МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ
ФЕДЕРАЛЬНОЕ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННОЕ БЮДЖЕТНОЕ ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНОЕ
УЧРЕЖДЕНИЕ ВЫСШЕГО ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ
«ОРЛОВСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ»

Ю.П. Котова
А.П. Александрова

SPOTLIGHT ON THE HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN

Учебное пособие для аудиторной и самостоятельной работы студентов

Орёл – 2011

УДК 811.111(075.8)
ББК Ш143.21я73 «Страноведение»
К736

Печатается по решению редакционно-издательского совета ФГБОУ ВПО «Орловский государственный университет»
Протокол №1 от 23.08.2011

Рецензенты:

кандидат филологических наук, доцент кафедры английской филологии Орловского государственного университета Т.В. Новикова;

кандидат филологических наук, доцент кафедры иностранных языков ФГОУ ВПО «Государственный университета – учебно-научно-производственный комплекс» О.Н. Сатковская

К736 **Котова Ю.П., Александрова А.П.** Взгляд на историю Великобритании: Учебное пособие для аудиторной и самостоятельной работы студентов / Ю.П. Котова, А.П. Александрова. – Орёл: ФГБОУ ВПО «ОГУ». - 2011. - 283 с.

В данном пособии предлагаются наиболее важные и интересные материалы по теме «Взгляд на историю Великобритании», представленные текстами и реалиями. В раздел *Glossary* вынесены термины, незнакомые или трудные для чтения слова с транскрипцией и переводом.

Предназначено студентам языковых вузов для самостоятельной подготовки к практическим занятиям по курсу «История и география Великобритании и США». Может быть полезным для преподавателей вузов и школьных учителей, ведущих практический курс английского языка, а также для всех, кто владеет достаточными навыками чтения на английском языке и интересуется вопросами страноведения Великобритании.

ПРЕДИЛОВИЕ

Учебное лингвострановедческое пособие «Взгляд на историю Великобритании» (“Spotlight on the History of Great Britain”) предлагает наиболее важные и интересные материалы по данной теме, представленные текстами и реалиями, знание которых необходимо для адекватного общения с носителями языка и более глубокого понимания аутентичных текстов. При работе над книгой авторы опирались на лингвострановедческие содержательные критерии отбора текстов.

Пособие состоит из двух частей и глоссария.

В первой части лингвострановедческого пособия предлагаются общие сведения, в большинстве случаев, *в вопросно-ответной форме* по истории Великобритании (преимущественно, Англии) – обзор исторического развития страны с древнейших времен до настоящих дней. Здесь можно найти факты из жизни британских монархов и их роли в развитии социально-политической жизни страны.

В второй главе *Cultural literacy vocabulary* представлены лингвострановедческие реалии с изъяснением страноведческого культурного компонента. Эти реалии обозначены в текстах первой главы *звёздочкой* (*).

В раздел *Glossary* вынесены все термины, незнакомые или трудные для чтения слова с транскрипцией и переводом. Такие слова обозначены в текстах двумя *звёздочками* (**).

Список вопросов в конце пособия (*Questions to be answered*) поможет студентам упорядочить полученные знания и подготовиться к письменной форме контроля. Они могут быть использованы студентами и преподавателями для проверки усвоения материала на практических занятиях, коллоквиумах, в контрольных работах, а также на зачетах и экзаменах.

Пособие составлялось по многочисленным аутентичным источникам, учебникам по лингвострановедению, интернет-сайтам, список которых представлен в конце.

Учебное псобие предназначено для аудиторной и самостоятельной работы по курсу «История и география Великобритании и США» студентов факультета иносторанных языков. Оно может быть использовано студентами исторического и юридического факультетов, владеющих английским языком, а также всеми, кто интересуется вопросами страноведения Великобритании., и рекомендуется преподавателям вузов и школьным учителям, ведущим практический курс английского языка.

THE BRITISH ISLES

TUCKED AWAY IN THE NORTHWESTERN corner of Europe, the British Isles consist of the United Kingdom (UK) and Ireland. The UK includes Scotland, England, Wales, and Northern Ireland. The rest of Ireland is an independent country. Once, the whole of Ireland was dominated by England, a Protestant nation. This caused resentment among the Catholic Irish and in 1922, the south broke away. Despite differences between the two countries – Ireland is mainly rural, while the UK is heavily urbanized – both share a strong sense of identity that comes from being island nations.

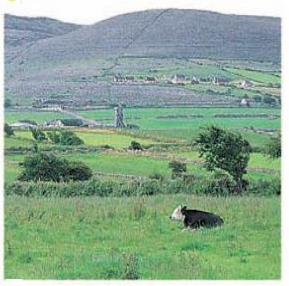
THINGS TO LOOK FOR ON THE MAP

Longest river: Shannon, Ireland, 240 miles (386 km) *Map F8*

Highest point: Ben Nevis, UK, 4,406 ft (1,343 m) *Map H5*

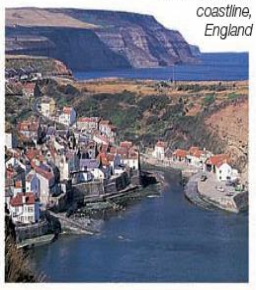
Largest lake: Lough Neagh, UK,153 sq miles (396 sq km) *Map G7*

Deepest reservoir in Europe: Loch Morar, UK, 1,017 ft (310 m) *Map H4*



THE EMERALD ISLE

Ireland gets its nickname, "The Emerald Isle," from the lush green grass that thrives in the island's mild and wet climate. This pasture makes excellent grazing land for cattle, and so dairy produce and beef are major products in a land where agriculture has always been the main industry. The beauty of the landscape, particularly its dramatic west coast, has also made Ireland a major tourist destination.



North Yorkshire coastline, England

LANDSCAPE

The landscape of the British Isles varies greatly within a small area. High, craggy mountains in northern England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland contrast with the flat Fens (marshlands) of East Anglia and the rolling green fields of southern England. Three-quarters of the land is used for farming, and the crops grown vary from region to region, depending on the climate and soil.

Part I

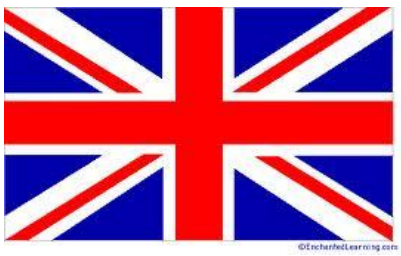
THE HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN IN QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

U.K. – Facts in Brief

Type of Government:
Constitutional Monarchy
Divisions: England, 39 counties, but about 50 large administrative areas; Northern Ireland, 6 counties; Scotland, 33 counties; Wales, 13 counties

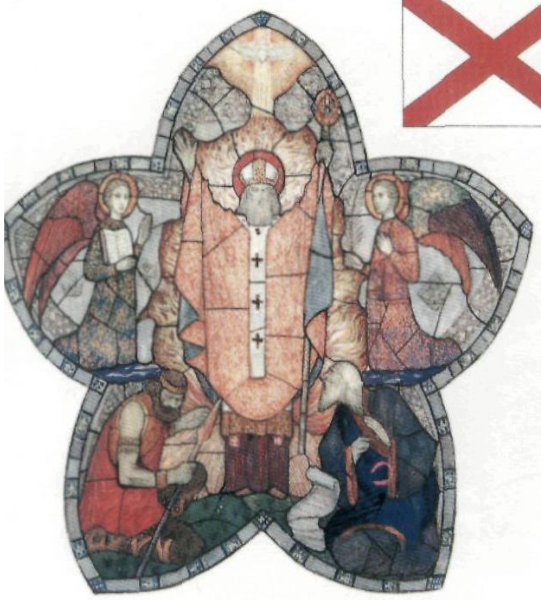
Capital: London
Largest cities: London, Edinburgh, Cardiff, Belfast, Londonderry, Birmingham, Glasgow, Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds

Official Language: English
Area: 224 square miles. *Greatest distance* – (north-south) 600 miles; (east-west) 320 miles. Coastline, approximately 4.000 miles
Population: 65 mil.
Chief Products: *Agriculture* – barley, flax, fruits, hops, oats, potatoes, sugar-beet, wheat, cheese, processed food; *Manufacturing* and *Processing* – chemicals, clothing, earthenware** (pottery), electrical and electronic goods, glassware, bone-china, machinery, metal goods, moto vehicles, aircraft, tractors, ships, paper, textiles, wood products; *Mining* – building stone, chalk, coal, iron ore, lead, tin; *Fishing Industry* – cod, haddock**, halibut**, herring, mackerel**, plaice, salmon, sole**
Money: Pound



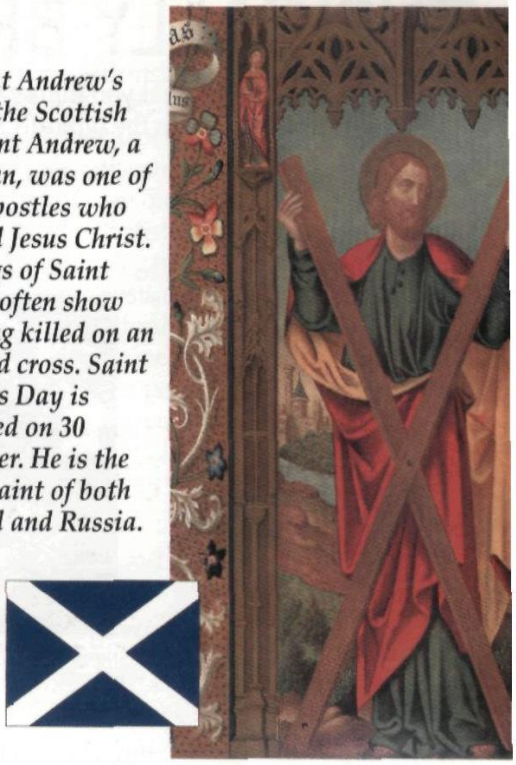
Flag: The Union Flag combines the red-on-white crosses of St. George and St. Patrick with the white-on-blue cross of St. Andrew

Flags and saints



The National Gallery of Ireland

The Saint Patrick's cross is the former flag of Ireland. Saint Patrick is the patron saint of Ireland. He was born about AD 390. He converted the Irish to Christianity and is supposed to have got rid of all the snakes in Ireland. Saint Patrick's Day is celebrated on 17 March.



The Saint Andrew's cross is the Scottish flag. Saint Andrew, a fisherman, was one of the 12 apostles who followed Jesus Christ. Paintings of Saint Andrew often show him being killed on an X-shaped cross. Saint Andrew's Day is celebrated on 30 November. He is the patron saint of both Scotland and Russia.

The British flag, known as the Union Jack, is a combination of three flags: the Saint Andrew's cross, the Saint Patrick's cross and the Saint George's cross.

The National Gallery, London

The Saint George's cross is the English flag. Saint George is the patron saint of England. He was a soldier famous for saving the Princess Cleolinda from being eaten by a dragon. He wounded the dragon and took it back to the city of Silene on a lead like a dog. Saint George's Day is celebrated on 23 April. Saint George is also the patron saint of Germany, Portugal and Greece.

The Welsh flag shows a dragon. Saint David, the patron saint of Wales, started a number of monasteries in the country. Paintings of Saint David normally show him with a dove on his shoulder. His relics are now in Saint David's Cathedral in Wales. Saint David's Day is celebrated on 1 March.

Great Britain is divided into three parts. Scotland in the north, Wales in the West, and England in the south and east. From the 1600s onwards, people from Britain founded colonies in many parts of the world. Today more than 50 former colonies are independent members of the Commonwealth*.

UK. is the political name of the country consisting of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland* situated on the British Isles. People generally shorten the name *the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland* to the United Kingdom, Great Britain, or simply Britain. UK is the heart of the Commonwealth of Nations.

The capital of the *UK* is ***London****. It is also the capital of England.

England has a total area of 130.362 square km. It is divided into counties, of which there are 39 geographical ones and 46 administrative ones.

Wales has a total area of 20.764 square km and is divided into 13 counties, with ***Cardiff*** being the capital.

Scotland together with its 186 inhabited islands has a total area of 78.772 square km. It has 33 counties. Its capital is ***Edinburgh***.

Northern Ireland consists of 6 counties and has a total area of 14.121 square km. Its capital is ***Belfast***.

The UK is a small country. It is twice smaller than France or Spain. The UK's territory is 2 per cent of the inhabited territory of the world, claiming the 75th place among other countries.

The total area of the country is 94,217 square miles (244,100 sq. km) of which nearly 99 per cent is land and the remainder inland water. The population of the UK is 65 million people and it's the world's 5th largest economy.

HERALDRY AND SYMBOLS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, coat of arms

London (UK), coat of arms

Scotland, small coat of arms

Scotland, big coat of arms

England, coat of arms

Wales, coat of arms

GREAT BRITAIN

Ancient name: *Britannia*

United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, flag

Union Flag, or Union Jack, is the national flag of the United Kingdom and it is so called because it embodies the emblems of the three countries united under one Sovereign – the kingdoms of England and Wales, of Scotland and of Ireland (although since 1921 only Northern Ireland has been part of the United Kingdom).

The term Union Jack possibly dates from Queen Anne's time (reigned 1702-14), but its origin is uncertain. It may come from the 'jack-et' of the English or Scottish soldiers; or from the name of James I who originated the first union in 1603, in either its Latin or French form Jacobus or Jacques; or, as 'jack' once meant small, the name may be derived from a royal proclamation issued by Charles II that the Union Flag should be flown only by ships of the Royal Navy as a jack, a small flag at the bowsprit.

The flag consists of three heraldic crosses. When it was first devised in 1606, following the union of the crowns of England and Scotland, the flag combined the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew. The cross of St. Patrick was added in 1801, on the union of Great Britain and Ireland.

The Welsh dragon does not appear on the Union Flag. This is because when the first Union Flag was created in 1606, the Principality of Wales by that time was already united with England and was no longer a separate principality.

Britain. Formerly known as the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, it is the political unity of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. The name "*Britain*" is believed to be the anglicized Greek or Roman form. The ancient name of Britain is "*Britannia*", which in its turn is derived from the Celtic Britton, the name of one of the Celtic tribes living in the British Isles. It was accepted after the Roman conquest in the 1st century AD.

The name for Britain personified as a classical female figure. She is portrayed on the penny as a seated figure armed with a shield, trident** and plumed helmeted**. This representation was adopted from a figure of Britannia on brass coin called a sestertius of the Roman emperor Antonius Puis* (AD 138-161). The figure reappeared on the copper coin in the reign of Charles II, 1665, and the model was Miss Stewart, afterwards created Duchess of Richmond. Modern coins first showed Britannia in 1672, on the copper coinage of Charles II. The seated figure of Britannia amid the waves with her trident was first portrayed on coins in about 1797. Trident is the symbol of power over the sea, hence the patriotic song, which begins "Rule Britannia, Britannia rule the waves". In the 1825 a new design was made.

