobles, the Congregation. Scotland was plunged into deep trouble on Catholic and Protestant issues. Elizabeth had sympathy for the Protestants; she sent a fleet to help the Lords of the Congregation. The English fleet besieged the alliance force, in the meantime the Regent Mary of Guise died. The English and the French signed an agreement which is known as the Treaty of Edinburgh and by this agreement both the English and the French agreed to leave Scotland. The Scottish Parliament cut off all relation with the Pope and established the Church of Scotland. This brought Scotland and England closer at least on one point that both of them were against the Pope and the Papacy.

In 1561 on the death of her husband Francis II, Mary returned to Scotland and took the helm of the country in her own hand. She was a young widow of promise. She was brought up and trained as a Catholic. She soon chose her cousin Henry Stuart, the Earl of Darnley and married him in 1565. The marriage put her in greater trouble as Darnley was a foolish man. He soon grew jealous of Mary's Italian secretary Rizzio and got him killed in Mary's presence. This murder of Rizzio made Darnley most unpopular. He himself was also killed by James Hepburn, the Earl of Bothwell. It was generally believed that Mary had her hand in the killing of her husband Darnley. She wanted to get rid of Darnley as she married Bothwell after few days. This marriage with Bothwell hastened the ruin of Mary. She lost all support of her subjects who considered her to be an adulteress and murderess. The people and the nobles revolted against her. She was imprisoned and compelled to abdicate in favour of her son James VI. Mary escaped from the prison and tried to get back her position, but was again defeated. This time she fled to England with the hope that Elizabeth I would at least give her shelter and would not kill

her. Elizabeth's Scotland policy was successful. She got her enemy in hand who surrendered to her voluntarily.

Catholics and Mary against Elizabeth

Giving shelter to Mary was a great embarrassment for Elizabeth I. Presence of Mary in England made the English Catholics enthusiastic and they found some hope to regain their lost position. They started to plot to overthrow Elizabeth and placed Mary Stuart on the throne. The Catholics never accepted Elizabeth as the rightful monarch of England. They also rejected her religious policy. The Catholics attempted a number of times against Elizabeth. This time all their plots were organized centering Mary Stuart. Elizabeth though gave her shelter, Mary Stuart was her royal prisoner. The Pope of Rome took the side of the Catholics and Mary Stuart. Pope Pius IV excommunicated Elizabeth from the Christian world by a Bull of 1570 and released her subjects from their allegiance to her. The Bull encouraged the Catholics. Not only had that Pope Gregory XIII sent some Jesuit monks to bring back the Protestants of England into the Catholic faith again. In fact Rome wanted to stir agitation against Elizabeth.

The first movement against Elizabeth was started in the North under the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland. Their objective was to depose Elizabeth and place Mary Stuart on the throne of England. But they were defeated and were forced to flee from the country. The Duke of Norfolk was induced by Rodolfi, a Florentine banker, to lead a revolt and create pressure on Elizabeth so that she released Mary. The plot of Norfolk was discovered and he was executed. Elizabeth became more cautious about Mary and tightened her confinement. The Catholics then plotted on the life of Queen Elizabeth. In 1583 another plot was instigated by the Pope, who set Throckmorton to induced Spain and France to invade England and depose Elizabeth to place Mary on the throne of England and revert England into a Catholic country. This plot also failed as it was discovered earlier and Throckmorton was executed. In this plot complicity of Mary was found. Elizabeth found that Mary was no longer safe for her. Elizabeth did not seem very keen about the execution of Mary, but situation compelled her to agree with verdict of the trial. Mary was executed in 1587. The execution of Mary freed her for the present from the anxiety of another plot or rebellion.

Mary Tudor declared war against France in order to please her husband Philip of Spain. Philip had long rivalry with France and he was at war with France at that time. In this war England lost Calais. Though England bought peace at the cost of Calais, that peace did not last long. The war with France continued when Elizabeth ascended the throne of

England. France was then ruled by the Guise family who supported Mary Stuart as the queen of England. There was internal struggle between the Catholics and the Protestants in France. Elizabeth to take retaliation on the Guises helped the Protestants to keep the civil war in France alive.

Spain was at that time the most powerful Catholic country in Europe. Philip II king of Spain was a strong Catholic and he with the Pope formed a Catholic League to face the ever growing influence of the Protestants. The Pope was always instigating Philip against Elizabeth. On the other hand Protestants were dominating in England and France. They were against the Pope and the Papacy. Soon France and England found some areas of common interests and felt the need of coming closer, at least to face the aggression of Spain. Elizabeth in her early years had good relation with Spain particularly when Mary, the queen of Scots, was in France and France supported the cause of Mary for the throne of England. Even considering the proposal of Philip, she changed her mind and refused the hand of Catholic Philip. This act of Elizabeth wounded his vanity and he threatened to invade England when Mary, the queen of Scots, was executed. Elizabeth to counter the Spanish threat entertained the marriage proposals of the French princes like the Duke of Anjou and the Duke of Alencon. From that time on friendship with France became the central point of her European policy.

Elizabeth and the Church of England

Elizabeth was not like her father Henry VIII and elder sister Mary Tudor. Her father established the Church of England severing relation with Rome and making himself the 'Supreme Head of the Church of England.' She retained her father's Church of England but assumed a different title—'Supreme Governor of, in the realm of all matters ecclesiastical as well as temporal.' She established an English Church and gave it the shape of a national identity and that still remains in its place. She refused to drop all the Catholic practices from the Church of England.

Elizabeth was not a Catholic as Mary Tudor was, but she never said that she was a Protestant, though she had all sympathy for the Protestants. Her policy was moderate and intensely national. She did not want like her father any interference of the Pope in the ecclesiastical affairs of England. She did not also want any civil war on religious issues as it occurred in Scotland or in France. She wanted a compromise and that the Catholics and the Protestants could live together, that the Church of England might be a place of worship for both the Catholics and the Protestants. For her moderation and sagacity England could avoid bloodshed between the Catholics and the Protestants.

Elizabeth was moderate in respect of religion and towards the Catholics. After ascending the throne she had to face three feuding religious groups – the Roman Catholics, the moderate Protestants and the extreme Protestants or the Puritans. She avoided extremism and adopted the middle course. She wanted some uniformity in religious practices. She did a lot of things which pleased the Catholics and offended the Puritans. She revised the Prayer Books of Edward VI, passed the Act of Uniformity, the Act of Supremacy and introduced Thirty-nine Articles of Religion. She believed that faith was personal and did not wish to interfere into the private affairs of individuals.

Elizabeth personally was indifferent towards religious creed, but liked pompous religious ceremonies. She considered religious question as a political factor which required settlement to avoid civil war. She settled religious questions as a politician not as a ecclesiastic. But her policy of compromise pleased neither the Protestants particularly the Puritans nor the Roman Catholics. The Puritans wanted to purify the Church and the Clergies, and drop all the unnecessary pomp and rituals from the Church and also from the Religion.

Elizabeth's Early Life

Elizabeth was born on 7 September, 1533 in the Greenwich Palace. When she was only two years old her mother Anne Boleyn was executed. She was brought up and educated under good governesses and tutors. She could speak several languages even she could read Latin and Greek. Before she became the Queen, she had faced many adverse situations. Her step brother Edward VI made a will in which he excluded both Mary and Elizabeth from the succession to the throne. She lived for sometime with her step mother Catherine Parr in her household. She suffered some emotional crisis at that time. Some of her biographers indicated that the husband of her step mother Thomas Seymour had tried to seduce her. That act of seduction created adverse reaction in her mind. Then during Mary's reign she was implicated in the conspiracy case. She was tried in the Wyatt's rebellion and was sent to the prison in the Tower.

After becoming queen she had many suitors for her hand. The Parliament also insisted on her marriage for the posterity and an heir to the British throne. But Elizabeth was careful about marriage. Spanish King Philip II wanted to marry her. Some French princes also showed keen interest to marry her. Philip was a champion of the Catholics and was in league with the Pope. French princes were on the other hand Protestants. Elizabeth accepted none of them, rather she played with them very shrewd diplomatic games. At home particularly in the Parliament

she was in problems with the Puritans who dominated the Commons. The Catholics wanted that the Queen should marry a Catholic; the Puritans on the other hand wanted that she should marry a Protestant. She did not like that the prevailing tense situation between the Catholics and the Protestants be further aggravated on the issue of her marriage. She resolved not to marry and live a virgin life dedicating herself for the country. Her devotion and services for the country earned her the name “The Virgin Queen.”

Elizabeth and the British Parliament

During the Tudor Dynasty the Parliament was subservient to the Monarch. Henry VIII made the Parliament a tool of his whim. He made the Parliament the instrument of royal will. Elizabeth was not that much a despot. She was dominating over both the Houses – the Lords and the Commons. She controlled the members of both the Houses and maintained a very clever balance between the Catholics and the Protestants, the Puritans and the Jesuits. She allowed the freedom of speech in the House of Commons and abolished the monopolies of the Lords. She strengthened the House of Commons and became more democratic a monarch than her predecessors.

Elizabeth and the Spanish Armada

Spain and France were a constant threat to England. Elizabeth could balance relation with these two great powers of Europe by her shrewd diplomacy. But after the execution of Mary the queen of Scots, Catholic Philip II was bent upon attacking the Protestant England. The reasons behind this attack were not only religion, but there were political and commercial reasons also which were stronger. Elizabeth was led by political consideration to repudiate the authority of the Pope and to support the Protestant cause in Europe. She sent volunteers to Europe to help the Protestant against the Catholics. All these acts of Elizabeth were unpardonable to Catholic Philip II.

Philip II did not allow the English merchant ships to trade in the Caribbean and in the New World. Philip was further offended when the English seamen plundered Spanish merchant ships on high seas. In 1585 Elizabeth sent Francis Drake with trading ships to the West Indies. Drake was a courageous navigator. He plundered many Spanish ships and other possession at Spanish ports in the Caribbean and burnt many Spanish towns there. All these atrocities of Drake and his mariners roused the anger of Philip. Philip started a massive preparation for building a big war fleet to attacked England. In 1587 Drake made another bold and successful raid on Cadiz and destroyed all the Spanish war fleet which

were being built to attack England. This was as Drake said, "...Singeing the beard of Spanish King" and Philip this time did not wait any further. Pope Sixtus V was also instigating to hasten the attack on England.

On 12 July, 1588 the Spanish Armada a great fleet of warships (more than three hundred big and small warships) set sail from Spain for the ports of England under Medina Sidonia and the Duke of Parma. Philip boastfully said that this time he would brought Elizabeth at her knees. But the Spanish calculation was wrong; Philip did not know the strength of the canon fitted English war ships. The English fleet was commanded by Lord Howard of Effingham. Though the English fleet was small in size, they had many skilled and experienced navigators and their ships were well-equipped with canon. Queen Elizabeth herself came in war dress to Tilbury to encourage the English soldiers. She addressed them in the most inspiring language. The English soldiers were highly inspired with the zeal of patriotism which destroyed the Spanish Armada. She said. "My loving people, we have been persuaded by some that are careful of our safety, to take heed how we commit ourselves to armed multitude for fear of treachery; but I assure you, I do not desire to live to distrust my faithful and loving people. ...I know I have the body but of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart and stomach of a king, and of a King of England too, and think foul scorn that Parma or Spain, or any Prince of Europe should dare to invade the borders of my realm..."

The entire English people were inspired by this speech of the Queen. The Queen became a symbol of national Unity and Patriotism. The defeat of the Spanish Armada is viewed as one of the greatest victory in English history.

The English admirals and navigators first did not stop the Armada when they were sighted; they rather tantalized them to go inside. Once they were within their reach, they attacked them from the rear. The Spanish commander did not expect an attack from the rear. The English gun ships destroyed their defense; meanwhile a severe storm shattered the rest of their fleet. Only a few ships could go back to Spain. Philip's all boasts and hopes were shattered and drowned in the Channel. His Armada which he called invincible on the sea was drowned in the English Channel. The defeat of the Armada made England one of the great powers in the European politics. Naval supremacy of Spain was destroyed. Henceforth no European power could neglect England. The Catholic and Spanish threats from the continent on England were stopped. England's supremacy on the sea and English maritime enterprises increased many times.

Part VIII

England under the Stuarts

Political history of England, from 1603 to 1714 under the Stuarts, was a period of political turmoil. Important events of this period were the Gunpowder Plot to kill the King along with his House of Lords. The first British colony was established in North America during the reign of James I which was the beginning of the British colonial empire. The quarrel between the King Charles I and the Parliament started on the issue of Divine Right of the King. The Civil War began between the supporters of the king or royalists on the one side and the supporters of the Parliament on the other. The Royalists were defeated and the king was executed before the public. The Monarchy and kingship was abolished.

Chapter One

The reign of the Stuarts

With the death of Queen Elizabeth I the rule of the Tudor Dynasty ended and the Tudor lineage was also extinct. Then the Stuarts (Stewart) of Scotland came to rule England. Who are these Stuarts? The Stuarts are also a European Royal house. Stewart and Governor are two words similar in meaning. Ancestral origin of the Stewarts is obscured – what is known for certain is that they trace their ancestry from one Alan Fitz, who came to Britain after the Norman Conquest. They were Stewarts in the Royal House of Scotland. Walter Stewart was the third Stewart of Scotland. Mary the Queen of the Scots changed the spelling of Stewart to Stuart. Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, was the second husband of Mary and father of James VI (James I on the English Throne).

Nine Stuart Kings ruled Scotland from 1371 to 1603. After that Scotland was united with England under one crown (Though Scotland retained their separate Parliament). There were six Stuart kings (and also queen) who ruled the united England (England and Scotland) and Ireland from 1603 to 1714 with a break of eleven years of the Commonwealth (1649 -1660).

With the coming of the Stuart Kings there was a great change in England and in the history of Great Britain (England, Wales and Scotland). This change united the English and the Scottish people and gave them one national identity (British). It was a great change in the domestic side. It also brought about great change in the foreign policy of Great Britain. Spain or France was no more a threat to England. But the changes that took place at home were more drastic, it shook the foundation of the British Monarchy. The English people or England during the Tudors had experienced despotic Monarchy, the monarchs were despotic and cruel, but those despotic monarchs could give the country a strong government. They could stop the lawlessness which the people experienced during the Civil War or during the Wars of Roses. The reign of Henry VII, Henry VIII and Elizabeth I gave a strong and continued government. Those despotic monarchs enabled the nation to stand up with their head erect, emboldened their moral with patriotism. Though the Parliament was obedient to the King or Queen, the form of Parliamentary Democracy was started to take shape and the Parliament gradually gathered strength to uphold their rights and privileges. The long peaceful and prudent reign of Queen Elizabeth I led England and the

English people to a great height of intellectual and material prosperity. The English people attained great material prosperity at home and the reputation of a great power abroad. The Scottish people were far behind in this respect. From religious point of view the Scottish people were Catholic, but the English people were largely Protestant. The Stuarts had not full knowledge of the changes that took place in England during the Tudors. In Scotland the Church dominated the kingship, in England it was other way round. So the English people were not in a mood to tolerate the arbitrary rule of the Stuarts. The Stuarts wanted to override the authority of the Parliament which was defied by the English Parliament.

The great event of the Stuart Rule was the struggle between the King and the Parliament, the civil war between the Royalists and the Parliamentarians. Throughout the Stuart reign the Crown and the Parliament were always at conflict with each other. The struggle was basically for the sovereignty or the supreme authority of the State – who was more powerful the King or the Parliament. The causes at the root of this conflict were partly religious and partly political. The aggressive Puritanism of that time threw a challenge to the Stuart theory of Divine Right and practices of government. The people of England voluntarily surrendered to the benevolent and tolerant despotism of Elizabeth. They surrendered to celebrate the Monarchy as an institution. Such situation did never exist in Scotland during the Stuarts. Queen Elizabeth though was inclined to the Protestants, was not hostile to the Catholics. Her religious tolerance kept both the Protestants and the Catholics quiet. The Puritans were not happy with the Queen as they had more advanced views, but the prudence of the Queen pushed them at bay. When James I showed his favour for the Catholics and strictly adhered to his Divine Right of kingship, they reacted and opposed him. Since the Puritans were majority in the House of Commons, they systematically opposed the King and his policies. They advocated the supremacy of the Parliament over the Royal Prerogatives. The conflict was, therefore, inevitable and the result was the Civil War between the Royalists and the Parliamentarians. The Royalists were defeated; the King was put on trial before the Parliament and was executed before the public by the verdict of the Parliament.

James I (1603-1625)

James I was the son of Queen Mary of the Scots and Lord Darnley, and was the great grand son of Margaret, daughter of Henry VIII. James thus had Tudor blood in his vein. His claim on the throne of England was, therefore, on the right of descent. By his accession on the throne of England the Crowns of England, Scotland and Ireland were united under

one King, but the Parliament, the Church and administration of each of the three kingdoms remained separated as before. Scotland and Ireland were dominated by the Catholics, while England was dominated by the Protestants. France was a great ally of Scotland but Enemy of England. Though the King was one, actual union was far away which took place in 1701 through the Acts of Union.

Gun Powder Plot

James initially showed tolerance to both the Protestants and the Catholics. But soon he annoyed the Roman Catholics on the issue of 'Recusancy Fines'. He was a strong supporter of the Church of England and did not like them who opposed it. He did not like the Presbyterians and their democratic policies in the Churches. He did not also like the Jesuit preachers who were the Catholic zealots. The Catholic went against him for his persecution on the Roman Catholics. They plotted to kill the king and all the Puritan members of the Parliament. They planned to blow off both the King and his Parliament by explosives as the Puritans were against the Catholics. In history this plot is known as the Gun-Powder Plot. It occurred on 5th November, 1605. The leader of the conspirators was Catesby, who hired the cellars under the House of Lord and filled them with barrels of gun powder. The plot was discovered when Guy Fawkes was about to set fire to the barrel. Guy Fawkes and other conspirators were arrested and later executed. Every year 5th day of November is celebrated as the Gun Powder Plot Day. The result was that more severe laws were passed by the Parliament against the Catholics.

James' Relation with Spain and France

James was against war and advocated for peace both within and outside England. As a Scott he always wanted an alliance with France and with that object in view he gave his daughter in marriage to Federick of Palatine who was the leader of the German Protestants. He then tried to develop relation with Spain, the greatest Catholic power in Europe that time. He shifted from the anti-Spain policy of Queen Elizabeth I, which was not liked by the people of England. He proposed a marriage relation of his son Charles with Infanta the Princess of Spain. The English opinion was strongly against this marriage. James defied the public opinion and went on with his friendship with Spain. He was eager for the Spanish friendship, when his son-in-law Federick was ousted from Palatine. He did not come up to help him in fear of Spain. He foolishly looked for the Spanish help, through friendship, to restore Federick. But the people of England wanted to help Federick with army intervention. Ultimately the marriage proposal of Charles with Infanta fell flat and James then declared war against Spain.

Execution of Sir Walter Raleigh

Sir Walter Raleigh was one of the courtiers of Queen Elizabeth I. He laid the foundation of British colony in North America in Virginia. Virginia was named by him after the Virgin Queen Elizabeth. He was implicated in the Main Plot against James I and was imprisoned. In prison he wrote his famous book the History of the World. He was the last Elizabethan hero executed by order of James I.

James and the Parliament

James I ascended the throne of England on 24 March, 1603. From the very beginning he was in conflict with the Parliament. There were mainly three reasons for this conflict: (1) the Divine Right theory of the king, (2) right of levying taxes by the King on the subjects and (3) religious intolerance and imprudence of the king. The Parliament particularly the Puritans rejected his claim of Divine Right theory. They were majority in the House of Commons. They rejected the claim of the King that he was the God's representative on Earth, and that he was not answerable to the Parliament or to any body else but God. He said that he got the Royal authority from God to rule the people and was answerable only to God. Resistance to the will of King was as sinful as defying the authority of God. He tried to put these ideas into practice. Defying the Parliament he used his Royal Prerogatives. Secondly the Puritans said that the king should cut down the expenditures of his households, avoiding unnecessary ceremonies. The king should also take the sanction of the Parliament to levy any tax on the subjects. Though the king was a catholic, he was intolerant towards the Jesuits, Presbyterians and Roman Catholics. He lacked the prudence and tact of Elizabeth I and meddled up the whole Church affairs.

The Puritans presented a petition to the King when he ascended the throne which was known as the *Millenary Petition*. In that petition the Puritans put forth their grievances and asked the king to avoid unnecessary ceremonies of the Royal Court and the Church. The King to consider the petition of the Puritans called the Hampton Court Conference in 1604 where both the Puritans and the Bishops were invited to participate in the discussion and give their opinions. James upheld the opinions of the Bishops and refused to accept the proposals of the Puritans. The refusal of the king to consider their proposals further infuriated the Puritans. In this conference it was decided that the work for a new translation of the Bible should be taken up. This translation was known as the *Authorized Version of the Bible*, which remained without alteration for next three hundred years. The reign of James I is noted for this translation of the Bible.

When the King found that the Parliament was not in agreement with him, he used his Royal Prerogative and dissolved the Parliament. Thus he dissolved the first Parliament in 1611, the second Parliament was also hostile to him and it was dissolved by the King without passing any act. It was called the Addled Parliament. It sat only for three weeks. The Third Parliament was summoned by the king in 1621. The third Parliament restored the power of impeachment of royal personage and it was used against Francis Bacon. The Parliament refused to make any grant for the King unless he had redressed the grievances of the people. The Parliament also disapproved his alliance with Spain. The fourth Parliament declared that the monopoly of the King was illegal and it impeached the Lord Treasurer for misuse of money.

British Overseas Colonies

It was during the reign of James I that the British colonies were first established in other countries beyond the seas. In 1607 Virginia (in North America) was first colonized by a group of emigrants (It is said that a group of Puritans to avoid the persecution of the king crossed the Atlantic and settled in some part of North America. They named this place Virginia in memory of Queen Elizabeth I who was regarded by the English people as Virgin Queen.). Bermuda was colonized by the British emigrants during this time. Maryland in North Virginia was also colonized during this time. Jamestown in Virginia still bears the name of James I. In 1620 “The Mayflowers” a British ship carrying emigrants from England crossed the Atlantic and established a new colony and named it New England. The East India Company in 1612 came to India and established a factory at Surat in India. Thus the foundation of the British colonial Empire was laid.

James’ Character

James I ruled England over twenty years, but his reign was not at all peaceful. He utterly lacked the tact and judgment which his Tudor predecessors showed. He made himself unpopular by his deeds and policies. It is said about him that he knew Scotland but never knew England and his son Charles knew neither England nor Scotland. He was always advised by his unworthy favourites. Though he was well-read and shrewd, he earned the title, “the Wisest Fool of the Christendom.”

James I died on 27 March, 1625 and left a hostile Parliament behind for his successor. Not only a hostile Parliament, he left the entire state affairs and those of the Church in a complicated situation for his son Charles who made them further complicated.

Chapter Two

Divine Right Theory of King

Charles I (1625-1649)

Charles succeeded his father James I in 1625 as Charles I of England. He ascended the throne in a very complicated situation. It was very difficult for him to surmount the situation his father left for him. Charles was proud, haughty, obstinate and unwise. He neither knew England nor the English political temperament which they achieved. He did not even try to know and understand English political culture. He stuck to his father's Divine Right theory and declined to accept the authority of the Parliament or deviate from the theory of Divine Right.

Charles' Reign

The central issues of the reign of Charles I were the quarrel of the King with the Parliament, the Civil War between the Royalists and the Parliamentarians and the defeat of the Royalists. The trial and execution of the King was the culmination of the quarrel. With his accession the question came to the forefront whether England was to be ruled by the King or by the Laws of the Parliament. Charles was determined like his father to rule arbitrarily disregarding the House of Commons or the Parliament. The House of Commons also took a bold step to protect their rights and privileges. Three issues surfaced before the storm: (1) the King's claim of right to impose taxes without the sanction of the Parliament, (2) to imprison any body without trial, and (3) to force religious changes on the people against their wishes. The Parliament refused to accept any one of these three claims. When the king persisted the Parliament took arms against the king.

Charles and the Parliament

In first four years of his reign Charles called three Parliaments and each of them ended in failure and quarrel with the King. The reasons of the quarrel were many – religious disputes, his crooked favourites, his failures in Cadiz expedition and foreign policy and above all his arbitrary rule and the claim for Divine Right.

Charles was in favour of the Anglican Church and inclined to the Catholics as his queen was a Catholic princess (the sister of the French king). The Parliament was dominated by the Puritans who were strongly

against the Catholics. The Parliament did not like some of the favourites of the king specially Buckingham. The king in anger dissolved first the Parliament.

The King called the second Parliament in 1625 for sanction of money for the Cadiz expedition which actually failed. The Commons, under the leadership of Sir John Eliot, impeached Buckingham for his criminal activities. To save his favourites the King dissolved the second Parliament and imprisoned Eliot and sent him to the Tower.

The King summoned the third Parliament in 1628 for sanction of money to meet the war expenditures of the Cadiz expedition and to relieve Rochelle. The Commons this time took another bold step under the leadership of Sir John Eliot and Wentworth. They drafted the Petition of Right and placed it before the king for his approval. The Commons gave condition that they would sanction the expenditures for the war, if the king had approved the demands as said in the Petition of Right. Charles gave his approval to the Petition of Right against his will and it became the law of the land.

The Petition of Right is the second great Charter of English Liberties. It condemned the arbitrary conduct of the King and declared the following acts as unlawful or illegal :

1. to levy taxes or to demand loans or gifts from the subjects without consent of the Parliament,
2. to arrest or imprison any man without showing any reason,
3. to billet soldiers and sailors on the householders against their will, and
4. to issue commission of Martial law at times of peace.

Although the Petition of Right was made Law of the country, Charles defying that law levied taxes (Tonnage and Poundage) and gave some offices of the Church to the Armenian or alien clergies denying the Puritans. This arbitrary act of the King further infuriated the House of Commons; Sir John Eliot in a stormy session passed the resolution against the King. The King imprisoned Eliot and dissolved the Parliament. Not only that the King decided to rule the country without a Parliament.

Eleven Years of Personal Rule

Charles ruled England eleven years (1629 - 40) after dissolving the Third Parliament. During this time his rule was absolute and his order was supreme to the fullest extent. He threw all the Puritan leaders to prison

and imposed heavy fines on them who opposed him. He started to raise money from the people by illegal means, forced his religious views upon the people against their wishes and put all those who opposed him into prison.

Charles had two advisers who guided him during his personal rule. They were Laud for religious affairs and Wentworth for civil and revenue affairs. They were his two main instruments through whom he carried out his all oppression. Laud, whom he made the Archbishop of Canterbury, advised him for religious matters. *The Court of Star Chamber* and *the High Commission* were two instruments through which he punished his opposition, particularly those who defied Laud's system of the Church government. These courts imposed heavy fines and arbitrarily put men into prison. Wentworth believed in strong and despotic government. He was an upholder of despotism and royal prerogatives. He organized despotism into a system of government.

Part IX

The Civil War

The Civil War (1645-1649) and the Commonwealth (1650-1660)

The country was locked in a Civil War between the Royalists and the Parliamentarians. The War ended with the execution of the King Charles I. Oliver Cromwell established the Commonwealth, abolished the Monarchy and the House of Lords. But the Commonwealth did not work. The people rejected the dictatorship of Cromwell. Monarchy came back and the King was restored. The Glorious Revolution of 1688 brought about a new change in the history of the British politics. The Monarchy was made limited and constitutional. Parliamentary Democracy triumphed in Britain. William of Orange came on the Throne of England with the promise of Parliamentary Democracy. William and Anne jointly ruled Britain for some time. King James II fled to France.

Chapter One

Commonwealth (1649-1660)

The Crux or the real cause of the Civil War was the attempt of Charles I to trample down the liberties of the people under his feet by ignoring the authority of the Parliament. He violated the fundamental principles of the English Constitution and set royal prerogatives above the laws of the country. The issues of the Civil War were both political and religious. The Parliament and the Puritans were united to dispute the Divine Right of the King to lay down the laws both of the Church and the State. Thus the disputed issue was whether the Sovereignty was in the King alone or in the King and the Parliament. The Puritans were as uncompromising as the Laud's followers were. The questions of politics and religion were so intricately mixed up that it was difficult to separate them. The country was roughly divided into two groups – the people of the north and the west were for the King and the people of the south and the east for the Parliamentarians. Those who believed in the Divine Right of the King supported the King, and the Parliamentarians were who believed in the authority of the people and the Parliament. The Catholics and the men of the Established Churches took the side of the King. The Puritans supported the Parliamentarians. The nobility and the poor class supported the King and the Royalists. On the other hand smaller gentry, the traders, lawyers, teachers increased the strength of the Parliamentarians. The King's followers were called Cavaliers or horsemen and the supporters of the Parliamentarians were known as the Roundheads who had close-cropped hair.

The Civil War started when the king collected army and raised his standard at Nottingham in 1642. The Royalists troops were led by the Earl of Lindsay with Prince Rupert as his assistance. The Parliamentarian Force was under the command of the Earl of Essex. The first battle was fought at Edgehill in 1642. It was an indecisive battle, but the Royalist had the advantage. The next battle was at Charalgrove here the Parliamentarian army suffered defeat and Hampden was killed. Oliver Cromwell by this time organized the eastern counties and formed a special army. In 1644 Cromwell with Scottish assistance at Marston Moor defeated the Royalists, the Royalists were again defeated at Newbury. These two defeats shattered all hopes of Charles in the North.

Cromwell organized his army and a New Model Army was raised. At Naseby Cromwell and Fairfax inflicted a crushing defeat on the Royalists in 1645. The Royalists were being routed from all sides and in 1646 Charles surrendered to the Scottish army who handed him over to the Parliamentarians. Charles secretly tried to negotiate with the Scots and the Presbyterians who were in favour of restoring the King on certain conditions and revolted against the New Model Army. The New Model Army under Cromwell suppressed their rebellion. Every thing both in England and Scotland was now under the control of the New Model Army and Oliver Cromwell.

Execution of Charles I

Charles I was put on a formal trial by the Parliament. The Tribunal which tried the King had little legal basis. There were many questions about it. The Tribunal found the King guilty of treason and waging war against the country and the people and sentenced him to death. On 30 January, 1649 Charles was beheaded before the public in front of the Banqueting House at Whitehall. The Parliamentarians said that it was a cruel necessity.

After the execution of Charles I the remnant of the Long Parliament (Rump: the remnant of the Parliament after Colonel Pride's Purge) declared England to be a Commonwealth and abolished both the Monarchy and the House of Lords. The Parliament reserved to itself all the legislative power and appointed a Council of the State consisting of forty members to run the Government. Most of the members of the Council were also members of the Parliament (Rump). All the executive and legislative powers thus were concentrated in the same body (the council).

Problems before the Commonwealth

There was a group in the army who wanted a complete democracy and no distinction in the society. This group was known as Levelers. They instigated a mutiny in the army; Cromwell suppressed them in iron hand. There was fresh problem in Scotland and Ireland as the people in Scotland and in Ireland still supported the son of Charles I as their king.

Cromwell's next job was to reduce both Scotland and Ireland to subjugation. After the execution of Charles I, the Royalists in Ireland continued their struggle and they declared Charles II their King. The Irish Catholics supported the Royalists. Cromwell himself came to Ireland, captured Drogheda and Wexford and massacred them ruthlessly to terrorize the Irish people. He confiscated the land properties of all those

rebel landholders and distributed them to his favourites. Ireland thus was completely subdued.

The Scots specially the Presbyterians, on the other hand, extended their support to Charles II and continued their fight against Cromwell and the Commonwealth. Cromwell again marched to Scotland and defeated the Scottish army at Dunbar in 1650. Prince Charles invaded England with the Royalist Army. Cromwell pursued the invaders and defeated them at Worcester in 1651 (that was the last battle of the civil war). All the Royalists were dispersed and routed. The Prince Charles having no other alternative fled to France.