The British Lion symbolizes the pugnacity of the British nation, as opposed to the "John Bull", which symbolizes the substantiality, solidity and obstinacy of people, with all their prejudices and national peculiarities. "To rouse the British Lion" is to flourish a red flag in the face of John Bull, to provoke him to resistance even to the point of war. "To twist the lion's tail" is a favourite phrase and favourite policy with some rival unfriendly powers.

The Lion and the Unicorn – two animals that appear on the British royal arms. The lion represents England, and the Unicorn, an imaginary animal like a horse with a long horn on its forehead, represents Scotland.

The Royal Arms – the personal symbol of the British king or queen, consisting of a lion and a unicorn holding a shield, on which other symbols represent England, Scotland and Ireland.

Poppy became a symbol of peace in Great Britain after World War I. Britons have worn it in November on Remembrance Day ever since to recall to mind those who died in the two World Wars.

ENGLAND

Capital: *London*

England, flag (St. George's cross)

London is the capital city of the United Kingdom. Historically, London grew from three distinct centres: the walled settlement founded by the Romans on the banks of the Thames in the 1st century AD, today known as ***the City of London***, ***"the Square Mile"*** or simply ***"the City"***; facing it across the bridge on the lower gravels of the south bank, the suburb of ***Southwark***; and a mile upstream, on a great southward bend of the river, ***the City of Westminster***. The three settlements had distinct and complementary roles.

London, "the City", developed as a centre of trade, commerce, and banking.

Southwark, "the Borough", became known for its monasteries, hospitals, inns, fairs, pleasure houses, and the great theatres of Elizabethan London – *the Rose (1587), the Swan (1595),* and *Shakespeare's Globe (1599).*

Westminster grew up around an abbey, which brought a royal palace, and the entire central apparatus of the British state. It also boasts of spacious parks and the most fashionable districts for living and shopping – ***the West End***.

The City of London was unique among Europe's capital cities retaining its medieval boundaries.

London had developed in a dispersed, haphazard fashion from an early stage, many of its later suburbs were able to grow around, or within reach of some existing nucleus such as a church, coaching inn, mill, parkland, or common. Buildings of different ages, and types help to define the character of residential areas as well as to receive suburban monotony.

Brut (or **Brutus).** Legendary founder of London. Tradition has it that he arrived in Britain from Troy and destroyed the race of giants inhabiting it. The only surviving giants, Gog and Magog, were brought by Brutus to London and put as porters at the gate of his palace. The wooden effigies of Gog and Magog can be seen in the Guildhall, London.

John Bull – the symbol of the typical Englishman. He is often in cartoons or pictures. He was invented in 1712 by a political writer John Arbuthnot. John Bull is drawn as a big man with a large stomach and a round face. He wears high boots, an open jacket and a Union Jack waistcoat. He often has a bulldog with him.

Red Rose is the symbol of England. It was the emblem of the Lancastrians, the white rose that of the Yorkists, the two contending Houses for the English throne in the Wars of the Roses*. All rivalry between the roses ended by the marriage of Henry VII, the Lancastrian, with Princess Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV, the Yorkist. The red rose has since become the national emblem of England.

St. George (4th century) is patron saint of England. He is believed to have been martyred by the Emperor Diocletian in Palestine. The cult of St. George was introduced into Western Europe by the crusaders and he was proclaimed patron saint of England in the reign of Edward III. It is thought that the execution took place on the 23d of April, 303, and this date was made the feast day of St. George.

Ancient names: *Anglia, Albion*

The Greeks called England "Albion", and the Romans said that this meant "whiteland", because the first view for most visitors was the white cliffs near Dover*. Today, it is still sometimes used poetically to refer to the island of Great Britain.

SCOTLAND

Capital: *Edinburgh*

Scotland, flag (St Andrew's cross)

To the north of Roman-ruled Britain was a country called **Caledonia**, roughly equivalent to modern Scotland. At that time there were no Scots in Scotland. They still lived in Ireland (then called **Scotia** or **Hibernia**). Caledonia was inhabited by the **Picts**. During and after the fifth century A.D., a number of Scots crossed to the west coast of Caledonia and settled there. After a number of centuries the King of the Scots became King of the Picts as well. By about 1000, the land ruled by the king of the Scots (Caledonia) became known as Scotland (**Scotia**), and later, all those who lived there, whatever their ancestry, became known as Scots.

Thistle is a national emblem of Scotland, apparently used for the first time in the 800s as a symbol of defence. In 1263 a Norwegian army invaded Scotland and made a surprise night attack on the Scottish army camp. The Scots, not expecting an attack, were not keeping a good watch, but one of the barefooted Norwegians trod on a thistle and cried out in pain. The Scots were roused and in the resulting

battle defeated the Norwegians.

St. Andrew. One of Christ's apostles, he is believed to have suffered crucifixion on a diagonal cross. This kind of cross is now known as St Andrew's cross and it is included in the Union Flag, the national flag of Great Britain. Tradition has it that St Andrew's remains were transferred to Scotland, probably in the 8th century, and since that time St Andrew has been the patron saint of that country. St. Andrew's Day, 30 November, is regarded as Scotland's national day. On this day some Scotsmen wear a thistle in their buttonhole.

Ancient names: *Caledonia, Scotia*

Caledonia is the ancient name of Scotland. Caledonia. It was given to Scotland by the Romans. A corruption of "Cellyddon", a Celtic word meaning a dweller in woods and forests. The word Celt is itself a contraction of the same word ("Celyd"), and means the same thing.

According to Moffat, a Scottish television writer and producer, (2005) the name derives from *caled*, the P-Celtic word for "hard". This suggests the original meaning may have been "the hard (or rocky) land" although it is possible it meant "the land of the hard men".

The exact location of what the Romans called Caledonia in the early stages of Britannia were uncertain, and the boundaries are unlikely to have been fixed until the building of Hadrian's Wall*. From then onwards Caledonia stood to the north of the wall, and to the south was Britannia, not so much the island but the roman province. Later the Romans had built a second wall further to the north (the Antonine Wall*) and their garrisons advanced north likewise.

The modern use of "Caledonia" in English and Scots is as a romantic or poetic name for Scotland as a whole.

Today the word is used in the names of some hotels, clubs, etc.

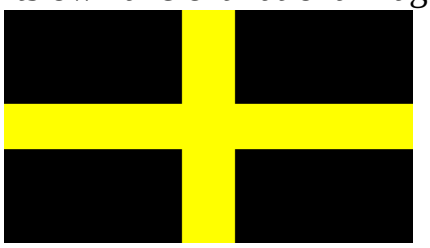
WALES

Capital: *Cardiff*

Wales, flag

The Welsh flag is a green and white bicolor (the white stripe is on top) picturing a large, red dragon. The red dragon is a symbol of Wales.

The dragon symbol has been used in Wales since the Romans invaded and occupied Wales (in the 1st century AD, almost two thousand years ago). Although Wales officially united with England in 1536, Wales still retains its own ancient national flag.



St. David's cross

The gold cross on black of St David has never had an official status in Wales. According to H. Gresham Carr's 1961 book, *Flags of the World*, a black cross on gold was used by Welsh Anglican churches until 1954.The Cross of St David has also become an established flag for representing Wales outside Wales.

Daffodil is the symbol of Wales. It is closely connected with St. David's day because it is believed to flower on that day. It became an alternative to the **leek** as a Welsh emblem in the 20th century because some thought the leek vulgar.

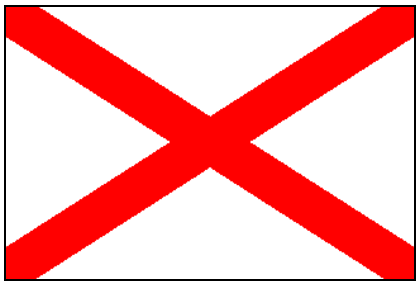
St. David is patron saint of Wales. March 1 is the feast day of St. David. Welshmen all over the world celebrate this day by wearing daffodils.

Ancient name: Cambria (**Cymry**)

Cymru – country; *Cymry* – people. The root is *camrador* – friend, comrade.

NORTHERN IRELAND

Capital: *Belfast*



Northern Ireland, flag

Hibernia is the ancient name of Ireland. “Erin” is a poetic name of Ireland. “The Emerald Isles” is another way of referring to Ireland.

Ulster. The name Ulster is now commonly applied to Northern Ireland. Ulster, a former province of Northern Ireland, in the 5th century AD, was the most powerful of the five ancient kingdoms (*Connaught, Leinster, Meath, Munster*).

Its name derives from the Irish language, and was named for the ancient inhabitants of the region. In fact, the British province embraces only six out of Ulster’s nine counties; three of its counties belong to the Irish republic.

The name “Northern Ireland” is not used by some nationalists; one of the alternative names they use is “*the six counties*” (*Antrim, Armagh, Down, Fermanagh, Londonderry, and Tyrone*).

The province’s early story survives mainly in legends such as the *Ulster Cycle*. In early medieval Ireland, two dynasties dominated Ulster (O’Neill and O’Donnell). After the Norman invasion of Ireland in the twelfth century, the east of the province fell by conquest to Norman barons, who founded *the Earldom of Ulster* – based around the modern counties of Antrim and Down. However, by the end of the 15th century the Earldom had collapsed and Ulster had become the only Irish province completely outside of English control.

In the 1600s Ulster was the last redoubt** of the traditional Gaelic way of life, and following the defeat of the Irish forces in the Nine Years War (1594-1603) at the battle of Kinsale (1601), Elizabeth I’s English forces succeeded in subjugating Ulster and all of Ireland. The Gaelic leaders of Ulster, the O’Neills and O’Donnells, finding their power under English suzerainty limited, left for Roman Catholic Europe in 1607. This allowed the English Crown to plant Ulster with more loyal English and Scottish Protestant nobility, a process which began in earnest in 1610.

In 1782 Britain acknowledged the exclusive right of the Irish parliament to legislate for Ireland. To reflect the country’s enhanced constitutional status, an order of chivalry called the Order of St Patrick was established in the following year. The regalia worn by the knights of this order showed a red saltire on a white background.

After the Act of Union the red saltire was inserted into the existing flag of Great Britain (itself a combination of the English St George’s Cross and the Scottish St Andrew’s Cross) as a symbol of Ireland, thereby forming the modern Union Jack:

While the St Patrick's Cross does not appear to have been used as a flag before the Union, it has been incorporated in a wide range of flags since then.

Red Hand of Ulster – the symbol of Ulster (Northern Ireland), shown as a red upright hand cut off at the wrist. It was originally the symbol of Ulster's ruling family, the O'Neills.

Shamrock is the emblem of Northern Ireland. A popular notion is that when preaching the doctrine of the Trinity to the pagan Irish St. Patrick used the shamrock, a small white clover bearing three leaves on one stem, as an illustration of the mystery: the union of Father, Son and Holy Spirit as one God.

St. Patrick (5th century AD). Patron saint of Ireland. He was born probably in Britain and after some time on the Continent he went as a missionary to Ireland. He founded the sea of Armagh and his preaching played a vital part in the spread of Christianity. St. Patrick's day is on the 17th of March. It was a common custom, from at least the early 17th to the mid-19th century, to wear a cross made of paper or ribbon on this day.

Ancient name: *Hibernia* is the Classical Latin name for the island of Ireland. The name *Hibernia* was taken from Greek geographical accounts. During his exploration of northwest Europe (circa 320 BC), Pytheas of Massilia called the island *Ierne*. In his book *Geographia* (circa 150 AD), Claudius Ptolemaeus called the island *Iouernia*. It is likely that the Romans saw a connection between these historical names and the Latin word *hibernus* meaning *wintry*.

Erin is a poetic name for Ireland used by poets and nineteenth-century Irish nationalists. In this context, along with Hibernia, Erin is the name sometimes given to the female personification of Ireland. "The Emerald Isle" is another way of referring to Ireland, evoking** the lush** greenery of its countryside.

PEERAGE

Peerage – an order of rank: *duke*, *marquis*, *earl*, *viscount* and *baron*. The peerage in general is the tenants in chief.

Peer. Member of one of the degrees of nobility. A peer of the realm has the right to sit in the House of Lords. Hereditary peers receive noblemen whose title is passed on from their parents. Life peers are elected to the House of Lords for life only. Since 1958 life peerages have been conferred on men and women of distinction.

Life peer – any of the members of the British House of Lords who hold their position as a reward for public service but cannot pass their title on to their children. Male life peers are given the title of baron and are

addressed as “Lord”, and female life peers are given the title of baroness or countess and are addressed as “Lady”, “Baroness” or “Countess”.

Life peerages are given by the government, often to former Members of Parliament.

Hereditary peer a male member of the aristocracy who has received his title from his father and who has the right to vote in the House of Lords. A small number of hereditary peers are women.

Duke – highest hereditary rank in the British peerage after the members of the royal family. By the end of the Middle Ages such titles, which had first been won by individual achievement, had become hereditary in the noble families. When the head of a noble house died, his title and his property were inherited by his eldest son. If he did not have a son, the title went to the next nearest male relative. This was called the law of primogeniture (firstborn). The law still applies in some parts of Europe and particularly in British peerage. The first English duke was Edward, the eldest son of Edward III. He was created Duke of Cornwall in 1337. Since then it has been one of the titles of the Prince of Wales.

Marquis – title of nobility of the second rank after duke. The heir of the marquis is called a lord.

Earl – title of nobility of the third rank after duke and marquis. Until 1337 it ranked highest in the British peerage. It is the oldest title in the peerage. It was used even before the Norman Conquest but at that time was not hereditary. The earl’s heir is also called a lord.

Viscount – title of rank coming between that of earl and baron. The first English viscount was Viscount Beaumont created in 1440.

Baron – title given in feudal England to a man who held his land directly from the king. Today a baron is a member of the fifth and last grade of peerage of the United Kingdom and is addressed as Lord.

Baronet. Hereditary title signifying a rank below that of a baron and above a knight. It was instituted by James I to provide funds for the colonization of Ulster. A baronet is addressed as Sir. The baronetcy is inherited by the male heirs of a baronet.

Knight – title of honour granted as a reward for public services. Knighthood is conferred by a ceremony in which the subject kneels and the Sovereign touches him or her with a drawn sword first on the right shoulder, then on the left. The male knight uses the prefix Sir before his Christian name and the female knight the prefix Dame.

But **baronets** and **knights**, who have the title “sir” before their names, are not members of the peerage.

The **archbishop of Canterbury** is the primate (head of the Church) of England. Although he has no title of nobility, he is the ranking peer of Great Britain and takes precedence over everyone except members of the royal family.

ANCIENT BRITAIN

The British Isles are the world's chief island groups. They are bounded by the English Channel, the Strait of Dover, the North Sea, and the Atlantic Ocean. The islands in the group are Great Britain made up of England, Scotland and Wales, Ireland made up of the Republic and Northern Ireland, the Isle of Man, the Hebrides, the Orkney Islands, the Shetland Islands, and almost 5500 small islands and inlets. The Greeks were the first to mention the British Isles. The ancient Greek historian Herodotus [he´rɔdətəs] wrote that in the 5th century BC the Phoenicians [fi´niʃənz] used to come to the British Isles for tin – which was used in making bronze. They called those islands *the Tin Isles**.

Stone Age Britain

The first men in Britain probably came into the country about 25000 years ago. They are called '*Old Stone Age*' men because they made tools and weapons from *flints* (hard stones) that they chipped** into rough shapes.

Between about 3000 and 2500 BC, many Iberian people came to Britain, mainly from *Iberia* (present day Spain and Portugal). They also used stone tools, but ground and polished them into axes, chisels**, knives, and scrapers. Historians call people who used these improved techniques *New Stone Age* men. New Stone Age men tamed dogs for hunting, and domesticated cattle, goats, pigs, and sheep. They built themselves homes and lived in settled communities.

Bronze Age and Iron Age Britain

Between about 2000 and 1600 BC first invaders came to Britain from the area of the River Rhine. They used bronze (copper hardened with tin) to make arrows, axes, sickles, and swords. Historians call them *Beaker people* because they made decorated pots shaped like beakers. With their superior weapons, the Beaker people overcame the New Stone Age farmers. They were herdsmen who wandered with their flocks along the downs (hills) of southern Britain. They also built huge monuments in the form of stone circles. No one knows for certain what purpose these served. The best example of these monuments is *Stonehenge* in Wiltshire.

Early invasions of Britain

Historians think that the tall, fair-haired Celts crossed from continental Europe to southern Britain in two great waves, starting about 600 BC. The first Celtic peoples were the Gaels or Goidels. The second wave included the Cymri, Scots, and the Britons or Brythons. The Celtic

invasions continued for hundreds of years. The Gaels pushed the Iberians into the wild northern and western parts of the island. The Britons occupied most of the area that is now England and Wales. They were pagans.

They originally came from central Europe. They were pagans and their tribes were ruled by a warrior class, of which the priests, or Druids, seemed to have been particularly important members. They could not read or write, but they memorized all the religious teaching, tribal laws, history, medicine, and other knowledge important to Celtic society.

The most civilized Celtic tribes to settle in Britain were the Belgae who came from Gaul (France) in about 75 BC. They had invented the plough and cultivated heavy, fertile soil. They used potters' wheels to shape pottery, and they struck metal coins. They built farms, and settlements that developed into towns. The Celts were a warlike people, the first in Britain to use chariots and to ride on horseback. Celtic warriors painted their bodies with a blue dye and Romans called them Picts (painted people).

According to the Romans, the Celtic men wore shirts and breeches (knee-length trousers), and striped or checked cloaks** fastened by a pin. It is possible that the Scottish tartan and dress developed from this "stripped cloak".

The tribes called Picts settled in the north. Later the tribes of Scots moved to the larger island and settled there beside the Picts. Powerful Celtic tribes, the Britons, held most of the island which was named Britain after them.

Celtic languages are still spoken in Highland Scotland, Wales, Ireland and Cornwall. Few Celtic words survived up to now in the English language. They are mostly place names (*the Downs, the Thames, the Mercy, the Severn, Scotland, the Avon, Stonehenge*) and personal names (*Boadicea*).

The second invaders of Britain

In the year 55 BC Julius Caesar (102-44 BC) was the first to carry the *Roman* banner to the British Isles. One of Caesars motives was to stop the Gaul's from receiving British aid, a factor, which had bothered him while he was conquering Gaul. That year he landed in the south of Britain with 10.000 legionaries but was withdrawn by the Celts. In the following year with an army of 25.000 he landed again and defeated the Celtic tribesmen. He settled where London now stands. But the complete invasion of Britain by Romans took place only in 44 AD.

Romans began to build towns and cities in Britain. The towns were the basis of Roman administration and civilization. Many grew out of Celtic settlements, military camps or market centers. The towns were built of stones as well as of wood, and had planned streets, markets and shops, villas and baths. Some buildings had central heating. The towns were connected by roads, which were so well built that they served even centuries later. Watling Street* which stretches from London to the border of Wales is still in use.

The most famous Roman historic attraction in Britain is ***Hadrian Wall***. It is a stone and turf** fortification built between 122 and 127 AD by the Roman emperor Hadrian, from Wallsend on the River Tyne to the Solway Furth. During the rule of emperor Hadrian, it was the middle of three such fortifications built across Great Britain, the first being from the River Clyde to the River Forth and the last the Antonine Wall*, at the time of emperor Antoninus Pius. It was a major achievement, 73 miles (120 kilometres) long and 16 feet (4,3 metres) high.

All were built to prevent military raids on Roman Britain by the Pictish tribes (ancient inhabitants of Scotland) to the north, to improve economic stability and provide peaceful conditions in Britain, and to mark physically the frontier of the Empire. Hadrian's Wall is the best known of the three because its physical presence remains most evident today.

The wall marked the northern *limes*** in Britain and also the most heavily fortified border in the Empire. In addition to its use as a military fortification, it is thought that the gates through the wall would also had served as customs posts to allow trade taxation.

A significant portion of the wall still exists, particularly the mid-section, and for much of its length the wall can be followed on foot. It is the most popular tourist attraction in Northern England, where it is often known simply as the *Roman Wall*. It was made a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 1987. English Heritage, a government organization in charge of managing the historic environment of England, describes it as "the most important monument built by the Romans in Britain".

The English language was greatly influenced by Latin. There are very many words of Latin origin in it: *castra-camp, vallum-wall, strata-street, portus-port*. There are place names such as *Chester, Winchester, Manchester, Gloucester, Lancaster, Doncaster*. Romans had a flourishing culture that could not help influencing the cultures of the occupied countries.

When did the third invasion of Britain take place?

Roman control of Britain came to an end as the empire began to collapse. In 409 (407) AD Rome pulled its last legions out of Britain.

From about 350 AD, Germanic tribes began raiding south-eastern England, but after 430 they started to settle (from 5 till centuries). The tribes came from what are now northern Germany, Holland and Denmark. The first to invade were Saxons joined later by Jutes and Angles. The Angles gave England its name. The newcomers were warlike and illiterate, and essentially agricultural people, who preferred to live in small villages. Roman towns became neglected and soon fell in ruins.

The term *Anglo-Saxon* applied to Teutonic peoples who conquered Britain in 5lh and 6th centuries and by the time of Alfred the Great had become one people; also applied to people of English descent, wherever found, as in Europe, America. Jutes – a Teutonic people related to the Angles and Saxons, generally believed to have come from Jutland.

The Angles, Saxons and Jutes were pagans. The gods of the Anglo-Saxons were: Tu, or Tuesco, – god of Darkness, Woden – god of War, Thor – the Thunderer, and Freia – goddess of Peace and Plenty. When people learned to divide up time into weeks and the week into seven days, they gave the days the names of their gods. It is not hard to guess that Sunday is the day of the sun, Monday – the day of the moon, Tuesday – the day of the god Tuesco, Wednesday – Woden's day, Thursday – Thor's day, Friday – Freia's day and Saturday – Saturn's day (Saturn was the name of a god of arable farming and worshipped by the ancient Romans).

The Angles, Saxons and Jutes quarrelled a great deal with one another in their fight for supreme power. They nevertheless became one nation in the course of a few centuries. The first king to rule over all of them was Egbert. He was made king at the beginning of the 9th century. The Saxon (Wessex) dialect gained a hold upon the other dialects. A great number of the short words (monosyllables) in Modern English have come down to us from the language of this period.

These are words of the German origin.

The ending *-ing* meant "folk" or "family", thus "Reading" is the place of the family of Rada; Hastings – of the family of Hasta.

Ham meant "farm".

Ton means "settlement". Birmingham, Nottingham, Kingston are Saxon place-names.

Bughs were walled settlements to keep the enemies out. (King Edwin's burgh = Edinburgh). They became prosperous market towns, and the word now usually spelt "borough" is the name of the units of municipal or town administration today.

By the time the Anglo-Saxons conquered Britain, they already had letters of their own called "runes" which they carved on stone and wood, but they had no written language yet, and the stories and poems they made up had to be memorized. These (nowadays called "lore") were brought by the Anglo-Saxons to Britain. This period may be called the dawn** of English literature.

What is the origin of the words "Welsh" and "Wales"?

Anglo-Saxons called the people whom they couldn't conquer "Welsh", that meant "foreigners", "strangers" in their language. "Wales" meant the land of foreigners.

The most powerful Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in Heptarchy*

By the end of the sixth and the beginning of the seventh century kingdoms were formed on the territory of Britain. The so called "Heptarchy*", the seven English kingdoms were Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Essex, Wessex, Sussex and Kent. The most powerful king of the seven was acknowledged by the others as overlord.

The most powerful kingdoms were Northumbria, Mercia and Wessex.

The Saxons divided the land into the new administrative areas, based on "shires", or counties. These *shires*** established by the end of the tenth century, remained almost exactly the same for thousand years. "Shires" is the Saxon word, "county" is a Norman one, but both are still used. (In 1974 the counties were reorganized, but the new system is very like the old one.) Over each shire was appointed a "Shire reeve", the King's local administrator. In time his name became shortened to "Sheriff".

What is "Witan"?

The Witenagemot, also known as the Witan (more properly the title of its members) is the King's Counsel.

The name derives from the Old English and means "meeting of wise men".

The council of the Anglo-Saxon kings developed from Germanic assemblies summoned to witness royal grants of lands. By the late 9th century the Witan had become a formal gathering of the principal ealdormen*, thegns*, and bishops, summoned by the king to give him advice in issuing laws and charters and to witness acts of royal administration, and decisions on taxation, foreign policy, and defence. The Witan played a valuable role in checking royal power and preventing autocracy. It also carried on the business of government during gaps in the succession. It was not at all democratic but without the support of the Witan the king's authority could be seriously undermined. From the 11th century onwards, the Witan's successor, the *commune concilium* of Anglo-Saxon kings, performed the same role: the king ruled with full authority, given the consent of his barons.

When was the British land divided into shires or counties?

A unit of local government that originated in the 8th and 9th centuries divided the land into new administrative areas based on "*Shires*", or counties or *Shire reeve* – King's local administrator. The shire system, which replaced the Roman provinces, was later extended to cover the whole of England. A shire usually took its name from its principal city. The king's interest was represented by an ealdorman* and later a sheriff*, who presided over the shire court and was responsible for the militia (see *fyrd**).

Sheriff, a royal official who, from the early 11th century, came to replace the "earl as the king's chief agent in the shire". The sheriff (or shire reeve) was responsible for financial administration; the collection and local assessment of royal tapes, and supervision of royal estates. He also sat in the court – although he did not preside over it until after the Norman conquest. The office lost its importance by the 16th century, and the sheriff's duties now comprise chiefly the supervision of parliamentary elections, executing writs, and the summoning of jurors.

These shires, established by the end of the 10 century, remained almost exactly the same for a thousand years. The shires were replaced after the Norman conquest by the counties*.

When did Britain adopt Christianity?

During the last hundred years of Roman power Christianity became firmly established across Britain. The conversion of Anglo-Saxon to Christianity began at the end of the sixth century. In 597 the Roman Pope sent 40 monks to Britain to convert the people. The monks landed in Kent and it became the first Anglo-Saxon Kingdom to be converted. The first church was built in the town of Canterbury, capital of Kent. Augustine became the first Archbishop of Canterbury in 601 (he died in 604 and later was canonized).

What king made use of the Church?

Alfred the Great (849-899), the King who ruled Wessex from 871 till 899 used the literate men of the Church to help to establish a system of law, to educate people and write down important matters. He sent for skilled workmen and builders and scholars from abroad; he had translations made from Latin books into Anglo-Saxon; he arranged for records of the chief events of each year to be kept in monasteries – the famous "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle", and he started a school for the sons of thegns*. Alfred is also noted for his laws, the Dooms of Alfred, which were inspired by the codes of Æthelberht of Kent, Ine of Wessex, and Offa of Mercia.

What was the first book translated into Anglo-Saxon from Latin?

The Bible. It was translated in the 5th century. In 1538 an English language version of the Bible replaced Latin Bibles in every church in the land.

The earliest surviving renderings in English of passages of the Bible are by Anglo-Saxon homilist** Aelfric (955-1010), ecclesiastic, called Grammaticus. His works include the Catholic Homilities (two sets of sermons), Lives of the Saints, and a Latin grammar. William Tyndale* translated the New Testament (published 1525) from Greek and the first five books of the Old Testament from Hebrew. From 1571 to 1611 the Bishops'

Bible (1568) was the official version. The Hampton Court conference (1604) commissioned the Authorized* (or King James) Version of the Bible (1611) which quickly became the standard English Bible. The New English Bible (completed 1970) attempts to combine the best modern international scholarship with a contemporary idiom.

What Anglo-Saxon folk epic is the earliest work of literature in English?

"Beowulf". It dates from the 7-8 centuries. Nowadays it is kept in the British Museum.

What is the greatest written monument of Anglo-Saxon folklore?

"Beowulf". It is a mythological poem, which is written in the West Saxon dialect of Old English (8-10 c.). The author combined the floating legends of those times into one epic whole. The poem consists of 3 major stories, which tell of the battles of the most famous of all heroes (Beowulf) with the monster (Grendel), Grendle's mother (a water-troll) and a dragon. In the last battle Beowulf received a fatal wound. Nowadays the handwriting is exhibited in the British Museum.

802-839	Egbert*
839-858	Ethelwulf*
858-860	Ethelbald*
860-865	Ethelbert*
865-871	Ethelred*
871-899	Alfred the Great*
901-924	Edward the Elder*
924-939	Athelstan*
939-946	Edmund I*
946-955	Ed red*
955-959	Edwy*
959-975	Edgar*
975-978	Edward the Martyr*
978-1016	Ethelred “the Unready”*
1016	Edmund II, Ironside*

Who were the fourth invaders of Britain?