The Dutch War

The Dutch taking the advantage of the Civil War took control of the Channel and harassed the British Trading ships. Cromwell declared war against the Dutch to protect the commercial interest of England. A series of battles were fought between the Dutch and the English. Ultimately Admiral Blake defeated the Dutch Admiral Van Tromp. In 1653 there was a peace treaty between England and Holland.

Chapter Two

Cromwell and the Parliament

The Rump (the remnant of the Parliament) soon became unpopular with the army. Since the war was over and as there was no need for the army, the Parliament wanted to disband the army. The army demanded their arrear pays, which was difficult for the new government to pay. Discontent surfaced in the army. There were allegations of corruption and favoritism against the members of the Rump. On the other hand the martial law administration which Cromwell and his army imposed in the country was rejected by the Parliament. Colonel Pride carried a purging campaign in the Parliament and expelled the corrupt members from the Parliament. Cromwell dissolved the Parliament, thus the House of Commons was dissolved. After dissolution of the Parliament, Cromwell summoned a new Parliament with all leading Puritans of his choice. This new Parliament was led by Barebone (a leading Puritan) and therefore it was known as The Barebone's Parliament. The members of the Barebone's Parliament were new and inexperienced in matters of state affairs, they made the situation worse. Cromwell dissolved this Parliament too. Then the officers of the Council drew up a Constitution (Instrument of Government) for future administration of the country. By this Instrument, (1) Cromwell was made Lord Protector for life and a Council of State to assist him was also constituted; all executive power was vested in the Protector and the Council of State. (2) England, Scotland and Ireland were united into a single Commonwealth with one Parliament representing the three countries. (3) The Parliament, consisting only of one House, should be elected every three years, by a reformed electorate and should exercise all executive power.

The Instrument of Government gave Cromwell a kind of limited Monarchy, in other words, he was made a Monarch. Though the objective of this Instrument was to prevent absolutism both of the Protector and the Parliament, that objective was frustrated. Since the Protector could expel the members and dissolve the Parliament, he virtually became the absolute Dictator and the Council his subordinate.

Oliver Cromwell became the Lord Protector in 1653 under the terms of the Instrument of Government. He was a very strong and successful administrator. He made a number of administrative reforms. He united England, Scotland and Ireland under a single Parliament. Although he was a strong Puritan, he showed tolerance to others but the Papists and the Episcopalians. He called the first Parliament in 1654. But the Parliament opposed his martial law administration and the rule of the Sword. He then dissolved it and divided the country into ten districts and

put each of the districts under one general. He virtually became a military dictator. He collected taxes from the people without any sanction of the Parliament. Despite his failure in the first Parliament, he called the second one in 1656 to get his war expenditures sanctioned by the Parliament (his Parliament was constituted by his Puritan supporters as he expelled all others who opposed him). In his second Parliament he was offered the title of a king and the authority to nominate his successor. Though he refused to accept the title of a King, before his death, he nominated his son his successor.

Cromwell's Foreign Policy

In foreign policy Cromwell was also successful. His policies were (1) to protect the interest of the Protestants in Europe, (2) by supporting France against Spain, which was a Catholic state; he wanted to promote the Protestantism in the continent. But it was his wrong policy, as the Stuarts took shelter in France and the Catholics were favoured in France, (3) he planned to expel Charles II from France by negotiation and for that reason only he wanted to make some compromise.

Oliver Cromwell, as the Man

Oliver Cromwell was a Puritan member of the Third Parliament during the reign of Charles I and he strongly supported the Petition of Right when it was moved in the Parliament. He has been described as a man of iron will, indomitable energy and intense religious conviction. He joined the Civil War as a cavalryman, organized the New Model Army which was the strongest force to defeat the Royalists. He has been bitterly criticized for his despotisms, cruelty and revengeful atrocities in Ireland. Still in the estimation of most English historians, he is the noblest man in English History. In political thinking he was much more advanced than his time. The victory of the Parliamentarians much depended on his military genius. It was he who won the Civil War. His military genius would never be questioned and undervalued. His idea for the Parliamentary reform and the Union of the British isles under one Parliament was perfect and statesmanlike. He never did anything for personal interest. What he did, good or bad, did in the belief that it would be good for England. But as the Lord Protector he failed.

Why the Commonwealth failed?

Cromwell failed to form a Government with the consent of the people. He ruled the country with martial law and with sword. The English people did not like this martial law and ruthless dictatorship. They obeyed the dictatorship of Henry VIII or Elizabeth I, but they did not accept the dictatorship of Cromwell and his generals. The English people believed in the tradition and in the Kingship or Monarchy as a traditional institution developed in England for a long time. They were conservative and were not ready to accept a sudden change. It grew within their habit

to obey the King or the Monarch. They believed it their duty to obey the King or Monarch.

After the Civil War the whole country was divided into a number of political and religious factions. Each of these factions was fighting the other. Cromwell kept them united only by martial law and fear of sword. The idea of a Commonwealth or a Republic was much advanced than the people were ready for it. The House of Commons was destroyed; the Parliament which Cromwell constituted did not represent the people or the nation. It was a Parliament of his choice. Political and religious rights and privileges which the people used to enjoy even during the cruelest and the most despotic kings were denied by the Commonwealth. The excess done by the Puritans offended the religious sentiment of the people on the one hand and denied many of the civil liberties on the other. People did not like that.

Cromwell died in September, 1658. Before death he nominated his son Richard Cromwell his successor. The hereditary principle of kingship which he hated most, and against which he all the time advocated, at the time of his death Cromwell restored that. This nomination greatly undermined his greatness. More over Richard did not have the calibre of his father. Richard failed to keep balance between the army and the Parliament. He dissolved the Parliament to please the army that created a greater confusion. The people became critical about Richard and disrespectful about Cromwell.

In a most chaotic and embarrassing situation Richard resigned. The army restored the Rump (Parliament), but the Rump took a very arrogant attitude to the army. Lambert, a leader of the army, again dissolved the Rump. Army again failed to rule the country as the people did not accept the martial law. A complete disorder in the administration prevailed and the country plunged into a state of total anarchy. Demand for the restoration of monarchy was raised. All these circumstances made restoration of the Stuarts inevitable. General Monk who was a general of Cromwell in Scotland, marched to London with his army to end the anarchy. He called back those members of the Parliament who were expelled by Colonel Pride and thus the Long Parliament was restored. The new Parliament (Long Parliament) which was known as the Convention Parliament, decided to restore the monarchy and call back Charles II who was in exile in Holland. Negotiation was made with him. To facilitate the work of general Monk, Charles II agreed to the proposal of the Restoration and issued The Declaration of Breda in which he promised (a) a general Pardon to all, (b) a Parliamentary government and (c) religious and public liberty to all so far as it did not disturb the peace of the country. In 1660 Charles II was restored to the Throne of England, Scotland and Ireland.

Chapter Three

Restoration of Monarchy

Charles II (1660-1685)

Charles II was more tactful and clever than his father. He possessed natural sagacity and shrewdness, but he was easy-going and immoral in his life-style. His talent for intrigue baffled the ablest statesman of his time. He was at heart a Roman Catholic and had all sympathy for the Catholics. He showed all toleration for the Catholics and even thought of reviving Catholicism with the help of French king Louis XIV. But he did not dare to show it openly for popular opposition. From the beginning he took a moderate and reconciling policy with the Parliament. He did not dare to go against the Parliament or embitter relation with it.

Charles II came back to London took the Crown of England and the Monarchy was restored. The Restoration was not only the restoration of the Crown, but it was the restoration of the Parliamentary Form of Government and the House of Commons. The cause of the Monarchy triumphed, but the cause of absolute Monarchy was defeated. No king or monarch from now hoped to rule the country arbitrarily or against the will of the people. The theory of Divine Right of King was proved wrong and rejected. Hatred for kingship gave way to sincere loyalty to the Crown. That was the most positive result of the Civil War. It was also proved that the English people shall not accept martial law or military rule.

The fanatic asceticism of the Puritans aroused among the people a strong negative feeling against them. In some cases they did so much excess that they had to be stopped by imposing special laws. There was a great change in the society after the Restoration. The society changed from one extreme of asceticism to another extreme of debauchery and profligacy. In respect of government there was a great improvement in the democratic process. Sovereignty came to be exercised by the Parliament not by the King alone. The King became obedient to the Parliament. Charles II took the warning from the fate of his father.

Parliament and Charles II

The Parliament that restored Charles II on the throne of England was known as the *Convention Parliament* as it was not summoned by a Royal Writ. The Convention Parliament took some basic decision to run the

administration and surmount the prevailing anarchy and enacted some drastic laws accordingly which were :

1. It passed an Act of Indemnity and Oblivion and promised a general pardon to all except those who were involved in killing the King.
2. The Royal Revenue was fixed at a definite rate; many of the feudal rates and dues were abolished.
3. The army was paid all its arrears and was disbanded keeping only a skeleton of it necessary for the state. Disbanding of the army was a difficult job, but the Parliament could do it successfully.
4. The confiscated properties of the Crown and Churches were mostly restored.
5. The beneficial steps of the Long Parliament were retained.
6. The Navigation Act of 1651 was renewed.

The Convention Parliament was dissolved in 1661.

Cavalier Parliament

The next Parliament which was called by the Lord Protector was known as the *Cavalier Parliament* as the spirit of the Cavaliers was strong in this Parliament. They were strongly Royalist in politics, Anglican in religion and in action revengeful towards the Puritans. They hated the Puritans and the Round Heads as they took the lead of the Revolution and the Civil War. A number of penal Acts were passed against them (These laws are collectively known as Clarendon Code, since Edward Hyde, the Earl of Clarendon formulated these laws). Their next step was to settle the issues of the Churches and take them back to their former state restoring their estates and other properties. *Cavalier Parliament* continued from 1661 to 1679.

The Ministry of Clarendon

Edward Hyde, the Earl of Clarendon, was the Lord Chancellor of James II and the most powerful minister of the Cavalier Parliament. In religious conviction he was a supporter of Episcopacy, and in politics favoured the constitutional government. His behaviour made him unpopular. After the failure of the Dutch war his unpopularity was further intensified. He was held responsible for the secret sale of Dunkirk to the French king. The Puritans and the Dissenters hated him for his persecution and cruelties. The King also did not like him and he was impeached and dismissed in 1687. He then fled to France and lived there as an exile till death.

The Ministry of the CABAL

After Clarendon the king selected five persons – Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley and Lauderdale. They formed a new cabinet which

was known as The CABAL (The first alphabets of their name). They were not a cabinet in the modern sense, they were different in opinion, they never even consulted each other. They were united only against the Cavaliers. The CABAL ministry soon became unpopular for the Secret Treaty of Dover, the second Dutch war and their Catholic bias. Some of the ministers also disagreed with the king. In 1673 the CABAL cabinet fell.

The Ministry of Dunby

After the fall of the CABAL, Earl of Dunby became the chief minister of Charles II. In his domestic policy he was an ardent supporter of the Church of England and was opposed to tolerate either the Catholics or the Dissenters. In foreign policies he was opposed to the king. He wanted to check the growing power of Louis XIV of France, but the king wanted an alliance with the king of France. He raised an army and was getting ready to fight the French king. To have a strong ally in Europe he arranged the marriage of Princess Mary, the eldest daughter of James of York, with William of Orange. William of Orange was a champion of Protestantism and a stubborn enemy of Louis XIV. Louis XIV was looking for an opportunity to destroy Dunby for his anti-French policies. He revealed to his political enemies of Dunby that he (Dunby) was involved in the secret treaty with France by which the King indirectly supported Louis XIV and in lieu of that the king got a huge sum of money. The House of Commons when learned about the secret, impeached Dunby. The King in order to protect his chief minister dissolved the Parliament.

Chapter Four

Parliamentary Democracy

James II (1685-1689)

Charles II died on 6 February, 1685. He had no legitimate issue to succeed him. Then his only surviving brother James, the Duke of York, succeeded him to the throne as James II of England. He was like his unfortunate father Charles I obstinate, narrow minded. He also believed in the Divine Right of the King and was determined to rule the country arbitrarily.

James II was an avowed Catholic. He ascended the throne with two secret intentions in mind- first to make himself an absolute monarch and then to rehabilitate the Catholics in England. With these two mottos he was proceeding very cautiously. Meanwhile Duke of Argyle and Duke of Monmouth revolted against him, but James suppressed these two rebellion and both of them were executed. A judicial enquiry commission was constituted to try the rebels and the followers of the rebel leaders. The commission was known as the Bloody Assize as it executed more than three hundred persons and transported more than eight hundred person to different colonies in North America. It was during the Stuarts that the English criminals and rebels were transported to different overseas colonies as part of their punishment.

The steps of James II for placing the Catholics in important position of the state affairs and in the army created dissatisfaction and doubts among the Parliament members and even among the members of the public. The king was doing all these defying the laws and the Constitution. He exempted the Roman Catholics from the operation of penal laws which were in force against them. The Magdalen College of Oxford was converted into a Roman Catholic seminary depriving all its students. In the name of religious toleration he issued the Declaration of Indulgence suspending the penal laws against both the Catholics and the Dissenters. He next issued the second Declaration of Indulgence and ordered it to be read in all the Churches. Seven Bishops, headed by the Archbishop of Canterbury Sancroft, prayed to the King for exclusion from the reading of the second Declaration of Indulgence. They were tried for libel and were later acquitted. All these high handedness of the King defying the public sentiment created the ground for the Revolution.

The Glorious Revolution

The Revolution of 1688 was the overthrow of King James II from the throne of England by William of Orange. A strong group of the Tory Parliamentarians were united with the Whigs and decided to overthrow James II with the help of William of Orange. On 10 June, 1688 a son was born to James II. It was a warning to all that James' Catholic system would not end with his death. Neither the Protestant Mary nor Anne, but their Catholic brother (son of James II) would be the next king and that would mean a perpetuation of the Catholic dynasty in England. This consideration finally united both the Tory and the Whig members of the Parliament together as they did not like the Catholics. The man who took the lead was Danby who signed the letter of invitation to William. They sent the invitation to the Dutch Stadtholder William Henry of Orange to invade England and overthrow his father-in-law. William was the husband of Mary (Mary II), the daughter of James II. He was a great champion of Protestantism in Europe. Mary was also a Protestant. They were the grandchildren of Charles I of England. William was against the alliance of James II with Louis XIV, the French king, as both of them were Catholic. William was always bent on checking the aggressive policy of Louis XIV and did not like a strong position of the Catholics in Europe. An alliance between England and France would encourage the Catholics in England.

William with a naval fleet landed at Torbay on 5 November, 1688 and marched to London with an army drawn from all the Protestant races of Europe. He declared for a free Parliament, to which he would refer all matters of political and other disputes. The people of London welcome him with applause. The army officers of James II, who were divided into a number of factions, declined to fight for the king and deserted him. James II fled to France. The throne of England was declared vacant. The Convention Parliament was summoned and the Parliament offered the Crown of England, Scotland and Ireland to William and Mary. Thus William and Mary jointly became King and Queen. The Convention Parliament enacted the Declaration of Right in 1689 condemning all the arbitrary Acts of James II and declared that the future government of the country would be based on the Constitutional Principles.

The Revolution of 1641 and that of 1688

The Revolution of 1641 is better known as the bloody Puritan Revolution. On the other hand the Revolution of 1688 was bloodless and relatively peaceful. Both the Revolutions fought for the issues of the Monarchy and the Parliament. In 1641 it was directed mainly against the despotism of the king. The Puritan Revolution beheaded the king,

abolished the kingship, the House of Lords and established a Parliament and declared the country a Republic. The Revolution of 1688 invited William of Orange to overthrow the king who was his father-in-law. The King fled to France and William came to London unopposed. William ascended the throne of England with his wife Mary among great applause of the people. In 1688 there was least violence and bloodshed. It was a triumph of the Parliament over the King. It ended the Stuart theory of Divine Right. It established the law and tradition that the selection of King and Queen and the determination of their position would be the choice of the Parliament and the provision of the Constitution. It ended the long struggle between the King and the Parliament. It was a victory of the law over royal prerogative and established the tradition that the King or the Monarch would be a constitutional institution.

The Puritan Revolution of 1641 was very complicated. There were too much ecclesiastical disputes. The Revolution not only killed the king, it also killed much of the liberty of the people. The Puritan Parliament differed on the issues of religion and many other things. The Parliament was divided in two opposing groups and many factions. The army and the Parliament were always in quarrel. The Puritan Revolution could not give a government with People's consent. The Puritan Revolution imposed everything against the will of the people, it therefore failed.

William of Orange and Mary (1689-1702)

William and Mary were jointly made Monarch of England, Scotland and Ireland by the Convention Parliament on 13 February, 1689. Though he was Co-Monarch virtually he was the Monarch, and he outlived his wife Mary. He was known as William III in England and was made monarch during his life time only.

With William a new Era started in the history of England. He made an open declaration on arrival in London that he would not interfere in the affairs of the Parliament, that he would not do anything beyond the decision of the Parliament, that the Parliament would be free to take all decisions. He further said that all decisions would be taken at, and all matters of disputes would be referred to, the Parliament. The Monarch would be a constitutional Monarch only. The Glorious Revolution brought two victories in domestic affairs which created many bloody disputes in the past - these were the authority of the Parliament and the succession of the Protestant to the throne. This was for the first time that the Parliament secured the effective control over the national finance and the army. During the reign of William freedom of press was acknowledged, religious tolerance was granted and cabinet system of government was introduced.

A great change was also brought about in the foreign affairs of England. Charles II and James II were tools in the hand of the French king Louis XIV and England's foreign policy was subservient to the aggressive policy of Louis XIV. William made it free from the influence of France.

William and the Convention Parliament

The Convention Parliament of 1689, when jointly offered the Crown to William and Mary, took several steps to ensure the supremacy of the Parliament and the liberties of the people. The steps were:

1. It first transformed the Declaration of Rights into the Bill of Rights which formed the third great character of English liberties and completed the works the Magna Charta started.
2. It stopped the illegal power of the King to suspend the Parliament and dispense with the Parliament as was exercised by James II.
3. It restricted the power of the King to maintain a standing army.
4. Thirdly it stopped the right of the King to levy taxes or money on the subjects without sanction of the Parliament.
5. It further asserted that the Parliament should be freely elected; the Parliament should frequently sit in session and should have freedom of speech and debate in the House.
6. The subjects or people should have right to petition to the King.
7. Those who were Papist or would marry a Papist, should be incapable to possess or inherit the Crown.

The Convention Parliament made certain provisions which compelled the King to summon the Parliament annually. (1) The Parliament passed the Mutiny Act. This Act authorized the King to maintain a standing army and enforce discipline in it by martial law. This law was passed for only one year and it was to be renewed every year. In that case the King had to call the Parliament every year. Thus the King was made dependent on the Parliament for maintaining his army. (2) The Parliament made provisions of grant for the expenditures of the Royal Household and the Establishment of the King, along with the right from the King to audit the expenditures. It ensured the annual session of the Parliament, because the King needed the sanction of the Parliament for the money for his household and establishment. These two measures secured the control of the Parliament over the army and the expenditures of the King. It also ensured the annual sessions of the Parliament.

William's Religious Policy

William was an avowed Protestant, but he was tolerant to others. By the Toleration Act freedom of worship to all Protestant Dissenters was ensured except the Unitarians. This Act made a great advance to the direction of religious toleration. William's religious policy and the Toleration Act were criticized by the Church of England. As many of the Dissenters still held the doctrine of the Divine Right of the king, they opposed William to the throne of England. They refused to show allegiance to him. They were known as Jacobites or partisans of King James II.

The Cabinet Form of Government

William owed his crown to the united support of both the Whigs and the Tories of the Parliament, so he formed his cabinet with the members from both the parties. More over he wanted the support of both the parties for his France Policies particularly his war with Louis XIV. But this system of Cabinet Form of Government did not work well, as they were not in good terms, Whigs hated the Tories and Tories hated the Whigs. On the other hand the Tories were against the war. William on the advice of Sunderland next formed his Cabinet only with the members of the Whigs as they were majority in the House of Commons. Thus the principle of choosing the Cabinet and the ministers from the majority party of the house was established.

The Parliament and the State finance

The Bank of England, State Borrowing and the renewal of Coinage were the major aspects of State Finance. The Parliament enacted laws and gave them definite shapes.

For his war against France William always needed money. The state revenue could not always afford to supply this money. Charles Montague the Chancellor of the Exchequer devised the plan of borrowing money from the people on the security of the Government. The people will not give this loan to the king but to the State and they would get it back with interest. Thus national borrowing was introduced, and the interest on the loan was made a fixed charge on the national revenue.

William Paterson, a Scottish member of the Parliament, first suggested for The Bank of England. The Government authorized the bank to receive deposits of money from the people and issue bank-notes. The Bank of England started its function in 1694 and it was successful. The Government could take loan from the Bank.

The Act of Settlement and Succession

Of the many Acts passed by the Parliament during William, two are very important. They are the Triennial Act (1694) and the Act of Settlement (1701). By the Triennial Act the tenure of the Parliament was made three years. The Act of Settlement decided the issues of succession and some other important matters. (1) It provided that after the death of William, his Sister-in-law Anne and if she was without heir, the succession should pass over to Electress Sophia of Hanover and to her Protestant heirs. Sophia was the granddaughter of James I that accrued her right on the throne of England. (2) It further provided that all future kings must belong to the Church of England. The Catholics were excluded from the right of succession. (3) England must not get involved in any foreign war without the sanction of the Parliament. (4) The Judges were to receive fixed salaries and were not to be removed from their offices except by the Parliament on petition to the King. This made the position of the judges secured and they were not in fear of losing their jobs by the pleasure of the King.

William was the Prince of Orange and he married the English Princess Mary. Throughout his reign he attached greater emphasis on European politics and balance of power in Europe. He used England as a great factor for maintaining that balance. His war with France was a part of that politics. He always wanted to push France at bay. Despite all these it was during his reign that England made wonderful progress both in domestic politics and in foreign relation. It was during his time that the principles of Parliamentary Form of Government were established, religious toleration and freedom of worship were recognized, rights and liberties of the people were accepted, Divine Right of king was stopped and the King was made a constitutional King. England was saved both from the absolute Monarchy like that of Charles II and James II and the dictatorial Rule of Cromwell.

In European politics England was subservient to France during Charles II and James II. William made England a leading power in Europe and a great factor to balance the power of Europe. He built up Grand Alliance with Holland and Germany against France and Spain, which broke the power of the French king Louis XIV. He also put a check on the French maritime advances on sea and established supremacy of English Navy on sea and overseas colonies.

The Political Parties: Whigs and Tories

The Whigs and Tories are two major political parties in the British political history. They dominated English politics in the Parliament for long. The Whigs were the supporters of the people's rights and people's

liberties. They upheld the Constitutional Government and the power and authority of the Parliament. The term Whig comes from “whiggamor meaning “cattle driver” used to describe western Scots who came to Leith for corn. In the Glorious Revolution the Whigs played a great role as supporters of the Parliamentarians. The Tories were different from the Whigs. They supported the Royalists and believed in the Divine Right of the King. They were conservative and traditionalist. They believed in the political philosophy which grew up out of the Cavalier faction during the Civil War. The word Tory derives from the Irish word “Torai” meaning an outlaw, a term of abuse “an Irish Rebel”. The Tories are the supporters of the Monarchy.

Queen Anne (1702-1714)

After the death of William III, Anne daughter of Charles II ascended the throne of England, Scotland and Ireland on 8 March, 1702.

She was made queen of England, Scotland and Ireland by an Act of the Parliament (The Bill of Right /Act of Settlement of 1697). On 1 May, 1702 under the Union Act two of her realms – the kingdom of England and Scotland were united as a single sovereign state, the kingdom of Great Britain.

Anne’s Catholic father James II was deposed during the “Glorious Revolution” of 1688. Her Protestant brother-in-law and cousin William of Orange became joint monarch with his wife Mary II in 1689. After Mary II’s death in 1694 William continued as the sole monarch until his death. He was succeeded by Anne in 1702.

Anne favored the moderate Tories who were more likely to share her Anglican religious views than their opponents the Whigs. Religiously she was opposed to the Dissenters. The Whigs grew more powerful during the Spanish war of succession until in 1710 and they disagreed with the Queen. Anne dismissed many of them from their offices. Her close friendship with Sara Churchill, Duchess of Marlborough gave birth to many sour talks. Anne died childless though she conceived for many times and she was the last Stuart Monarch. She was succeeded by her second cousin George I of the house of Hanover.

Soon after her accession, Anne appointed her husband Lord High Admiral giving him nominal control of the Royal Navy. She gave the control of the army to Lord Marlborough. He also received many honors from the Queen. He was knighted and raised to the rank of Duke. The Duchess of Marlborough was appointed the Groom of the Stole, Mistress of the Robes and keeper of Privy Purse.

England was involved in the Spanish War of Succession in which England, Austria and Holland fought against France and Spain. Charles II of Spain died childless in 1700 and the succession was disputed by two claimants: Habsburg Archduke Charles of Austria and Bourbon Philip, Duke of Anjou. Marlborough was appointed the Commander-in-chief of the allied forces. He took an active role in the war against Louis XIV and defeated the French army in the battle of Blenheim. Tory Cabinet of Anne was dominated by Marlborough and he used to guide the Queen and the national policies. For his war policies he had to make some compromise with the Whigs which his fellow Tories did not like.

Major events of the Reign of Queen Anne

1. Capture of Gibraltar: In 1704 Admiral Rooke capture Gibraltar and since that time it has been the British colony. By capturing Gibraltar the British Navy established its supremacy in the Mediterranean. The French could never penetrate there.
2. Marlborough won victories in the battle of Blenheim (1704) and Ramillies (1706). By these two victories the power of the French king Louis XIV was broken.
3. Union of England and Scotland was given effect in 1707. Since the accession of James I, Scotland and England were united under one Crown. But this union was purely personal. The two countries retained their Parliament and other institutions. James tried to implement the union of England and Scotland, but failed. Cromwell united the two countries under one Parliament, but after the Restoration Scotland again became separated from the English Government. There were misunderstandings and ill-feeling between the Scots and the Englishmen which arose from the religious differences and disagreement on trading privileges (The Scots were mostly Catholic and the English were Protestant. Secondly the English trader did not allow the Scots to trade in the English colonies). In 1703 the Scottish Parliament passed the Bill of Security which clearly said that after the death of Queen Anne, the king of England should not be the king of Scotland unless equal commercial advantages were allowed to the Scots. The Scots and the English were on the verge of a war, but the Act of Union passed in 1707 saved the situation. The Act of Union settled the disputes once for all. (1) There should be one Parliament between the two countries. Scotland should send 45 members to the House of Commons, and 16 peers to the House of Lords. (2) The united country should henceforth be called The Great Britain. (3) Scottish laws and the Scottish Church should remain undisturbed. (4) Scotland was to get equal commercial advantages with England in all the English colonies.

The result of the union was very positive. The hostilities between the two countries came to an end. England was thus saved from a grave political crisis and threat of a war. Scotland being allowed to trade with the English became a great commercial country. Both England and Scotland gained from the union

4. Union of two East India Companies was also given effect (1708). Two companies in the same name - East India Company started trade in India each claiming to be authorized by their government. The Indian traders were in confusion with these two companies. There were scuffles between these companies in India. These two companies were merged and after that one East India Company continued to trade in India.
5. The Whigs and the Tories did not pull well in the Parliament; they were always in disputes in the Parliament. When the Tories criticized Marlborough and his wife, Marlborough changed his political ideology and joined the Whigs. The Tories coming to power in 1710 were united to move an impeachment motion against Marlborough and he was removed from his European Command.
6. The Treaty of Utrecht ended the war with France which William III started in Europe against Louis XIV. By this Treaty England gained most. The commercial advantages and colonial possessions which England gained by this Treaty made her the supreme naval power in the world. Gibraltar and Minorca gave England the control over the entire Mediterranean. Expansion of her Colonies in North America gave her immense trading privileges and control over the Atlantic Ocean.

Death of Queen Anne

Anne was sick throughout 1713; she was bedridden because of gout and could not speak for a stroke. She died on 1 August, 1714. Electress Sophia of Hanover died two months before Anne. Sophia's son George I inherited the British crown pursuant to the Act of Settlement of 1701. The claim of Anne's Catholic half brother was ignored by the Parliament. A Jacobite rising for the throne was also suppressed.

Part X

Industrial Revolution

Industrial Revolution was a great event in the economic and social history of Britain. The Revolution in Textile, Coal and Steel Industries brought about a radical change in the social, economic and political life, not only in Britain, but also in Europe.

Innovation of Railways and Steam Engine and other mechanical inventions gave a fantastic economic boost in Britain. the rise of Capitalism, ideas of Liberalism and Socialism also followed The Revolution; Karl Marx gave his communistic economic theory. Another innovation-important event of history was the French Revolution. If Industrial Revolution was a flood, the French Revolution was a storm. Both of them changed Europe radically. The French Revolution though occurred in France, it shook the whole of Europe; French Philosophers and writers also influenced Britain and British writers and philosophers. The rise of Napoleon and the Napoleonic wars that followed greatly affected Britain.

Chapter One

Industrial Revolution in Britain

Two great revolutions– the French Revolution and the Industrial Revolution–changed the political and social mind-set of Europe in eighteenth century. The French Revolution though took place in France, it transformed the political and diplomatic landscape of all the European countries. The Industrial Revolution, on the other hand, was first started in Britain and spread over other European countries gradually and changed the social and economic life of Europe. French Revolution (1789-1799) came as a storm to destroy and reconstruct, while the Industrial Revolution came in a slow but evolutionary process. It started in 1730s and was spanned over hundred years. It transformed the social life through a massive change from agricultural and rural economy to a large-scale manufacturing and capital intensive enterprises. It helped rapid growth of urbanization and triggered social changes. Industrial Revolution started the modern and machine-age. Many new machines were invented and machines became part of life. It introduced new mode of production, accelerated and multiplied productions. We find that what a hundred men were incapable of doing in 10 days, the machine was doing that in one day or even in less time.

It is a great question why the Industrial Revolution started in Britain? Of all the European countries of Britain made some special progress in technology that time. Politically England was a stable country. They made some remarkable land and agricultural reforms in seventeenth century which gave the landlords surplus money from the land to invest for industries (first cottage industries and then large factories). Britain at that time produced a good number of scientists, inventors and technicians. James Hargreaves, Richard Arkwright, Samuel Crompton, Edmund Cartwright and some other technicians who first brought about the revolution in the textile industries. Humphrey Davy, John Smeaton, Henry Bessemer, Darby and others contributed greatly in developing the coal and iron industries. James Watt, Thomas Newcoman, George Stephenson, Robert Fulton and others invented steam engine and improved other engines.

Of all the changes that the Industrial Revolution brought about, the change and transformation in the human endeavor were at the root and

most important. Man discovered the new ways of exploiting energy. Over a period of two or three generations, the society that depended on drawing water by bullock wheel, sailing vessel by wind, heating room by wood, was changed to depend on steam engine and coal. In 1800 the world produced 10 million tons of coal, and in 1900 it produced 1 billion tons. The Industrial Revolution brought the age of fossil-fuel and by the end of the nineteenth century electricity was at hand. Machine minimized the labor of man and electricity gave speed.

Several steps taken by the British government helped and hastened the growth of industries in Britain. The root of industrialization in Britain was in agriculture. By the middle of the eighteenth century agriculture was thoroughly commercialized. Small holdings were converted into big land holdings. The big landlords began to mechanize agriculture, introduced new crops for getting more return from land. They invested their surplus income from land in industries.