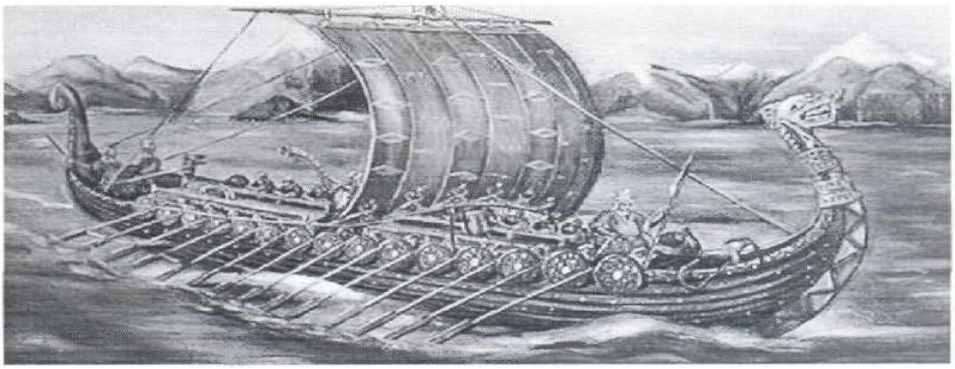
The Danes who came from Scandinavian countries – Norway, Sweden and Denmark were called differently in different countries – the Normans, the Northmen and the Vikings. In the English history the invaders came to be known as the Danes.

Since 793 they started to come every spring and stayed till winter. Strange ships began appearing in the bays along the coasts of Britain. They were strongly built of oak, and from 40 to 60 oarsmen** sat on the **rowers’ benches. They had tall curved prows**, usually carved in the shapes of dragons.

London was invaded in 842. In 855 they stayed for the winter and in 865 they came to conquer Britain and to settle there. These dragon ships, as they were often called, usually appeared in a bay at about dawn. As soon as the ships reached the beach, tall blond men jumped out, shouting battle cries. Armed with swords and battle-axes, they attacked the sleeping villagers. They killed many of them captured some of the youths and

maidens, and gathered all the loot** that their ships could carry. They burnt churches and monasteries along the coast of Britain and Ireland. Then they sailed away.

These marauders, or pirates, came from Scandinavia – what is now Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. The people were called Norsemen, or Northmen. Those Norsemen who took part in these swift, cruel raids along the coast were called Vikings. Their expression for this type of warfare was to "go a-viking". *Vik* in Norse means "harbor**" or "bay". The Vikings came to be the most feared raiders of their time and were the only Norsemen with whom most Europeans came in contact. Their name was given to the era that dated from about AD 740 to about 1050 – the Viking Age.



A Viking raiding ship of the 8th century leaves Norway on an expedition to foreign lands

Historians select the year 954 as the end of the first great episode in the Viking history of England. A hundred and twenty years had passed since the impact of the Vikings had smitten the Island. For forty years English Christian society had struggled for life. For eighty years five warrior kings – Alfred, Edward, Athelstan, Edmund, and Edred – defeated the invaders. The English rule was now restored, though in a form changed by the passage of time, over the whole country. Yet underneath it there had grown up, deeply rooted in the soil, a Danish settlement covering the great eastern plain, in which Danish blood and Danish customs survived under the authority of the English king.

In the brilliant and peaceful reign of Edgar (957-975) all this long building had reached its culmination. The reconquest of England was accompanied step by step by a conscious administrative reconstruction which has governed the development of English institutions from that day to this. Finally, with this military and political revival marched a great rebirth of monastic life and learning and the beginning of the native English literature. Another and happy result was to promote the production of splendid illuminated** manuscripts which were much in demand in

contemporary Europe. From whatever point of view the tenth century might be regarded a decisive step forward in the destinies of England.

Alfred the Great

Reign	23 April 871 – 26 October 899
Born	ca. 849 / The Royal Palace, Wantage, Oxfordshire
Died	26 October 899 (around 50) Winchester

When Alfred came to the throne of Wessex, aged 22 in AD 871, his kingdom and the whole of Anglo-Saxon England, was seemingly at the mercy of Viking invaders. Nonetheless, he managed to contain and then drive back the Viking threat and to rule with wisdom and energy for almost three decades. In his reign, learning was revived in England and the incomparable Anglo-Saxon Chronicle begun. He is the only monarch in English history to have been awarded the epithet 'Great'.

One of Alfred's first acts as king was to "buy peace" by bribing the Vikings. This brought rest for a few years, while the Vikings were conquering Mercia. But in 877 the Vikings renewed the attack which led them to a defeat. Under the peace treaty that followed the Vikings pledged not to attack Wessex, but they remained in strength in other English kingdoms, establishing themselves in East Anglia and the lands to the north and east of Watling Street, the Roman road running from London in the south-east to Chester in the north-west. Here, in the 'Danelaw' (roughly modern Yorkshire, east Midlands and East Anglia), they flourished, establishing several prosperous settlements.

Alfred meanwhile set about strengthening the military defences of Wessex. He built several fortified towns, reorganized the army, and created an English navy consisting of maneuverable warships of his own design, each with 60 oars. The navy proved worth in AD 986 by defeating a powerful Danish Viking fleet.

The revival of learning

Alfred was able to provide stability for the people of Wessex and his kingdom came to be known for its just royal laws and honest administration. He published an English law code. His coins recognized

him as “King of all the English”, and he was accepted as king of all Englishmen and women not subject to the Danes.

Alfred demanded that free-born English boys should have the chance to learn through reading, and he established schools. He saw that the books in his words “most necessary for all men to know” should be made available to his people.

King Alfred learned Latin at the age of 38 in order to translate the “Pastoral Care or Rule” by Pope Gregory the Great, and sent a copy of his translation to every bishop in the kingdom.

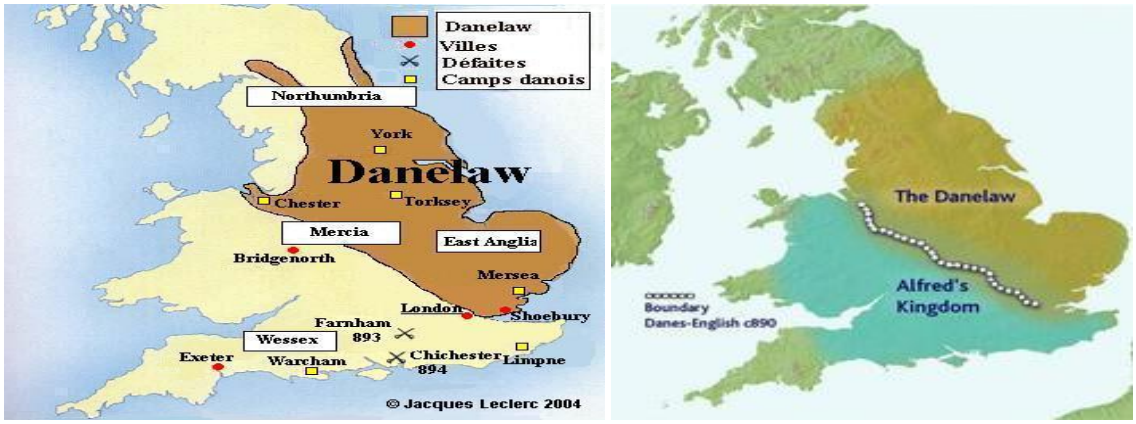
A key part of his commitment to knowledge was his sponsorship of the vast Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, a historical record of England which went as far back as the Roman invasion.

In the words of his biographer he was an ‘immovable pillar of the people of the west, a just man, an energetic warrior, full of learning in speech, above all instructed in divine knowledge.’

Dooms

King Alfred’s Book of Laws, or Dooms, attempted to blend the Mosaic code with Christian principles and old Germanic customs. He inverted the Golden Rule. Instead of “Do unto others as you would that they should do unto you,” he adopted the less ambitious principle, “What ye will that other men should not do to you, that do ye not to other men.” The result of Alfred’s work was the future mingling of Saxon and Dane in a common Christian England. In the grim time of Norman overlordship the figure of the great Alfred was a beacon-light, the bright symbol of Saxon achievement, the hero of the race. The ruler who had taught them courage and self-reliance** in the eternal Danish wars, who had sustained** them with his national and religious faith, who had given them laws and good governance and chronicled their heroic deeds, was celebrated in legend and song as Alfred the Great.

What is the Danelaw?



During the reign of Alfred the Great (849-99), King of Wessex (871-99), the first British navy was built and a war fleet of ships larger and faster than those of the Danes protected the island. In the treaty, which followed in 886 the Danes promised to leave Wessex and a part of Mercia. They settled in the north-eastern part of England, a region which was from that time called the Danelaw, because it was ruled according to the law of the Danes. And by 890 Alfred's authority was acknowledged overall of the remainder of England. The great Roman Road, "Watling Street", was the boundary that separated the Danelaw from Wessex. The Danes influenced the development of the country greatly. They were good sailors and trades and they were skilful shipbuilders. Gradually they accepted Christianity and did not disturb the local population.

What is the Danegeld?

In the second half of the tenth century the Saxon monarchy was further consolidated and the Anglo-Saxons won several victories over the Danes, took away the Danelaw and ruled over the whole England. The Danes were not driven out of the country but they were made subjects of Wessex. At the end of the tenth century the Danish invasions were resumed**. This time the Anglo-Saxon kings were unable to defeat the Danes and by paying a tribute bought peace from them. This money was called Danegeld and is recalled as s shameful period in the British history (978-1017).

It is estimated that the total amount of money paid by the Anglo-Saxons amounted to some sixty million pence.

The runestone in Orkesta, Uppland, Sweden, raised in memory of the Viking Ulf of Borresta, says that he had taken three danegelds in England. The first one was with Skagul Toste, the second one with Thorkell the Tall and the last one with Canute the Great

The runestone, in a grove near Väsby, Uppland, Sweden, was raised by a Viking in commemoration of his receiving one danegeld in England

When did England become a part of the Great Danish Empire?

In 1016 England was submitted to a Danish King-Canute (1016-1035) and became a part of the Great Danish Empire which included

Denmark and Norway. However, this union was artificial one and ended with the death of the king.

THE HOUSE OF DANISH

1016-35	Canute (Cnut)*
1035-40	Harold I*
1040-42	Harthacanute*

The Danes would probably have wiped out Christianity in England if it had not been for Alfred the Great, king of Wessex. The Danes promised also to be baptized, and many did become Christians.

While the Danes were invading England, other Norsemen raided the coast of France. On the southern shore of the English Channel* they established the Duchy of Normandy. These Norsemen, or Normans, became French in language and culture. In the 1lth century the Duchy of Normandy was rich, populous, and powerful.

When Edward the Confessor died childless, William, *duke* of Normandy, claimed the English crown. He was a second cousin of Edward, and he had exacted an oath from Harold, earl of Wessex, to support his claim. The English Witan nevertheless elected Harold king. William appealed to the pope. The pope supported William and declared Harold guilty of perjury.

William gathered together a "host of horsemen, slingers, and archers" and set sail for England. Harold met him with foot soldiers armed with battle-axes. The two armies clashed in the famous battle of Hastings on Oct. 14, 1066.

Harold was killed on the battlefield. The victorious William went up to London and was crowned king of England on Christmas Day.

When did the line of Danish kings come to an end?

At the beginning of the eleventh century England was conquered by the Danes once more. The Danish king Canute (or Cnut) (1017-1035) became King of Denmark, Norway and England. He promised to rule according to the old Anglo-Saxon laws. After his death his kingdom split up and soon afterwards Anglo-Saxon king came to the throne (1042) and the line of Danish kings came to an end.

What words of Scandinavian origin have enriched the English language?

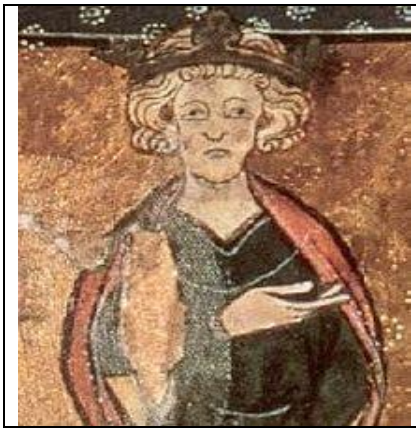
Scandinavian words: happy, law, low, loose, ill, ugly, weak, to take, to die, to call, sister, husband, sky, fellow, leg, harbor, window, wing;

-by in the place-names: Derby, Whitby, and many others.

THE HOUSE OF SAXON

1042-66	Edward the Confessor
1066	Harold II*

What do you know about Edward the Confessor (1042-1066)?



Reign	8 June 1042 – 5 January 1066
Born	c. 1003 / Islip, Oxfordshire, England
Died	5 January 1066 (aged about 62) / London, England

While Danes ruled England, Edward lived in Norman exile (1013-1041) and promised England's crown to his great nephew William of Normandy. After his half-brother's death, he took the throne in 1042, but Godwin*, Earl of Wessex really ran the country, marrying his daughter to Edward. Edward led a pious, monastic life and after Godwin's death he relied on Harold, his brother-in-law (and Godwin's son). Edward had no children and when dying he named Harold his successor. Harold II, born in 1020, became King of England on January 5, 1066, just after the death of Edward. This forceful military leader was the last Saxon King and in many senses effectively reigned 13 years but 9 months till his death in the Battle of Hastings, October 14, 1066.

Edward was canonized in 1161 by Pope Alexander III, and is commemorated on 13 October by the Roman Catholic Church, the Church of England and other Anglican Churches. He is regarded as the patron saint of kings, difficult marriages, and separated spouses. From the reign of Henry II of England (1154-1189) to 1348 he had been considered to be the patron saint of England, when he was replaced in this role by Saint George, and he has remained the patron saint of the Royal Family.

Who founded Westminster Abbey?

Edward the Confessor (1042-1066). He was born in Oxfordshire about 1003. Edward lived in exile (1013-1041) while Danes ruled in

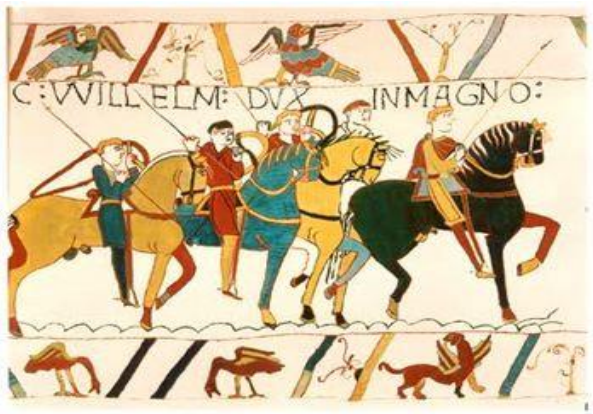
England. In return for Norman support Edward promised England's crown to his great-nephew William of Normandy in 1051, but in his last years he relied heavily on the royal brother-in-law Harold. The dying monarch named Harold his successor, who remained in power from January 5 till October 14 1066.

Edward founded Westminster Abbey and led a pious monastic life. He was canonized in 1161.

When did the last invasion start and who were the fifth invaders of Britain?

On 14 October 1066 the Battle of Hastings took place. This Battle began the Norman conquest of Britain.

The English army under King Harold II was defeated by the troops of William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy. The battle ended when Harold was killed by an arrow, which landed in his eye. With his death ended England's 600 years of rule by Anglo-Saxon kings. The battle was a decisive Norman victory.



The famous Bayeux Tapestry* depicts the events before and during the battle. An abbey, known as Battle Abbey in East Sussex, was subsequently built on the site of the conflict.

Normans

A ruling dynasty, descended from the Viking Rollo whose rule over territories that formed the nucleus of later Normandy was recognized by Charles the Simple in 911. Duke William claimed the English throne in 1066 on the death of Edward the Confessor (who had probably promised him the crown) and defeated and killed Harold II at Hastings. William (I) the Conqueror, as he is called, and his sons William II and Henry I established the Anglo-Norman state in England. Under William I and again under Henry I, after he had defeated his eldest brother Duke Robert Curthose (1106), the duchy and kingdom were ruled as one. Norman rule was harsh but largely successful until the misfortunes of Stephen, son of William I's daughter and last of the line.

Across the country the Normans raised imposing castles to keep their peace. In 1067-1068 William built castles in Exeter, Warwick, Nottingham, York, Lincoln, Huntingdon and Cambridge. In the course of his reign, William raised 78 castles, including the White Tower, now the heart of the Tower of London, and the New Castle near the mouth of the

river Tyne that gave its name to Newcastle. In 1066 these were 4000 landowning thegns* in King Harold's country, but by 1087 (the year of William's death) this territory had been appropriated and shared out among 200 French aristocrats; only two Anglo-Saxon landowners remained.

What is the role of 5 invasions in the formation of the Brirish national character?

Only history helps to understand how one nation can be simultaneously so ***aristocratic*** (Normans) and so ***democratic*** (Saxons); how ***fidelity**** ***to traditions and practical calculation*** can get along well; how a vendour** can be balanced by a conqueror, and a layman** – by a daydreamer.

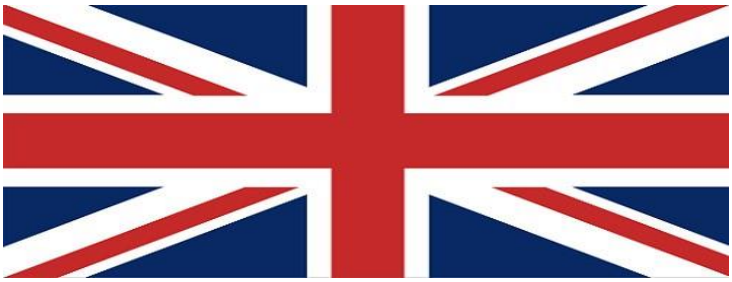
- ***Celts*** – visionaries, dreamers
- ***Saxons*** – sober**, practically-minded. It is because of them that the English language inherited an inclination to everything natural, simple, prosaic efficiency, fidelity to traditions, sticking to the hearth as the symbol of personal independence
- ***Vikings*** – passion for adventures – call of the sea, romantic attraction towards far-off shores
- ***Normans*** – people of action, and considered the ability to keep one's own feelings under control to be one of the cardinal virtues

In the English character a practical Anglo-Saxon is fused with a Celtic dreamer, a pirate-bold Viking with a disciplined Norman.

ROYAL DYNASTIES (HOUSES) AND ENGLAND'S MONARCHS XI – XXI CENTURIES

ENGLAND STARTED late in the race for empire and dominion. No one, looking at a map of Europe in the year 1500 – which is about when the race for territory and colonies in Africa and Asia and the New World began – would have thought that it would be this little fog-bound island off the northern coast of Europe that would win out over all her rivals and extend her power, plant her institutions, impress her character on every continent and the islands of every sea. How remarkable it is that men and women on the prairies of western United States and Canada, in the Australian hinterland, on the streets of Toronto or of Bombay or of Johannesburg, speak the English language, and that English is rapidly coming to be the common language of the civilized world. Judges in San Francisco and Melbourne and Trinidad and Malta apply the English common law, and a hundred nations, new and old alike, chose to live under the English parliamentary system of government. These are triumphs that dwarf the military conquests of an Alexander, an Augustus, a Mohammed or a Napoleon.

(Churchill's history of the English-speaking people)



Monarchy – from Greek words monos, meaning "alone", and archein, "to be first" or "to rule", a form of government.
Sovereignty – the supreme power of a state over its subjects, vested** in the king in an absolute monarchy and in the people in a democracy.*

*King – a male sovereign of a nation, tribe, or territory; title usually hereditary** and for life; comes from Anglo-Saxon, cyning** meaning belonging to the tribe.*

*Queen – title given to a woman sovereign of a state; queen regnant**, queen in her own right; queen consort**, wife of a king; queen dowager**, widow of a king; queen mother, a queen dowager, who is mother of a king or queen.*

This royal throne of kings, this scepter'd isle,
This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars,
This other Eden, demi-paradise,
This fortress built by Nature for herself
Against infection and the hand of war,
This happy breed of men, this little world,
This precious stone set in the silver sea,
Which serves it in the office of a wall,
Or as a moat defensive to a house,
Against the envy of less happier lands,
This blessed plot, this earth, this realm, this England,
This nurse, this teeming womb of royal kings,
Pear'd by their breed and famous by their birth,
Renowned for – their deeds as far from home,–
For Christian service and true chivalry,–
*As is the sepulcher** in stubborn Jewry***
Of the world's ransom, blessed Mary's Son:
This land of such dear souls, this dear, dear land,
Dear for her reputation through the world,
Is now leased out, I die pronouncing it,
Like to be a tenement, or pelting farm:
England, bound in with the triumphant sea,
Whose rocky shore beats back the envious siege
Of watery Neptune, is now bound in with shame,
With inky blots, and rotten parchment bonds:
That England, that was wont to conquer others,
Hath made a shameful conquest of itself.
Ah! Would the scandal vanish wiyh my life,
How happy then were my ensuing death.
(WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE,
John of Gaunt's dying Speech,
RICHARD II, (II. I.)

Подумать лишь, – что царственный сей остров,
Страна величия, обитель Марса,
Трон королевский, сей второй Эдем,
Противу зол и ужасов войны
Самой природой сложенная крепость,
Счастливейшего племени отчизна,
Сей мир особый, дивный сей алмаз
В серебряной оправе океана,
Который, словно замковой стеной
Иль рвом защитным ограждает остров
От зависти не столь счастливых стран;
Что Англия, священная земля,
Взрастившая великих венценосцев,
Могучий род британских королей,
Прославленных деяниями своими
Во имя рыцарства и христианства
Далеко за пределами страны, –
До родины упорных иудеев,
Где был господь спаситель погребен;
Что эта драгоценная земля,
Страна великих душ, жилище славы,
Теперь сдана – мне в этом слове смерть, –
В аренду, словно жалкое поместье!
Та Англия, что скована была
Лишь торжествующей стихией моря
И берег чей всегда давал отпор
Завистливому натиску Нептуна, –
Она позором скована теперь,
Опутана бумажными цепями!
Та Англия, что побеждала всех,
Сама себя постыдно победила
О, сели бы исчез со мною вместе
И этот стыд, – я смерти был бы рад

!

THE HOUSE OF NORMAN

Norman dynasty which immediately followed the Norman Conquest and lasted until the Plantagenet dynasty came to power in 1154. It included William the Conqueror and his heirs down through 1134. After that it was disputed between William's grandchildren, Matilda and Stephen of the House of Blois* (or Blesevin dynasty).

1066-1087	William I the Conqueror
1087-1100	William II Rufus
1100-1135	Henry I
1135-1154	Stephen

William I, the Conqueror

Reign	Duke of the Normans: 3 July 1035 – 9 September 1087 King of the English: 25 December 1066 – 9 September 1087
Born	c. 1027 / Château de Falaise, Falaise, Normandy, France
Died	9 September 1087 (aged c.60) Convent of St. Gervais, Rouen, France

William of Normandy, known as William the Conqueror, was crowned King William I (1066-1087) in London on Christmas Day, December 25, and became the first king of England. Although William was crowned king his conquest had only just begun, and the fighting lasted for another five years.

Illegitimate son of Robert, the duke of Normandy, he married his cousin Matilda of Flanders in 1053. They had four children: Robert, William, Henry and Adela. William succeeded his father as duke of Normandy in 1035. He visited Edward the Confessor of England in 1051, when he was almost certainly promised the English throne. In 1066, with the backing of the papacy, William claimed his right and landed an invasion force. He defeated and killed his rival, King Harold at Hastings on the 14th of October, and later was crowned in Westminster Abbey (on

Christmas Day the same year). The Norman Conquest was not, however, completed.

William established a new Anglo-Norman state. England became a strong, centralized country under military rule. Castles appeared all over England to enforce Norman rule. He was a harsh ruler: he destroyed many villages to make sure the English people didn't rebel. The Normans' power was absolute and the language of the new rulers, Norman-French, has had a lasting influence on English.

William I replaced the Witenagemont ['witinege' mout] Witan (Anglo-Saxon) by the Great Council, made up of bishops and barons.

William faced a number of English revolts during the years 1067-1071, which he ruthlessly crushed. He ruled for 21 years.He spent most of the last 15 years of his life in Normandy and died of an injury received while campaigning against Philip I of France. He was buried in Saint-Étienne de Caen on the 12th of September 1087. Before he died he reputedly confessed his brutality with some remorse, saying: "I am stained** with the rivers of blood that I have spilled." His unfortunate mourners left the building gagging** after King's fat and decomposing** body burst its sarcophagus, emitting a stench of rotting flesh.

How did William divide the land?

Of all the farmland of England he gave half to the Norman nobles, a quarter to the Church, and kept a fifth for himself.

What was central idea of the feudal system according to which William organized his English kingdom?

The central idea was that all land was owned by the king but it was held by others, called "vassals", in return for their service. The king gave large estates to his main nobles in return for a promise to serve him in war for up to forty days. The nobles also had to give him part of the produce of the land. The greater nobles gave part of their lands to lesser nobles, knights, and other "freemen".

What book was given the name of the Doomsday Book by the people?

In 1086 William ordered to make a survey of his new realm "The Discription of All England", to estimate the value of manors not only in terms of land, men, and animals, but also in terms of cash. He sent his people to register all his vassals' property to have an idea of the amount of his possessions. The officers who put down the records were meticulous** and merciless. Moreover, the necessary information in each shire was collected for the royal officials by a special commission of the wealthiest and most respectable representatives of the community. The survey was dubbed "The

Domesday Book" by his subjects because there was no escaping it, just like the Day of Judgement. The Anglo-Saxons were afraid of the registration and hated it. They were threatened to be severely punished for false information as on the last day of the world God would judge them. This remarkable survey was completed in less than a year and presented to William on 1 August 1086. The book is considered to be the most enduring administrative achievement of the Middle Ages. It consists of two volumes: Volume I – Great Domesday and VolumeII – Little Domesday. It was on view to the public in the British Museum Library in London. Now it is kept at the Public Office in London, where most official records are allowed to be seen by the public after 30 years.

"Domesday Book", engraving after a line drawing, from Andrew Williams, *Historic Byways and Highways of Old England*, 1900.

Doom – in the Anglo-Saxon period, a judicial judgment. Anglo-Saxon laws, such as those used by King Alfred were called dooms.

William II Rufus

	**Reign**	9 September 1087–2 August 1100 (13 years)
	Born	1056/1060 / Normandy, France
	Died	2 August 1100 (1100-08-02) (aged c. 43–44) The New Forest, England

On his deathbed, William I is supposed to have left the English crown to his second son, William, while giving Normandy to his eldest son Robert Curthose*, and giving his third son, Henry, no land but the compensation of £5000. William secured the crown for himself before Robert could act. Travelling swiftly to England from Normandy, he was crowned King in Westminster Abbey on 26 September 1087. William spent some years fighting on and off in Normandy to seize his brother's lands and reunite their father's inheritance. In 1096 Robert Curthose joined the First Crusade. Before Robert returned from the Crusade, William was dead – perhaps assassinated in the New Forest. The fateful arrow was loosed by William's friend and struck him in the chest. William died at once. However, suspicion is inevitable that William's brother Henry, who was in the party and who subsequently became king, was somehow involved in the "accident". Crucially, the "accident" happened while the rightful heir, Duke

Robert Curthose of Normandy, was away on the First Crusade. (William's friend was never punished)

William II was nicknamed "Rufus" (Latin for 'red' because his hair was red).

Henry I

Reign	3 August 1100 – 1 December 1135
Born	1068/1069 - Selby, Yorkshire
Died	1 December 1135 (aged 66-67) Saint-Denis-en-Lyons, Normandy

The youngest son of William the Conqueror was born in England. His nickname, Beau clerc, which means "good scholar", was given him because of fine education.

The first years of King Henry's reign were clouded by doubt over his succession and by revolts led by barons seeking to put Duke Robert Curthose of Normandy (William the Confessor's eldest son) on the throne. These were ended by Henry's defeat of Robert in 1106. Life at Henry's court was more sober and he was a loyal patron of the church. He sponsored the rebuilding of Canterbury Cathedral choir, a project that was completed in 1130.

At his accession** Henry I issued the famous "Charter of Liberties", which, over a hundred years later, was used as the foundation of the liberties of the Anglo-Saxon world.

Although Henry had fathered 21 children, only two of them were legitimate William and Matilda. Prince William sank in the Channel on his way to England from Normandy on board the *White Ship in 1120, which ran on to a rock. Everyone on board died, apart whom one Rouen butcher.

King Henry I died in December 1135 after overindulging** in eating lampreys**. Although his daughter Matilda was his official heir, many barons instead supported the claim of Henry's nephew Count Stephen of Blois.

Stephen

Reign	22 December 1135 – April 1141 (5 Years) November 1141 – 25 October 1154
Born	1096 / Blois, France
Died	25 October 1154 (aged 57–58) / Dover, Kent

Son of Stephen, count of Blois, and Adela, daughter of William the Confessor, he was brought up at the court of his uncle Henry I. Before the death Henry I in 1135 all the leading English barons had sworn to him to support the Empress Matilda as Queen, who at that time was married to Count Geoffrey of Anjou, nicknamed "Plantagenet" because he used the broom plant (Latin 'planta genista') as his family emblem. But on learning of his uncle death, count Stephen sailed to England and was crowned in Westminster Abbey on 26 December 1135. This plunged** the country into a bitter civil war that lasted through almost all the years of his reign. The key years were 1147-1148, and 1153 when Stephen lost his only heir with the death of his beloved Eustace. By the treaty of *Winchester (1153), following Eustace's death, King Stephen agreed that Empress Matilda's son Henry Plantagenet would inherit the throne. The following year, on 25 October 1154 King Stephen (who had never been a good ruler) died and Henry was recognized as King Henry II.