The dramatic changes that took place in late eighteenth century in Britain were due to expansion of overseas trade and colonial markets. The colonies of North and South America, Africa and India were interrelated into the pattern of the European economic expansion. Wealth and raw materials were being poured in Britain from the colonies for the new industries, and the colonial markets were reserved for the finished goods. The British navy protected the trade routes and commercial marine ships and ensured monopoly of British trade and commerce by developing better diplomatic relation with other countries.

The Industrial Revolution started first in northern England and in western Scotland. Manchester soon became the hub of textile industries. To connect Liverpool port with Manchester, beside the new railway, a deep and long canal was dug so that ship could come direct from Liverpool to carry textile goods. Glasgow became famous for steel and ship building and Dundee for jute and textile. Cotton from North America, Africa and India, and jute from Bengal were the cheap raw materials for these industries. After textile, coal and iron industries boomed in Birmingham. Railway engine, war hardware industries were concentrated in Birmingham.

Revolution in Textile Industries

A number of scientific inventions gave new momentum to the Industrial Revolution of Britain during the time between 1730 to 1830. It is the cotton and textile industries which started the Revolution. First step was the invention flying shuttle by John Kay in 1733 for weaving loom. It

sped up the weaving. In 1764 James Hargreaves, a hand loom weaver, invented spinning jenny (Jenny was the name of his wife, he named it after the name of his wife). The invention of Water frame by Richard Arkwright in 1769, made it possible to produce both warp and woof in great quantity. The next invention of spinning mule by Samuel Compton in 1799, which was a combination of jenny and frame, made enormous development in spinning and textile industries. A jenny could spin from 6 to 24 times more yarn than a hand spinner. By the end of eighteenth century a mule could produce 200 to 300 times more which brought the Revolution. The Industrial Revolution got the greater impetus when the steam engine was invented in 1769 by James Watt. The Revolution did not stop there; it rather continued to invent new and improved devices. The invention of cotton gin by an American Eli Whitney in 1793, mechanized the process of separating cotton seeds from fiber which sped up the production of cotton and reduced the cost. The first textile machines were inexpensive and the spinner could start it in his own cottage, but as the machine grew in size and complexity they were housed in workshops and factories located near water which could be used to power the machines. Between 1760 and 1800 British exports of cotton goods grew from £250,000 worth a year to £5 million. In 1760 Britain imported 2.5 million pound of raw cotton, in 1787 22 million and in 1837 366 million pound. From 1780 on British cotton textile flooded the world market.

Coal and Iron Industries

Britain produced enough coal and pig iron. They used this coal and iron for industrial purposes. Like the textile industries some talented engineers and technicians innovated new devices for extracting coal and pig-iron from the mines. The new innovations in coal and ore or pig mining changed the total scenarios of the British coal and iron industries. A series of new methods or innovations in melting metals (coke smelting, rolling and puddling) helped the British engineers and technicians to make steel from pig-iron. For heating purposes they used coal instead of wood, as coal was more efficient than wood. This pig-iron was of higher quality and could be used for an enormous variety of iron products like machines, engines, railway tracks, agricultural implements and military hardware. Literally those iron products were the basic infrastructure of industrialization. Before other European countries could produce such steel products, Britain started to export both coal and iron products to rapidly expanding markets around the industrializing region of the world.

Between 1814 and 1852 exports of British iron doubled rising to over 1 million tons of iron, more than half of world production of that time. In 1711 Thomas Newcomen invented an effective steam Engine for pumping out water from mines. It improved the extraction of coal and pig-iron from mines. James Watt's steam engines were further improved and made more powerful over the eighteenth century for use in mills and factories. The steam-driven locomotive revolutionized communication by railways. The first railroad was built in 1825.

Railways

Transportation of goods like coal and iron in bulk for industries was still a difficult job, but when railroad from the Durham coal field of Stockton to Darlington was built in 1825, industrialization in Britain got a new boost. The man primarily responsible for the design of first steam railway engine was George Stephenson, a self-educated engineer. This steam locomotive brought about a miracle in railway transportation, although its speed was only 15 miles per hour. Construction of railways was a massive enterprise and was also risky but potentially profitable. The first passenger and goods railway service was opened in 1830 between Liverpool and Manchester. In 1830 there were no more than few dozen of miles of railway in the world. In 1840 it was over 4500 miles and by 1850 there were over 23,000 miles. The British engineers, industrialists and investors were quick to realize the importance and need of these industries and they came up to construct railways not only at home but also in other countries overseas. The larger part of Britain's industrial success, in later nineteenth century, came from building railways, railway engines and other railway infrastructures in other countries. The English Railway contractor M/s Thomas Brassey, for instance, built railways in Italy, Canada, Argentina, Australia and India.

Industrial Revolution and its Impact

One of the most striking impacts of Industrial Revolution was rapid urbanization and massive transmigration of people from village to the town. Agrarian economy of Britain was transformed into an industrial economy. Money and wealth were being accumulated in the hand of the industrialists. Gap between the rich and poor increased. The words man and machine got new denotation. Man became fond of machine than man. If the wheel moves that earns him more money than man. If a man worked harder with machine, he earned more money. A hard-working man was otherwise described as an industrious man. The good sides were that the Industrial Revolution ushered into a new world altogether. It

made cheap and better goods available to the consumers. It made living comfortable and helped rapid growth of urbanization. More jobs were created for the workers. Prosperity came both to the poor and to the rich.

The bad sides were the Industrial Revolution brought about a great change in the demographic map of the Country (Goldsmith had shown it in his 'The Deserted Village'). There was a great boom of population in the urban areas, as the industrialists wanted more workers and more men for their machines. Child-labour, women labour created inhuman situation for the workers. The industrialists did not bother for the well-fare of the workers. Money replaced morality as money could buy anything. Child-labour, child-prostitution, brothel and slums grew rapidly (Charles Dickens depicted these things in his novels). It gave rise to capitalism. A few individuals who owned industries became the owners of the means of production. They accumulated fabulous wealth and wielded both power and position in the society and in the state affairs. Political power was monopolized by the industrialists and soon started to show its ugly aspects of ruthless exploitation of the poor workers. As the Parliament was controlled by these industrialists, there were few laws which were enacted in favour of the poor workers and for their well-fare. The British Parliament was always in favour of colonialism. They always tried to pass laws to follow the policies of Capitalism, Colonialism and Imperialism.

Chapter Two

The Ideas of Liberalism

The major goal of the Industrial Revolution was to expand the colonial markets for the British goods. The British industrialists were making all sorts of propagandas in favor of imperialism and colonialism in America, Africa and Asia. Philosophers like Adam Smith (1723 -1790), in his book “The Wealth of the Nation”, Jeremy Bentham (1748 - 1832) in his “The Principles of Morals and Legislations” and John Stuart Mill with their ideas of “Representative Government, Extension of Civil Rights and Freedom of Organization and Freedom of Expression” came up with their theories of Liberalism. This liberalism supported Free Trade, Free Market and Free Competition. They all supported the Industrial Revolution, Capitalism and advocated for free trade or *laissez faire*. They advocated for democratic and representative government and extension of Civil Rights. They also advocated for freedom of thought, freedom of expression and freedom of organization. “The Wealth of the Nation” of Adam Smith became the Bible of Free Trade. Adam Smith gave his theory of “*Individualism*” in trade and capitalism as the romantic poets gave importance to individual thought and imagination in poetry.

Idea of Socialism

Socialism is a political and economic system in which wealth - means of production, distribution and exchange of wealth - should be owned and controlled by the people or the state. The state should fairly distribute wealth to the people. The state should ensure that everyone is given an equal opportunity to develop his talents. The ideas of Socialism strongly developed in the early part of the 19th century, though it started long before. The ideas of Socialism got momentum for the oppression of the feudal lords in the early middle age and exploitation of the capitalists and industrialists in the middle of the eighteenth century. The worst aspect of the Industrial Revolution was the merciless oppression and exploitation of the industrialists of the poor workers in the nineteenth century.

Socialism is of two types – Democratic Socialism and Revolutionary Socialism (Communism or Socialism of the Proletariat). Democratic Socialism develops in an evolutionary process. Britain has evolved it by a fair compromise between Democracy and Socialism. Revolutionary Socialism, as in Soviet Union and China, through revolution and blood shed. Britain in the past had seen civil wars over succession of throne and

had seen its bad effects. Britain, therefore, avoided blood shed and followed the policy of Democratic Socialism.

Marxism

Marxism is a new philosophy of history and reforms in the social and economic system expounded by Karl Marx. He explained how people are related to our most fundamental resource - the power of labour. The whole notion of labour is the fundamental issue of Marx's theories. He argued that it is simply the process of human labour which transforms nature and the world. He calls this capacity to transform nature, 'labour power.'

Karl Heinrich Marx was born in a middle-class Jewish family in Trier, in Germany on May 5th, 1818. His family had a strong Jewish background and some of them were Rabbis of the Jewish community. But his father was not a religious man. He had little faith in religion. He was a famous lawyer and was deeply influenced by the ideas of Voltaire. Though he had no faith in religion, still he agreed to baptize his son as a Protestant so that he had not to lose his job as one of the most respected lawyers in Trier. It was an early example of using religion only for personal advantage.

At the age of seventeen, Marx enrolled in the Faculty of Law at the University of Bonn. At Bonn he fell in love with Jenny von Westphalen, the daughter of Baron von Westphalen, who was a leading and influential member of Trier aristocracy. It was the baron von Westphalen who inspired Marx to Romantic literature and the politics of Saint-Simon. But just a year later his father took him away from that atmosphere and sent him to the University of Berlin where he remained for the next four years. At that time he renounced his Romanticism for the Hegelian ideas. Hegelianism was at that time getting popularity in Berlin.

But the university and the Prussian government did not like his political views. Finding it difficult to make a career in the university, Marx moved to journalism and, in October 1842, became editor of the influential *Rheinische Zeitung*, a liberal newspaper backed by industrialists. But Marx's articles, particularly those on economic questions, forced the Prussian government to close down the paper. Marx then went to live in France. He associated himself with the extreme anti-authoritarian groups. Marx was expelled from Paris at the end of 1844. He with Engels, moved to Brussels where he remained for the next 3-4 years.

Marx and Engels jointly drafted the Communist Manifesto and in February, 1848, declared the Communist Manifesto in public in London

calling the workers of the world to be united. The Manifesto advocated for:

1. Expropriation of all landed property and use the rent from land to cover state expenditure,
2. A high and progressively graded income tax,
3. Abolition of the right of inheritance,
4. Centralization of credit by establishing a state bank,
5. Nationalization of transport,
6. State ownership of factories and redistribution of land,
7. Duty of all to work,
8. Education for all children at state cost, and
9. Abolition of factory work for all children.

During the first half of the 1850s Marx was in utter poverty and he moved with his family to London. The next 34 years he lived, till his death, in London reading and writing. The *Das Kapital* was written during this time. He and Jenny, his wife, already had four children and two more were to follow. Of them only three survived. Marx's major source of income at this time was actually Engels' help as he did not get any substantial money from his writings or from any other sources. At this time he was connected with the *New York Daily Tribune* (a Weekly). It is really an irony of fate that the man, whose theory of socialism once rocked the capitalistic world, had to die in extreme poverty. Karl Marx died on March 14, 1883 and was buried at Highgate Cemetery in North London. Before his death he could publish his 'magnum opus' *The Capital*. It was published after his death.

Basic principles of Marxism:

1. **Thesis, Anti-thesis and Synthesis** – Marx gave the principle of dialectical materialism. "Dialectic is the study of contradictions which lie at the heart of existence. Development is the struggle of opposites." Opposite forces, which are always present, form the driving force of history. The dominant forces of each age assume the role of a thesis. The thesis is always confronted with some anti-thesis or opposite force. These two forces, in the course of time, make a compromise which is called the Synthesis. In the synthesis or compromise we find both thesis and anti-thesis but not in full.
2. **Materialistic Interpretation of History** – Marx applied dialectical materialism to interpret history. Economic conditions determine history or the course of history. Production, distribution and exchange of goods determine political, social and cultural developments.

3. **The theory of Surplus Value** – Labour creates two values – necessary value and surplus value. The wage paid to the labourer is equal to the necessary value. The remaining portion of the worker's labour is surplus which is robbed by the capitalist. To be more specific the capitalist makes the worker work extra or exploit the worker. Capital itself does not create anything; on the contrary it is created by the labour.
4. **The theory of Class War** – At every stage of history, there is a war between classes. One class tries to exploit other. The land-owners try to exploit the landless; factory-owners exploit the workers. There is always hatred between the classes.
5. **Law of Concentration of Capital** – Capital is concentrated in few hands. Money begets money, capital increases capital. The rich become richer, and poor poorer as the wealth of the community is accumulated in few hands.
6. **Dictatorship of the Proletariat** – Proletariat, the landless and property-less people, who are now being cruelly exploited by the capitalists, will one day overthrow the capitalists and establish the dictatorship of the proletariat, which will last for some time only. But ultimately the dictatorship of the proletariat will seize all capitalist property.
7. **Withering of the State** – A day will come when the state will wither away. There will be no state. In the transitional stage, the state will be used by the proletariat to destroy any resistance from the bourgeoisie.
8. **Religion the Opium of the People** – Marx was against religion. He said that religion is a handle of the capitalist for exploitation of the workers. He said that religion acts as opium to keep the mass people calm, which create opportunity for the capitalist to exploit the workers. Exponents of capitalism push forward the religionists to convince the poor workers that if they suffer in this world, they would be rewarded in the next world.

The theory of Marxism is very clear. It became a tremendous force and created a great hope in the mind of the workers that they might be saved from exploitation. The capitalists and exploiters all over the world were also scared by it. But there are some flaws in Marxist theory, for example, the idea of surplus value is not correct. Marx ignored here some non- economic factors. He did injustice to religion by ignoring it. He also preached hatred and antagonism among people in the name of class struggle. Marx himself did not initiate any revolution, but 34 years after his death Russian Bolshevik Revolution was started on the theory of Karl Marx.

Chapter Three

French Revolution and Britain

The most significant event of eighteenth century is the French Revolution which shook not only France, but the whole of Europe. It shattered the old order of Absolute Monarchism, privileges of the higher clergies and power of the feudal lords and established rights of the citizen on the ideas of enlightenment. It was basically the outburst of the class conflict. It did not break out suddenly; it was the outburst of the long accumulated grievances of the people of France. The leaders of the people of France appealed to the rulers repeatedly for justice, but the rulers always neglected their appeals and lent a deaf ear to their cries. As a result the Revolution was inevitable and it broke out in 1789 during the reign of Louis XVI.

Causes of French Revolution

Louis XIV had left France bankrupt by his extravagance and wasteful wars. Financial position of France became worse during the time of Louis XV (1715-74) and Louis XVI (1774-1792). Bankruptcy forced Louis XVI to impose new tax on the people more heavily and borrow heavily from the people. New taxes and forced borrowing worsened the condition of the people when they were passing their days in famine condition. These measures made Louis XVI very unpopular.

At that time France was ruled by absolute monarchism. This absolute monarchism made the French King reckless and irresponsible to the welfare of the people. French monarch ruled the country arbitrarily without the least consideration for the rights and welfare of the people. The rulers and the aristocrats used to live lavish and luxurious life, but did little for the good of their subjects. The people made repeated appeal to the king and to the nobles for justice, to redress their grievances. But they had no hope to mitigate their grievances; instead they were being arrested, tortured and put behind the bar without reason and trial. The press was suppressed, revolutionary books were banned. The only way open to them was revolution.

In France at that time injustice, inequality and exploitation prevailed at every stage of life. These injustice and inequality were the main cause of the Revolution. All people of France were not on the same footing in the eyes of law. The aristocrats or the nobles or the feudal lords were the highly privileged and lightly taxed class in the society. The nobles joined the King and make it their common cause to exploit the common people.

An evil medieval legacy of inequality in the society was still in force in France. The French society was divided into three Estates or classes (An individual's estate marked his status and it determined his legal rights, taxes etc.) The First Estate comprised the higher Clergies. The Second Estate was the nobility and the aristocrats. The Third Estate was the largest group of people of the society and they were the peasants, farmers, traders, craftsmen, lawyers, teachers and other professionals. The higher clergy and the nobility owned most of the cultivable lands of the country and were very lightly taxed. They were the most privileged group of the society; they misused their privileges and increased the suffering of the poor. They treated the people of the Third Estate with contempt, although they did all the hard works for them and bore the brunt of the taxes. The slogan of protest against inequality, injustice and exploitation was loud but all in vain.

The Revolution of England in 1688 and the independence and revolution of America in 1783 encouraged the French revolutionaries. They said, if the English and the Americans could do it, why they could not? The English people had achieved all their rights through the bloodless revolution of 1688. It is known in history as the Glorious Revolution of 1688 when absolute monarchy was abolished and the Parliament was given all its power and rights. The America people had won complete independence through the revolution of 1783.

Propagation of some great philosophers and writers made great contribution behind the French Revolution. They inspired the people with their thoughts, ideas and writings and the revolutionaries were inspired by them to carry on the revolution. The middle class or the bourgeoisie were always treated with contempt by the higher clergies and the nobility and were denied of their social status, economic and social rights. They were inspired by these great philosophers and writers for the revolution.

Philosophers and writers who inspired the Revolution

- a. **Montesquieu:** Montesquieu advocated for the reorganization of the society and the social order. He said that there could not be any freedom and justice for these people unless the present social order is transformed. He was against the absolute Monarchy. He referred the example of England and said that they could excellently blend monarchy, aristocracy and democracy. The people of England enjoyed rights and liberty, when the people of France suffered humiliation and oppression.
- b. **Voltaire:** Francis Aronet Voltaire spoke out mercilessly against the oppressive King, the clergies and the nobility who were carrying on oppression on the common people. He was against the social inequality.

- c. **Rousseau:** Jean Jacques Rousseau's influence on the revolutionaries was greater than any other writers or philosophers. It was Rousseau who created an intellectual background for the Revolution. "The Social Contract" theory of Rousseau opened the eyes of the French people. He said it clearly that the Kings lose their right to rule if they neglect the welfare of his subjects. He was the first philosopher who spoke of the popular sovereignty and the right of the people to revolt against the tyrannical king or government. It would not be wrong for the French people if they rose against their oppressive monarch, he said. Rousseau in his "The Social Contract" strongly advocated for three things – Liberty of all citizens, Equality meaning all men are equal in the eye of law and Fraternity meaning there should be friendly or brotherly relation between man and man. From that time "Liberty, Equality and Fraternity" became the battle cry of the Revolution.

Other philosophers and writers like John Locke, Diderot and Thomas Paine all supported Rousseau and took active part in the Revolution by prorogating the revolutionaries.

Louis XVI

The situation of France was grave when Louis XVI ascended the throne in 1774. The country was on the verge of bankruptcy, the people were in famine condition, but the king had no other alternative other than to impose new taxes on the people and increase the former taxes. The prices of food had gone up; a loaf of 4 franc was selling 12 franc. Food was scarce. In such conditions new tax infuriated them. The members of the third estate had to pay three kinds of taxes – religious taxes or tithes to Church, taxes to the king and tolls to the feudal lords. After paying all these taxes they were left with few francs in their pocket to buy food which was scarce and price soaring up everyday. The people agitated, but the king failed to read the writings on the wall.

The King Louis XVI was young and immature and he failed to understand the situation. More over he had no firm will, he was easily influenced by his corrupt nobles. He wanted to live a luxurious life. His stupidity and carelessness were fully matched with those of his queen Marie Antoinette, who was a princess of Austria. The queen loved all the good things of life and wanted to enjoy gay court life. She spent public money without care, for her unscrupulous spending the state budget was always in deficit. The King tried to bring about reforms in the finance system. He appointed Turgot as the finance minister. Turgot took some effective steps to stabilize the finance and put the budget in order, but the nobles particularly the queen stood against him. She insisted the king to

dismiss Turgot in 1776. The dismissal of Turgot made the situation from bad to worse.

When the financial condition of the country was just on the verge of bankruptcy and the king wanted to avoid further deterioration, he summoned the Estate General or the French Parliament on May 5, 1789 at Versailles. This Estate General or the Parliament consisted of 1200 members; of them 600 represented the first and second Estate and the rest 600 were from the third Estate. The members of the third Estate who represented the common people were in angry mood and were determined to force the king to agree to the reforms. They were not in any mood to be subservient to the first two Estates and vote for the king. They demanded that the three Estates should constitute and meet as a single body representing the whole nation. They further demanded that every member to have an individual vote. All these demands were fair and reasonable, but Louis XVI rejected them all and the first two Estates supported the king. The members of the third Estate could understand that there was no hope for reforms and change of the lot of common people.

There were some sympathizers for the third Estate among the first and second Estates. They were Abbe Emmuel Syieyes, a radical member of the clergy and Mirabeau a radical aristocrat. Syieyes became a leader of the third Estate and he suggested that the member of the third Estate should convert itself into the National Assembly. This was too great a proposal which the king would never concede to. Meanwhile there were rioting for food in many areas. Farmers, peasants, artisans came out on the street and threatened open rebellion. The King posted army on 20th June at the meeting place of the third Estate. The members of the third Estate felt very much offended at this thoughtless and aggressive action of the King. But the offended and infuriated members of third Estate were not dispirited; they held their meeting at the old Tennis Court. At the meeting of the Tennis Court they took the memorable oath that they would not disperse or rest till they had hammered out a new constitution for France.

The King was badly in need of money, he did not dare further to offend the third Estate. He yielded and asked the other two Estates to join the third and jointly hold the meeting of the National Assembly. In this session Mirabeau, an aristocrat came out to be a great sympathizer and leader of the third Estate. While the deliberation of the National Assembly was going on, there was a strong rumor outside that the King was going to dissolve the National Assembly. The King was vacillating in his decision. The members of the National Assembly could not trust

the King and his queen. They asserted their authority and right to act as the highest sovereign power of the country. They did not merely protest the Rule of Louis XVI; they denied him to be the rightful King of France. The people got scared when they found movement of the soldiers between Versailles and Paris. They believed that the King was going to take stern action against the National Assembly. When they requested the King to withdraw the soldiers, the King refused. Riots and lawlessness broke out. Crazy crowds looted shops, assaulted officers and set fire to the palaces of the rich people.

The Fall of Bastille

Bastille Fort was the State Prison and symbol of oppression and tyranny of the decaying monarchy. It was virtually the armor of the state. On July 14, 1789 all the crazy mob move to Bastille and stormed it, set all the prisoners free (there were very few prisoners) and took away all the arms. The fall of Bastille was a great event not only in the history of France, but in the entire history of mankind. It signaled the start of the Revolution which rocked the entire France. It put an end to the degenerated tyrannical monarchy, unequal social order and ushered into an era of "Liberty, Equality and Fraternity." It was now clear that the French people were roused against the tyrannical monarch who did not respond to their reasonable appeals. Thus the Revolution began. The first stage of the Revolution was spread over May, 1789 to August, 1792.

The fall of Bastille opened the flood gate of terrorism and bloodshed. The angry mob could not be held in check the princes, other members of the royal families, the courtiers and other powerful people took to their heel and sought shelter in foreign countries to save their lives. Law and order completely broke down, the government officers deserted their place of duties, the courts ceased to function and the collection of taxes came to a stand-still. The anarchy and terrorism spread all over the country in such a dimension and intensity that the members of the National Assembly were alarmed. They came down to meet the situation and restore law and order at any cost. With the consent of the National Assembly the following revolutionary measures were taken on August 5 and 6, 1789:

All men in France shall remain free and equal in their rights. Social distinction can be based on public utility.

1. Feudalism was abolished. All feudal privileges of the clergy and the nobles were stopped.
2. Tithes and the tolls were abolished.
3. The principle of equal taxation was introduced and the clergies and the nobles were to be taxed as the common people.

These changes were sudden which the people wanted for centuries. The National Assembly was converted to a Constituent Assembly and was entrusted with the authority to draft a new constitution for France. Louis XVI though approved the measures taken by the National Assembly on 4 and 5 of August, 1789; the people had doubt in their mind that the King might have changed his mind as the King was compelled to concede. By this time there was rumor in Paris that the King was planning to undo what the National Assembly had done. On October 5, 1789 a procession of angry and hungry women and men in disguised women marched to Versailles crying for bread. The next day the unruly crowd stormed the royal palace, and demanded that the King accompany them to Paris.

National Assembly converted to Constituent Assembly

The National Assembly now converted into Constituent Assembly, shifted to Paris and undertook to draft the New Constitution for France. The salient features of the draft Constitution were:

1. The administrative units were rearranged. The boundaries were redrawn. They were made more or less on equal footing as regards size and population.
2. The power was decentralized and the country was divided into 83 divisions.
3. Papal control over the Church of France was denied and the Church was nationalized. The properties of the Church were confiscated and the number of the churchmen was reduced.
4. Paper currency was introduced, but the introduction of Paper Note was wrong step, it created unthinkable inflation.
5. The absolute and irresponsible monarchy was abolished and in its place a constitutional monarchy or a limited monarchy was recommended, but the hereditary principle was not changed.
6. There shall be a Legislative Assembly, it shall be Unicameral, there should be 745 members, and the members shall be indirectly elected on property franchise for two years.
7. "The 17 Articles Declaration of Rights" of man and the citizen was declared. This was the most important aspect of the draft Constitution.
8. It completely changed the social and political system of the country and created a new political and social order.
9. It granted the citizen three democratic principles – Liberty, Equality and Fraternity and equality in the eye of law.
10. It granted the freedom of person, freedom of property, freedom of speech and writing, freedom to hold religious belief.

11. The law should not be arbitrary made, it should be the expression of general will or the consent of the people as Rousseau said.

All these provisions of the new Constitution appeared to have been fair. There was a common belief that the French Revolution had taken adequate measures to ensure rights of the people and to enable the country to go ahead in peace. But unfortunately it was not to be so. The new constitution could not satisfy all the people, particularly the King, the nobles and the clergies. The king did not accept it as it clipped his wings, the nobles opposed it as they lost their privileges and came under taxation like common people. The clergies opposed it as it denied the authority of the Pope and deprived them of their privileges. The revolutionaries were not happy with it as it did not abolish the monarchy. They wanted more drastic measures and radical reforms like abolition of property franchise.

The Extremists took control of the Revolution

The King and the queen were still plotting to suppress the revolutionaries with his army. The clergies and the nobles came to join him in this design. The king was seeking help from foreign powers particularly from Austria. Since the King and his family were confined in the palace in the hand of the revolutionaries, he, with his family in disguise, fled from the palace, but was caught in the hand of the revolutionaries. The revolutionaries believed that the King, with the help of army from Austria and Prussia, had planned to suppress the Revolution. The Legislative Assembly on April 20, 1792 declared war against Austria and Prussia. By this time the Revolution passed into the hand of the extremists from the moderates. The extremists who were known as Jacobins, started awful atrocities. They killed hundred of men and women on the street as they were suspected to be the supporters of the King. Frenzied crowd on September 20, 1792 stormed the Tuileries palace, and the whole royal family was imprisoned. The French army defeated the Austria and Prussia army who came to intervene in the French affairs. A large number of the French army joined the revolutionaries and they defeated the royalist army particularly those who were obedient to the King.

Execution of Louis XVI

The radicals formed a National Convention for drafting a New Constitution which was ready in 1793. The New Constitution could not be put into force as the situation was getting from bad to worse. On September 22, 1792 Louis XVI was deposed, monarchy was abolished and France was declared a Republic. The radicals charged the King for treason against the people and the nation. The King was tried by Jean Paul Marat, George Jacques Danton and Maximilian Robespierre, most

radical members of the National Convention, They condemned him to death. On January 21, 1793 Louis XVI was beheaded by guillotine (Guillotine was a mechanical device of beheading criminals which was invented by one physician name Joseph Ignace Guillotines).

Following the beheading of the King, there started the reign of terror and it continued for ten months (from Sept. 1793 to July, 1794). More than 2500 in Paris and 10,000 people all over the country were killed or beheaded. There were protests and agitation against the radicals for such lawless situation and indiscriminate killing. Among the important revolutionaries who were guillotined, were Queen Marie Antoinette, Madam Roland, Mirabeau, Danton, and Robespierre. The reign of terror ended with the guillotining of Danton and Robespierre, two powerful members of the Public Safety Committee. It was Robespierre who instigated to use the guillotine to behead the condemned. He presided over trial of thousands of people and passed order for guillotining. Robespierre at the end became very unpopular; he was known to be the bloodthirsty dictator, there was revolt against him. With his execution the reign of terror ended. The Public Safety Committee dealt effectively to control the situation of lawlessness. It could also effectively thwarted the danger posed by the foreign power.

French Revolution and the neighboring countries

Other European states, particularly the royal families of other states, did not view favorably the beheading of Louis XVI and other atrocities committed by the extremists. They apprehended that the spirit of French Revolution might be spread among their people also. England, Holland, Spain, Austria and Prussia formed a coalition against France. Though many of the English romantic Republicans and Puritans supported the French Revolution, British government was against the atrocities which the revolutionaries carried on during the Reign of Terror. The British Parliamentarian and writer Edmund Burke strongly spoke against the French Revolution in the Parliament, but once he supported the Revolution. He was appalled seeing the atrocities of the terrorists. He urged the British government not to support the Revolution and France. The victory of the French army on the border and annexation of some bordering areas of Holland and West Germany emboldened the French army, in 1793 France Declared war on England.

Achievement and Failures of the Revolution

The French Revolution changed the course of history of France and inspired people of other European states to be cautious of their governmental policies and system. Absolute Monarchy was abolished and France proclaimed to be a Republic. The privileges of the higher

clergies and the nobles were stopped and they were also brought under taxation like other people. The old social orders of distinction were abolished and all citizens were made equal in the eye of law. It granted Liberty, Equality of all citizens and Fraternity among the citizen. It also granted the rights of person, right of property, right of speech and association.

The Revolution created a national awakening among the French people and laid the foundation of French democracy. France which was known to be a land of three Estates represented separately in the Estate-General, became one nation collectively represented in one National Assembly. It set up a bicameral Legislature. The spirit of the Revolution created impact in many other countries. The Indian nationalists, who were agitating against the British and British rule in India, were encouraged by the ideals and spirit of the Revolution.

But the failures of the Revolution were also heavy and it was because of the poor leadership. The Glorious Revolution of 1688 in England was bloodless and successful for the matured leadership. The French Revolution was, on the other hand, was most bloody and it led to anarchy. The leaders of the revolution were divided among themselves, they were indiscipline and motivated. The anarchy that let loose the terrorism was for the poor and indiscipline leadership. Some of the main leaders of the Revolution were themselves guillotined. The atrocities of the extremists of the Revolution and aggression of the French army on the neighboring states made France enemy of other European states who were forming coalition against France.

Rise of Napoleon

The worst effect of the anarchy was the rise of Napoleon and his sky-high ambition to become the second Charlemagne. Though he sieged power as a revolutionary, but wherever he went, he said that he had come to liberate people from the old order. Napoleon by birth was not French; he was the son of a Corsian nobleman. Napoleon was an artillery officer in the French army. Because of his military feats, he was rapidly promoted during the Revolution. When the revolutionaries were plunged in anarchy and were divided, Napoleon took the opportunity. In 1799 he was appointed Consul. The people who overthrew Louis XVI to abolish absolute monarchism and ensure rights of the citizen, accepted Napoleon's much greater dictatorship.

Part XI

England under the House of Hanover

This part narrates the political history of Britain from 1714 to 1837. During this period five kings (George I, II, III & IV and William IV) ruled Britain. It narrates how the Monarchy of England passed over to the House of Hanover. It tells us the development of British Parliamentary democracy and constitutional Monarchy. It also tells us how the power and right of the British Parliament gradually increased and how British Parliamentary Democracy was strongly established. It also narrates how people's voice was heard and respected in the Parliament, and how political parties asserted their power in the Parliament to control the government. During this time parliamentary form of Government and constitutional Monarchy took their present shape in Britain.

Different reform bills relating to different social and political issues were passed in the Parliament, political parties both the Conservatives and the Tories asserted their position and voiced the people's sentiment in the Parliament. Great politicians like Walpole, William Pitt, Robert Peel, Disraeli and Gladstone made their historic contribution to the development of British Democracy. Great events of the history like French Revolution, Napoleonic Wars, and the American War of Independence, had also been discussed in this Part.

Chapter one

George I (1714-1727)

George I was the son of Sophia, the grand-daughter of James I. He became King of England by the Act of Settlement of 1701. His title was, therefore, King made by the decision of the Parliament. He was a German Prince and knew very little English. He spent only a part of his time in English Kingdom. He was not very sympathetic towards his English subjects, the English people also considered him a foreigner. He has been described as, "A dull and unsympathetic foreigner, no doubt, but he possessed a more sure political touch than some of his Hanoverian successors." He reigned for thirteen years till 1727.

William III or William of Orange granted full right and authority of the Parliament. The Parliament was in a stronger position since that time. Queen Anne's reign was a time of party contest between the Tories and the Whigs. The extreme Tories were in favor of the doctrine of the Divine Right and opposed the Hanoverian succession, but the moderate Tories did not oppose the Hanoverians. On accession to the throne of England George I dismissed the Tory ministers, apprehending that they were intriguing to restore the Pretender, son of James II to the throne. George I favored the Whigs and made his ministers from the Whigs. The Whigs also, in return, supported the king. The Whig aristocracy since that time controlled the government for the next fifty years. They were strong both in the House of Commons and in the Lords.

George I had one great weakness, he could not speak English and he used to avoid attendance in the meetings of the ministers. He took the Whigs into confidence and gave them full support and some of the royal prerogatives (appointment of ministers and dissolution of the Parliament). There was a good relation between the King and his ministers. As the King did not attend most meetings, the minister who presided over the meeting of the ministers came to be known as the Prime Minister and others ministers as the ministers of the Cabinet of the King. The Cabinet of the ministers virtually ran the business of Government with the consent of the King. The king acted on the advice of the ministers. Since the ministers were from the Whigs and the Whigs were majority in the House of Commons, there was no conflict between the King, Cabinet and the Parliament. Thus the Parliamentary form of government and democracy was strengthened in England. Townshend was the chief minister (Prime Minister) of George I.

Major events of the reign of George I

The rising of the Jacobites (the supporters of James II and his successors): Some of the Tories instigated the Jacobites of Scotland to revolt against George I, but the rebels were suppressed. The Jacobites were disheartened finding the Pretender timid and incompetent, and they gave up.

The Riot act of 1815 and the Septennial Act of 1817: The Riot Act was passed basically to deal with the insurgent Jacobites. The Whigs were afraid of a new Election; they wanted to prolong their government and the Parliament. They passed the Septennial Act, 1817 to extend the duration of the Parliament to seven years. The reign of George I was noteworthy for Constitutional progress and making the Parliament stronger. The system of Cabinet Form of Government was firmly established. The House of Commons became the supreme authority of the country both for legislation and control of the government.

Government of Townshend and Standhope

The Whig Government made the Triple Alliance with France and Holland (England, France and Holland), but Townshend and Walpole opposed it. Townshend resigned in protest and in his place Standhope was appointed Prime Minister. The Standhope ministry collapsed on the issue of South Sea Bubble. After Standhope Walpole became Prime Minister and he remained in that capacity for 21 years. He was a capable man. Before becoming Prime Minister he was the Chancellor of the Exchequer. His objectives were to keep his party in power and ensure the security of the Hanover Dynasty. His policy was peace with other countries and prosperity at home.

George II (1727-1760)

George II succeeded his father to the throne of England in 1727. He was king under the law of inheritance. George II was a shrewd and selfish man. During the early part of his reign Walpole was his Prime Minister. Walpole served him faithfully. Though Walpole was a peaceful man, the reign of George II was not all peaceful. The young Stuart Pretender, the grandson of James II, took shelter in France. France was always against England and waiting for a chance to take revenge on England. Spain was another enemy of England.

Robert Walpole

Walpole was the son of a country gentleman of Norfolk. He first became a member of the Parliament in 1702. The Whig leaders were attracted by his debating capability in the Parliament. He joined the Whig party at the instigation of other Whig leaders. He was not a very high profile

politician, but he knew it better where was the interest of England than many others. He was Chancellor of Exchequer before he was Prime Minister and knew the financial position of the country. His financial measures encouraged the trade and commerce of the country and he did much to develop material prosperity of England. His policy was to do what is convenient and advantageous for his party, without offending the Tories and other opposition. The Dissenters who did not accepted the Church of England were a problem for his government. Personally he was in favor of the repeal of the law against the Dissenters, but in fear of the Church he did not take any step.

The war with Spain

Under the Utrecht treaty England was given the privilege of sending one ship every year to trade with Spanish America. England violated this treaty consequently the Spanish people ill-treated the English traders. The Parliament was highly agitated when Captain Jenkins complained to the Parliament that the Spaniards had cut off his ear to insult the English people. This information infuriated the members of the Parliament and there was a war cry in the Parliament. Walpole was forced to declare a war against Spain and it was known in history as the

Jenkins' Ear War

England had to fight another war for Austrian succession. The most important event within the country was the second revolt of the Jacobites in 1745. When England was busy with the Austrian war, Charles Edward the young Pretender and the grandson of James II, landed in Scotland with the assistance of the French army. Scottish highlanders joined him and many of the Jacobites revolted against George II. But the insurgents were suppressed by the Duke of Cumberland. This insurgent put Walpole in awkward situation. He resigned and in his place Lord Carteret was appointed Prime Minister. But his term was also very short; he had to resign for his involvement in the Austrian War of Succession. Lord Carteret was succeeded by Pelham.

Ministry of Pelham and the Rise of William Pitt

Pelham was a disciple of Robert Walpole. He formed a very broad based ministry, even he included some Tories in his ministry. His ministry is marked for some reforms. On the death of Pelham Duke of Newcastle became the Prime Minister. At this time the War of Seven years with France was about to break out. Newcastle was not a capable man to face the war situation. Then a coalition was made between Newcastle and William Pitt to tackle the war problems.

Seven Years War with France

Basically there were two reasons for this war - (1) Colonial and trade rivalry between England and France and (2) the coalition of Queen Maria Theresa of Austria with France and other European powers, to recover her lost territory from Frederick, the great of Prussia. Since Queen Maria made coalition with France, England sided with Prussia in the interest of protecting the Hanovers. The theatre of this war was spread over three continents Europe, America and India.

William Pitt was not only a foresighted statesman, but also a great war strategist. He gave Prussia some financial help to keep France busy at home so that the English army beat them in America. England had several colonies in America on the eastern coast of the Atlantic. France possessed Canada, Louisiana and claimed the entire interior of the continent. But the English people were not ready to yield to the French claim. The English general Braddock attacked the French fort of Duquesne, but was defeated and killed. But General Washington and the English army continued the war until the victory and occupied the fort. English General Wolfe won a decisive victory in the battle of Quebec in 1759, though he was killed in action, his victory destroyed all French power in America and Canada. Next year Montreal fell to the English army. Thus the entire Canada came under the English control.

In India the situation was like Canada, both the English and the French were bitter rivals for commercial and territorial supremacy. Lord Clive tactfully defeated the last Nawab of Bengal in the battle of Plassey and laid the foundation of British rule in India. In another battle Sir Eyre Coote defeated the French at Wandiwash in 1760 which smashed all French hope to establish a French empire in India. The French however retained the possession of Pondicherry a small area in the southern India.

In the Caribbean areas the English army occupied Havana and in the Pacific Manila from the Spanish occupation.

Result of the Seven Years War

The Seven Years War was ended by the Peace Treaty of 1763 signed in Paris during the reign of George III. By this Treaty of Paris England got Canada and other areas of French possession in American. France in India got only Pondicherry. Havana and Manila were restored to Spain. The French colonial power got a death blow both in America and in India. The English became the supreme colonial power both in America and in India. English naval supremacy was firmly established in the World. Prussia retained the Austrian territory.

Contribution of William Pitt

William Pitt is one of the greatest English statesmen. He entered the Parliament in 1735 and joined the opposition against Robert Walpole. Soon he attracted every one by his splendid eloquence. He was scrupulously honest at a time when corruption was a fashion among the politicians. Since restoration (in 1660) he set an example of incorruptibility in English political or public life. He raised voice against the corruption of Walpole. During the Seven Years War he proved himself to be a shrewd war strategist. Under his able guidance, the war which started disastrously for England ended in a glorious triumph

Pitt's main objective was to make England a great imperial power and so he adopted an aggressive policy of colonial expansion. He could realize that the greatness of England depended not only on its position in Europe, but upon its extra European possession. He resigned in 1761 when his proposal to declare war against Spain was not accepted. He was created Earl of Chatham and was called upon to form a ministry again.

George III (1760-1820)

George II was succeeded by his grandson George III. His father Frederick, Prince of Wales died in 1751 and he got the throne of England according to the law of inheritance. He was a born Englishman. George III was a good man, but bad king. He was simple in taste, sincere in his religion and strictly moral in his habit. But his drawback was that he was ill-educated, narrow minded and extremely obstinate. He was different from other two Georges who cared more for Hanover than England. More over they knew little English and about English politics. They left the business of the government to the Cabinet ministers. The Cabinet Form of Government got a firm root in British democracy during their time. George III learned English; he did not like to leave everything to the cabinet ministers and was proud to be the king of England. He was inordinately fond of power. Because of his obstinacy England had to lose American colonies. He failed to pacify Ireland and brought about some Parliamentary reforms.

George III ascended the throne with the determination that he would not reign only, but would govern also. He wanted to choose his ministers and implemented his own policies. He opposed the party government and cabinet system. He wanted to bring about a change in the Whigs government who were in power for about fifty years and planned to form his own political party. He drew the Tories near to him and his other followers who were later known as the King's Friends.

Fall of William Pitt

When George III ascended the throne William Pitt and Newcastle were in the government and they successfully conducted the Seven Years War to a glorious victory. But Pitt did not feel comfortable with the new King, he resigned. Newcastle also resigned. Lord Bute, who was formerly the tutor of the King, was appointed the Prime Minister. But Bute was alleged to have been too much liberal to the enemies during the signing of the Paris Treaty of 1763. He became more unpopular when a new tax was imposed on cider. He resigned in 1763 and was succeeded by Grenville.

Grenville and his Ministry

Grenville became Prime Minister in 1763. He was a lawyer and an eloquent Parliamentarian. His pedantic and obstinate nature was not liked by many of his fellow Parliamentarians. His ministry committed a number of mistakes which hastened his fall. He passed the Stamp Act and imposed it on the American colonies. The Stamp Act required that all legal documents and formal acts in America should be written on stamp. The money that would come from the stamp duty was to be used for maintaining the English army in America. The Act made Grenville unpopular at home and also in America. It paved the way for American independence.

Grenville's next mistake was the prosecution of John Wilkes for publishing a libelous poetry in his paper the **North Briton**. Wilkes was a member of the Parliament. He was arrested without showing any reason, but the Chief Justice set him free. But he retaliated the defeat in the law-court by expelling Wilkes from the Parliament and taking other steps to harass him. Wilkes fled and took shelter in France for sometime. On return from France he was again elected member of the Parliament, but he was not allowed to seat in the Parliament. Electors were annoyed at this unconstitutional behavior of the Parliament; they made Wilkes the hero and elected him the mayor of London. The Parliament was at last compelled to allow him to seat in the Parliament. Wilkes' election was a triumph of the right of the electors. Grenville's haughty manner displeased the king and he was driven out from power in 1765.

After Grenville Rockingham became the Prime Minister. He and his followers were of high-principle of the Whig party. He was not, therefore, liked by the Tories. He held office only for one year, during this time he could appease much of the trouble created by Grenville. Rockingham was also driven out from power by the king. William Pitt (Lord Chatham) was again called upon to form ministry for the second

time. He formed a ministry of all parties – the Whigs, Tories and King's Friends. But this time he was not in a position to cope with the situation. He resigned in 1768 and the duke of Grafton became the Prime minister. He also resigned in 1770 on the issue of expulsion of Wilkes. Grafton was succeeded by Lord North in 1770. He was a Tory; he formed a ministry with the members from the Tories and King' Friend. He was very loyal to the king and used to refer all the policy matters to the king for decision. The greatest event of his time was the war of American Independence. It was generally believed that for the loss of America the king and the Prime Minister Lord North were responsible. Lord North resigned in 1782 on the face of severe criticism for his American policy.

American War of Independence

After the expulsion of French army from Canada, the English colonies of America no longer needed protection of English army. They rather disliked the control and law of the mother country imposed over them. The Stamp Act was opposed by them. They also resented other taxation imposed on them (taxes on tea, glass, textile etc.) by the government of Westminster. They resented the restriction on their trades and manufactures. They raised voice against the tax imposed on them by the British Parliament. They said, since they were not represented in the British Parliament, the Parliament had no right to impose tax on them. Leaders of the British Parliament were divided on the issue of American colonies. Lord North and the king held that the British Parliament had all right to tax on the American colonies. The king behaved like an absolute monarch which was not liked by others. William Pitt differed and said the British Parliament could not impose on inland trade and inland products. He supported Edmund Burke. Edmund Burke placed strong arguments in the Parliament in favor of some reconciliation with America.

This attitude of the British Government brought the matter to a crisis. Twelve out of the thirteen colonies of America met in a congress at Philadelphia and issued the Declaration of Right stating the terms on which they might maintain a relation with England. With all these thirteen colonies they formed a Republic under the name the United States. Thus war of Independence of America broke out in 1775. General Washington was appointed as the commander-in-chief of the colonial forces. He compelled the English army to evacuate from Boston. The European countries that were offended by the Peace Treaty of Paris of 1763, after the British triumph in the Seven Years War, now formed a coalition to help America and take revenge on England. France was at the head of this coalition and others were Holland and Spain. They

recognized the United States as an independent state. Lord Cornwallis, the commander of the British army, had to surrender at the battle of Yorktown in 1781. The War was terminated by the Peace Treaty of Versailles in 1783. England also recognized The United States. Though America was lost, Britain could retain Canada.

Causes of British Failure in America and its Effect

Among the causes of the British defeat in America, we can list the followings. The colonies were vast in resources and human strength, but they were neglected, extorted and ill-treated by the British government which created resentment among them against the British Government. A strong desire for independence worked from the beginning. France and other European countries helped the United States in their war of Independence with all their strength to humble down England and check their colonial expansion. At home the British government was also divided on the issue and could not take any decisions on American colonies. The Atlantic Ocean, the long distance from home and too much control of war operations from London, were great impediments for the British generals to fight in the American colonies. They could not continue for longer time and had to surrender.

The result of the American independence was very great and humiliating for the British Government and the English people. The position of England was like that of France in 1763. The expansion of the British colonies was checked, their trade and commerce diminished to a great extent, though they could maintain their supremacy on the sea. The Irish revolutionaries were encouraged by the Independence of the United States and they demanded complete freedom.

Rockingham Prime Minister for the second time

The defeat in America created wide spread resentment all over Britain. Lord North resigned on the face of severe criticism, though he was appointed Prime Minister for the second time in 1782. Second time he did some memorable economic reforms. He controlled the private expenditures of the king. He also controlled many unnecessary state expenditures. He could appease Ireland to some extent by repealing the Poying's Act.

Ministry of Fox and North

In 1783 Fox and North formed a coalition government. The happenings in India and the atrocities committed by the officials of the East India Company on the Indians attracted the attention of the British Parliament. Fox in 1783 brought his India Bill in the Parliament. He proposed that the political power of the East India Company should be brought under the

control of a commission nominated by the Parliament. The bill was passed by the House of Commons, but was refused by the House of Lords. After that the coalition government collapsed.

Ministry of Pitt, the junior

Pitt the junior was the second son of Lord Chatham (Pitt senior). He entered the Parliament in 1780 and at once took the leading position. He became Prime Minister in 1783. His ministry can be divided into two periods marked by sharply opposed policies. The first period was from 1783 to the out break of the French Revolution in 1789 when he strongly supported the Revolution and the second period was from the French Revolution (1789) to 1801 when he opposed the Revolution.

Pitt Junior became Prime Minister of Britain at the age of twenty-five and was in that position for about 17 years. His policy was directed towards peace with others, reforms the government and retrenchment of unnecessary offices and positions. This was necessary after the disaster in America. He was the first Prime Minister who enjoyed the confidence of the king and the Parliament. Though he headed a Tory ministry his view was broad and liberal. Of his many reforms and Acts the India Bill is one, by which he initiated constitutional rule in India.

In 1788 the king (George III) became insane; Fox proposed that during the insanity of the King, the Prince of Wales, by right of his inheritance, should be the regent of the King. But Pitt held that the Parliament alone had the absolute power to appoint a regent. The king got back his sanity before the issue got complicated.

Chapter Two

Britain and the French Revolution

French Revolution had great impact on Britain and British government. The Revolution was a revolt of the French people of the lower strata of the French society against the unjust privileges of the upper classes. The higher clergies and the nobles formed the most privileged class of the French society. They occupied all the higher posts of the Church and the State, and owned most of the land, but paid little taxes. On the other hand the lower class people had to bear the major burden of taxes, till land, produce corns and rear cattle for the food of the upper classes. They had to give free labor as and when the feudal lords or the upper class so demanded. With this there was class distinction, the upper class people looked at the lower class with contempt which created widespread discontent. With all these grievances were added the evils of the absolute monarchy and inefficient government and corruption of administration. The monarch or the feudal lords never looked at the welfare of the poor or the lower class people. They did not listen to their appeals.

Some great French writers and philosophers through their writings and speeches enlightened the society and instigated the people to protest against the injustice and oppression. They were Montesquieu, Voltaire and Rousseau. Rousseau said that the king, who neglected his subjects and who did not look at the welfare of his people, had no right to rule over them. He preached the political gospel - the rights of man. He preached for liberty, equality and fraternity of man in the society. All these writings inflamed the popular feeling and gradually prepared the French people for a Revolution. The Independence of America further encouraged the French people for a revolt against the absolute Monarchy. They revolted and stormed the Bastille Fort, the State Prison and armor, on July 14, 1789 and the Revolution started.

Financial crisis of the country compelled the King Louis XVI to summon the Estate General (the Parliament) in 1789 to consult the financial condition of the country. The Estate General had 1200 members— 600 from the Clergies and nobles and rest 600 from the commoners. The Estate General was turned into the National Assembly and the National Assembly over threw the government and drafted a Constitution for the Nation where all the citizens of France were given

equal right and the absolute Monarchy was abolished. The monarch was made a constitutional head of the country. But the constitution drafted by the National Assembly did not work; the revolutionaries wanted a more democratic constitution. In 1793 the revolution passed into the hand of the extremists and the Reign of Terror started. King Louis and his queen were guillotined. Thousands of people who were suspected to be the supporters of the king were killed. Even some of the great leaders of the Revolution like Mirabeau and Robespierre were also guillotined. Total anarchy prevailed in the country. The poor leadership failed to control the anarchy, the objectives of the revolution were thus frustrated.

The people of Britain first hailed the French Revolution. They thought that the revolution would lead France to a constitutional government like Britain and the two countries would be better friends if they had similar constitutions and constitutional governments. They knew that the people of France were being oppressed by a corrupt and inefficient absolute government. France was at that time under an absolute monarchy. Hence Pitt supported the French Republicans and the Revolution. Fox welcomed the Revolution with unbounded admiration. There grew many clubs and associations in England who spread the ideas of revolution in the country. But the violence and atrocities committed by the leaders of the French Revolution were opposed by some thoughtful English leaders like Edmund Burke who, after seeing the anarchies, took a different view of the Revolution. Pitt also changed his attitude towards the Revolution. He was alarmed to see the indiscipline, anarchies and atrocities committed by the revolutionaries. He was determined to check the spread of such anarchy and revolutionary ideas in Britain. He gave up his liberal attitude towards the English revolutionaries and adopted repressive measures against them. To stop the spread of revolutionary ideas in Britain, he took stern action against many English revolutionaries. Many English revolutionaries were arrested, many revolutionary clubs and associations were closed. The aggressive attitude of French revolutionaries threatened the peace of many European countries and they became alert, this did not escape the notice of British government also. They apprehended that French Revolution might be a threat to Britain too.

War with France and European Coalition

Britain formed a coalition with Austria, Prussia, Spain and Holland against France and that was the first coalition against France. In 1793 Britain with the European countries declared war against France.

France was victorious on land and succeeded in breaking the coalition. Holland and Spain left the coalition and joined France and declared war against Britain. Prussia made peace with France. Britain was left alone against France. Pitt and his government were in a great strain.

On sea Britain was still powerful and British navy was successful to over power France. British admiral Lord Howe defeated French navy in June, 1793. France was contemplating to make a combined attack on Britain with Spain and Holland. But the Spanish naval fleet was defeated by the British navy in 1797 and the Dutch navy was also defeated by the British navy. All these naval victories saved Britain from French aggression and frustrated all French design.

Chapter Three

Problems of Ireland and the Ministry of Pitt

The problems of Ireland had a very long background. Pitt inherited them. Ever since the middle age the attitude of England towards Ireland and Irish people had been one of gross injustice. There was a basic difference between the people of Ireland and England – the Irish were ethnically Celt and religiously Catholic, on the other hand, the English were Saxon and Protestant. Ireland was mainly a Catholic country, but it was governed by the Protestants in the interest of a minority Protestant settlers. The Catholics who were the bulk of the population, were made politically outlaws. They could not hold any public office, were not allowed to vote in any election and sit in the Parliament. Even those favored Irish Protestants were not all-powerful in the Irish Parliament. The Irish Parliament had no power of independent legislation, by the Poyning's Act of Henry VII, all the laws passed by the Irish Parliament required to be assented by the English Privy Council. Again during the reign of George I another statute (1719) was passed which said that all the laws passed by the British Parliament would be binding upon Ireland.

For all practical purposes England governed Ireland as a colony in her own interest, though Ireland had its own parliament. The economic condition of Ireland was worse than the political. The British Parliament, at the instigation of the English merchants, imposed restrictions on the trade and commerce of Ireland. England regulated Irish trade in the interest of English merchants. Many Irish industries were ruined for such restrictions. As a result of confiscation of land or estate, most of the land passed into the hand of English Landlords. But most of them used to live in London letting their lands to the middlemen. The tenants were Irish poor peasants who were mercilessly exploited and left with very little to live upon.

The Irish discontent and resentment reached a critical and intolerable stage during the reign of George III, particularly after the independence of America. The Irish people agitated more desperately. They were assured repeatedly that their grievances would be redressed, but the British government in fact did nothing. The Irish people were on the verge of bursting out into a revolt. They were determined to extort

concessions from the British government. Pitt and his ministry had to look at the Irish affairs. Pitt himself wanted conciliation with the Irish. He and his government this time took a conciliatory attitude towards the Irish people. In 1780 British government lifted all restriction on the Irish trade and commerce as a reward for their services during the war of American independence. Being encouraged by this concession of the British government, Grattan, a member of the Irish Parliament, started greater movement for legislative independence of the Irish Parliament. British government was liberal to grant this concession too in 1782 and repealed the Poyning's Act as well as the Statute of George I, 1719.

The legislative independence of the Irish Parliament could not pacify the people of Ireland as the Catholics who were the vast majority of the native population (90%) were kept outside the Parliament. The legislative independence, therefore, was nothing more than uncontrolled supremacy of the Protestant minority. The grievances and the demand of the Catholics, who were the vast majority of the population, were not met. They were restive and were in sullen silence. Meantime Revolution began in France which inflamed new hopes in the mind of the Irish people. They were fascinated by the liberal ideas of the French Revolution. They wanted a similar revolution in Ireland. They began to keep liaison with the French revolutionaries. Wolf Tone a liberal Protestant, who was motivated by the ideals of the French Revolution, formed the Society of the United Irishmen with both the Protestants and the Catholics. Wolf wanted emancipation of the Catholics. He wanted that the Catholics be given all political rights. But the extreme Protestants were against it. Thus Ireland was divided into two hostile groups.

Pitt and the policy of his government was a peaceful conciliation with Ireland. In 1793 Pitt granted the Irish Catholics the right to vote at elections. But this concession was not effective and it could not satisfy the Catholics as the Catholics were disqualified to sit in the Parliament. Next year he sent Lord Fitz William as Lord Lieutenant of Ireland for devising the political emancipation of the Catholics and reforms of the Parliament. Fitz was sincere in his mission and meant some business, but he was called back by London on the plea that he was too much sympathetic to the Catholics. The leaders of the United Irishmen could understand the motives of the British government. They intensified their contact with France and invited French help. The United Irishmen revolted in Wexford in 1798, a small military help came from France, but the English army under General Lake routed the Irish rebels and the

French army at Vinegar Hill. After this the British government intensified their repressive measures manifoldly on the Irish Catholics.

Pitt did not deviate from his policy of conciliation with Ireland, he sent Lord Cornwallis as the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. Cornwallis recommended Parliamentary union of Ireland with Britain as the solution of the Irish problems. Pitt agreed with the recommendation of Cornwallis, though there were many to oppose it. Pitt managed them and the Act of Union was passed in 1800. The Irish Parliament was abolished; Ireland and Great Britain were integrated into one single kingdom with a single Parliament. In this single Parliament Ireland was to send four bishops and twenty-eight Lords temporal to the House of Lords and one hundred members in the House of Commons. Irish Church and army were amalgamated with those of Britain. Absolute freedom in respect of trade and commerce was granted to the Irish merchants.

The integration of Ireland with Great Britain under the Act of Union of 1800 did not prove successful; it failed to solve the Irish problems. Pitt attempted to fulfill his promise to the Catholics and placed before the Cabinet a plan for Catholic Emancipation. The plan failed as the king opposed it; he said that any such religious concession to the Catholics would be a violation of his coronation oath. The Act of Union, without solving the issue of Catholic Emancipation and the question of lands and agrarian interest of the Catholics, only strengthened and prolonged the Protestant ascendancy. The Catholics were disgusted with the Act of Union. They did not accept it as it was one sided and was imposed on the Irish people by Britain. The Union of England and Scotland was different, there both the English and the Scottish people agreed to be united and there was no sense of deprivation or frustration or sense of inferiority in any side.

After the Act of Union of 1800, two issues became more complicated – religious disabilities of the Catholics and economic deprivation of the Catholics arising from the confiscation of lands. The Catholic issue was solved by the Catholic Emancipation Act of 1829; the second issue was partly solved during Queen Victoria by Gladstone.

Pitt resigned in 1801 with a difference with the King George III on the Irish Catholic issues. He was succeeded by Addington as Prime Minister when war with Napoleon was started anew in 1803. Addington was found quite unequal to cope with the war situation. Pitt was called back considering his war background. Pitt took over the power again. He understood that to face Napoleon, he must have some friends in the

continent. He, therefore, went for a coalition with Russia, Austria and Sweden. Pitt led Britain successfully in the war and lived long enough to see the crowning victory of Nelson in the war of Trafalgar in 1805. He was physically sick. More over the fatal news of defeat of the allied force at Austerlitz, broke his mind and he died in 1806.

Pitt proved himself to be one of the most brilliant and successful Prime Ministers of Great Britain. He was a skilled orator and a great Parliamentary leader. He was like his father incorruptible and set a standard of morality in public life. He raised Britain from the exhaustion of defeat of American war, repaired her ruined economy and restored her lost prestige. He saved England from the aggression of Napoleon. He frustrated Napoleon's design to attack England in the naval battle of Trafalgar.

Chapter Four

Rise of Napoleon

In 1798 Napoleon was made the Chief of French Army. Napoleon was not a Frenchman by birth. He was born in Corsica, an Italian island. This Corsican Napoleon was an artillery officer in the French army; he is called the “Son of French Revolution”. Had there been no French Revolution and if Louis XVI could continue his absolute monarchy Napoleon could never rise above the rank of a major. As during the monarchy all the senior positions above major were distributed to the royal family and to the feudal lords. They had to purchase those positions. But the French Revolution abolished all such systems in the army. Napoleon was made Chief of the French Army for his brilliant victories in different battle during the revolution. The Revolution made him the hero not only of France, but of the whole Europe. He became the terror of Europe, Emperor of France and a rare figure of history.

Napoleon was gifted with rare military genius. On land he had no match. He occupied Malta and part of Egypt, but was defeated by Nelson in the Battle of the Nile. The victory of the battle of the Nile ensured the British supremacy over the Mediterranean and frustrated Napoleon’s design to command the Mediterranean and make way for Eastern conquest. Napoleon then tried to capture Acre, but was driven out by the Turks. The victory of the battle of Nile encouraged Britain to make a second coalition with Russia and Austria against France. Napoleon hurried back to Austria and defeated the Austrians at Marengo in 1800. The Austrians suffered another defeat at Hohenliden and was compelled to make peace with France. The wars of the French Revolution were ended in 1802 in the peace treaty of Amiens. It was not an honorable treaty for Britain; Britain had to return all the territories she occupied from France and her allies during the war. But she got back Trinidad from Spain and Ceylon from the Dutch. Malta was restored to its former owners.

Pitt could not show any great capacity, in carrying out the war affairs, as his father did in the Seven Years War. Though he followed his father’s policy of helping the enemies of France with money in the continent and launched attacks on the colonies of France abroad. He failed to locate the weak point of France and where to strike. Instead of making a concentrated attack on France, he wasted British resources and energy on isolated expeditions which did not reach the target. His father made the war a colonial war, but he made the war both colonial and continental.

Britain and the Napoleonic wars

By the peace treaty of Amiens in 1803 Napoleon only took some time to strengthen his position. His ambition was to occupy the whole of Europe and make himself the emperor of Europe like Charlemagne. He occupied some areas of Italy and sent army to capture Switzerland. All the European States were in panic at the aggressive attitude of Napoleon. But wherever he went, he declared that he had come to change the old order of the society and emancipate the common people. Britain was his number one target; he knew that England would be his main rival. He knew that France's colonial expansion and economic prosperity could not be possible so long British navy was supreme on sea. He also knew that the strength of England was in her colonies and her trade and commerce. He was determined to destroy British trade and trade route. He directed all the European ports not to trade with England. Britain could understand the design of Napoleon.

In 1804 Napoleon declared himself the Emperor of France and compelled Spain to join him against England. He then began to make a massive preparation to launch an attack on England. He mobilized huge troops at Bolougne for an expedition to England. But all his hopes and designs to attack England were drowned in the Mediterranean by Admiral Nelson in the battle of Trafalgar in 1805. Being encouraged at the victory of Trafalgar, Pitt formed another new coalition (fourth coalition) in 1806 with Russia, Austria and Sweden against France. Napoleon was determined to break the coalition; he withdrew his army from Bolougne and dealt a severe blow on Austria. Austria was forced to accept a humiliating defeat and a peace treaty dictated by Napoleon. The defeat of Austria made Napoleon supreme both in Italy and Germany. Prussia then declared war against France, but Napoleon easily crushed Prussian army in 1806. Napoleon's next target was Russia. The Russian army was defeated at the battle of Friedland and the Czar was compelled to make peace with Napoleon. Thus the whole of Europe lay at the foot of Napoleon and he reached the highest pinnacle of power.

Napoleon's Continental system

Napoleon's continental system was a series of measures which were directed to destroy the British trade and commerce. British power and prosperity depended on their trade and commerce and their colonial markets. To ruin the British economy he directed all European nations to stop trading with England and banned all ports for British ships. The continental system was a great mistake for Napoleon. A great portion of European trade and commerce was controlled by Britain. The system affected the European market, prices of essential goods went up and the consumers suffered due to the blocked.