THE HOUSE OF PLANTAGENETE

When Henry, Duke of Normandy, Count of Anjou was crowned King Henry II of England in 1154, he founded England's longest reigning dynasty, that of Plantagenets. The House of Plantagenet ruled for 331 years until 1485, supplying 14 English kings. The name Plantagenet came from a nickname for Henry II's father, Geoffrey, Count of Anjou who wore a sprig** of broom** (plante genet) in his cap. The first three Plantagenet kings – Henry II, son of Geoffrey and Matilda, Richard I, and John – are usually styled Angevins and reserve the title 'Plantagenet' for the succeeding kings (Henry III, Edward I, Edward II, Edward III and Richard II). The three Plantagenets who were descendants of the Duke of Lancaster are identified as the House of Lancaster (Henry IV, Henry V and Henry VI), and the final three, descendants of the Duke of York, as the House of York (Edward IV, Edward V and Richard III). Nonetheless, all were Plantagenets.

Armorial of Plantagenet

1154-1189	Henry II
1189-1199	Richard I the Lionheart
1199-1216	John Lackland
1216-1272	Henry III
1272-1307	Edward I Longshanks
1307-1327	Edward II
1327-1371	Edward III
1377-1399	Richard II

Henry II

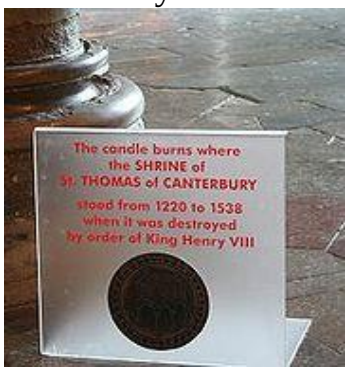
Reign	19 December 1154 – 6 July 1189
Born	5 March 1133 / Le Mans, France
Died	6 July 1189 (aged 56) / Chinon, France

Henry II was born to Matilda and Geoffrey Plantegenet, Count of Anjou. It meant that his possessions included England, Normandy, Anjou, Tourain and Maine. Later he acquired Aquitaine through his marriage to Eleanor of Aquitaine*, the former wife of Louis VII of France. Then he conquered Brittany and Ireland. He ruled over such a large territory that no English king had ever possessed before. He also made a series of legal reforms that created the foundation of the English "common law" that has endured for centuries. To replace the existing local courts presided over by the barons, he established royal courts with the King's officials travelling on a circuit** to bring impartial** justice to all parts of the realm. Trial by a 12-man jury was introduced in 1166. But to the end of his reign he had to face a serious trouble. In 1173 his aging wife Eleanor encouraged a rebekkion by his elder sons to resist their father's tyranny. Survived this revolt but a second family rebellion in 1189 sent him to his deathbed. He fell ill and agreed to give Richard, the eldest son, everything he wanted though he had planned to pass his crown to the youngest son John. It is said that when he discovered that his favourite youngest son, John, had joined the alliance against him, it broke his heart and two days later he died. His final words were "Shame, shame on a vanquished king". He died forgotten by everybody.

Henry II and Thomas Becket

Thomas Becket (1118-1170) was Henry II's friend and had been helping his king for the first eight years of his rule. Henry appointed him Chancellor in 1155 and later the Archbishop of Canterbury. They quarreled because Thomas Becket felt that Henry II was trying to obtain power over the Church of England. He insisted that only the Church could appoint bishops and that only ecclesiastical** courts should try clergy**, and condemned** Henry II for his acting against the Church. Becket went into exile (1164) in France, but returned to England in 1170, at the King's invitation. Hostility remained, however, and once in a moment of rage,

Henry is reported to have cried out, “Will no one rid me of this turbukent priest?”. This remark moved four of his knights to murder the archbishop in Canterbury Cathedral* on 29 December, 1170. Papal legates found that Henry was not responsible for the murder, and the king made a public act of penance** at Becket’s tomb in Canterbury Cathedral in July 1174. Since then Becket’s tomb has been attracted by pilgrims from all over Europe.



Candle marking the former spot of the shrine of Thomas Becket, at Canterbury Cathedral

Richard I the Lionheart

Reign	6 July 1189 – 6 April 1199
Born	8 September 1157 / Beaumont Palace, Oxford
Died	6 April 1199 (aged 41) / Châlus, Limousin

King Richard I is known as the English warrior-king, dubbed “Lion Heart” for his chivalrous achievements on the Third Crusade (1190-1192) and on the battlefields of Europe. In fact, he spent only six months of his 10-year reign in England. The third son of Henry II and Eleanor of Aquitaine, as duke of Aquitaine he twice took up arms against his father: in 1173-1174, when he joined his brothers in revolt, and in 1189, when he allied** with Philip II of France against Henry. In 1190 Richard set out on the third Crusade and all his life he spent in battles. He died from wounds received while attacking the castle at Chalus*.

Richard’s campaigns placed a heavy burden on England’s finances and began the break-up of Angevin* empire. His release from prison in Austria was made subject to payment of a king’s ransom of 150000 marks (the equivalent of 35 tonnes of gold). His absences abroad led to a growth in the independence of the administration and of the baronial party with which Richard’s successor John was to come to blows.

John of England

Reign	6 April 1199 – 19 October 1216 (17 years, 196 days)
Born	24 December 1167 / Beaumont Palace, Oxford
Died	19 October 1216 (aged 48) Newark Castle, Newark-on-Trent, Nottinghamshire

John was the youngest of King Henry II's sons, and because his older brothers received large territorial inheritances and he was given nothing, he was nicknamed "Lackland".

At Richard I's death he secured the throne, despite the claims of their youthful nephew Arthur of Brittany. Circumstances did not aid John, and flaws in his own character added to his problems. He was unpredictable and at times inactive, although gifted with considerable ability. Vicious, shameless, and ungrateful, King John has been called the worst king ever to rule England. Yet the very excesses** of his reign proved positive in that they provoked such a violent reaction that his subjects revolted and forced him to put his seal on the "Magna Carta". In 1214 John launched** an ill-fated attempt to regain his French possessions that ended with the defeat of his German ally. His campaigns extremely expensive and John's English subjects were restless under the weight of taxation that he imposed to finance his constant wars. In 1215 a revolt by leading barons forced John to agree to a charter of liberties, "Magna Carta" (Great Charter). This document became the safeguard of English liberty. John had no intentions of supporting the charter, however. He recruited a new army and destroyed the estates of the barons. In the midst of a war, John died of a fever. The task of restoring the torn kingdom fell to his nine-year-old-son, Henry III.

What civil and political liberties did the Great Charter (Magna Charta) guarantee?

The Great Charter (or Magna Charta) is the charter of privileges signed by the King John Lackland (1199-1216) on the 15th of June 1215, according to which he pledged himself to relieve the barons of oppressive obligations as vassals of the crown; the barons, in their turn, pledged themselves to relieve their vassals the people, to respect the liberties of London and all other cities; to protect foreign merchants who came to England; to imprison no man without a fair trial and to deny justice to no one. Far more important was the agreement of the king not to impose new

taxes without the consent of the barons. This agreement was broken by king Henry III (1216-1272) in 1258. The charter, which was reissued in 1216, 1217, 1225 and in 1237 turned out to be the first step in establishing constitutional government in England. It stated that the law had force independently of the will of the king. The document is kept in the British Museum. (But King John broke the Charter immediately). The barons rebelled again. John was very much upset by his mistakes and on the 19th of October 1216 he died.

Henry III

Reign	18 October 1216 – 16 November 1272 (56 years, 29 days)
Born	1 October 1207 / Winchester Castle, Hampshire
Died	16 November 1272 (aged 65) / Westminster, London

The elder son of King John and grandson of Henry II was a weak and incompetent ruler. He was born in Winchester on Oct. 1, 1207. Until he came of age, in 1227, the government was in the hands of regents.

In 1236 Henry married *Eleanor of Provence**. His extravagance, his lavish gifts to favorites and to his wife's French relatives, and an unsuccessful war in France in 1242 caused mounting opposition to him. In 1258 a group of barons, led by Simon de Montfort, agreed to grant the king money only if he accepted the Provisions of Oxford, a body of reforms to be carried out by a commission of barons. It was actually *the first Parliament* of England.

Henry repudiated the reform measures in 1261. In the Barons' War that followed, King Henry III and his son Edward were captured at Lewes in 1264, and for a year De Montfort became the effective ruler of England. At this time he called a Parliament that, in addition to barons and clerics, held two burgesses** from each borough and two knights from each shire. However, in the summer of 1265 Prince Edward escaped and rescued his father. After the defeat and death of Simon in 1265, Henry was restored to the throne. Thereafter, however, the gifted and respected Edward was king in all but name. Henry was a pious and highly cultured man, whose 56-year reign was a golden age of learning, architecture and arts. Henry's reign saw major work on the magnificent cathedrals at St.Alban's Salisbury, Lincoln

and Wells in Somerset. Under this cultured king, the first colleges in Oxford University – Merton, University and Balliol – were founded in the years between 1249 and 1264. Henry died at Westminster, on Nov. 16. 1272.

When was the first English Parliament Summoned?

In January 1265 by Simon de Montfort (1208-1265), who was an earl of Leicester and was one of the leaders of barons' opposition to King Henry III (1216-1272). In the civil war (1264-1265) Simon's forces defeated those of the king at the battle of Lewes (1264). It was under these circumstances that Simon summoned the first English parliament. Simon de Montfort* was killed by Prince Edward.

Edward I

Reign	16 November 1272 – 7 July 1307 (34 years, 233 days)
Born	17/18 June 1239 / Palace of Westminster, London, England
Died	7 July 1307 (aged 68)/ Burgh by Sands, Cumberland, England

Edward I was one of England's greatest kings. He was a handsome man, with fair hair and ruddy cheeks, and so tall (1,9 m) – an astonishing height for the 13th century – and was admiringly nicknamed Longshanks**. He delighted in tournaments and hunting, but he was also practical and hardworking. For seven years before he came to the throne, he was the real ruler for his weak father, Henry III. He was in the Holy Land involved in the Crusades when his father died, but there was no question that he would take the throne. Aged 33, a proven warrior he was declared king on 17 November 1272.

At home Edward carried out much needed legal reforms, improved the efficiency of administration and is remembered as the king in whose reign Parliament's role in government was consolidated.

He was called the "English Justinian" and "Lawgiver" because, like the Roman emperor Justinian, he organized the laws. His laws were not restatements of existing customs but statutes in the modern sense. Many of them, particularly the land laws, had a long-lasting influence. Edward also stopped paying a feudal tribute to the pope.

Under Edward, the great Common Law courts took shape. He was the first truly English king who proved a masterful ruler, military genius and great legislator, taking advice from able lawyers.

Parliament grew in strength because he continued the policy of Simon de Montfort in summoning to it representatives of the towns and lesser knights. His parliament of 1295 is known as the *Model Parliament.* In 1297 he reaffirmed the Magna Carta in the famous confirmation of the charters. Not all of Edward's moves were fair and admirable ones, however; he forced Jews out of England in 1290.

Soon after coming to the throne, Edward brought a ferocious martial** vigour to his reign, forcefully imposing his authority on his realm, ending Welsh independence and waging a series of brutal wars in the north that later earned him the nickname "Hammer of the Scots".

Who brought together the first Parliament?

Edward I (1272-1307). During his reign there were not only lords, bishops and great abbots present in Parliament, but there were also "Commons". He was the first to create a "representative institution" in 1295. This institution would become the House of Commons. Unlike the House of Lords it contained a mixture of "gentry**" (knights and other wealthy freemen from shires) and burgesses-citizens from each town. They were the growing class of bourgeois-traders, merchants. Its origin lay in the requirement that taxation must be consented to by those who have to pay it. In 1275 Edward I commanded each shire and each town (or borough) to send two representatives to his Parliament. The 1295 Parliament was called Model Parliament, though it assured continuity of the 1265 Parliament of Simon de Montfort.

Relationships between England and Scotland were similar to those between England and Wales, but the Scots had a greater degree of independence. From 1296 to his death Edward fought to conquer the Northern Kingdom. He seized the national treasure – the **Stone of Destiny* from the **Scone Abbey* (1296), defeated John de Balliol* the same year and William Wallace* (1298) but he died on his way to subdue Robert the Bruce*. (The Stone of Scone was returned back to Scotland in 1996). According to a Celtic legend, the stone traveled to Scotland from the Holy Land and in about 840 AD was brought to the village of Scone [u:] where it was encased in the seat of Scottish coronation chair. Edward I invaded Scotland in 1296 and moved the Stone to London where it had been kept under the coronation chair in Westminster Abbey.

By whom and when was Wales united with England?

In 1284 Edward I united western Wales with England, bringing the English laws to newly conquered lands. On the 7th of February 1301 he

created for his son Edward, born at *Caernarvon Castle (in 1284) the title of Prince of Wales and ruler of the Principality (1301-1307). Since then the eldest son of the Royal family has always been given the title "The Prince of Wales" and this is the reason why Wales is known as a "Principality".

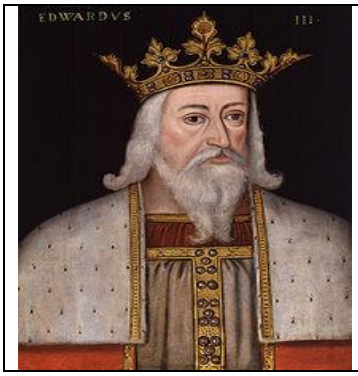
Edward II

Reign	7 July 1307 – 20 January 1327 (19 years, 197 days)
Born	25 April 1284 / Caernarfon Castle, Gwynedd
Died	21 September 1327 (aged 43) Berkeley Castle, Gloucestershire

The son of Edward I, was the first English prince of Wales. He was tall and handsome like his father, but he was a coward in battle; and in spite of his father's careful training he had no aptitude for government. His reign was one of disorder and disaster. He continued the war with Scotland that his father had begun. The Scottish leader, Bruce, defeated the English forces in the famous battle of Bannockburn (1314) and compelled Edward to recognize the independence of Scotland.

Edward is traditionally characterized as a great failure of the hereditary principles of Monarchy: he had no talent to be a king, but he was the eldest son of Edward I and succeeded his father. He angered the barons by his foolishness, his extravagance, favorites and military defeats. In 1326 the king's enemies planned a widespread revolt. They easily captured the king, and in January 1327 Parliament declared him deposed** and set in his place his young son Edward III. Eight months later the deposed king was brutally murdered.