Peninsular War

Portugal, like other European countries, refused to accept the Continental System and close her ports for British ships. Napoleon sent an army to occupy Portugal. Portugal capitulated. Napoleon did not stop there, taking the advantage of a quarrel between the king Charles IV of Spain and his son; he compelled both of them to abdicate and placed his own brother Joseph on the throne of Spain. The people of Spain did not accept Joseph; they considered him a usurper and rose against both Joseph and Napoleon. Britain showed sympathy for Portugal and Spain and sent an expedition under Sir Arthur Wellesley for their help. Thus the war with France began in 1808. In history this war is known as the Peninsular War.

Sir Arthur Wellesley defeated the French army at Vimiero in 1808 and the French army agreed to evacuate from Portugal. Spanish people on the other hand opposed Joseph and started guerrilla war against the French. Napoleon himself came to Spain with a big army and occupied Madrid. While Napoleon was busy in Spain, Austria again took up arms against him. Napoleon hurried to Austria leaving his Spanish victory half finished. Wellesley (now Viscount of Wellington) consolidated his position in Portugal and was waiting for an opportunity to hit the French army in Spain. After crushing Austria Napoleon had two targets before him - Russia and Britain. Russia by this time offended him refusing to accept the Continental System. He proceeded to the Russian boarder. Wellesley by the chance stormed the French forts in Spain and defeating the French army came to Madrid triumphantly in 1812 when Napoleon went to Moscow.

Napoleon's Russia Campaign

In June, 1812 Napoleon proceeded to Russia with his best and biggest army (France's Grande Armee) even without declaring a formal war against Russia. He defeated the Russian army at Bordino. Napoleon was advancing very quickly, town after town fell to the French army and Russian army was retreating. He reached Moscow only to find it a deserted city. Napoleon penetrated further deep into the heart of Russia pursuing the Russian main army. Though the Russian army was retreating common people of Russia offered resistance to the French. They were harassing the French army in different ways; they refused to trade with them food and other essentials. Soon the French army found shortage of food and no food around. By this time winter came, snowfall and snowstorm both were very severe in Russia. French army was not used to such cold and snowstorm. The French army was exhausted in cold and storm. The grand army of Napoleon was almost destroyed by the cold and famine. Napoleon returned from Russia with a small and

devastated army. This ill-fated campaign was one of the main causes of his down fall.

Having found Napoleon and his army in the most devastated condition after their Russian campaign, Prussia again took arms against him. Prussia was soon joined by Austria and Russia. Napoleon though defeated the allied force at Lutzen and Dresden, he was completely defeated at the battle of Leipzig in 1813. France was now invaded by the allied forces from all sides. Paris was taken by the allied forces and Napoleon was forced to abdicate. He retired to Elba. The war ended for the time being and a peace agreement was signed. It was agreed that a general congress to be held at Vienna to settle the affairs of Europe. Louis XVIII was placed on the throne of France, French borders were pushed back to those lines which she had in 1791.

The Crucial Hundred Days and the Waterloo

In 1815 Napoleon escaped from Elba, returned to France and again declared himself the Emperor of France. Louis XVIII fled from the country. Napoleon defeated the Prussian army, but himself was completely defeated by Lord Wellington who led the combined armies of Britain and Prussia at the battle of Waterloo in 1815. Napoleon was taken a prisoner and sent to St. Helena where he died six years later. The period from the date of Napoleon's escape from Elba to his defeat at Waterloo is hundred days. In history this period is known as Hundred Days.

Causes of Napoleon's Downfall

Napoleon's too much ambition and love for power was the root cause of his downfall. He wanted to be the Emperor of Europe. He started the Revolution for bringing down absolute monarchy, but when power came to him he himself became an absolute dictator even worse than Louis XVI. He trampled down liberties of all European nations. He was successful against the monarchs, kings and governments, but failed before the hostile spirit of the people and their combined resistance. Persistent enmity of England, his wrong policies like continental system, Russian Campaign greatly contributed to his downfall. The defeat at the battle of the Nile and Trafalgar completely destroyed his naval power. Continuous war brought only miseries to the people of France and they revolted against him. He was defeated when the French people went against him.

The Congress of Vienna

In October, 1814 a Congress of European Powers was opened in Vienna. The Congress was attended by 216 representatives of all European states except Turkey. The dominating and decisive role of the Congress was played by the Tsar of Russia, Alexander, English Prime Minister Lord

Castlereagh, Talleyrand of France and Prince von Hardenberg of Prussia. The major decision was to restore Europe to its pre-revolutionary conditions. Austria received Milan and Venice. Prussia got most of the districts on the left bank of the Rhine. Russia got a large portion of Poland. Belgium was joined to Holland and Norway to Sweden.

In settling the boundaries of European states, the European monarchs looked only to their own interest, they completely ignored the feeling and sentiment of the people. They paid little heed to the national sentiment. They set their face against the new ideas of freedom, liberty and equality aroused by the French Revolution. As a result the decision of the Congress did not bring any lasting peace in Europe. From the very beginning it gave rise to discontent among the states and eventually the whole settlement collapsed.

Britain after Napoleonic Wars

After the death of William Pitt Junior, Lord Castlereagh became the Prime minister. The Napoleonic wars started during Pitt and ended with Castlereagh. Britain was successful in destroying Napoleon and his high ambition, but the war had destroyed her economy. It had created public sufferings and social unrest. The years following Waterloo were times of economic distress for Britain. On account of war national debt increased enormously. Trade was dull because of the continental system. Industries slowed their production creating unemployment in the country. The disbanded army members having found no job were unhappy, their sufferings increased many fold for price hike of essentials. Bad harvest further intensified the situation, though government brought some agricultural reforms under the Corn Act of 1815.

There were riot and agitation in many places. But government took coercive measures to put down the agitation. The Tory government apprehended that all these demands for reforms are the result of the French Revolution. They were cautious about them. A huge public meeting of the discontented mass was held at Manchester. The people there pressed hard for reforms, they demanded amelioration of public suffering, but meeting was dispersed by army and many people were killed. In history it is known as the massacre of Peterloo. Government passed a number of coercive acts (Six Acts) which restricted the right of public meetings, military training and use of arms.

King George III died in 1820 after a long and eventful reign of sixty years (1760 -1820).

Chapter Five

George IV (1820-1830)

George III was succeeded by his eldest son George IV in 1820. He was a different type of man. He was vain, extravagant and pleasure loving. In policy matters he was a feeble copy of his obstinate father. He ascended the throne when the country was passing through a difficult time. Economic hardship of the people created widespread discontent. There were unemployment, price hike of essential commodities all over the country; riots broke out at different places for food and other essentials. The Tory government was afraid of a revolution like that of France as the people agitated and pressed hard for massive reforms like France. The Tory government was stiff to listen to the agitators and took coercive measures to suppress them. After the death of Addington and resignation of Castlereagh, some moderate Tories came to power. They took steps for reforms. The reign of George IV was noted for many reforms. It is known as the Epoch of Reforms.

Some important events of the reign of Geogre IV

- 1. Cato Street Conspiracy** was an important event of the reign of George IV. Soon after his accession Arthur Thistlewood hatched up a plot to kill the King and his ministers. The reasons of the conspiracy were the coercive measures of the government and their unwillingness to reforms. The plot was betrayed by some of its leaders who were detected and were later executed.
- 2. The marriage of George IV and Caroline** was another event. The marriage was not a happy marriage. They always quarreled and lived separately, but when George became King, Caroline claimed to be honored as the Queen. George who hated Caroline induced his ministers to introduce a bill in the parliament to procure a divorce with the queen. But the bill was later abandoned as public sympathy was with the queen.
- 3. The Holy Alliance was more than a religious alliance.** During the Napoleonic wars Britain formed a number of coalitions with the European states. George IV formed another coalition with Russia and Prussia. They called it a **Holy Alliance**. But the purpose of this coalition was different. Although they agreed to promote peace and goodwill among the states of Europe adopting a policy based on Christianity, their hidden objectives were to suppress any popular and constitutional movement. In fact it was a league of despotic Kings.

Lord Castlereagh kept aloof from this alliance; he did not show interest in the Parliament for its approval. His successor Lord Canning openly opposed it. He followed a liberal foreign policy of non-intervention in internal affairs of other countries. He supported popular and constitutional government. He prevented France and Spain from interfering with the newly formed constitutional government of Portugal. When the Spanish colonies revolted against their mother country, Canning recognized their independence. He also supported the Greek against the Turks. He formed a new coalition with Russia and France to mediate the quarrel between the Greek and the Turks.

Canning and Catholic Emancipation of Ireland

Since beginning of the reign of George III the issue of Catholic Emancipation of Ireland, their right to sit in the Parliament and hold public office, was in a knot of English politics. William Pitts despite his commitment to the Irish Catholics failed to solve it. Lord Canning again introduced the Catholic Relief Bill, but he also failed. The Irish Catholics clearly understood that unless they took arms, the British government would not recognize their right. In 1823 O'Connell an Irish Barrister founded the Catholic Association. He started agitation with new vigor for removal of Catholic disabilities. The agitation of the Association became formidable. During the ministry of Duke Wellington, John Russell took an important step in the direction in 1828, he repeal the Test and Corporation Act and thereby removed the disabilities of the dissenters. But The Irish Catholics were not satisfied with that. In 1828 O'Connell was elected a member of the Parliament, but was not allowed to sit in the Parliament which created a serious crisis and a civil war was imminent. To avoid a civil war the ministry of Wellington passed the *Catholic Emancipation Act* in 1829. By this Act the Catholics were allowed to sit in the Parliament and hold all public offices except the office of Regent, Lord Chancellor and Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

Of other reforms – reforms in commercial policies regarding duties, Navigation Acts, workmen penal laws etc. were important. Home Secretary Robert Peel reformed the Criminal Code and mitigated its severity. He abolished death penalty for more than hundred crimes.

William IV (1831-1837)

William IV succeeded his brother George IV to the throne of Britain in 1831. He served long time in the Royal Navy. He was, therefore, called the Sailor King. He was of genial disposition and amiable character. The year he ascended the throne was a year of revolution in many parts of Europe. There were widespread agitations and movements for Parliamentary reforms in Britain too. Wellington was a conservative

Tory; he was opposed to any kind of reforms. He had to resign on the face of demand for Parliamentary reforms. A Whig government came to power and Lord Grey became the Prime Minister. The Parliamentary reforms were the most significant event of the reign of King William IV which further strengthened the Parliament and Parliamentary democracy.

William IV died childless in 1837.

Parliamentary Reforms Act

The House of Commons, till the time of William IV, was a very undemocratic body. It did not truly represent the people; it was largely controlled by the Crown and the big landlords. Many big towns which grew up after the industrial revolution did not represent in the House of Commons, but many small and insignificant towns which were in the favour of the King (and were known as rotten boroughs) were there. Thus cities like Manchester and Birmingham had no representatives in the House of Commons whereas depopulated boroughs like Gatton and Sarum enjoyed representation. There was no uniformity in franchise; the voting right was given to different classes of people on different standard. The mass of the people was kept outside the franchise.

William Pitt Junior first tried to present a bill on reforms of the Parliament in 1785 with a proposal to disfranchise some small boroughs and include some new ones, but failed for opposition from the King and the Whigs. When the French Revolution broke out and there were many English sympathizers of the Revolution, the government was afraid of the spread of revolutionary ideas in England, government, therefore, stopped all kinds of reformation. After the battle of Waterloo, British economy was under great stress, national debt was enormous, unemployment was high, public suffering increased and there were unrest and discontent everywhere. People held politics and politicians responsible for the suffering of the people. They were agitating through different associations for reforms of the Parliament. Birmingham Political Union was one of them. Reform of the Parliament was a popular cry. Sir Francis Burdett and later Lord Russell took up the issue seriously. They wanted representation of Birmingham in the Parliament. Their movement was further strengthened when in 1830 revolutions broke out all over Europe.

Lord Grey was keen about the Parliamentary reforms. One of his ministers Lord John Russell introduced the first Reform Bill in the House of Commons. The object of the Bill was to disfranchise the rotten boroughs and to give representation to large towns. The Bill was at that time rejected and Parliament was dissolved. A new election was held for the Parliament; this time the supporters of the Bill were majority in number. The Reform Bill was introduced in the Parliament for the second time and it was passed by the House of Commons, but it was rejected by

the House of Lords. The rejection of the Bill by the Lords created great indignation and popular excitement which led to riots in many places. The Reform Bill was introduced to the Parliament for the third time and was passed by the Commons as before, but the Lords were still obstinate. Lord Grey then requested the King to create new peers to outvote the opposition of the Lords. But the King refused, Grey then resigned. Public indignation was intensified and there were possibilities of further chaos. Wellington was called again to form the ministry, but he also failed. Grey was recalled. He agreed to come back on a promise from the King that the King would create new peers if it was necessary. The House of Lords, finding it useless to oppose the Bill again, agreed with the House of Commons. Thus the first Reform Bill of British Parliament was passed and it became law in 1832.

The Provisions of the Reform Act

The Reform Act of 1832 totally disfranchised all boroughs which had population less than 2000, boroughs having population between 2000 to 4000 thousand were to send only one representative to the Parliament, seats thus gained were distributed to large counties and large unrepresented towns. In boroughs the franchise was given to the owner of a house and paying a tax of £10 a year, in counties franchise was given to all who owned lands and paying a tax of £10 a year or a yearly rental of £50 for their holdings.

The effect of the Reforms was great. Political power was transferred from the landed aristocracy to the middle classes. Before the reforms the land-owning aristocrat used to control the House of Commons, but after the Reform the middle class people and manufacturing districts came to the front. It brought uniform franchise in the boroughs, though it did not bring democracy in England as working class still remained outside the franchise.

First Reformed Parliament

The first Reformed Parliament is famous for passing a number of Bills which alleviated the suffering of the wretched people and improved their condition. Parliamentary legislation was influenced by the humanitarian principles. The following Acts were passed, and measures were approved, by the Ministry of Lord Grey:

1. Abolition of Slavery – Slavery was abolished from the British dominions by an Act of the Parliament which was known as the Emancipation Act of 1833. Government paid compensation to the owners of the slaves for losing their services.

The history of Anti-Slavery Movement is long in Britain. Negro slave trade dates back to the reign of Queen Elizabeth I. In West Indies slaves were subjected to brutal cruelties. The slaves on their

transportation to different countries were treated like animals, which roused the sympathy of the British people. They started agitation and movement against this inhuman trade. In 1772 Chief Justice of England Justice Mansfield passed this decision that any slave when he sets foot on English ground become free. The Society for the Abolition of Slave Trade was formed in 1787. Clarkson carried on agitation all over the country against the slave trade. Parliamentarian Wilberforce introduced a Bill in the House of Commons against the slave trading, but it was resisted by the House of Commons on the agitation of the British merchants. The House of Commons had to wait till 1833 to pass the Act to abolish slavery.

2. The Factory Act of 1833 - It prohibited employment of boys under nine and girls under thirteen in mines and factories. It also regulated the working hours and protected the children from ill-treatment.
3. The Education Act of 1833 – By this Act state grant was made in aid of the elementary education of the poor.
4. The Poor Law Reform Act of 1834 - It made provision for subsistence for extremely poor people. The Act was criticized for encouraging idleness and was later amended. It was made only for the invalid poor.
5. The Municipal Corporation Act of 1835 – In most of the Municipal corporation ordinary citizens had no say in the management. This Act made provision for tax payers to elect their town councilors. These councilors used to elect the Mayor and the Aldermen.

Lord Grey resigned in 1834 on the face of criticism of the Tories who were against the reforms, and was succeeded by Lord Melbourne the Whigs leader. The reform measures he initiated for the benefit of the common people were not however abandoned by his successor. Lord Melbourne continued them.

The Reforms of the Parliament, which is also called by many the Modern Magna Carta, brought about a great change in politics and in the behavior of political parties and in their programs. The Tories, who were always against any reform or change in the Church and State, changed their attitude. Robert Peel, the leader of the Tories, reconstituted his party and party policies. They became more moderate to the reforms. In the changed circumstances to distinguish his party, Peel called it Conservatives Party. The Whigs also changed their name and called their party Liberals.

Part XII

Victorian Age

Queen Victoria was the longest reigning monarch in the history of the British people (63 yrs. from 1837 to 1901). During her long reign the British Empire was expanded over all the continents of the Earth. About 1/3 of the land area of the globe was under her Empire. There was a proverb that the sun does not set in the Empire of Queen Victoria. Colonialism was made and recognized as a political institution. She could build up a bright image of the British people all over the world and British Empire was esteemed by all. Parliamentary Democracy and constitutional Monarchy was deeply rooted in Britain and became an example to others. Britain reached the highest pinnacle of glory materially, politically and intellectually during this time. British Royal Navy was invincible on the sea. The British people used to think themselves as a superior nation and that they had a responsibility to give a little bit of their law and democracy to the lesser breeds of other countries (which Rudyard Kipling boastfully said “Whiteman’s burden”.)

Queen Victoria ascended the throne after the death of her uncle William IV as the King was childless and she was the next heiress presumptive. Queen’s personal image was also very high. She had matrimonial relation with most of the royal families of Europe, and, therefore, earned the nick-name “Grand-mother of Europe”.

Chapter one

Queen Victoria (1837-1901)

Victoria succeeded William IV in 1837 at the age of eighteen. Victoria was the daughter of Prince Edward, the Duke of Kent and Strathearn. Edward was the fourth son of George III. William IV died childless. So the Crown passed to Victoria, his niece. She became heiress presumptive to the throne, according to the Regency Act of 1830. She won the sympathy and support of all by her modest and dignified manner. She thus became the Queen of Great Britain and proved herself to be one of the most illustrious sovereigns of the English people in history. She reigned from June 20, 1837 until her death on January 22, 1901. She also enjoyed the title of Empress of India from May in 1876. Her reign of 63 years and 7 months was longer than that of any British monarch and also the longest period of any female queen in history. During this long period, there were tremendous developments in all spheres of life - industrial, cultural, political, economic and military field within and without the country. Her reign is equally great for expansion of British colonial empire. Her reign earned a special name in history, it is called the Victorian Era.

Since 1714 Britain shared a monarch with the House of Hanover of Germany. But under the Salic-law of Germany, women were excluded from Hanoverian succession. When Victoria inherited all the British dominions, Hanover passed to her father's younger brother, her uncle Duke of Cumberland who became King Augustus I of Hanover. She was separated from the House of Hanover and Britain was also separated from Germany.

Since Victoria was quite tender in age she needed proper political education and training. The charge of her political education was left in care of Lord Melbourne who tactfully taught her the duties of a constitutional monarch. Melbourne was Prime Minister when she ascended the throne and continued in his position. But Melbourne soon became unpopular and in 1839 he resigned. Since Melbourne was a Whig, the Whigs were strong in the House of Commons and control the power. They were criticized for abolition of slavery as the plantation owners and slave-traders were against the abolition of slavery. In 1841 election the Whigs were defeated. Victoria invited a Tory, Sir Robert Peel, to form a new ministry.

Though she was a Queen, Victoria was an unmarried young woman. She was required by social convention to live with her mother. But she did not like her mother for her too much reliance on Sir John Conroy. After being queen she came to Buckingham palace from Kensington. Her mother was consigned to a remote apartment in the palace. Victoria often refused to meet her. She showed some interest for her cousin Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and decided to marry him. They were married on February 10, 1840. They had their first daughter on November 21, 1840. They had more eight children. After their marriage Albert became her political adviser and companion. The influence of Albert in British politics, art and architecture is immense.

Her Early Problems and the Chartists Movement

Political situation of Britain was gloomy when Victoria became Queen. Discontent and resentment among the people prevailed all over the country, distress of the poor and working class increased. Melbourne and his ministry were not popular. By the Corn Law a heavy duty was imposed on import of wheat, as a result price of bread increased tremendously. The Corn Law was enacted particularly in the interest of the big land lords and land-owners, as it helped increase the price of local corn. Poor and the working class were in great distress for food price. Their dwellings were extremely dirty and crowded. The Reforms gave political power to the middle class and their conditions had improved. But the poor and the working class were deprived of all political powers; they considered it to be the root of their suffering. They agitated for political privileges and organized a movement under the leadership of Feargus O' Connor. They drew up a Charter for political privileges and pressing their demand and they called it "People Charter". In the Charter they demanded for universal suffrage or right of vote, vote by ballot, abolition of property qualification for seat in the House of Commons and equal electoral districts. The supporters of this Charter were known as the Chartists. Feargus O' Connor continued his movement with other Chartists and in 1839 they presented a petition to the Parliament with many demands, but the petition was rejected by the Parliament.

The Chartists continued their agitation which got further impetus in 1848, when agitations in other European countries for political rights were strong. Chartists organized a large public meeting at Kennington and they placed another petition to the Parliament with many more demands with signatures of a large number of Chartists, but the Parliament rejected it again as many of the signatories were fictitious which discredited the movement and the movement gradually died out. But all the demands of the Chartists were subsequently met and the

Parliament agreed to them. For example vote by ballot was secured and property qualification was abolished. The Reform Act of Disraeli and Gladstone gave the artisans and farm laborers the right to vote.

Revolt in Canada

Victoria's reign started with Canada in revolt. By the Quebec Act of William Pitt of 1791, Canada was divided into two provinces – Upper and Lower Canada. In both the provinces the government was not responsible to the people. The people did not like it; they wanted to control the affairs of the government and a constitutional government. The situation was further aggravated by the racial jealousy between the British and the French Canadians especially in Lower Canada. The rebellion broke out in 1837 in both the provinces. The rebellion was suppressed soon, but there were unrest in both the provinces. British government sent Lord Durham as High Commissioner to find out a permanent solution to the problem. But Durham's treatment with the rebel leaders was extremely high-handed which aggravated the resentment. So Durham was called back. But he stayed for a long time in Canada to prepare a report on the future form of government of Canada. His report is a great document of British colonial policy and colonial rights. Durham recommended for union of the two provinces of Canada and giving them almost full legislative authority in their internal affairs. In the Canada Act of 1840, the first part of his recommendation was implemented. Canada subsequently obtained full responsible government in 1847.

Pistol Shot on the Queen

Victoria despite her all amiable behavior was not popular to the people in the early part of her reign. Few months after her marriage when she was riding with Albert in a carriage to visit her mother one Edward Oxford attempted to assassinate her. Oxford fired two shots, but both the shots missed. Oxford was caught, tried and found guilty. But he was exonerated on ground of his insanity. She was again aimed at on 29 May, 1842, while she was riding in a carriage along the Mall in London. One John Francis aimed pistol at her, but did not fire. He escaped. The next day, she drove the same route, but a little faster and with more careful escort with a deliberate intention to provoke Francis to take a second chance. As expected Francis shot at the Queen, but was caught by a plain dress police. He was convicted for high treason and was sentenced to death, later his death sentence was commuted to transportation for life. In 1850 the Queen sustained physical injury on her person when one insane ex-army officer, Robert Pate, struck her with his stick.

In 1845 there was a potato blight in Ireland. It brought great famine in the island. More than one million people died of starvation and another million migrated to America. In Ireland the Queen Victoria was called as “The Famine Queen.” After 1855 her reputation as a constitutional monarch was rising.

During her long reign she had thirteen Prime Ministers, of them Gladstone served three terms, Salisbury three terms, and Disraeli two terms. All of them were exceptionally brilliant politicians and their contribution to British democratic and Parliamentary politics is great.

Robert Peel (1841-1845)

Robert Peel was the second Prime Minister of Queen Victoria. Peel was a Conservative (Tory). He entered the Parliament in 1809. By his immense talent, hard work and political farsightedness he drew attention of the Parliament and came to prominence. In 1812 he became Secretary for Ireland and held that position next six years. He became Home Secretary in Liverpool’s Ministry in 1822, reformed the Criminal Code and relaxed its barbarous severity. During the Ministry of Wellington he repealed the Test and Corporation Act and contributed to the passing of the Catholic Emancipation Act. He improved the police system of London. He became Prime Minister first in 1834, but resigned the same year. From 1831 to 1841 the Whigs were in power, during this time Peel worked hard to revive and reorganize the Tories. He changed the old attitude of the Tories, infused in them liberal outlook and gave them a new name as Conservatives. Thus he proved himself to be a great statesman.

Peel’s Financial Reforms

Robert Peel first focused his attention on reorganizing the finance of the country. By imposing some new taxes he removed the recurring budget deficit. He reorganized the banking system by passing the Bank Charter Act of 1844 which limited the issue of bank notes ‘pay on demand’. Peel to meet the Anti-Corn Law agitation devised the sliding scale of duties on foreign corn, by which the duty on foreign corn varied according to the price of home grown corn. In 1846 he virtually repealed the Corn Law on account of the famine in Ireland. But it had very little effect on the poor. Many of his Tory friends thought that he had betrayed his party loyalty. The steps he took were not liked by his fellow Torymen and they started to desert him. Peel then had to resign.

Peel’s Irish Policy

Ireland was almost in rebellion when Peel came to power. O’Connell, an Irish nationalist leader, started a strong agitation for repeal of the Union Act. Peel followed the way of Pitt and tried to find out some means for

conciliation. He appointed the Earl of Devon as the Commissioner to enquire into the grievances of the Irish farmers and the evicted tenants. As a measure of conciliation Peel increased the state grant to the Maynooth College where Roman Catholic priests were trained. He established three Queen's Colleges to give unsectarian education to the Irish people. But all these measures failed to satisfy the agitating Irish people. Their demand was for economic justice. They wanted to get back their lands which were confiscated from them, wherefrom they had been evicted for political agitation. Peel did nothing for economic justice of the Catholics. Even his repeal of the Corn Law did not also produce any effect to reduce the suffering of the poor. The evicted tenants then resorted to murder and outrage. Peel brought a coercive bill in the Parliament to punish the Irish rebels, but the bill was defeated in the Parliament. This bill further infuriated the rebels and aggravated the national movement of Ireland. Peel then had to resign in 1846.

Foreign Policy of Peel

Aberdeen was Peel's foreign secretary. Both Aberdeen and Peel were peace loving people. Peel gave up the aggressive policy of Palmerston which had brought Britain almost to the brink of war. The Queen Victoria took keen interest in foreign policy. She wanted to develop friendly relation with France. Peel also wanted good relation with France. The Queen made and hosted several visits between the British royal family and the House of Orleans of France who were related by marriage through Coburgs. In 1843 and again in 1845 Queen Victoria and her husband Albert visited France and stayed with King Louis Philippe I at chateau d' Eu in Normandy. Since King Henry VIII, she was the first English monarch to visit France. The French King returned the visit in 1844 and he was the first French King to visit a British sovereign. In 1848 during the revolution King Louis Philippe I came to England for shelter.

After the resignation of Robert Peel, Lord John Russell became Prime Minister. Russell was a Whig, but he was not favored by the Queen. The Queen did not support the foreign policy of his foreign Secretary Lord Palmerston. She complained to the Prime Minister against him for his highhandedness in foreign policies. Lord Palmerston had to resign, though he became Prime Minister in 1855 and again in 1859. Lord Russell and Lord Derby were Prime ministers for short time. Of all the Prime Ministers Benjamin Disraeli and William E. Gladstone deserved special mention for their contribution in British politics. They were most famous and made important contribution during the reign of Queen Victoria.

Benjamin Disraeli

Benjamin Disraeli was the 11th Prime Minister of Victoria. He was a Jew and he came to prominence first by writing political novels. He entered the Parliament in 1837, the year Queen Victoria ascended the throne. He joined the Tory or the Conservative party. He supported the repeal of the Corn Law which gave him some prominence in the Parliament. He became the Chancellor of the Exchequer in the ministry of Lord Derby and in the third Derby ministry passed the Second Reforms Bill in 1867. The second Reforms Bill introduced household suffrage; it gave voting right to the peasants, artisans, traders and widened the scope of democracy further. Next year he became the Prime Minister, but was soon ousted by Gladstone. He returned to power in 1874 and retained his position as the Prime Minister till 1880. In home policy, Disraeli was quiet. But in foreign policy he was assertive, vigorous and an imperialist. His objective was to expand the British colonial empire and dominate continental and world politics. He purchased a big amount of share of the Suez Canal Company in 1875 from the Khedive of Egypt to strengthen British hold in Egypt and control the trade route to India.

William E. Gladstone

Gladstone was one of the most brilliant British Prime Ministers. He was the 12th Prime Minister of Victoria. He became Prime Minister for four times. He entered the Parliament as a Tory (Conservative) member, but gradually drifted to the Whigs (Liberals). He served under Robert Peel at the Board of Trade and worked as his disciple. In the ministry of Aberdeen he worked as the Chancellor of Exchequer and earned reputation as a great financier. He then deserted Aberdeen and went over to Palmerston's ministry. He first became Prime Minister in 1868 and continued till 1874 in that capacity. This term of Gladstone was famous for many important reforms both in England and Ireland. He pacified the agitating Irish people by the Disestablishment of the Irish Church and passing the first Irish Land Act. His landmark was the Elementary Education Act by which he established a national education system. He passed the Judicature Act in 1873 to bring about some major changes in the judiciary. By this Act he united different law courts under one High Court and made legal justice simple. His foreign policy was not very popular. Because of his weak foreign policy during the American Civil War he was defeated in the general election of 1874 and his government fell.

Gladstone came to power again in 1880 and continued as Prime Minister till 1885. During this term he had some tough time. Ireland was again violent and he had to introduce the Second Irish Land Bill, but it

did not pacify the Irish rebels. The Third Reforms Act was also passed during this time (1884) which expanded the scope of democracy and gave voting right to more people. He became Prime Minister for the fourth time in 1892. He again raised the Home Rule bill in the Parliament and got it passed by the House of Commons, but the Lords rejected it. After that he resigned in 1894. Although Gladstone was Prime Minister for four times during the reign of Victoria, he was not very much liked by the Queen. She humorously called him “half crazy and, in many ways, ridiculous old man” who used to speak to the Queen like speaking before a public meeting.

Different Reforms Acts passed by the Parliament:

The First Factory Act of 1844 (Graham) and Second Factory Act of 1847

The Industrial Revolution and the working system in the factory had changed the domestic life of the labour. It grossly abused the labours and their life. Minor children and women were compelled to work in the factory and in coal and iron mines. To control the abuse of labour, these two Acts were passed.

The second and third Reforms Act of 1867 and 1884

The purpose of the Second and Third Reforms was to give voting right to more and more people and include them in the governance of the country. The Second Reforms Act was passed by Disraeli and the Third by Gladstone. These Acts made tremendous progress in the Parliamentary Form of Government and strengthened the power of the Parliament and democracy. The authority and power of the House of Commons was strengthened and enhanced at the cost of the House of Lords. The Queen remained to be the constitutional Monarch.

The Elementary Education Act of 1870 and The Free Education Act of 1891

For giving the nation a definite educational system and educating the poor children the Act of 1870 was passed by Gladstone and the Act of 1892 by Salisbury.

The Local Self-Government Act of 1888

The Parliamentary Reforms extended voting right to the rates paying town dwellers, the rate payers or tax payers were also allowed to take part in the affairs of the municipality or local government. By the Local Self-Government Act of 1888, Queen Victoria’s government gave the local government more authority and power for self-government.

The Public Worship Regulation Act of 1874

By this Act Catholic rituals were removed from the Anglican liturgy which the queen strongly supported. The Queen preferred short simple religious services and personally considered herself more aligned with the Presbyterian Church of Scotland than the Episcopalian Church of England.

The Irish Land and Act of 1870 the Act of 1881

Ireland was in a state of violent disorder all through the time of Queen Victoria. Prime Minister Peel, Disraeli and Gladstone did their best for conciliation with the Irish. The Catholic Emancipation Act had removed the political disabilities of the Irish Catholics, still discontent among the poor tenants prevailed as their economic and land deprivation issues were not fully addressed. The Land Act of 1870 and 1881 were passed to address those issues.

The Ballot Act of 1872

This stopped the open voting in the Parliament and in other elections.

Judicature Act of 1873

There were different courts of Justice, their appellate authorities were also different. By this Act all the different law courts were brought under one single High Court and the procedures of judication were made simple.

The Royal Title of 1876

After the suppression of the Sepoy Mutiny in India, the British Parliament decided that the administration of the Indian sub-continent should not be left to a trading company. The East India Company was dissolved and Crown took over and by the Royal Title Act of 1876 declared Queen Victoria “the Empress of India.”

Wars during the Reign of Queen Victoria

In Europe Britain got involved in the ***Crimean War and Russo -Turkish War.***

The slow disintegration of the Ottoman Empire encouraged Russia to increase their hold in the Balkan areas. Once they could control the Balkan states Russia would be a great power in Europe. France and Britain did not like the Russian supremacy in Europe. There was another reason for British anxiety, Russia had common boarder with India, the biggest and the most resourceful colony of the British Empire. A strong Russia was a threat to Britain in Europe and her Asian colonies.

A Russian army invaded Turkish territory and threatened Constantinople. The Turks in fear signed a treaty with Russia, the terms

of which were not liked by Britain. British Prime Minister Disraeli demanded that the treaty be placed before the European Congress. To enforce this demand he despatched a British fleet to the Sea of Marmara and hurried Indian troops to Malta. The British warlike attitude compelled Russia to yield.

In North Africa

Egypt and Sudan were taken under the protection of the British rule. In South Africa: Britain after the Napoleonic wars acquired the cape colonies of South Africa which were basically owned by the Dutch. The Boers were the descendants of the original Dutch settlers. But the British annexed all these colonies after the **Boer and the Zulu War** in South Africa.

The Chinese Opium War (1840 and 1875)

The Chinese were defeated and they surrendered Hong Kong to the British and opened Chinese ports for English traders.

India

The British army suppressed the **Sepoy Mutiny in India and waged the Afgan wars.**

Expansion of British Colonial Empire

Nineteenth century was the best period of British colonial expansion. During the reign of Queen Victoria it reached the highest pinnacle. The Napoleonic wars which ended in favor of Great Britain, gave Britain some valuable colonies. For example the Cape colonies, Ceylon and parts of Guiana which were earlier held by the Dutch, came under the British control. Tobago and Mauritius were obtained from the France. Trinidad from Spain came to Britain. With the rise of the United States, British colonial expansion in America was virtually stopped and Britain had to be satisfied with Canada only. Britain became more earnest in Asia, Africa and the Pacific. In North Africa, Egypt and Sudan came under the British colonial rule. In South Africa Britain's acquisitions were Natal, Zululand and Transvaal. In the Pacific group of Australian colonies such as New South Wales, Victoria, Tasmania, South Australia and New Zealand formed part of the British colonial Empire. To speak in other words, British colonies covered during the reign of the Queen Victoria one-sixth of the land-surface of the Globe.

British Government sent Lord Durham to Canada to find out the causes of unrest and turmoil there. Durham prepared a report on Canada which became the basis of the British colonial policy. British Government took a definite policy about the colonial rule on the report of

Lord Durham. Though the report was in connection with the political turmoil in Canada, the similar situation prevailed in other colonies also. So the report of Lord Durham was the basis of British policy of colonial rule. Canada was given complete self-government in 1847. All these colonies or groups of colonies were gradually given self-government and autonomy. Australian colonies were united under a federation and by 1855 achieved complete self-government. The same policy was adopted for South Africa. But the colonies remained within the British Commonwealth.

Free Trade and Trade Union

During the nineteenth century there was a tremendous industrial development. Number of workers in the factories increased many times and their requirements and demands also increased. On the other hand free trade all over the world multiplied many folds. Problems of the workers gave rise to several labour movements. When the insatiable greed for wealth made the industrialists ignore the sufferings of the workers. The workers expected some redress of their sufferings from the Reforms Bill of 1832, but nothing was done for them. The ideas of socialism were popular among the working class. Robert Owen, a leader of the factory workers organized the workers. He wanted to popularize his ideas through Trade Unions. In 1834 a Grand National Congress of Consolidated Trade Unions was held which was participated by half a million workers and working people. The English Trade Unionism was mainly concerned with immediate problems like wages and working hours of the workers. During the second half of the nineteenth century, Trade Unions grew further both in strength and number. In 1871 the ministry of Gladstone passed the Act recognizing the legality of Trade Unions, protection of their funds and officials. Their position was further strengthened by the Employers and Workmen Act of 1875. Owen held that the evils of unhealthy competition among the manufacturers were at the root of the suffering and exploitation of the workers. He believed all these evils could be removed by bargaining with owners. The Factory Act of 1844 and 1847 recognized some of the labour and factory problems. Owen opposed extreme measures like strikes.

In 1899 the Trade Union Congress passed a resolution in favor of political activities of the workers and the Workingmen. The next year (in 1900) happened the most significant event – the formation of the Labour Party with Kier Hardie as its leaders.

Agitation for Making Britain a Republic

After the death of Prince Albert, Queen Victoria went in seclusion at Windsor. She did not come to London, or rarely made any public appearance. This was adversely criticized. The English Republicans, who wanted to make Britain a Republic like France, were encouraged by this seclusion of the Queen. They organized a rally in Trafalgar Square in 1870 and demanded removal of the Queen. Some of the radical M.Ps. also spoke against the Queen, but the agitation did not get stronger support from the people and die down automatically.

Character of Queen Victoria

Queen Victoria was always for the expansion of the British colonial empire. In this respect she liked Disraeli very much. She endorsed the policy of Disraeli which led to the Anglo-Zulu war in South Africa, Anglo-Afghan war in India and conflict with Egypt in North Africa. She held the opinion that if the British had to maintain their position as the number one power, they should be prepared for attacks and wars. She endorsed the British occupation of other countries in the name of civilizing them and protecting the people of those countries from oppressive government. She said, "It is not our custom to annex countries unless we are obliged and forced to do so." After the celebration of her Golden Jubilee, she was confident of her popularity. She instructed her government for ensuring good governance in the colonial countries also and making no difference with the natives. To show impartiality to all her subjects she appointed for her personal services people from India and Africa. She engaged two Indian Muslims as her waiters. One of them was Abdul Karim, who used to teach her Urdu and Hindi. Abdul Karim was elevated to the position of a clerk (Munshi). The Queen was criticized for her tenderness to this Abdul Karim. There were many allegations against Abdul Karim that he was spying against the British Raj in India and that he lied about his parentage, but Victoria dismissed them as racial prejudice. Abdul Karim remained in his position in the service of the Queen until he returned to India with a good pension after the death of the Queen. But there was a subtle hypocrisy in all these deeds of the Queen.

Queen Victoria had left a grand image after her. Around the world there are so many places, buildings and memorials dedicated in her memory that we do not find a second one. The Capital of British Columbia is Victoria. The largest lake of Africa is Victoria Lake, Victoria Falls, two Australian states, Victoria and Queensland. In British India is the Victoria Memorial Hall. The list may be longer.

Grand-mother of Europe

Queen Victoria was the longest reigning British monarch (63yrs and 7mths.). Physically she was not very much imposing, she was stout, dowdy and hardly five feet tall, but she succeeded in projecting a grand image. She married her cousin Prince Albert who was a tall man in 1840. In their twenty years of married life, Victoria gave birth to nine children. They had 42 grand children, of them 34 survived. Victoria and Albert were connected with most royal families of Europe. Her eldest daughter was married to the emperor of Germany, another daughter was married to the emperor of Russia, her granddaughter Maud was Queen of Norway, Sophie was the Queen of the Hellenes, Marie queen of Romania, Eugenie Queen of Spain and so on. She thus earned the nickname “the grand-mother of Europe”.

Prince Albert died at Windsor of typhoid on December 14, 1861. After the death of the Prince she lived a very secluded life of a widow for long forty years. She avoided public appearance and performed her royal duties at Windsor. To show respect to her departed husband, she ordered the household to maintain the late Prince’s bed as it was so long she was alive. Her seclusion at Windsor was ridiculed by many and they called her “the Widow of Windsor (Rudyard Kipling).” She died on January 22, 1901. Her son and successor King Edward VII and her eldest grandson Emperor Kaiser William II of Germany were present at her deathbed. She was interred beside her husband Prince Albert in Frogmore Mausoleum at the Windsor Great Park.

Chapter Two

Edward VII (1901-1910)

On the death of Victoria, the Prince of Wales, succeeded to the throne as Edward VII. Edward was a peace-loving man. He was keen to develop friendly relations with the European countries. Mr. Balfour was the Prime Minister when he ascended the throne. He reigned only for ten years and died in 1910.

Conservative Balfour

Mr. Balfour was a Conservative. His ministry was more interested in domestic affairs. The first important act of his reign was to end the Boer War. He brought the Boer War to a close in 1902. Transvaal was annexed to the British Empire. Besides that Mr. Balfour passed two important Acts – the Education Act of 1902 which abolished the School Boards created in 1870 and the Land Purchase Act of 1906. By the Education Act of 1902, he transferred the management and control of school education to the County Councils. This Act brought education under the local authorities. The Land Purchase Act created some opportunity for the landless tenants to purchase their holding from the landlords. Government made provision for loan to the tenants to purchase land and compensation to the landlords for selling the land.

Mr. Balfour's colonial minister was Chamberlain. Chamberlain proposed a new commercial policy of Tariff Reforms. He proposed that there should be more free trade with the colonies giving preference to the colonial products. He thought that this would bring the colonies closer to the mother country as economic relations would bind them together. His proposal was not supported by many Unionists. Balfour's ministry fell on the issue of Tariff Reforms.

Liberal Campbell

The Liberals came to power and Campbell formed his Liberal Ministry in 1906. There were many capable politicians in the Liberal Party such as Asquith, Sir Edward Grey, R. B. Haldane and David Lloyd George. They showed their legislative capability and passed a number of useful bills. These bills were mostly influenced by the democratic and socialistic ideas of the time and by the advent of a Labor Party in the Parliament. Campbell took another major decision - he granted self-government to

the Boer colonies of South Africa in 1906. His Ministry also passed the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1906 by which the employer was compelled to compensate an employee for injuries caused by accident in course of his work.

Liberal Asquith

Campbell died in 1908 and was succeeded by Mr. Asquith. The ministry of Asquith lasted for seven years and was remarkable for many important social reforms. His first reform measure was to pass the Old Age pension act of 1908. By this Act the old people, over seventy years both male and female, were given five shilling a week as pension. The same year another important Bill, limiting eight working hours in coal mine, was passed. In 1909 Labor Exchange was set up to inform the unemployed workmen where he might find a job and provision to bear the travel expenses to the work place were also made. After that the National Insurance Act of 1911 was passed. This Act made provision for both employment and healthcare. Workers earning less than £160 a year should be ensured against sickness. An ensured worker when thrown out of employment was entitled to seven shilling a week. Lloyd George took great initiative to pass all these acts. All these social benefits made Britain truly a welfare state. Despite all these welfare measures, the People's Budget of Lloyd George, who was then the Chancellor of the Exchequer, was rejected by the House of the Lords. The People's Budget proposed new taxes on the rich landlord and benefit for the poor. The rejection of the People's Budget by the Lords created some constitutional problems. Asquith then dissolved the Parliament. In the next general election Asquith returned to power with a greater majority. At last the Lords passed the People's Budget.

Change in British Foreign Policy

After the Treaty of Berlin in 1878, Britain maintained a "Splendid Isolation" in foreign affairs particularly in European affairs. France and Russia made the Dual Alliance in 1893. Germany, Austria and Italy were joined by the Triple Alliance of Bismark in 1882. Thus Europe was divided into two hostile groups and tension among them was rising. Britain did not find it wise to remain isolated from European affairs when European diplomacy was getting complicated. She badly felt the need of friendly support of some European country during the Boar War. But she did not get it because of her isolation from the European diplomacy. Britain now wanted some European ally. France was persistently hostile to Britain which was further aggravated when she

occupied Egypt. Russia also had aggressive design in the East which often conflicted with British interest in Persia and India. In such a situation Britain had to change her foreign policy. Britain first made an alliance with Japan in 1902 to strengthen her position in the Far East. She next tried to make an alliance with Germany, but Germany turned down the proposal. Then Britain had to improve diplomatic relation with France. Queen Victoria exchanging royal visits to France developed relation with France. King Edward VII was advised to follow his 'grandma'. Edward visited France and created an atmosphere of friendly diplomacy. The result of the Royal visit was the Entente Cordiale (of 1904) or Good Understanding Entente. By this Entente many differences with France were settled, France recognized the British interest in Egypt. Britain also reciprocated by the friendly gesture of France and gave France a free hand in Morocco. Britain also arrived at some understanding with Russia by agreeing Russian influence on the northern part of Persia. Thus Britain, France and Russia formed a friendly diplomatic group which was known as Triple Entente.

Edward died in 1910 and was succeeded by his second son who ascended the throne with the title George V.

George V (1910 -1936)

George V ascended the throne when Britain and the Europe were going to enter into a new era of trouble. The preceding two decades were peaceful except the South African Boar War. The nineteenth century closed with the death of Queen Victoria, death of Salisbury and end of the Boar War. The reign of Edward VII was all peaceful, but after his death the European scenarios completely changed. The Victorian period was a long time of peace and ever increasing prosperity at home. It was a gradual and uninterrupted transition from the old society to a new and modern life where democracy grew further stronger. In a single generation science and technology added to our life motor car, wireless, telegraphy and many other things. The air or the sky was conquered; the secrets under the sea were also discovered. In the second decade of the twentieth century Britain was going to involve herself in the Great War, one of the great human catastrophes of the century.

Parliamentary Act of 1911 and the Ministry of Asquith

The most important political event of the reign of George V at home was the passing of the Parliamentary Act of 1911. The Money Bill of 1909 which was popularly known as the People's Budget was rejected by the House of Lords. It gave rise to a constitutional crisis and resentment in

the mind of the people. Parliamentary Act of 1911 was the result of that crisis. The Act was passed in the face of strong opposition from the House of Lords. The House of Lords agreed only when Asquith threatened that he would advise the king to create new peers to override the opposition. By this Act the House of Commons was made the supreme authority for legislation and the authority of monarchy and the House of Lords was reduced. Asquith's next attempt was to address the Irish unrest and to pass the Home Rule Bill of Gladstone which was passed three times by the House of Commons and every time rejected by the House of Lords. In 1912 Asquith introduced the Bill in the House of Commons and got it passed under the operation of the Parliamentary Act of 1911. But meanwhile the people of Ulster showed their unwillingness to come under the Home Rule and there was a possibility of a civil war in Ireland. By this time Great War broke out in Europe during this time the Home Rule Act was kept suspended. Britain was more earnest for her allies in Europe and to protect herself and her colonies and trade routes. Germany which fast developed her sea power to meet the British navy, was a concern for Britain.

Part XIII

Britain under the rule of the Georges

The din of the First World War was drawing nearer. Early part of the 20th century was a time of political turmoil in Europe. There were unhealthy competitions and rivalries among the European states for occupation of new colonies and control of trade routes and colonial markets. They were in a state of crazy competition for expansion of their colonies, trade routes and for occupying colonial markets. The result was bitter hostilities and ill-feeling among them. Everyday tension was rising and every state was acquiring war hardware and was getting ready for a War.

Europe was at that time divided into several hostile military groups like the Tripple Alliance, the Double Alliance and the Tripple Entete. Germany, Austria and Italy were in the Tripple Alliance. Russia and France formed the Double Alliance. Britain so long was aloof from any military group, but this time they felt the need of a group and they formed the Tripple Entete with France and Russia. The War was then a matter of time.

The First World War was started when the Arch Duke of Austria was killed on the street in Bosnia on June 28, 1914 by a Serbian student.

Chapter One

Britain and the First World War

At the beginning of the twentieth century Europe was divided into two armed camps represented by the Triple Alliance and the Dual Alliance. Germany, Austria and Italy were united by the Triple Alliance. Russia and France were in the same way united by the Dual Alliance. In 1907 Britain developed her relation with Russia after accepting Russian hand on the Northern Persia. Thus a new diplomatic group was formed with England, France and Russia which was known as Triple Entente.

On the eve of the Great War there were some factors which created tension and bitter feeling among the European powers. There was a long standing hostility between Germany and France. Germany refused to recognize the special position of France in Morocco, but this position of France was recognized by England under the Entente Cordiale. The aggressive attitude of Germany led almost to a crisis and political situation was tense: (1) In 1911 Germany sent a gunboat to the Moroccan port Agadir to protect the German interest there. In fact Germany wanted to test the strength of the Entente Cordiale. The British government in reply sent a cruiser to watch the German gunboat. Germany found that the Entente Cordiale was not only a formality and they withdrew the gunboat, but the bitterness among them remained and was increasing. (2) Secondly Germany was building up a strong navy to challenge the British navy on sea and they became almost a rival of Britain. (3) Thirdly in the Balkan areas Russia and Austria had conflicting racial interest. Austria had for some time past pursuing a policy of exterminating the Slav. Annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria with German support had greatly offended Serbia and Russia. When Russia got involved with Austria and Germany, Britain showed sympathy for Russia as Britain and Russia were in the same diplomatic group (The Triple Entente).

Causes of the War

The War was first confined to the Great Powers (Germany, France, Britain and Russia). Of the smaller states only Serbia and Belgium were involved. Germany with her two allies was pursuing aggressive policies in the centre of Europe and building up military hardware for a possible war.

1. The root cause of the First World War was the reckless competition of the colonial imperialism of the European Powers and their insatiable greed for wealth. It started in the beginning of nineteenth century and reached its climax in the later half of the nineteenth century. Germany was jealous of the wealth and prosperity of England and the English

people. She saw it with anger how Britain was swelling up with wealth and prosperity with the money and wealth from her colonies and overseas trade. France and Italy were also jealous of the British prosperity and her colonial empire. Each of the Great Powers was determined to capture new colonies, control trade route and colonial market. The countries of Africa, Asia and America were divided among them as their colonies. They were still jealous of one another. One was a rival to other. They fell to fight each other when there was a conflict of interest.

2. Extreme egoistic nationalism and pride of racial superiority (as of Germany) contributed to a great extent for the War. Bismark united the whole German Nation with such zeal and enthusiasm that they were a superior race. They were destined to give leadership to the mankind. This belief was fostered by a group of flamboyant and chauvinist German leaders. They believed that they had been deprived of their right by other powers of Europe. They have to fight for their right.
3. Extreme desire to become powerful, fear of the neighbors, suspicion and excessive hatred for others resulted in massive armaments. In the later part of 19th century all big European nations raised big armies, trained them up with all kinds of latest lethal weapons and war technique. They stocked huge arms and ammunitions for any unexpected war. Germany and her allies spent huge amount of money for training their soldiers to kill the enemies on large scale. They were also manufacturing all deadly weapons about which the world knew nothing before. It was clear that such well-equipped, well-trained armies could not remain idle for indefinite time. Countries like Germany and Austria which felt that they were adequately armed for aggression, could not be restrained from attacking others on a convenient pretext.
4. Germany had indomitable ambition to dominate the world, build up a colonial empire like Britain and check the British colonial expansion. She wanted to control the British trade route and colonial market.
5. France could not forget the humiliation and injustice done to her at the Congress of Berlin. The loss of Alsace and Lorraine was still green in her mind and she was determined to get them back from Germany.
6. Austria was determined to expand her territory by annexing Bosnia and Herzegovina with the help of Germany which offended Russia. Russia wanted to check Austro-German influence in the Balkans.
7. When an issue for starting the War was needed, one tragic accident occurred. The Arch-Duke of Austria and next heir to the throne

Francis Ferdinand was killed by a Serbian student in Bosnia on June 28, 1914. Austria alleged that this murder was motivated by political interest. An Austrian secret agent confirmed it who reported that the plot of the murder had been hatched up in Belgrade the capital of Serbia and some Serbian officials helped the assassin. Austria became furious.

8. **The two days ultimatum:** Count Berchtold the Austro-Hungarian foreign minister sent a very strongly worded Two-day ultimatum on July 23, 1914. The ultimatum was highly provocative. It carried a severe threat to Serbia that she would take action if agitation against Austria in Serbia was not subdued. Austria further demanded to allow Austrian officials to enter into Serbia to make necessary investigation of the crime. Serbia promptly and submissively replied before the expiry of the demanded time and said that she would comply with all the demands of Austria, but would not allow Austrian officials to carry on investigation of the crime on Serbian soil. She did not like to be treated as a vassal state of Austria and would not allow any such insult on her sovereignty. She further agreed to refer the matter to the Hague Tribunal for settlement.

The War Started

Austria angrily reacted to the reply of Serbia and said that the reply of Serbia was not satisfactory and she demanded unconditional submission. Austria encouraged by Germany declared war on Serbia on July 28, 1914. Thus the First World War began. Russia was a Slavonic state. She was interested in the small kingdom of Serbia, and was not ready to stand idle and see Serbia crushed by Austria. Russia mobilized her army against Austria. Russian action brought Germany into the War field to stand by Austria under the condition of the Triple Alliance. Germany next declared war on France. Germany, to reach Paris quickly, demanded to Belgium a passage to France which Belgium refused. German troops then marched into Belgium which was a flagrant violation of international law and neutrality of Belgium.

So long Britain remained aloof from the War, but Germany's violation of Belgian boarder dragged her into the War. Britain true to her treaty obligation was compelled to declare war on Germany. She was afraid of any German assault on the southern coast of England as Germany wanted to control the Channel. Though the War was started by Austria and Germany, all the European countries and lately the United States were involved in the War. They were divided into two groups – the Allied Forces and the Central forces. Britain and the whole of British Empire, France, Italy (Italy was first with Germany in the Triple Alliance),

Russia, Rumania, Greece, Serbia, Belgium, Portugal and Japan were in the Allies Forces. On the other hand Germany, Austria, Hungary Turkey and Bulgaria were in the Central Forces. The United States joined the Allied Forces in April, 1917.

Austria declared war on Serbia on July 28, 1914. When Russia refused to stop mobilization of troops on Serbian boarder, Germany declared war on Russia on August 1 and on France on August 3, 1914. Britain declared war on Germany on August 4, 1917 the very day Germany violated the neutrality of Belgium as all the European powers had guaranteed Belgium's neutrality. Turkey joined the War in 1914 on the German side. The position of Italy was awkward as she was a member of the Triple Alliance and she had to help Germany and Austria according to the Alliance. But she said Austria and Germany when asked that she could not help them in a war of aggression. Italy made a secret agreement with France, so she remained neutral for sometime and in 1915 joined the Allied side.

Germany's Early Actions

Germany had massive war preparation, they had the biggest army well-equipped and well-trained. They had huge stock of latest arms and ammunitions. More over they were inspired by a national spirit to fight for making Germany the greatest power in Europe and in the world. Belgium gave a tough fight to the German troops when they marched to France through the Belgian territory. It was an opportunity for the French army to prepare themselves for the resistance. Belgium was defeated and was made a province of Germany. German army occupied some French cities and areas.

Russia in the Early Part of the War

The Russians invaded Germany and Austria to help Serbia, but they were routed by the German army as they were neither well-trained nor well-equipped. The German army occupied Russian territory in Poland and captured Warsaw. In 1917 Tsar Nicholas II of Russia was overthrown by the bloody Bolshevik Revolution and a communist Republic was established in Russia and anarchy followed. Russia had no other alternative but to surrender to Austria and Germany and sue for peace. Russia withdrew from the War before it ended by signing the humiliating treaty of Brest Litovsk on March 18, 1917. The German army occupied a huge Russian territory. As a result, Russia was a loser party in the bargain after the War, though she first started fighting for the allied forces which were ultimately victorious.

Chapter Two

The United States join the War

The United States joined the War on April 6, 1917 and declared war on Germany and Austria when Germany deviated from her promise and violated the International Marine law. Germany did well both in the eastern and western fronts in the early part of the War. But later her prospect of victory gradually faded though she used the latest tanks on land and U-boat on sea. Germany was determined to destroy the British naval force and for that purpose she used her latest submarines (the U-Boat or under sea boat). Germany first promised that she would not attack the U.S.A. ships on sea. But in January, 1917 Germany deviated from her promise and threatened all ships (including U.S.A ships) coming within the seas around Britain, France and Italy. Germany created havoc on British and the United States ships on seas with her submarines. In May a German U-boat sank the British passengers ship Lusitania which was carrying 1200 civilian passengers, of them 100 were American. This act of aggression of Germany raised a storm of protest in the United States. The United States was provoked as Germany violated the freedom of the sea. The United States, therefore, declared war on Germany and Austria on April 6, 1917.

The Peace Treaty with Russia gave Germany an opportunity to transfer a large body of troops from eastern front to the western front and create heavy pressure on the Allied Forces. But the joining of the United States turned the course of the War in favour of the Allied Forces. With the joining of the United States with their huge war resources the strength of the Allied forces increased and their fighting capacity was also strengthened. The U.S.A forces were fresh in the War. Germany and her allies were by this time tired and nearly exhausted.

In April, 1918 Martial Foch was appointed the Commander-in-Chief of the Allies Forces. This was a wise step as central operational council could give correct operational decisions. After that there was a unity in command of war operations and war tactics. The Allied forces began their offensive at different points and on a wider front simultaneously.

Austrian army failed in their attack on the Italians in June, 1918. It was a great set back for Germany. The Allied Forces being emboldened by the Austrian defeat hit back. They started assault on the German submarines. Germany supremacy of submarine warfare gradually lost their intensity and the supremacy of British navy prevailed.

Surrender of Germany

Bulgaria surrendered on September 30, 1918. Turkey, Austria and Hungary followed Bulgaria. Germany was losing in all fronts and in November, 1918 she had no other alternative but to surrender unconditionally. Kaiser William II of Germany fled to Netherland on November 9, 1918. Other members of his family also followed him. On November 11, 1918 an Armistice was signed between Germany and the Allied forces and then the great First World War came to an end. Though the U.S.A joined the Allies late, they were the real determinant of the War and the real Victor. In the War they came out as a great power to dominate the world affairs.

Final Peace Settlement

Though the Armistice was signed on November 11, 1918, the Final Peace Settlement was made in January, 1919 at the conference of the Allied States held in Paris. The conference was attended by the representatives of four great powers – The U.S.A (President Woodrow Wilson), Britain (Prime minister David Lloyd George), France (Premier George Clemenceau), and Italy (Premier Vittorio Orlando). But Italy and Japan withdrew soon. The remaining three decided the terms of peace. The terms of the Peace Settlement were determined by the U. S.A. President Woodrow Wilson. He gave fourteen points including the creation of the League of Nations. In the Peace conference in total five separate treaties were signed one with each of the defeated nations. The treaty signed with Germany was called the Treaty of Versailles. But the great statesmen who participated in the Peace Conference failed to exercise proper imagination to do justice to both the sides – the victor and the vanquished. They committed costly mistakes which sowed the seeds of another great war twenty years after.

14 points of Woodrow Wilson

(1) Hence no secret diplomacy, (2) Freedom of seas should be ensured, (3) Economic barriers should be eliminated, (4) Arms race should be stopped or reduced to the extent of National Armaments (5) Impartial adjustment of colonial claims, (6) Evacuation of Russia, (7) Restoration of Belgium, (8) Restoration of Alsace and Lorraine to France, (9) Completion of unification of Italy, (10) Self determination for the people of Austria and Hungary, (11) Self determination of the Balkan states, (12) Self determination for the Turkey, (13) Independence of Poland, and (14) Establishment of League of Nations.

Some Special Aspects of the War

In the First World War many new war weapons were used and new war tactics were followed. The cavalry was used very little. Artillery and

tanks played the major role. Airplanes were used by both the sides to drop bombs. U-boats or submarines were used to destroy warships. Poisonous gas was used which was a new weapon in warfare. In tactics both the sides fought from the trenches in the front lines, trench warfare was a new technique followed in the War. The First World War was a war of destructive machines – machineguns, airplanes, tanks, warships, submarines etc.

Result of the War

The League of Nations was created with the hope to solve international disputes and prevent future War. The map of Europe was rearranged; boundaries of European states were redistributed. Four great empires (the Austrian - Hungarian Empire, German Empire, the Russian Empire and the Ottoman Empire) were crashed. Germany was broken; her dream of becoming a world power vanished. Her all military hardware, arms and ammunitions, warships, submarines and tanks were handed over to the Allied Forces. Her military hardware factories were closed down. Her colonies were taken over by the allies. She was asked to pay huge war reparations to the victors. Austria and Hungary were made two separate states. The Republic of Czechoslovakia was created curving some territories from Austria and Hungary. Russian Empire was torn to pieces in Europe. Poland was made an independent state. Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, Albania and Estonia all became independent nation states. Egypt and some other Arab territories were separated from the Ottoman Empire and were made independent territories under the British protection.

France gained some territory. Alsace and Lorraine were restored to France. Italy also gained some new territories. Britain returned from the War victorious, but she was exhausted, her economy was in strain. British Empire, on the other hand, was strengthened and she gained some German colonies of Africa.

The U.S.A. gained most. The War Theatre was in Europe, so the European countries suffered most in loss of life and destruction of properties. The U.S.A remained far away from the War, no bomb was dropped and no gun was shot on the soil of the U.S.A. The industries of the U.S.A. were boosted up because of the War. They earned billions of dollars from the trade of war materials, money poured in the U.S.A from the European countries. The U.S.A. helped the European countries with billions of dollars credit for reconstruction of their devastated infrastructures. The U.S.A became the only creditor and patron of the European nations. Thus the U.S.A. became number one power in the world both in wealth and in military power.

Chapter Three

Britain after the First World War

When the World War I started in 1914 Mr. Asquith was the Prime Minister of Britain and the war ended in November 1918 when a coalition government headed by Lloyd George was in power. During the War Lloyd George did wonderful job as head of the Munitions Board in the ministry of Asquith. For his capable management of war equipments the British army could fight well in the War fronts. Mr. Asquith did not forget to carry on the democratic reforms he started before the War, though he was busy with the War. After being Prime Minister, in 1918 he passed the Representation of the People Act by which he gave all men above 21 years and women over 30 the right to vote. The women were given this right in recognition for their services in the War. It was further extended in 1921 during the ministry of Baldwin who granted suffrage to all women over 21 under the Equal Franchise Act.

Economic Distress of England

After the peace treaty of Paris in January, 1919, Britain was complacent as one of the Victors. But her real trouble started soon after. She entered upon a period of acute economic crisis. It was much more acute than that Britain had faced after the Napoleonic wars and after the fall of Napoleon in 1815. The British people won the war, but the effect of war told very heavily on their economy and social life. Every aspect of life was affected and the magnitude of this affectation was heavy and staggering. Most of the British war industries had to be closed down which gave rise to huge unemployment and crippled the economy. The unemployment was further swelled up when the gigantic British war army was disbanded. The unemployment rose to such intensity that Government had to give subsidies and doles to a large number of unemployed workers. A great number of industries were shut down, production in all factories declined, overseas trade declined as most of the commercial ships were destroyed by the German submarine. England was no more the Banker and Workshop of the World. The cost of the War and War debt crippled the economy of the country and destabilized the social order.

When British industries and trade came to a stagnant situation, other countries like the United States of America, Japan and France intensified their production. The United States though participated in the war, was

least affected in the War. Japan was not also much affected by the War. France could within a very short time recoup their industrial loss and went for further production. The United States of America after the War appeared as a big industrial, economic and political power.

During and after the War Britain had to face some other grave imperial problems besides economic ones. The Irish problem was not yet settled and during the war the Irish people raised their head again and embarrassed the British government. In India the national agitation and movement for self rule or complete independence took a serious turn. Indian people supported Britain during the war with men, money and material on the condition that the British Government would give them home rule status after the War. After the war the Indian nationalists pressed the British Government for their demand.