Edward III



Reign	1 February 1327 – 21 June 1377 (50 years)
Born	13 November 1312 / Windsor Castle, Berkshire
Died	21 June 1377 (aged 64) / Sheen Palace, Richmond

His nicknames – "Edward of Windsor", "King of the sea". He had 12 children, notably Edward, the black Prince (1330-1376) – the father of Richard II (1377-1399), John of Gaunt (1340-1399) – the father of Henry IV, Thomas of Woodstock (1355-1397) and Edmund of Langley (1341-1402). He is recognized by historians as a passionate fighter, who was fond of tournaments, chivalry** and battles. He introduced the *Order of the Garter* and cultivated the spirit of chivalry at his court. English was replacing French as the native language. *Justices of the Peace* were so titled in 1360, and his Parliament first divided into Lords and Commons became fixed at Westminster, using English from 1362. Parliament was in a strong position and won a number of new powers. These included agreements in 1340 that no new taxes could be imposed without the approval of the Commons. His commercial policies stimulated the development of the Hundred Years' War (1337-1453), which was carried during the reigns of five English Kings.

Edward III became king at the age of only 14, after his mother Queen Isabella ("She-Wolf of France") and her lover, Roger Martimer, Earl of March, forced his father Edward II to abdicate**, but shortly before his 18th birthday he assumed personal control of the administration in 1330, when he had Mortimer executed and his mother exiled from power and the royal court by dispatching her to Castle Rising* in Norfolk*.

Edward proved to be a forceful king. He did much to revive the prestige of the English monarchy after his father's disastrous reign. At home he presided over a court in which chivalry, fashion and the finest literature were all celebrated, knights jousted** in single combat, courtiers wore extravagant gowns and robes, and the first great English poet, Geoffrey Chaucer, found employment as a civil servant and trusted diplomat.

Who participated in the Hundred Years' War (1337-1453): its reasons and results?

England fought against France. It was aimed mainly at security domination over Gascony, the south-west region of France and England's main supplier of wine and salt, and Flanders, the center of the wool industry and the main customer for English wool. The war ended in 1453 with the English Crown losing its possessions in France except for Calais, a northern French port, which was also later taken by the French (1558).

What were the causes and consequences of the Hundred Years' War

In 1337 Edward III led England into the Hundred Years' War against France, claiming not only full sovereignty over Aquitaine but also the French throne, on the basis that he was Charles IV's nephew, and

taking (1340) the title King of France. He was initially successful, winning notable victories at sea (1340) and a famous victory at Crécy on 26 August, when some 10 000 Frenchmen were killed in an encounter that led to just 42 English dead and a few dozen Welsh infantry, and conquering Calais (1347). In the last years of his reign he became senile** and fell under the influence of his mistress Alice Perrers, while government was largely in the hands of his fourth son, John of Gaunt*.

Who was the Black Prince (1330-1376)?

A major figure in Edward's French campaigns was his son Edward, the Prince of Wales, known as the Black Prince because of his black armour. He got this nickname much later (1596), though it had never been mentioned that he liked to wear black armour. Knighted by his father at the age of 16 in France in 1346, the Black Prince fought bravely that year at Crecy, where he killed the king of Bohemia. He led the English to another proud victory, in 1356 at the battle of Poitier where an English army of more than 8000 defeated a French force of 50000, killing 13 counts and 66 barons and capturing the French king, Jean II. After four years in English captivity, for a ransom of three million gold crowns Jean was returned to his countrymen. The French recognized English rights in Calais, Poitou and Gascony. In the following 20 years, the French won back many of these lands, and the great warrior King Edward III had fewer French holdings at his death than he had at his accession. As to the Black Prince he caught some unknown disease in Spain and died in 1376 a year before his father so his son Richard became next King a year later.

The English are known to be the first to use the "V-sign" which means "victory". Some historians suppose that it originates from the Hundred Years' wartime.

When was the period of Black Death in Britain?

During 1348-1349 terrible plague, known as the Black Death, reached almost every part of Britain. Probably more than one third of the entire population of Britain died. (800.000 subjects were lost to the Black Death but labour shortage and war brought some prosperity to the country people).

The Black Death was one of the deadliest pandemics** in human history, The Black Death is estimated to have killed 30% to 60% of Europe's population, reducing the world's population from an estimated 450 million to between 350 and 375 million in 1400. This has been seen as creating a series of religious, social and economic upheavals which had profound effects on the course of European history. It took 150 years for

Europe's population to recover. The plague returned at various times, resulting in a larger number of deaths, until it left Europe in the 19th century.

How did the Order of Garter appear as a symbol of chivalrious behaviour?

In 1344 Edward III held a round-table tournament at Windsor and took a solemn row to form an order of Arthurian knights*. The most notable *Order of the Garter, consisting of 26 knights – the king and the Prince of Wales, each with 12 companions – was formed at Windsor on 24 June 1348. Twenty four knights are the number the legendary Arthur had at his Round Table. Legend has it that the Order's name and motto derived from a racy** incident at a ball in1347, when a lady – in some accounts the king's mistress, Joan of Kent, Countess of Salisbury – dropped her garter** and the king picked it up neatly and tied it around his knee saying gallantly "May evil come to the one who has impure thoughts". St. George was the Order's patron saint.

Richard II (1377-1399)

Reign	22 June 1377 – 29 September 1399 (22 years, 99 days)
Born	6 January 1367 / Bordeaux, Principality of Aquitaine
Died	c. 14 February 1400 (aged 33) Pontefract Castle, West Yorkshire

A grandson of Edward III, the son of Edward, the Black Prince, and nephew of John of Gaunt, Richard II came to the throne aged only 10. John of Gaunt and a ruling council had the real power until Richard came of age. Richard's misrule, the costly Hundred Years' War, the aftermath of the Black Death and a Poll tax all contributed to spark off the Peasants' revolt (1381) led by Wat Tyler* and John Ball*. The men of Kent and Essex had risen in the "Peasants' Revolt" to protest against the inequitable poll tax that demanded one shilling from every person, whether rich or poor. The peasants had arrived in London on 13 June, demolishing John of Gaunt's palace and the following day storming the Tower of London. On the morning of 15 June, Richard met the rebels in person.

The king appeared to agree to admit the demands of the peasants: (a charter of liberties, the end of all lordship except the king's, the end of serfdom, return of church land to people, etc.), but during the negotiations

Wat Tyler was treacherously killed, John Ball was hanged. The punitive** actions continued long into autumn. Richard seemed to have pursued a policy of revenge and high-handed despotism.

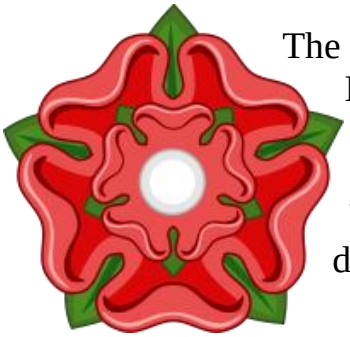
Richard II meets the rebels in a painting from Froissart's *Chronicles*

The end: Wat Tyler killed by Walworth while Richard II watches / Richard addresses the crowd

When Richard was 22 he dismissed his advisers and took the government into his own hands. For eight years he ruled well. Then, suddenly, he became a despot. In 1398 he called a parliament in Shrewsbury and surrounded it with thousands of his archers. This parliament voted to supply him with the money he wanted and passed laws that made almost any opposition to the king treason**. Richard then imprisoned, exiled, or executed his enemies and seized their property. Among those exiled was his cousin Henry Bolingbroke*, son of *John of Gaunt*, duke of Lancaster.

When John of Gaunt died, in 1399, Henry Bolingbroke returned to England with a few followers to recover his vast Lancastrian estates. Thousands of Englishmen joined his army. Richard had gone to Ireland to put down a rebellion. When he landed in Wales, many of the soldiers he had brought with him deserted. Helpless, he surrendered to Henry and promised to give up his throne if his life was spared. Parliament accepted his abdication and conferred the crown on Henry, who as Henry IV was the first Lancastrian king. Richard was imprisoned. The next year, after a rebellion had broken out in his favor, he was reported dead.

THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER



The House of Lancaster was a branch of the royal House of Plantagenet. It was one of the opposing factions involved in the Wars of the Roses, an intermittent civil war which affected England and Wales during the 15th century. The usurper king's dynasty lasted for the reigns of three monarchs:

1399–1413	Henry IV of England
1413–1422	Henry V of England
1422–1461, 1470–1471	Henry VI of England and (II of) France

Armorial of Lancaster

The House descended from Edward III's 4th surviving son, John of Gaunt. Gaunt did not receive a large inheritance, so he made his fortune through marriage to the heiress Blanche of Lancaster, who brought with her the considerable lands of the Earls of Leicester and Lancaster, making him the wealthiest landowner in England after the King. Created "Duke of Lancaster" by his nephew Richard II, Gaunt enjoyed great political influence during his lifetime. Upon his death in 1399, however, his lands were confiscated.

Gaunt's exiled son and heir Henry of Bolingbroke returned home the same year with an army to regain his rightful inheritence but as he marched southwards his army swelled with supporters his demands rose. When Richard finally arrived in London from Ireland, henry cast him into the Tower. Richard II was deposed** in Parliament and the following month Henry Bolingbroke was declared *King Henry IV of England*. When he was crowned in Westminster Abbey on 13 October 1399, he founded the House of Lancaster, a junior line of the House of Plantagenet. The King he deposed, Richard II, his cousin died in jail early the following year, apparently brutally put to death on his orders. In doing so Henry IV

usurped** the power, he bypassed the descendants of Edward III's second surviving son, Lionel of Antwerp, 1st Duke of Clarence, who eventually represented the rival House of York. That created a long-lasted unrest** in the country.

Henry IV was succeeded by his son Henry V, and eventually by his grandson Henry VI in 1422.

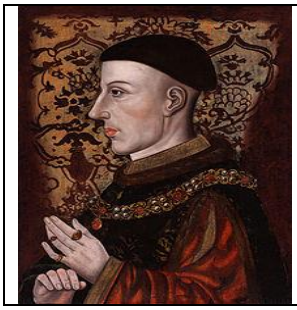
Henry IV

Reign	30 September 1399 – 20 March 1413 (13 years, 202 days)
Born	3 April 1367 / Bolingbroke Castle, Lincolnshire
Died	20 March 1413 (aged 46) / Westminster, London

Henry defeated two major uprisings in his reign. His principle opponents were the Welsh Prince Owain Glyndwr and the Percy family of Northumberland. Victory did not bring Henry peace of mind or body. Beginning in 1406, he suffered an agonizing illness that may have been leprosy and was identified by some as the judgment of God, perhaps for the murder of Archbishop Scrope of York.

In later years, the formerly ruthless and ambitions Henry Bolingbroke became careworn** and tormented** by guilt. In his will, he declared, "I Henry, sinful wretch**, ask my lords and true people forgiveness if I have misentreated** them in my wise." He died on 20 March 1413 after fainting before the Westminster Abbey shrine** to his saintly predecessor on the English throne, Edward the Confessor.

Henry V



Reign	21 March 1413 – 31 August 1422 (9 years, 163 days)
Born	1386 (87) / Monmouth, Wales
Died	31 August 1422 (aged 35) / Château de Vincennes, France

When Henry IV lay dying, young Henry took the crown from his father's head, his father asked him what right he had to the crown since it had been won in blood and not received through a divinely blessed

hereditary line. The future king Henry V told the ailing king, “As you have kept the crown by the sword, so I will keep it while my life lasts.”

Henry declared his intention of fighting for the throne of France in early July 1415. He laid claim to the French crown as great-grandson of Edward III, whose mother was the daughter of French king Philip IV. Henry V led a 6000-strong army in one of the greatest and most celebrated military exploits** in English history – the defeat of a French force more than three times larger, at the Battle of Agincourt, on 25 October 1415. Under the Treaty of Troyes* on 21 May 1420, he was made a French regent** and recognized as heir to the throne of France being married to Catherine, daughter of the French king Charles VI. He died of dysentery two years later (1422) during the siege of Meaux near Paris, at the age of just 35.

Henry VI

Reign	31 August 1422 – 4 March 1461 30 October 1470 – 11 April 1471
Born	6 December 1421 / Windsor Castle, Berkshire
Died	21 May 1471 (aged 49) / Tower of London, London

The unexpected death of Henry V brought his infant son Henry VI to the throne at the age of just nine months. Even when he came to adulthood, his character prevented him from becoming master of events and establishing authority over the squabbling** barons who surrounded him. For the king was simple, pious**, easily swayed** and, like his maternal grandfather, Charles VI of France, subject to bouts** of madness. Henry VI’s reign was a long, slow decline from the position of considerable strength he inherited. A decline in which England lost its holdings in France and slid** into the violent dynastic conflicts that came to be known as the “Wars of the Roses”.

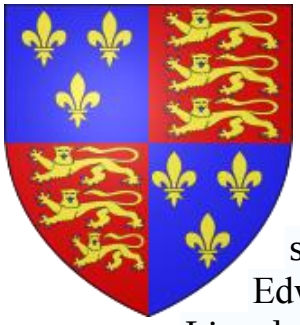
Though the 10-year-old Henry VI was taken to Paris and crowned as Henry II, the King of France in December 1431, in 1436 English hopes in France suffered a great blow** – Paris was captured from them by the French. Then in 1450 the English lost Normandy and Gascony in 1451. The English sent a force to recover Gascony but the French won a decisive victory at Castillon in July 1453, finally bringing to a close the conflict of the Hundred Years’ War and leaving Calais England’s only remaining French possession.

A Patron of Education

Henry's mild and pious character may have ill fitted him to be an effective king, but his devoutness inspired him to be a great educational patron, the founder of two major English institutions. In 1449 he established *the King's College of Our Lady of Eton*, later known as *Eton College**, and in 1441 he laid the foundation stone for *King's College, Cambridge**. Generous royal funding provided free education for the 25 poor scholars and 25 paupers** at Eaton: they were expected to proceed to King's College to complete their education.

THE HOUSE OF YORK

1461-1483	Edward IV
1483	Edward V
1483-1485	Richard III



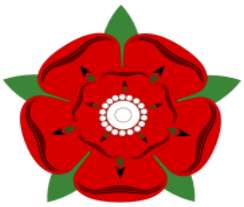
The House of York was a branch of the English royal House of Plantagenet, three of whom became English kings in the late 15th century. The House of York was descended in the paternal line from Edmund of Langley, 1st Duke of York, the third surviving son of Edward III, but also represented Edward's senior line, being maternal descendants of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, Edward III's second surviving son, and based on these descents they claimed the English crown. It had a senior genetic claim to the throne of England when compared with the House of Lancaster.

The decline of Henry VI into madness led to the elevation of the ambitious Richard, Duke of York, to the role of Protector and Defender of the Kingdom in March 1454. Richard himself had a viable claim to the throne as the great-grandson of King Edward III, being the son of the Duke of York. The bitter Wars of the Roses in the second half of the 15th century were fought between the supporters of the rival "Yorkist" and "Lancastrian" claims to the throne.

What were the emblems of the two noble houses, struggling for the Crown of England in 1455-1485?

Red Rose and White Rose.