Irish Home Rule Issue

British Government had to face a very critical situation in Ireland during and after the War. The Home Rule Bill had been passed in 1914, but its operation was held up by the threat of a civil war between Ulster and South. The involvement of the nation in the First World War was another reason. A new political party namely Sinn Fein came up in Ireland with new nationalistic zeal. The new political party Sinn Fein soon gained mass popularity and strength. When Britain embroiled herself in the War the Sinn Fein and its extremist leaders started new agitation for complete independence of the Irish Republic free from all connections with London. The Sinn Fein revolted in Dublin in Easter week of 1916. The revolt was put down mercilessly and the rebels were severely punished. But the revolution did not stop there. The whole South Ireland was further infuriated for the savage repression and punishment inflicted on the rebels.

At the end of the War a general election was held, the Sinn Fein swept out the old Irish National party. The Sinn Fein Members proceeded to set up an Independent Irish Republic and refused to sit in the Parliament at Westminster. They threw a challenge to the Westminster and set up their own Parliament in Dublin. They called it Dail Eireann and went on for a republican government. The Government of Westminster did not let the challenge go and there ensued a war between the British troops and the Irish Republican Army. Ireland was given over to anarchy and violence for next one year. Prime Minister Lloyd George attempted to solve the Irish problem by dividing Ireland into two separate Parliaments one at Dublin representing Southern Ireland and the other at Belfast representing the North. The North accepted the offer of Lloyd George,

but the South rejected it and they continued their struggle for the Independent Irish Republic.

The British government at Westminster though was determined to continue their policy of coercion, the Liberals opposed it. Some external forces like the U.S.A. also wanted that Westminster should come to a political compromise with the Irish. The Ministry of Lloyd George did not like further destruction and suffering of the common people, he invited the Irish leaders for a settlement. The result was the Irish Treaty of 1921 by which an Irish Free State excluding the north or Ulster was established with the status of a British Dominion within the Empire. But the extremists of the Sinn Fein party resented the Treaty for exclusion of Ulster and the Dominion status. There ensued another struggle within the Sinn Fein between the supporters of Free-State and the supporters of Irish Republic in which the Republicans came out victorious. The Independent Irish Republic was thus set up with William Cosgrave as its first President in 1922. Thus Lloyd George settled the issue of Ireland which had a long history of struggle, torture and coercion.

Fall of Lloyd George and his Ministry

The Conservatives withdraw their support to the coalition Ministry of Lloyd George and resigned from the government in 1922. Mr. Lloyd George then had to resign, but his coalition Government of six years left a record of creditable works. It successfully led the country during the last years of the War. It successfully negotiated the peace treaty of 1919 - 20 in Paris. It settled the Irish question by setting up the Irish Free State. It gave the right of franchise to women and carried out the largest extension of franchise in the British history. In financial matters it took some drastic steps like imposing heavy income taxes to balance the budget. To arrest the decline of trade it deviated from the old system of free trade and imposed some protective measures to protect local products by imposing tariff duties on foreign goods.

The Conservative Government

After the fall of Lloyd George a general election was held and the Conservatives won the election. They formed the new Government under Bonar Law as the Prime Minister. But Bonar Law soon retired on health ground and Stanley Baldwin became the Prime Minister in 1923. Baldwin was a man of action, he was determined to boost up the industrial production and protect the British trade and commerce. He could rightly identify the problems of the national economy. To protect the economy of the country he brought about some reforms in the tariff system. He imposed new tariff duties on foreign goods and deviated from

the old free trade policy. But in the election it was found that the people were still in favor of the free trade. Baldwin then had to resign.

First Labor Government

After the fall of the Government of Baldwin the Labor Party was asked to form the Government. The Labor Party was not absolute majority in the Parliament. They formed a Coalition Government with support of the Liberals and Ramsay MacDonald became the Prime Minister. This was for the first time the Labor Party came to power. But when MacDonald decided to recognize the Communist Dictatorship in Russia, the Liberals withdraw their support. The Labor Government of MacDonald then fell. Baldwin and his Conservative Party again came to power and formed the Government in 1924.

Second Government of Baldwin

The Second Government of Baldwin had to face serious unrest of the workers of the coal mines. During the War the Government had to control the coal mines as the coal mines were running at loss and the Government had to pay subsidy. Baldwin coming to power second time withdrew the subsidy and decontrolled the coal mines. The mine owners, in view of the depression in trade and rise in production cost, decided to lower the wages and lengthen the working hours. The mine workers declared a strike. A bitter industrial conflict between the workers and owners started in 1926. The strike of the mine workers was supported by other trade unions. The situation became very grave as all labor unions rallied with the strikers and a General Strike of all Trade Unions was declared. The railways did not run, the newspaper did not appear, food shortage threatened and a dead lock prevailed everywhere. Government took prompt action to maintain normal life. Volunteers came up to help restore normalcy. Volunteers also helped those who refused to obey the call of strike. This division among the Labor Unions weakened the strikers. The leaders of the trade unions realizing that the people's support was not with them, gave up the hope and the General Strike collapsed. Next year Government passed the Trade Disputes Act (1927) forbidding sympathetic or general strike.

Next Labor Government

Despite Government's assurances at different times, in next three years there was no improvement in the lot of the workers. The workers were infuriated within on the Conservatives; in the next general election they exercised their right of vote to overthrow the Conservative Government. The Labor Party won the election and again came in power. The Labor Party was the single largest party in the House of Commons, but they

were not absolute majority. The Liberals came to support them. With help from the Liberals Ramsay MacDonald formed the next Labor Government and took the office of the Prime Minister for the second time. It was a very bad time for Ramsay MacDonald. Britain plunged in great economic depression. It is not only in Britain, the U.S.A. was also facing the same depression and there was a great depression in trade and depression in industrial production all over the world. Unemployment on the one hand and wage reduction on the other made the situation extremely difficult for MacDonald to balance the budget. He had no other alternatives other than imposing new taxes, increase tariff duties which was opposed by the partners of the coalition government. There was a split in his Labor Government. MacDonald then asked the Conservatives and the Liberals to join him to form a "National Government". In the next election people supported the National Government. The National Government was formed and in the Cabinet majority members were from the Conservatives.

The National Government

The National Government under MacDonald took some drastic measures to meet the economic crises. Taxes were sharply increased, salaries of the government officials and employees were reduced and unemployment benefits were also cut down. New tariff duties were imposed on many goods. All these measures affected all class of people and they were unhappy with the National Government, but the budget was balanced and confidence in the Government was restored. The National Government passed the Import Duties Act (1932) which abandoned the old free trade policy and imposed protective tariffs on many goods coming into the country. This was not supported even by many of the Labors and Liberals. Mr. Snowden a leading Labor minister resigned in protest.

Death of George V and Accession of George VI

King George V died in 1936 after an eventful reign of about twenty-five years. He was succeeded by his eldest son Edward VIII. But the Cabinet did not approve his marriage with a double-divorced American lady. He was given the choice either the Throne or the Lady. He preferred the Lady and set an example that a king might have given up his Throne for Love. As a result Edward VIII had to abdicate after few months of reign. Edward VIII was then succeeded by his brother who ascended the Throne of the British Empire in 1937 as George VI.

The reign of George V was a period of many great events. The British Empire passed through many difficulties and a series of political crises. The World War I was the most important event in the international affairs. Tariff reforms for protective trade policy and abandonment of

free trade policy were significant in economic affairs. In political affairs the rise of the Labor Party and the expansion of the right of franchise changed the political nature of Britain. The creation of the British Commonwealth of Nations was an attempt to arrest the disintegration of the British Colonial Empire.

Rise of the Labour Party

One of the outstanding political events of the twentieth century is the rise of the Labor Party in British politics. It was first founded in 1900 by Keir Hardie. Like the Trade Unions, the Labour Party had its origin in widespread discontent among the workers. This discontent was created in modern industrial areas because of unhealthy slummy housing, low wages and growing unemployment. The Labor Party aimed at improving the conditions of the workers. They wanted to reorganize the society for the benefit of the mass population. It stood for the State Socialism or a Welfare State and suggested that the State should control the railways, banks, lands and big industries. The profits from all these enterprises, at present, were going to the pocket of the private persons, but if the state could control them the profits therefrom would go to the State Fund. The State could then use that fund for the benefit of the community. The Conservatives opposed this programme of the Labour Party. The labour Party then supported the Liberals. The defeat of the Conservatives in General Election of 1906 was due to, in part, their opposition to the programmes of the Labor Party for social reforms. In this election the Labour Party won only forty seats in the House of Commons. When Labour Party was rising, the Liberals were on decline. As the Labour Party had definite reforms programmes, they were gradually getting strength. The Labour Party first came to power in 1924 and then again in 1929. In the later year the Labour Party was the largest single majority in the House of Commons. But soon the Party was split up as majority members of the Party quarreled with their leader Ramsay MacDonald. The Party again came to power in 1945 under Clement Atlee. The greatest event of his Government was the grant of Independence to India.

Indian Liberation struggle during the War

With the beginning of the twentieth century the situation in India became very difficult for the British Government. Like the Irish struggle for Home Rule the Indian nationalists started agitation for self government. Lord Curzon's partition of Bengal sparked a national movement in India in 1905. The British government at that time followed the dual policy in India. They followed both coercive policies with the extremists and measures for reconciliation with the moderates.

During the First World War Indian nationalists and common people supported the British Government and the Allied Forces with men, material and money. Indian soldiers went to North Africa and Europe to fight for the Allied Forces. Indian politicians and nationalists were assured that after the War the issue of Indian self rule and responsible government would be discussed. Mr. Montague, Secretary of State for India, declared in the British Parliament, "Progressive realization of responsible government in India as an integral part of the British Empire" was the goal of British policy in India (1917). This declaration was followed by the India Act of 1919. This Act set up a kind of diarchy by which some minor departments in the provincial government were placed under the Indian ministers. This reform stimulated political aspiration among the Indian nationalists. The liberals accepted the reforms, but extremists rejected it. Meanwhile the Rowlatt Act of 1919 marred the situation and infuriated the nationalists. The political atmosphere was further aggravated by the "Amritsar Massacre."

Mr. Gandhi came to India from South Africa and joined the National Congress Party and the nationalistic political movement which was started all over the country. With him came a new spirit and a new technique of action. He started the Non-Cooperation Movement which meant passive resistance to undesirable measures of the British government. Gandhi's Non-Cooperation was Non-Violent; even on the face of gravest provocation his followers remained non-violent. His call for Satyagraha met with tremendous response and for the first time in history masses were roused. When the British Government took repressive measures to stop the movement, thousands of people courted imprisonment. The jail became a place of pilgrimage for the nationalists who were fighting for the independence of India.

British Government next appointed another Commission headed by Sir John Simon to report on the working of the Montford Reforms. This was followed by several Round Table Conferences in London, but with no positive result. Mr. Gandhi then started his new technique of Civil Disobedience. But the British Government in India continued their measure of relentless repression to suppress the movement. By this time they took another measure of compromise by enacting the India Act of 1935. The India Act of 1935 provided for the provincial autonomy and an All India Federation. This was a further step towards self rule and the India Act of 1935 came into operation in 1937. But the scheme of an All India Federation was never materialized. The Indian Nationalists were not satisfied with the India Act of 1935, they intensified their movement and demanded the British to 'Quit India'.

Meanwhile the British adopted the policy of “divide and rule” a heinous policy to divide the Indians into two nations – Hindus and Muslims. Mr. Jinnah who was earlier a leader of the Indian National Congress, left the Indian National Congress and joined the All India Muslim League. He demanded a separate state for the Muslims of India as the Muslims in an independent India would be a minority and their interest in the hand of the majority Hindus would not be protected. Mr. Jinnah and his All India Muslim League demanded Pakistan, a separate Muslim state in India. Their demand was that the British must “Quit India”, but before they quit India they must divide India and create a new state Pakistan for the Muslims. Mr. Gandhi was not in favour of division of India into two states one for the Hindus and other for the Muslims. He wanted an all India federation with maximum autonomy to the provinces.

By this time the Second World War started and Britain got involved in the War as one of the powers of the allied forces. The political situation in India became more critical when British government dragged India and Indian people in the War without consulting the Indian leaders. The leaders of both the National Congress and the Muslim League declared that they would not support the War efforts of the Government unless the British Government declared India an independent country. Sub-continental political situation further worsened when Japanese soldiers occupied Singapore and Rangoon and started bombing on Calcutta. Indian Nationalist leader Suvash Chandra Bose joined the Japanese army and formed the Azad Hind Force with the Indian soldiers who surrendered to the Japanese army in the Eastern Front in Assam. The British Government became very anxious for the whole hearted cooperation of India and Indian people in the War. The British Government sent Sir Stafford Cripps to India with the proposal of granting India complete self-government immediately after the War. Mr. Gandhi and others demanded the British to “Quit India” immediately. The call for “Quit India” movement was highly responded and there were mass upheavals and anarchy almost in every part of the country.

The Cripps Mission went back with no result. After the War there was a change in the British Government. Labour Party came to power in 1945. The Labour Prime Minister Mr. Clement Atlee wanted to expedite the solution of Indian problems. He viewed the Indian problems from realistic point and could realize that the demand for independence was irresistible. He sent a Cabinet Mission to discuss with the Indian leaders as to the best way to transfer power to the Indians not later than June, 1948. Mr. Jinnh being afraid of the brute majority of the Congress rejected the proposal of the Cabinet Mission and incited the followers of

Muslim League to go for “Direct Action” which instigated the Great Calcutta riot (there were riots in other places also). The Great Calcutta riot hastened the partition of India. Both the National Congress and the Muslim League agreed to the partition of India into two independent states – India and Pakistan. The British Parliament in 1947 passed the Indian Independence Act and handed over the power to the Indian leaders on August 14 (Pakistan) and on 15 (India), 1947.

British Commonwealth of Nations

It was observed long before the First World War that the old British colonial policy was losing its strength. The British Government appointed a committee with Lord Durham to look into the working of the British policies in the colonies. On the report of Lord Durham of 1839, the British Government brought about some changes in the British Colonial policy. From that time on the old colonial policy which was based on mercantile principles was gradually being abandoned and the policy of colonial self-government was adopted. Canada got responsible self government in 1847. Other colonies were also encouraged by it and the British Government extended the same policy to them. But the extension of self-government in the dominions changed the imperial relation. Originally it was intended that self-government would be limited to internal affairs of the colonies. But in practice it proved difficult to stop there, the colonies went on securing greater rights and increasing freedom of action. As a result the authority of the British Government on the colonies came to a minimum position. It was mostly because of the nationalistic spirit of the colonies. Canada adopted her own tariff policies against strong opposition of Britain and it was followed in other colonies. The First World War gave greater stimulation to nationalism in the colonies. They considered themselves not as colonies of Britain, but equal partners.

In the Imperial War Conference of 1917 the Dominions of the British Empire assume an independent attitude. The British Government understanding their attitude and sentiment allowed them to negotiate and sign treaties with other countries themselves. They signed the Treaty of Versailles as separate nations. They also joined the League of Nations both as a member of the British Empire as well as separate nations. The position of the Dominions was defined in the Imperial Conference of 1926 which appointed a Committee known as the Balfour Committee. The Balfour Committee defined the Dominions and their status with the British Empire, The Dominions were, “autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by

common allegiance to the Crown and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations.” Thus we find the principles that the colonies are equal in status with the mother country, were embodied in the Statute of Westminster passed by the British Parliament in 1931. The Statute recognized the Dominions as independent sovereign states. It provided that no law passed by the British Parliament would be binding on them without their expressed consent. Conversely no law of a Dominion Parliament might be disallowed by the British Government. The common allegiance to the Crown is now the only tie which binds the Dominions with the mother country. Thus a profound change was brought about in the British colonial policy and marked the transformation of British Empire into a British Commonwealth of Nations.

The British Commonwealth of Nations is a unique experiment in modern history. It is a “process of different countries at different stages in their advance towards complete self-government.” Some of them were by that time self-governing, while others were progressing towards that stage. There were colonies and dependencies under the British Empire. The dependencies were controlled by the British Government. The Dependencies also varied from place to place according to the extent of control. Beside that there were “Mandated” territories or areas. These “Mandated” territories were mostly those German colonies and Turkish provinces which Britain got after the First World War as the share of the booty of Victory. Britain administered those territories under the Mandate of the League of the Nations. Egypt was a special territory known as British Protectorate. Britain occupied Egypt in 1882 and it became a British Protectorate during the First World War. But after the War there was nationalistic agitation in Egypt, British Government realizing the intensity of the agitation granted Egypt complete independence in 1922, but kept control over the Suez Canal. Egypt was not a member of the Commonwealth.

After the First World War there was a great change in the British Empire and also in the British Commonwealth of Nations. Some of the members of the Commonwealth joined the League of Nations as independent states. They independently signed treaty with other country as Canada signed treaty with the U.S.A. in 1923 over the fishing right on the Atlantic.

The character of the British Commonwealth also underwent some drastic changes. The question of allegiance to the British Crown subsequently created some new problems. India, Pakistan, Ceylon and Burma joined the British Commonwealth of Nations after their complete

independence. They were supposed to show their allegiance to the British Crown or the Queen, but they were republic. So in their case the issue of allegiance to the British Crown was irrelevant. They rather insisted on dropping the word “British” from the British Commonwealth of Nations. Ultimately it was done and the British Commonwealth of Nations became only the Commonwealth of Nations. It is now Canada, Australia, New Zealand and some others who as member the Commonwealth of Nations recognize the Queen as the symbolic head of their State.

Egypt, Iraq and Burma (Pakistan also) have now opted out from the Commonwealth of Nations. The British Commonwealth of Nations is now only the Commonwealth of Nations and very insignificant an organization. But it reminds us of the past memories of a vast British Colonial Empire which once covered one thirds of the Earth surface.

Part XIV

Second World War

The Second World War was the most unfortunate event in the history of mankind. It shattered the whole of Europe. European civilization of two thousand years, of which the European people were so proud of, was destroyed by their own greed for wealth and hatred for each others. The loss of lives and material were so colossal that none could even conceive of it (25million people were killed while fighting, 50 million were permanently crippled; and actual loss of material could not be assessed). There was most destructive competition for colonial imperialism on the one hand and bitterest enmity and hatred for others, pride and sense of superiority on the other, were at the root of this War. The injustice done to the defeated powers of the First World War was another major cause of this War.

European political leaders, during nineteen twenties and thirties, became war-crazy, they had no respect for democracy and humanity. They were as if driving their people to a destructive war for destruction of their enemies. During the War the world was divided into two major fighting forces – the Allied Forces (Britain, the U.S.A. France and Russia) and the Axis Forces (Germany, Italy, Japan, Turkey and others).

Seeing the destruction of lives and material in the War and the holocaust of the nuclear weapon, some of the war-crazy leaders, came to their senses again and felt the need of an organisation like the UNO again.

Britain got deeply involved in both the World Wars and was a great loser. She could not come out of the depression as yet. Revolution in Russia wiped out the Tsar and Tsarism. Revolution in Turkey brought a military dictator in power. In Spain and Portugal also military dictators captured power. The Nazis rose in Germany and helped Hitler to grab power. This was the political scenario in Europe before the second world war.

France was the first target of Hitler, Hitler's invasion of Poland awakened Britain. The Atlantic Charter and the involvement of the United States in the War, changed the course of the War. Japan joined the War to become an Asian power. Surrender of Germany, surrender of Japan virtually ended the War. The nuclear Holocaust frightened the people of the world. Trial of war crime, the United Nations, rise of Communism and Cold War were the outcome of the War.

Chapter One

Britain and the Second World War

The causes of the Second World War were sown in the Treaty of Versailles. The Treaty did not bring peace; it rather created vengeance and first for revenge. The reasons may be listed as follow: The victors were arrogant and vindictive on the vanquished. The magnanimity which the victors should have shown to the defeated powers was not shown. Democracy failed in most of the European countries after the First World War and military dictators who took over the state power, had no respect for democracy. Many of them were bent upon taking revenge for the injustices done to them at Versailles. No great democratic leader came up to save democracy. There appeared some men of extraordinary ability who were adventurous, ambitious and wanted to establish great empire. The League of Nations became a helpless and funny organization, though it's primary objective was to stop any future war, they miserably failed to do that. The great economic depression of thirties made everything chaotic and all these conditions led the world to the Great Catastrophe – the Second World War.

The Treaty of Versailles did not do justice to the vanquished; it imposed such humiliating conditions on Germany and other defeated powers that the seeds of another War were sown there. The Treaty did not make the World safe for democracy nor could the League of Nations do anything. The League of Nations which was created with so lofty ambitions to check future war, proved to be a weak organization and failed to do its jobs as most of the big powers who won the First World War shirked their responsibility. Britain was “war-weary” and plunged in deep economic depression. Unemployment, decline in industrial products, closer of many industries and labour unrest made Britain weaker and restless.

Condition in most of the war-devasted countries of Europe was the same. Europe was deeply plunged in the “Great Depression” and social problems gave rise to political, social unrest and labour movement. In most cases the unrest and movement were in favour of some dictatorship or strong men. People seemed to have lost their confidence in democracy they wanted revolution and change. In Germany, Italy, Russia, Turkey, Spain and Portugal new dictators came to power and they instigated the people with new hopes.

Revolution in Russia

Russian Empire collapsed during the First World War and there were two revolutions after the War I in Russia one in March and other in November, 1917 in quick succession. In the March Revolution Kerensky, a Mensheviks leader was put in power and Russia was made a Republic after execution of the last Tsar Nicholas II and his entire family. But in November Revolution the Bolsheviks overthrew the Mensheviks and came to power. The Mensheviks were moderate and were in favor of a democratic government. The Bolsheviks, on the other hand, were extremist they wanted a Communist government. There was a civil war between the Mensheviks and the Bolsheviks. The Bolsheviks won the civil war. They made Lenin their leader. Lenin was a strong dictator who transformed Russia into a communist country and declared Russia as “the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics.” This was a major event of the 20th century. By this declaration the whole of Soviet social, political and economic life was transformed into a communist economy under the Communist Party. Lenin died in 1924 and after Lenin Stalin became the ruler of Soviet Union. He was a tougher man than Lenin. Under the leadership of Stalin the Communist Party carried out far reaching social and economic reforms with strict discipline and ruthless efficiency.

Revolution in Turkey

After Russia another Revolution came in Turkey. The defeat in the War I and disintegration of the Ottoman Empire demoralized the Turkish people. The treaty of Sevres humiliated the Turks. The Ottoman Empire was shattered and its territories were redistributed among the victorious powers. Turkey was declared the “sick man” of Europe, a humiliation which the Turks were not ready to accept. The Sultan who accepted the Treaty created a national discontent among the Young Turks. They wanted a strong leader who could solve their problems and wipe out the disgrace. Mostafa Kamal Pasha a young army officer came up before them. He was a man of strong character, iron will and great military calibre. Above all he was a great nationalist.

Kamal Pasha revolted against the humiliating Treaty of Sevres and wanted to free the Turks from the Greek rule in Smyrna and Thrace. England was against him, but France and Italy were helpful. He was exiled to Anatolia where he organized the army and set up his own government in 1919 and repudiated the government of Sultan Muhammed VI. He fought two years against the Greeks who invaded Anatolia and firmly drove them out. Constantinople and Dardanelles were again brought under Turkey. This achievement brought him great fame and prestige. The Turks thought that he was the right man to save

their country and prestige. He bargained with the European power from a strong position to revise the Treaty of Sevres. He then overthrew the Sultan and his government in 1923 and declared Turkey a Republic. The office of the Caliphate was also abolished. In 1924 the country got a democratic constitution and under that constitution Kamal Pasha was elected the first President of the country.

Kamal Pasha though was an elected President, carried on his administration and different reforms as a dictator. He separated religion from politics and secularized Turkey. He gave rights to women, discarded “purdah” and veil for women. He also abolished the monasteries, confiscated their properties. Religious mendicants, peddlers of amulets and charms were driven out.

Under his benevolent dictatorship, from 1924 to 1938, he brought about drastic reforms in the country and transformed Turkey which was known as the “Sick man of Europe” into a modern European state.

Dictatorship in Spain

Spain was another European country where scope for democracy was absolutely bleak. In the early years of 20th century Spain was ruled by King Alphonso XIII (1870 -1930). He was a minor boy of 16, when he ascended the throne. Neither Alphonso nor his ministers could give Spain a good government. Administration was grossly neglected and corrupt. The army was small and very badly trained and equipped. Civil service was weak and corrupt. Administration of justice was equally scandalous. After the World War I the country plunged into economic depression on the one hand and corruption of government on the other. People wanted a relief from the chaotic situation. In 1923 Primo De Rivero an army officer captured the power of Spain. Rivero dismissed all the ministers proclaimed Martial Law in the country and himself became the absolute dictator. For about seven years (1923 - 1930) Spain was ruled by him with iron hand. As Italian Fascism spread in Spain also, Rivero’s administration was a Fascist dictatorship like in Spain where nobody could criticize or agitate against the government. But Rivero could not give Spain a good government or stability. He was forced to resign in January, 1930 and few months after he died.

In 1931 the army rebelled in Spain and the King Alphonso XIII left the country. During Rivero the King was only in name, but this time he disappeared. The country was declared a Republic. But the Republic did not work. In the election of 1933 the rightist and the republicans were going to have majority in the Parliament, but the communists and anarchists were against them, they staged a violent revolt and ultimately

the civil war started in Spain in 1936. The civil war between the republicans and the communists continued for three years (1936 - 1939). General Francisco Franco, the leader of the rebel armies, overthrew the Republican government and became the dictator of Spain in March, 1939. General Franco got support from Italy and Germany.

During the civil war a Nationalist Movement started in Spain by Jose Antoni Primo in 1933, the champion of this Movement was known as the Falange. The Falange party (Falanga Espenola) soon gained people's support and popularity. The Falangists were like that of the Fascist in Italy and Nazis in Germany. Both Mussolini and Hitler helped Franco with arms and men. They wanted him to be the dictator of Spain and become one of their allies. Russia also supported Franco. Antinio Salazar Prime Minister of Portugal had also sympathy for Franco. After the civil war Franco marched to the capital and occupied Madrid in 1939. In July, 1942 he established the Falangist Government in Spain.

The Allied Powers first tried to pull Spain on their side or at least keep her neutral. But Spain joined the War as a member of the Axis Powers. Though she was a member of the Axis power, she kept herself as far as possible out of the War.

Dictatorship in Portugal

There was no political stability in Portugal and civil war continued there for long. Towards the beginning of the 20th century after the civil war, a constitutional government came to power and the King was made constitutional head of the country. But the King Carlos was very unpopular. The opposition in the Parliament made it difficult for the King to run the country. The King gave all power to Joao Franco a young man to quell the opposition. But Joao Franco could not cope with the opposition. The opposition did not accept him and in 1907 the situation got worse, the King then dissolved the Parliament. In February, 1907 both the hated King Carlos and the Crown Prince Dom Luis were assassinated in Lisbon. The next King Manoel and his Queen Amelia dismissed Joao Franco. The country was again torn into chaotic factionalism. The two rival factions – the Regeneradores and Progressistas – were fighting for power and self aggrandizement without caring for the good of the country.

On October, 1910 there was a Revolution in Portugal in which King Manoel II, younger son of Carlos, was overthrown and Portugal was proclaimed a Republic. The King and his family fled to Britain. The Republic though continued for long 16 years could not deliver any good administration to the people. People's rights were denied, religious

tolerance was absent and the Republicans carried on rule of oppression. During the First World War Portugal joined the Allied side, but her role both in the War and at the Peace table was insignificant.

After the First World War like other European countries, Portugal fell in the great depression and was on the verge of bankruptcy. The country was sinking in debt and the people were in the grip of terrible inflation. People wanted a benevolent dictator to get rid of anarchy and bankruptcy. In May, 1926 the army under General Gomes de Costa overthrew the corrupt Republic and established military dictatorship under Gomes de Costa. Costa also could not prove worthy to tackle the situation and was replaced by another army officer General Carmora. General Carmora was elected president for 7 years (1928 - 1935) and he tried his best to tackle the economic bankruptcy. He appointed Dr. Antonio Salazar, a brilliant finance expert, his finance minister. Dr. Salazar took over all the power in his hand and became the real dictator of Portugal. He had sympathy for General Franco of Spain; still he refused to enter into an alliance with Germany, Italy and Japan. He decided to stick to the old Anglo-Portuguese alliance (The Treaty of Windsor of 1386) and allowed some of his territories to be used by the Allied powers. Germany wanted to strangle Britain by occupying Gibraltar in the west and Japan designed to occupy Timur in Far East to outwit Portugal and oust Britain from Hong Kong and Singapore.

Rise of Fascism in Italy

Fascism was a strong nationalistic and authoritarian political concept. It was also a political creed founded by Italian dictator Benito Mussolini. It strongly manifested itself in Italy after the First World War when the country was torn into political chaos and economic depression and disorder. Benito Mussolini seized this opportunity.

Benito Mussolini was an adventurous man. He came of poor a family – his father was a blacksmith and mother a school teacher. After studying at the University of Leausanne, Switzerland he joined a Socialist newspaper as a journalist. For his propagandist activities he was ousted from Italy and took shelter in Austria where he joined the socialists. Coming back to Italy he launched his own proletariat paper and continued his radical movement as the editor of the Avanti, the official mouthpiece of the Italian Socialist Party.

Benito Mussolini took part in the World War I. He was wounded in the War and was hospitalized. After the War he went to Milan where he first organized his Fascist Party. It was ultimately through this Fascist Party that he climbed the highest rung of dictatorial power. He established his Fascist Party in Italy in 1921 and then he tried to spread it

in other countries of Europe. He boastfully said that Fascism would be a World Movement. In the third and fourth decades of 20th century the governments of Spain, Portugal, Hungary, Greece, Rumania and Bulgaria accepted the principles of Fascism. They contributed greatly to the Second World War in 1939 with their aggressive nationalism. Italy, Germany and Japan were united with their Fascist outlook in an alliance. They all hated democracy.

Italy after the First World War had to face lots of difficulties. Though there was a Parliamentary democracy, the government was weak and corrupt. The Fascists capitalized this opportunity; they promised a better future and gave high hopes to the people. The Fascists or the “Black Shirt” under Mussolini marched to Rome on October 28, 1922 and on the next day Victor Emmanuel III; King of Italy invited Mussolini to form the government. Mussolini seized the state power, abolished the Parliament and all Trade Unions and became the Prime Minister; the King remained the titular head. Mussolini was a man of action, he unified Italy and made it clear that the aim of the Fascists is to seize and retain power in Italy. He wanted to build a Fascist Empire like the past Roman Empire. His first act of aggression was on Ethiopia, he joined the War with Hitler in 1940. But he along with Hitler and his Fascist Party were defeated in the War. Mussolini was no doubt a genius, but he was an evil genius. He remained in power for 21 years (1922 -1943), and had a very disgraceful end (he was executed in April, 1945).

Chapter Two

Rise of the Nazis and Hitler in Germany

The military collapse of Germany in 1918 was followed by the abdication of Kaiser William II and the establishment of a Republic in Germany. Germany was first given a democratic constitution of its kind in history.

The Republic of Germany was forced to accept the humiliating terms of the Treaty of Versailles. The new government of Germany was handicapped from the beginning to pay the huge war reparations to the Allies. The burden was too much heavy for Germany. In 1923 Germany failed to pay the reparation money to France, France in retaliation sent army to occupy the Ruhr region of Germany. Ruhr was the centre of German coal and iron industries. This act of aggression of France infuriated the German workers; they went on strike and stopped work. The French could realize their mistake because it brought no benefit to them; it further ruined the economy of Germany. German President Stresemann could however save the situation by negotiation with France and Belgium which was followed by the Treaty of Locarno in 1925. Next year Germany became a member of the League of Nations. Thus under Stresemann Germany was again on the road to economic recovery and political stability. But in 1929 two events changed the course of action in Germany - the death of Chancellor Stresemann and the rise of the Nazis.

Adolf Hitler was the son of a petty custom officer. He was born in 1889 at Braunau, Austria. He was an Austrian by birth, though he claimed to be a German. He disliked the Austro-Hungarian monarchy and came over to Munich leaving Austria in 1912. In Munich he worked as a carpenter for earning a living. During the First World War he fought for Germany and won Iron-Cross for bravery. He could not reconcile himself with the humiliating terms of the Treaty of Versailles. After the War Hitler, with some of his friends, formed the German Worker Party in 1921 which was later known as the National Socialist German Workers' Party or The Nazi Party.

Hitler was gifted with rare power of oration which he used for his political propaganda. He could easily convince his followers and the people with his fiery speeches. He infused a new spirit among the followers of his party that Germany should shake off all its humiliation. He inspired the people saying, "What we have to fight for is security for the existence and increase of our race and our nation, nourishment of its

children and purity of its blood, freedom and independence for the Fatherland, and that our nation may be able to ripen for the fulfillment of the mission appointed for them by the Creator of the Universe.” By such fiery speech he could easily rouse the people at a time when the country sunk headlong in humiliation, burden of reparation, political chaos, high inflation and depression. The people were desperate to get rid of such situation. The Nazis denounced the Treaty of Versailles and all its terms. They were determined to retaliate the humiliation. They found some rays of hope in the Nazis and Adolf Hitler.

By this time the Nazis as a political party became very popular. In 1924 election the Nazis got only 32 seats in the Reichstag, but in 1933 they won 288 seats. President Hindenburg found it difficult to run the government without the support of the Nazis. He called Hitler to form the government. Hitler accepted the call and became the Chancellor of Germany. Assuming state power he proceeded to consolidate his authority over the country. He assailed the Jews, condemned the communists and ridiculed the parliamentary form of government. President Hindenburg died in 1934, Hitler then declared himself both the President and the Chancellor of Germany. Thus Hitler became the Dictator of Germany.

Hitler was very courageous and bold in taking steps. He was determined to tear away the Treaty of Versailles which imposed humiliating restrictions on Germany. His first step in this direction was to reintroduce conscription in 1935 and it was an open violation of the Treaty. He concentrated all his attention to build up his “Storm Troopers”. Next he withdrew from the League of Nations and openly flouted its obligations. He then started to rearm the Rhineland which was declared a demilitarized zone by the Treaty. France and Britain being war-weary tamely acquiesced in this violation. Hitler was encouraged by all these violations of the Treaty. Next he occupied Austria and made it a part of Germany.

France was the First Target of Hitler

In the First World War France gained most and offended the German people most. French empire was further extended after the war. In the formation of the League of Nations France and Britain played the most positive role as the U.S.A. tactfully kept out of it. The U.S.A. did not want to get deeply involved in the European politics. France was the first target of Germany in the Second World War. When Germany became aggressive and violated the terms of the treaty of Versailles, France and Britain initially did not take any bold step against Hitler. Hitler openly flouted the Pledges of the League of Nations and invaded Austria, both

Britain and France at that time took a policy of appeasement with Hitler. They did not take any positive step to stop him from the act of aggression. In the Munich conference of September 30, 1938, which was attended by British Prime Minister Neivillie Chamberlain, French Premier Edourd Daladier and Benito Mussolini of Italy, Britain and France rather surrendered to Hitler and indirectly approved the annexure of Sudetenland, but the integrity of the rest of Chechoslovakia was guaranteed.

The War started with Hitler's attach on Poland

Second World War actually started when Hitler invaded Poland on September 1, 1939. Britain and France had alliance with Poland. Chamberlain gave up his policy of appeasement and declared that any aggression on Poland would mean a war with Britain. The three countries – Britain, France and Poland agreed to guarantee each other's territorial integrity. They also tried to include Russia with them. But Hitler, anticipating British and French plan, signed a non-aggression treaty with Russia. Having secured neutrality of Russia Hitler invaded Poland without declaring a war.

Poland fell to Germany within a fortnight and Warsaw surrendered. When Germany occupied the western part of Poland, Stalin of Russia lost no time to occupy the eastern part (Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia). Hitler very easily occupied Poland, Britain and France could not stop Hitler. Hitler was then all powerful in Europe. German started *Blitzkrieg*. There was no power to stop German *Blitzkrieg* or lighting war. German tank and armor column and Hitler were as if invincible. In April, 1940 Hitler invaded Denmark and Norway and succeeded in annexing both the countries. The King of Norway fled to London. Hitler made Norwegian Major Quisling as the head of Norway. Since that time the word Quisling indicates a traitor. In May, 1940 Germany annexed Luxemburg, Belgium and Holland. On June 5, 1940 Hitler attacked France and on June 14, Paris surrendered unconditionally. The fall of France shocked the world. Every body was astonished seeing the *Blitzkrieg* of Hitler. The French government of Edourd Daladier resigned. Marshal Petain, the old hero of the First World War assumed the charge of the government and signed an armistice with Germany on June 22, 1940. Hitler allowed Petain to rule over a small part of France. Petain shifted his head quarter to Vichy. General de Gaulle went into exile.

In August, 1940 Germany occupied Rumania, Bulgaria and Hungary. Rumania was helpful to the British army. Germany and Russia partitioned their territories among themselves. Hungary and Bulgaria came to support the German army.

Hitler violated the treaty with Russia

Hitler and Stalin both were basically warmongers and aggressors. Following the successive victories in Europe, Hitler became mentally imbalanced and thought that there was none to oppose him. He wanted to be the master of Europe alone and was not willing to share it with Stalin. Soon there arose misunderstanding between Germany and Russia. Violating the treaty of non-aggression Hitler invaded Russia on June 22, 1941. It was a betrayal on the one hand and a great strategic mistake for Hitler on the other. Hitler did not have adequate manpower and war resources to fight on the Russian front of about 1800 miles. Hitler's invasion of Russia was a blessing for Britain. Since the fall of France Britain had to bear the brunt of German attack alone. Soviet Russia with whom Britain contacted earlier joined the Allied Force against Hitler. Winston Churchill wanted to get the U.S.A. forces more deeply involved in the European War. He met the American President Roosevelt and convinced him to sign the famous Atlantic Charter. The Charter was signed on August 14, 1945 in a ship on the Atlantic Ocean which ensured American participation in the War. Thus the major powers on the Allied Forces were America, Russia and Britain and on the Axis side were Germany, Italy and Japan.

German defeat in the Eastern Front with Russia

The Russian army retreated on the face of German advance alluring the German army into the interior of Russia following the "Scorched –Earth" policy. The Russian army struck back in September 2, 1942. The German army was by that time exhausted by cold, snowstorm and hunger. The German army reduced by this time to only 12000, had no other alternative but to surrender. That was the beginning of the end of Hitler.

Britain took a Courageous Stand

Britain declared war against Germany on September 3, 1939. After the fall of France England had very tough time as Germany kept on bombing on London and on other British installations continuously for four months. The Londoners could not come out of their trenches for the German bombing. British docks and different parts of the city were in flames for German *Blitzkrieg*. Neville Chamberlain had to resign and Winston Churchill became the Prime Minister. Winston Churchill was a strong conservative, a General and a tough politician. He was quite opposite to Chamberlain. In the battle of Dunkirk the British troop suffered a heavy defeat the like of which the British had never experienced before. The British Air Force though offered a tough fight and brought down hundreds of German fighters, Britain was virtually cut

off from Europe. German submarines and air fighters dominated both the sea and the sky.

The Great Atlantic Charter

Britain was in the most difficult situation in the War; Prime Minister Winston Churchill felt the need to drag the Americans in the War. He went straight to the President Roosevelt in Washington. Churchill's shrewd diplomacy could involve the United States in the War. Churchill and Roosevelt then signed the Great Atlantic Charter (on August 14, 1941 in a ship on the Atlantic Ocean). It was a great achievement for Churchill which ensured the allied victory in the War.

Italy in the War

When France fell and the British army suffered a crushing defeat in the battle of Dunkirk, Italy thought that the defeat of the Allied power was imminent. In October, 1940 Mussolini directed his army to advance to Albania and Greece and occupied them. Benito Mussolini joined the War to become a party of the victors and share the spoils of the war with Germany. Italian army captured Nice and some bordering districts of France. Mussolini wanted to take the advantage of the British defeat in the battle of Dunkirk and snatch away the British colonies in North Africa, Egypt and control of the Suez Canal. Italian army occupied British Somaliland in East Africa and entered Egypt. The Italian army had some initial success, but General Wavell hurled them back and made them to surrender and captured 140,000 prisoners. Italian defeat in Africa perturbed Hitler. He sent a big German army under General Rommel to help the Italian army. General Rommel scattered the British army, but General Montgomery came to their rescue. General Rommel was beaten back by General Montgomery. This defeat of the German army in 1942 turned the course of the War in North Africa.

While Montgomery was busy in pursuing General Rommel in North Africa, General Eisenhower with a big British and American army landed on the North West Africa near Algiers. The joint army of Eisenhower and Montgomery cleared North Africa of the German and Italian armies. After that the Allied Forces made direct assault on the main land of Italy. Italy was not in a position to resist the Allied Forces and was in a helpless condition. There started a strong anti-Fascist movement in Italy during the War. Mussolini fell from the power. Marshal Badoglio became the new Premier of Italy and the new Italian government made peace with the Allied Forces and declared war on Germany with the allies. Rome was taken in June, 1944. Mussolini was shot dead by the anti-fascists.

The Allies were preparing for a big assault on Germany. On June 6, 1944 General Eisenhower with a big allied army landed in Normandy and pushed back the Germans. The German army put up stiff resistance, but with no success. In August Paris was liberated. Soon the Germans were expelled from Belgium. Towards the end of 1944 German Armies were pushed back from all war frontiers of the western boarder. The allies mobilized their troops along most of the western frontier of Germany. On the eastern fronts Russia created greater pressure on the German and Russian forces were approaching to Berlin through Poland.

Japan joined the War

Japan was a fast growing industrial power in the Far East. From the beginning of the 20th century Japan along with her industrial growth was building up her military power and dreamt of an Asian empire. The Japanese were deeply imbued with a strong nationalistic feeling and they followed a policy of state socialism. In her first war with China in 1894, Japan occupied Formosa. Japan's confidence was further heightened in the victory with Russia in 1905. She occupied Karafuto, Korea and other areas of Guangdong peninsula including the port of Dairen. Japan became a threat to the British interest in the Far East (Hong Kong and Singapore). She wanted like Germany to expand her empire. In the First World War Japan was on the Allied side. After the War Japan got Mandate over some islands in the Pacific as a share of the victory for her participation in the War. These islands and territories were formerly occupied by the German, Dutch and other European countries. She occupied Manchuria in the second war from China. Japan though committed an act of aggression on China, the western powers like Britain and France overlooked it. Chiang Kai-shek failed in China to check Japan. Russia was afraid of Japan and she signed a treaty of non-aggression with Japan.

America, Britain and Holland blockaded Japanese trade route in the Pacific. They threatened Japan not to proceed further to Indo-China. Japanese leaders decided to go to war with the United States if agreement on oil shipment had not been reached with the U.S.A. by October. In October General Tojo became premier in anticipation of the War. Japan planned to knock out the U.S.A. naval fleet at Pearl Harbour and at the Philippines. They further expected that Germany by that time would dominate the European War. With the fall Netherlands and France to Germany in June, 1940, many of the Japanese leaders were convinced that the Axis powers were sure to win in Europe. In September Japan signed the Tripartite Pact which forged a military alliance with Germany

and Italy. Hitler expected great actions from Italy and Japan against the Allied Forces.

The U.S.A. joined the War

Germany raided American city of Flint and thereby offended America. The U.S.A. initially did not show any great concern at this German offensive. President Roosevelt did not show interest to send American soldiers for a war in Europe. The joining of the U.S.A. to the Allied Forces turned the course of the War both in the Pacific and in the European theatre.

Japan without declaring any war against America unexpectedly attacked the American fleet at Pearl Harbour (Hawaii) on December 7, 1941. Japan destroyed 7 battle ships, 120 aircraft and 2400 navy personnel. The next day the U.S.A. declared war on Japan. Germany and Italy also declared war on the U.S.A. Japanese action was very quick by the first half of 1942, they overran the Philippines, captured Hong Kong, Singapore, Indonesia and were about to attack Australia. The British battle ship the Prince of Wales was sunk by the Japanese air fighter in the Siam Sea. By May, 1942 the Japanese army occupied Burma and threatened to attack Indian subcontinent.

American naval action turned the course of the Pacific war. American naval victory in the Battle of Midway stopped Japan. The Japanese war fleet suffered heavy losses in the battle with the U.S.A. In February, 1943 Japanese were forced to withdraw from the Solomon Islands and some other islands in the Pacific. In late 1944 American forces liberated the Philippines from the Japanese occupation. The Allied Forces took control of the Pacific region both on the sea and in the sky, though Japan defended her position in China and the home island. British Forces recaptured Burma.

Surrender of Germany

In May, 1945 Anglo-American and Russian forces overwhelmed Germany. The Allied Forces crossed the German boarder in the last week of April. On May 2, 1945 Berlin collapsed. Hitler found no hope and committed suicide. On May 7, 1945 Germany surrendered unconditionally. With the surrender of Germany the War did not end as Japan still continued fighting. With the surrender of Japan on August 14, 1945 the Second World War came to an end.

Surrender of Japan

President Roosevelt died on April 12, 1945 and he was succeeded by his Vice-President Harry S. Truman. Harry S. Truman took that monstrous decision to drop atomic bomb to crush Japan. Soviet Russia declared war

on Japan on August 8, 1945 when victory of the Allied Forces was sure. The U.S.A. air force dropped first atomic bomb on August 6 on Hiroshima and second bomb on August 9, 1945 on Nagasaki. Japan, seeing the devastation and loss of life of the atomic bomb, got nervous and declared to surrender on August 14, 1945. Japan formally surrendered on September 2, 1945 to General MacArthur on the battle ship Missouri.

Nuclear Holocaust

The Second World War was a total war. The world never saw such massive devastation of property and life before. In the history of human civilization there was no precedence of such terrible cruelty, no such terrible destruction. The warmongers were so much obsessed by their ambition that they showed the least respect for humanity. Hitler's planned killing of the Jews in the concentration camp was a rare example of genocide. About 25 million people were killed fighting in the War, 50 million were permanently disabled. Many more died indirectly by slow death—starvation and disease. The countries where the battles were fought were torn to pieces. Their properties were destroyed in two ways by the enemies and by the scorch-earth policy. For example when France surrendered to the German French generals destroyed their own ships and other properties on large scale so that the enemies could not take advantage of them. The war made no distinction between the combatants and non combatants, a large number of innocent civilians had to die.

No country was free from the effect of the War directly or indirectly. Every commodity was scarce. Acute scarcity of food and other essentials made life miserable. Millions of people, during and after the War, died of starvation. Prices of essentials reached sky high, inflation reached such a dimension that a bundle of bank notes could not afford a piece of loaf. Famine and starvation followed everywhere after the War.

PART XV

After the Second World War

The Victors, except the USA, though won the War lost in real sense. The USA was the most winner in the War. She came out as the biggest world power. The Vanquished powers were belittled and humiliated before the world in all respects. The trial of the war criminals was performed on the stage according to the will of the victors. The United Nations, like the League of Nations again came up with all big promises. Britain, though a great victor, was the most loser in the War. Her position, in all estimations, was lowered. Independence of India and other colonies were the story of her losing Jewells from the British Crown. The world was divided into two poles giving rise to Communism and the Cold War.

Chapter One

The Victors and the Vanquished

The major victors of the Second World War were the United States, the Soviet Union, Britain and France. Of them it was the United States who played the most important and most decisive role in the War. The United States joined the war with their huge war resources when Britain, France and even Germany were exhausted. When Britain was in the most difficult situation in the War, Prime Minister Winston Churchill met President Roosevelt in Washington and his shrewd diplomacy could involve the United States in the War. Churchill and Roosevelt then signed the Great Atlantic Charter (on August 14, 1941 in a ship on the Atlantic Ocean). Stalin and Hitler were once friends, but they were naturally made of the same material. Britain and other European countries were hostile to Stalin for his Bolshevik Revolution and dictatorial rule. Hitler's betrayal to Stalin compelled him to join the Allied Forces and Churchill took the advantage and shrewdly exploited it. Soviet Union because of her huge territorial border and geographic position could defeat Hitler and his ambition. The United States and Soviet Union ensured the victory of the War because of her huge war hardwares and resources.

Britain after the War

The thrust of the Nazis and the Fascists attack was too heavy on Britain. She was not in a position to survive the shock if the United States had not come to her rescue. Her economy was devastated, her empire was shattered. Most of her colonies got independence after the War. Before the War Britain was the number one political and economic power of the world, but after the War, her position was reduced to number two. Her position in the international field was lowered considerably. During the War the Anglo-American alliance worked well. After the War, Britain became increasingly dependent on the United States which made it clear that Britain could no longer claim to be equal of the United States. Britain was victorious in the War, but her victory was of late found to be a defeat.

France after the War

Another great power of the allies was France. During the War France was occupied by the German army and the occupation army carried on all destruction on France beyond imagination. Like Britain the destruction the Nazis and the Fascists inflicted on France was very heavy and it was

beyond her capacity to sustain. Her empire was shattered and her economy destroyed. Most of her colonies got independence as was the case of Britain. Her position also went down and France became a second rate power like Britain. But France could soon recover her economy and position in European politics.

The United States after the War

Of the Victors, The United States was the greatest hero and she gained most. The U.S.A. emerged as a big power after the First World War, but after the Second World War she became a Global Super Power. It is true that the fate of the Second World War was determined by the participation of the U.S.A. In the War her prestige went high and she became both economically and militarily the number one power of the world. She became the manufacturer of the largest war hardwares and other war supplies of the world. The war industries of the U.S.A made fabulous profit during and after the War. When there was shortage of commodities everywhere, America could supply goods of all kinds and make high profit. American accumulation of wealth went beyond all imagination. She became the biggest financier for reconstruction of the War ravaged Europe. As the value of pound sterling of Britain fell, dollar became stronger and took the place of the pound sterling. Dollar became the strongest currency in the world and thus started the dollar imperialism.

Soviet Union after the War

After the Bolshevik Revolution, Stalin organized Soviet Union into a communist country. European countries were hostile to Russia for Stalin's dictatorship and communism. Since Stalin and Hitler were both aggressors and dictators, they were ousted from the League of Nations. In 1941 when Hitler betrayed him and invaded Russia, Stalin joined Roosevelt and Churchill. He became one of the Allied Forces. Stalin taking the advantage of the weakness of Britain and France took many undue advantages of his position. During the War Soviet Union played some significant role and after the War emerged as a Super Power only next to the United States.

Fate of the vanquished powers

Germany was most severely punished and was most mercilessly humiliated as she was the main architect of the War (She was also punished mercilessly after the First World War). The Generals who fought in the War under Hitler were tried as War Criminals. Germany was broken into four parts and each of the parts was placed under the victorious big powers who imposed military rule in Germany.

Italian empire was also broken. Her African colonies like Libya, Eritria and Somaliland were taken over by the allies and distributed among the victors.

The fate of **Japan** was no better than that of Germany. After the War, Japan was put under the Command of General Douglas MacArthur. He was in the Far Eastern Command of the Allied Forces. All efforts were taken by the Allied Forces to demilitarize and demoralize Japan. It was only in 1951 that Japan regained sovereignty under the San Francisco Treaty of Peace.

Trial of the War Crime

After the War, the War Criminals were put on trial. Trial of 22 War Criminals was held at Nuremberg after the end of the War and the trial ended in 1946. Goering, Ribbentrop, Rosenberg and 9 others were sentenced to death by hanging. Others were sentenced to imprisonment of different terms. Goering committed suicide in his cell before he was to be hanged. Martin Bormann who succeeded Hitler escaped capture and was tried in absentia. Japanese Prime Minister General Tojo was tried in 1948 and was sentenced to death by hanging. Italian dictator Mussolini was shot death by the anti-Fascists in 1945. Hitler committed suicide in summer, 1945 before he was going to be captured. Thus ended the lives of three blood-thirsty dictators of the history.

Chapter Two

The United Nations

The failure of the League of Nations to stop the Second World War was assigned for four major reasons, “The League had no armed force of its own to call on to withstand aggression. It had no collective authority to impose collective decisions to defend a member when that was attacked. It had been paralyzed in time of crisis by the rule of unanimity. It could not reach any unanimous decision. In grave situation the great powers like the U.S.A., the U.K., the USSR, Germany, Italy or Japan shirked their responsibility.” Still the world leaders (President Roosevelt, Prime Minister Churchill and Joseph Stalin), during the Second World War, felt the urgent need of “...establishing at the earliest practicable date a general international organization, based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all peace-loving states, and open to membership by all such states, large or small, for the maintenance of international peace and security.” The idea of formation of the United Nation came up at the Yalta conference, a health resort of Crimean between February 4 and 11, 1943 which was attended by the USA President Roosevelt, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill and Joseph Stalin of USSR. President Roosevelt took the most positive part in the formation of the United Nations. Next they met at Dumbarton Oaks, San Francisco in October 7, 1944 to follow the decisions of Yalta. In the Dumbarton conference representatives of 50 countries met a number of times to formulate the legal frame of the United Nations and they sincerely worked hard between April 25 and June 26, 1945 and completed the draft of the Charter of The United Nations. On June 25, 1945 the Charter of the United Nations was adopted. The Charter is a long document consisting of a Preamble and 111 articles.

The objectives of the United Nations are narrated in the Preamble which are in short :

- i. to maintain international peace and security;
- ii. to develop friendly relation among nations;
- iii. to cooperate in solving international economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems, and in promoting respect for human rights and humanitarian freedom; and
- iv. to make a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations in attaining those common ends.

The United Nations is not made a World State or a Super State, but it is made stronger and effective than the League of Nations having the power

and authority to implement its decisions. Its members are sovereign states and they are all on the footing of equality. By becoming a member of the United Nations a state does not surrender its sovereignty.

There are six major organs of the United Nations. They are

1. The General Assembly;
2. The Security Council;
3. The Economic and Social Council;
4. The Trusteeship Council;
5. The International Court of Justice; and
6. The Secretariat.

The Headquarters of the United Nations are made at New York. All the peace-loving states subscribing to the principles of the UNO charter can become the member of the UNO. The budget of the UNO shall come from the contribution of the member states on an agreed principle.

1. The General Assembly

It is the largest of all the organs. It consists of all the member states. It is the only organ in which all the members can sit and take part in deliberation and discussion. The General Assembly has to sit in session once a year in September, but it can also sit in special session on the request of majority members of the Security Council. The President (1) and the Vice-Presidents (7) of each Session is elected by the members. It can take up any UNO matter for discussion.

2. The Security Council

It is a small body of 15 members, but it is the most powerful organ of the UNO. The success and failure of the UNO depend on it. There are two types of members in this organ – 5 permanent members (The USA, The UK, The USSR, France and China) and 10 Non-Permanent members. Non-Permanent Members are elected by the General Assembly - three each year for two years. The permanent members have a Veto Power or Unanimity of the big power. A permanent member can stop any decision of the Council by using his Veto power. The Security Council has to bear the responsibility of international peace and security. It is, therefore, always in session and it must sit minimum once in two weeks.

The Security Council has the support of Military Staff Committee (peace keeping forces). Article 43 of the Charter requires every member state to supply military forces needed by the Security Council to deal with the situation.

3. The Economic and Social Council

There are now 27 members in this Council elected by the General Assembly. Six new members are elected every year for three years. The

Council deals with social, economic, health, education, human rights and other problems of the UNO.

4. The Trusteeship Council

The Council is composed of the permanent members of the Security Council except those who administer the Trust territories and other states elected by the General Assembly. It sits in session minimum twice a year. The President of the Council is elected in the session.

The functions of the Council are:

1. it deals with the administration and supervision of the territories placed under it; and
2. receives reports, from the administration complaints and petition from the people of the Trust territories.

5. International Court of Justice

The International Court of Justice sits at the Hague in the Netherlands. There are 15 elected Judges for the Court. The Judges are individually elected by the members of the Security Council and the General Assembly for a period of three years.

6. The Secretariat

The Secretariat does all the routine and office works of the UNO according to the instruction of the Secretary General. The Secretariat has nine departments each under an Assistant Secretary. The Secretary General is appointed by the General Assembly for five years on the recommendation of at least seven members of the Security Council including five permanent members.

Besides, there are a number of specialized agencies of the UNO. For example there is ILO (International Labour Organization) for international labour affairs, FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization) for food and agriculture, UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) for Educational, Scientific and Cultural affairs, IBRD (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development) bank for international development and reconstruction, IMF (International Monetary Fund) for control of international monetary fund and finance, WHO (World Health Organization) for monitoring international health affairs, IDA (International Development Association) for international development, UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund) for monitoring international children fund and children affairs and many other agencies.

Chapter Three

Independence of India

After the Second World War the Labour Party came to power. Winston Churchill, who handled the War affairs efficiently with iron hand, did all his best to give Great Britain a Victory in the War. But he was as if no more needed after the War. Churchill and his Conservative Party were defeated in the General Election of 1945, and in their place came Clement Atlee and his Labour Party. Atlee was a liberal minded man, and was agreeable to compromise with the allies and grant self government in the colonies. During the War the British government committed to give India full independence. Indian people supported the British Government in the War with men and materials on that assurance. India was the Jewell of the British crown; the Conservatives though promised independence to India after the War, were not ready to implement the promise so early. But Atlee, after the War, took a realistic step towards India, Burma and Srilanka. On the face of rising political movement he was compelled to declare that India would be given full independence by 1948. It was protested by Churchill who said, “so early!”.

Rise of Communism and Cold War

The Second World War opened the gate for rapid spread of communism around the world. The war devastation and worldwide economic depression enhanced poverty, hunger and diseases all over the world. It raised the death toll to a fantastic figure (The number of death during the war was unprecedented. About 30 million people were killed during the war, about fifty million were permanently disabled). Unemployment made the life of the worker class miserable. All these factors created the situation favourable for communism and communist movement. The rise of the Soviet Union and Stalin’s different steps encouraged the communists and communism. Germany after the War was divided into two parts – East and West Germany. Eastern part of Germany was placed under the Russian military control. Russia converted it into a socialist country. Other part East European countries like Poland, Hungary, Bulgaria, Albania, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia were placed in the iron grip of Russia and all of them became communist countries. In Asia communism spread more rapidly. In Asia Mao Tsetung made a big stride in converting China into a communist country. North Korea which was

under the Russian control during the War was another example. When Vietnam was divided into North and South, North went into the control of Russia and became a communist country.

All the big powers after the War were divided into two worlds the communist world and the free world. The U.S.A. led the free world when The USSR led the communist world. Each of these two worlds always tried to expand its political hegemony. The USSR was trying to expand communism, when the USA did its best to oppose it. None lost any opportunity in indulging in mutual recrimination. The USSR said that she was liberating humanity from the cruel and reckless exploitation of the capitalists, when the USA said that they were upholding the democracy and human right. When there was a severe conflict, the world apprehended a third world war.

Cold War

The war for supremacy of these two worlds (the communist world and the free world) is called the Cold War. The so called Cold War was in other words a diplomatic war. The Cold War was not a shooting war in the war front, but a war of words, of ideologies and nerves. The Cold War created great international tension. Winston Churchill used the words in his famous “Iron Curtain” speech at Fulton in 1946. The Cold War was not always cold; it sometimes turned into hot war as in Korea in 1950 and in Vietnam in 1954.

List of English Monarchs

| No. | Name | Period |
|---|----------------------------|--|
| House of Mercia | | |
| 1. | Offa Rex | 774-796A.D. |
| House of Wessex | | |
| 2. | Egbert | 802-839 |
| 3. | Aethelwulf | 839-856 |
| 4. | Aethelbald | 856-860 |
| 5. | Aethelbert | 860-865 |
| 6. | Aethelred | 865-871 |
| 7. | Alfred the great | 871-899 |
| 8. | Edward the Elder | 899-924 |
| 9. | Aethelstan the Glorious | 924-939 |
| 10. | Edmund the Magnificent | 939-946 |
| 11. | Eadred | 946-955 |
| 12. | Eadwig | 955-959 |
| 13. | Edgar the Peaceful | 959-975 |
| 14. | Edward the Martyr | 975-978 |
| 15. | Aethelred the unready | 978-1013 |
| House of Denmark | | |
| 16. | Sweyn Forkbeard | 1013-1014 |
| House of Wessex (Restored second time) | | |
| 17. | Aethelred the unready | 1014-1016 |
| 18. | Edmund Ironside | |
| House of Denmark(Restored) | | |
| 19. | Canute | 4 April to 30 Nov. 1016-1035 |
| 20. | Harold Harefoot | 1016-1035 |
| 21. | Hartha cnote | 1035-1040 |
| House of Wessex (Restored second time) | | |
| 22. | Edward the Confessor | 1040-1042 |
| 23. | Harold | 1042-1066 |
| House of Normandy | | |
| 24. | William I the Conqueror | 6 Janu. to 14 Octo. 1066 |
| 25. | William II (William Rufus) | 1066-1087 |
| 26. | Henry I | 1087-1100 |
| 27. | Stephen of Blois | 1100-1135 |
| 28. | Matilda | 1135-1154 |
| House of Plantagenet | | |
| 29. | Henry II | 7 April 1141 to 1 Nov. 1141 (disputed) |
| 30. | Henry the Young King | 1154-1189 |
| 31. | Richard I | 1170-1183 |
| 32. | John Lackland | 1189-1199 |
| 33. | Louis the Lion | 1199-1216 |
| 34. | Henry III | 1216-1217 (disputed) |
| 35. | Edward I | 1216-1272 |
| 36. | Edward II | 1272-1307 |
| 37. | Edward III | 1307-1327 |
| 38. | Richard II | 1327-1377 |
| House of Lancaster | | |
| | | 1377-1399 |

| No. | Name | Period |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 39. | Henry IV | 1399-1413 |
| 40. | Henry V | 1413-1422 |
| 41. | Henry VI | 1422-1461 |
| House of York | | |
| 42. | Edward IV (first reign) | 1461-1470 |
| House of Lancaster (Restored) | | |
| 43. | Henry VI | 1470-1471 |
| 44. | Edward IV (second reign) | 1471-1483 |
| 45. | Edward V | 9 April to 25 June 1483 |
| 46. | Richard III | 26 June 1483-1485 |
| House of Tudor | | |
| 47. | Henry VII | |
| 48. | Henry VIII | 1485-1509 |
| 49. | Edward VI | 1509-1547 |
| 50. | Jane | 1547-1553 |
| 51. | Mary I | 10 to 19 July 1553 (disputed) |
| 52. | Elizabeth I | 1553-1558, 1558-1603 |
| House of Stuart | | |
| 53. | James I | |
| 54. | Charles I | 1603-1625, 1625-1649 |
| Commonwealth | | |
| 55. | Oliver Cromwell | 1653-1658 |
| 56. | Richard Cromwell | 1658-1659 |
| House of Stuart (Restored) | | |
| 57. | Charles II | 1660-1685 |
| 58. | James II | 1685-1688 |
| 59. | Mary II | 1689-1694 |
| 60. | William of Orange | 1689-1702 |
| 61. | Anne | 1702-1714 |
| House of Hanover | | |
| 62. | George I | 1714-1727 |
| 63. | George II | 1727-1760 |
| 64. | George III | 1760-1820 |
| 65. | George IV | 1820-1830 |
| 66. | William IV | 1831-1837 |
| 67. | Victoria | 1837-1901 |
| 68. | Edward VII | 1901-1910 |
| 69. | George V | 1910-1936 |
| 70. | Edward VIII | Abdicated |
| 71. | George VI | 1936-1952 |
| 72. | Elizabeth II | 1952-till now |