White Rose of York



Red Rose of Lancaster

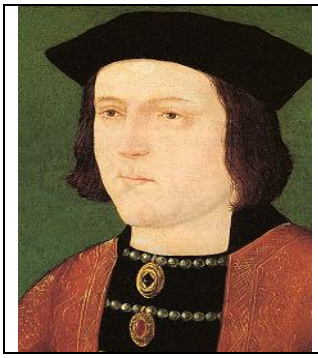
Who fought in the War of Roses (1455-1485)?

During the 15th century the throne of England was claimed by representatives of two rival groups. The Lancastrians, whose symbol was red rose, supported the descendants of the Duke of Lancaster, and the Yorkists, whose symbol was a white rose, supported the descendants of the Duke of York. Both Families claimed royal right be descent from Edward

III: the Lancastrians (represented by Henry VI) by direct male descent from John of Gaunt, fourth son of Edward III, and Yorkists (represented by Richard, Duke of York) in the female line from Lionel, Edward's third son.

The weak rule of King Henry VI made England vulnerable to power struggles and civil conflict. The king was unable to stamp** his authority on the feuding barons around him. His first attack of insanity in 1453 followed hard on the loss of England's possessions in France. Henry was incapable of making decisions or holding reasonable debate, Richard Duke of York, was named Protector and Defender of the Kingdom in March 1454 and in 1455, after his clarity and sense of purpose, Henry resumed royal rule. York rebelled against the King in an attempt to recover his lost authority. The battle at St. Albans Abbey* marked the beginning of the 33 years of dynastic and political instability and occasional civil war that would be remembered as the Wars of Roses. In 1461 the son of the Duke of York would declare himself King Edward IV.

Edward IV



Reign	4 March 1461 – 3 October 1470 (9 years, 182 days) 11 April 1471 – 9 April 1483
Born	28 April 1442 / Rouen, Normandy
Died	St George's Chapel, Windsor

Edward IV ruled with a firm hand for 22 years, establishing the new dynasty of the House of York. In 1470-71 Edward was forced into exile and Henry VI was briefly declared king once more, before Edward returned to defeat the king's supporters. He returned Henry to imprisonment in the Tower, and shortly thereafter Henry VI died in mysterious circumstances. It is likely that he was killed, perhaps by Edward's brother Richard of Gloucester.

The triumph of the House of York seemed complete. But 12 years later in 1483 following Edward's death, his brother Richard seized the throne as Richard III apparently having had Edward's sons Edward V and Richard killed. Richard III's reign lasted no more than two years: the Lancastrians returned to win a final victory – in the form of Henry Tudor, the grandson of Henry V's widow Catherine Valois, and great-grandson of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster (1340-1399).

King Edward was a man of culture and taste as well as a warrior and political schemer. He financed the printing of the first dated book in

English, which was also the first book printed in England by William Caxton* in 1477.

Edward V

Reign	9 April 1483 – 26 June 1483 (78 days)
Born	2 November 1470 / Westminster
Died	The Tower of London

Edward V succeeded to the throne at the age of twelve, when his father Edward IV died. His reign is the shortest in the English history. Coming to the throne aged 12, he was king for mere 2 months and 17 days. His uncle Richard, Duke of Gloucester, shut up Edward and his brother Richard (aged 10) in the Tower and became King Richard III (1483-1485). According to the doctor who attended the boys in the Tower before their disappearance, Edward was living in fear that he might die at any time. He relates that the doomed boy declared, "I would my uncle would let me have my life though I lose my kingdom." Edward V seemed destined for greatness on the throne. He was known for his charm, intelligence and good looks.

The skeletons of two children found near the White Tower in 1674 appeared to be of about the same age of Richard III's nephews.

Richard III

Reign	26 June 1483 – 22 August 1485 (2 years, 57 days)
Born	2 October 1452 / Fotheringhay Castle, Northamptonshire
Died	22 August 1485 (aged 32) / Bosworth Field, Leicestershire

On his deathbed on 9 April 1483, Edward IV named the Duke of Gloucester, his brother Richard, Protector of the Kingdom and guardian of young prince Edward. But Richard declared that the late king's secret

marriage to Elizabeth Woodville was not valid and that their heir to the throne and his brother were illegitimate. On those grounds he declared himself the rightful inheritor of the crown. On 25 June Parliament backed Gloucester's claims and asked him to be king. He was crowned Richard III on 6 July. The young princes officially remained in the Tower, but they were not seen after Richard III's coronation day.

In 1485 at Bosworth Field Richard would be killed by Henry Tudor, a descendant of Henry V's queen, Catherine of Valois and also a representative of the Lancastrian claim to the throne.

The End of the Wars of Roses

Edward IV remained in power since 1461 up to 1483 with a short Lancastrian restoration in 1470-1471. The war was resumed after the death of Edward in 1483, when his brother Richard, the Duke of Gloucester, seized the throne as Richard III, and his nephew, Edward IV's son, Edward V disappeared as well as his younger brother. Then the Yorkists split over Richard III's ill-founded claim to the throne. Their struggle ended when Henry Tudor defeated and killed Richard III at the battle of Bosworth Field (1485) and the period of Stability and strong government followed. The Wars of the Roses nearly destroyed the English idea of kingship forever. After 1460 there had been little respect for anything except the power to take the Crown. Tudor historians made much of these wars and made it seem as if much of England had been destroyed. This was not true. Fighting took place for only a total of fifteen months out of the whole twenty-five year period. Only the nobles and their armies were involved. The wars were a disaster for the nobility. Almost half the lords of the sixty noble families had died in the wars. It was this fact which made it possible for the Tudor dynasty to build a new nation state. When Henry married Elizabeth of York a new emblem with both white and red roses symbolized a union of the two houses and an end to the wars. The name of the War of Roses was introduced in the 19th century by the novelist Walter Scott (1771-1832).

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR

1485-1509	Henry VII
1509 -1547	Henry VIII
1547-1553	Edward VI
1553	Jane Grey
1553 - 1558	Mary I
1558-1603	Elizabeth I

The Tudor Rose of England

The House of Tudor was a prominent European royal house that ruled the Kingdom of England and its realms from 1485 until 1603. Henry VII, who came to the throne in 1485, was the first Tudor monarch. His successor was his son, Henry VIII (reigned 1509-47). The other Tudor sovereigns were Henry VIII's son, Edward VI (1547-53), and his daughters, Mary I (1553-58) and Elizabeth I (1558-1603).

The family traced its descent from the Welsh border lord Owen Tudor. About 1428, while a courtier in attendance at the court of Henry VI, Tudor became the lover and possibly the husband of Catherine* of Valois, the widow of Henry V. The Tudor claim to the throne, however, was based on the marriage of Edmund Tudor, the eldest son of Owen and Catherine, to Margaret Beaufort. Beaufort was a descendant of Edward III through John of Gaunt, the founder of the Lancastrian line. The future Henry VII, who succeeded at birth to his father's title of earl of Richmond, was the son of this union.

During the Wars of the Roses, as the only remaining claimant of the House of Lancaster, Henry made two attempts to win the English crown. In the second attempt, fought at Bosworth Field in 1485, Richard III, the Yorkist king, was defeated and slain. Henry was acknowledged as

sovereign by being crowned with the fallen monarch's crown picked up on the battlefield. He then proceeded to end the Wars of the Roses, which had lasted for 30 years. He married Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV and heiress of the House of York. The emblem known as the Tudor Rose symbolized this union. It represented the red rose of the Lancastrians superimposed on the white rose of the Yorkists.

The Tudors reigned during a time of religious turmoil, when the European Reformation created the new cultural and intellectual force of Protestantism. In England Catholics and Protestants struggled for control of the country's future and hundreds of men and women were executed for holding true to new or traditional religious beliefs. These were years, too, of magnificent cultural achievement and enduring fame: when Christopher Marlowe and William Shakespeare were at work and England was beginning to look abroad to the 'New World' of North America. In these years, the monarchy reached a more concentrated, centralized authority than ever before, and came to be far less dependent on the support of leading nobles.

Henry VII

Reign	22 August 1485 – 21 April 1509 (23 years, 242 days)
Born	28 January 1457 / Pembroke Castle, Wales
Died	21 April 1509 (aged 52) / Richmond Palace, England

The founder of the Tudor monarchy was Henry VII. He was a descendant of EdwardIII and John of Gaunt through his mother, Margaret Beaufort. His father, Edmund Tudor, was the son of Owen Tudor and Catherine of Valois, the widow of Henry V, and thus a half brother of King Henry VI.

Henry was born at Pembroke Castle, Wales, on Jan. 28, 1457. The murders of Henry VI and Prince Edward in 1471 left him the head of the House of Lancaster. At the battle of Bosworth Field (1485), Richard III, the last Yorkist king, was defeated and killed. Henry became king. He united the houses of Lancaster and York by marrying *Elizabeth of York*, niece of Richard III. The Wars of the Roses were ended.

Henry was the first modern king of England. He established order and security and so gained the support of the rising middle class. He compelled the great nobles to obey the laws by means of his famous *Court*

of Star Chamber. He secured his aims abroad not by war but by treaties and through the marriage alliances of his children.

An efficient system of taxation was introduced, and foreign trade expanded. John Cabot, sailing under the flag of Henry VII, laid the foundation of England's claim to the mainland of North America. Henry died at Richmond in April 1509.

Henry VIII

Reign	21 April 1509 – 28 January 1547 (37 years, 282 days)
Born	28 June 1491 / Greenwich Palace, Greenwich
Died	28 January 1547 (aged 55) / Palace of Whitehall, London

The second son of Henry VII and Elizabeth of York was one of England's strongest and least popular monarchs. He was born at Greenwich on June 28. 1491. The first English ruler to be educated under the influence of the Renaissance, he was a gifted scholar, linguist, composer, and musician. As a youth he was gay and handsome, skilled in all manner of athletic games, but in later life he became coarse and fat. When his elder brother, Arthur, died (1502), he became heir apparent. He succeeded his father on the throne in 1509, and soon thereafter he married Arthur's young widow, *Catherine of Aragon**.

During the first 20 years of his reign he left the shaping of policies largely in the hands of his great counselor, *Cardinal Wolsey**. By 1527 Henry had made up his mind to get rid of his wife. The only one of Catherine's six children who survived infancy was a sickly girl, the Princess Mary, and it was doubtful whether a woman could succeed to the English throne. Then too, Henry had fallen in love with a lady of the court, *Anne Boleyn**.

The pope (Clement VII) would not annul his marriage, Henry turned against Wolsey, deprived him of his office of chancellor, and had him arrested on a charge of treason. He then obtained a divorce through Thomas Cranmer, whom he had made archbishop of Canterbury, and it was soon announced that he had married Anne Boleyn, (on 1 June 1533).

The pope was thus defied. All ties that bound the English church to Rome were broken. Appeals to the pope's court were forbidden, all payments to Rome were slopped, and the popes' authority in England was

abolished. In 1534 the *Act of Supremacy* declared Henry himself to be Supreme *Head of the Church of England,* and anyone who denied this title was guilty of an act of treason. Among those who refused to swear the oath to the Act was Sir Thomas More. He was executed in 1535. Some changes were also made in the church services, the Bible was translated into English, and printed copies were replaced Latin Bible in the churches. The monasteries throughout England were dissolved and their vast lands and goods turned over to the king, who in turn granted those estates to noblemen who would support his policies. In the northern part of the kingdom the people rose in rebellion against Henry VIII, as a protest against the dissolution of the smaller monasteries. These rebellious supporters of traditional religion were joined by feudal lords and by peasants worried by the enclosure** of arable lands for pastures. These risings named *Pilgrimage of Grace* (1536-37) did not coordinate their efforts and were put down. Their leaders were arrested and executed.

Henry was married six times. Henry's second wife, Anne Boleyn bore him also a girl Elizabeth. Henry soon became tired of Anne. He was disappointed with his second marriage, and before Elizabeth was 3 years old, he had her mother beheaded. A few days later he married a third wife, *Jane Seymour.* She died in a little more than a year, after having given birth to the future Edward VI.

A marriage was then contracted with a German princess, *Anne of Cleves,* whom the king had been led to believe to be very beautiful. When he saw her he discovered that he had been tricked, and he promptly divorced this wife and beheaded Thomas Cromwell, the minister who had arranged the marriage. Henry's fifth wife, *Catherine Howard,* was sent to the block for misconduct. In 1543 he married his sixth wife, the tactful and pious *Catherine Parr*. She survived Henry and lived to marry her fourth husband.

The fate of Henry's six wives is humorously described by some school teacher in the following rhyme: Divorced, beheaded, died; Divorced, beheaded, survived.

When did England become politically a Protestant country?

England became a Protestant country after Henry VIII broke with Rome. Henry VIII was known as "Defender of the Faith". The title was conferred upon him by the pope for a treaty written by Henry in 1521 against Martin Luther.

In 1526 Henry at the age of 36 tried to persuade the pope to allow him to divorce Catherine of Aragon – his first wife. The pope forbade Henry's divorce. In 1531 Henry persuaded the bishops to make him supreme head of the Church of England, and this became law after Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy in 1534. The act established

Henry VIII in place of the pope as supreme head of the Church of England. It gave him control over all ecclesiastical appointments, income, and doctrine. Through several acts of Parliament between 1532 and 1536 England became politically a Protestant country.

The Church then was under the control of the state instead of the Pope but with a Catholic type of hierarchy in its organization. There were few changes in doctrine and a deliberate vagueness in formulation not to offend as few people as possible.

Union of England and Wales

An Act of Union came in 1536. The union was achieved by a series of acts (1536-1543). The act of annexation was passed in the last session of the Reformation Parliament (1536) when Henry VIII was rejecting papal authority. The act divided Wales into shires (each of which was to be represented in Parliament), added four new counties to the six already existed, and granted equal citizenship to the Welsh. The establishment of English law and administration led to a period of increased social and commercial prosperity, but the subsequent status of English rather than Welsh as the official language had an unfavourable effect on Welsh culture. Today Wales retains a distinct cultural identity, as displayed at Eisteddfods. The Welsh language is spoken by about half a million people. In 1999 Wales gained its own national Assembly as part of the Labour government's policy of Devolution*.

During Henry's reign the union of England and Wales was completed (1536). Ireland was made a kingdom (1541), and Henry became king of Ireland. His wars with Scotland and France remained indecisive in spite of some shallow victories. Although he himself opposed the Reformation, his creation of a national church marked the real beginning of the *English Reformation.* He died on Jan. 28, 1547, and was buried in St. George's Chapel in Windsor Castle.

Edward VI

Reign	28 January 1547 – 6 July 1553 (6 years, 159 days)
Born	12 October 1537 / Hampton Court Palace, Middlesex, England
Died	6 July 1553 (aged 15) / Greenwich Palace, Kent, England

The son of King Henry VIII and Jane Seymour, Edward became king at the age of 10. He was a strong protestant and a supporter of the Reformation.

The boy-king was already highly educated, having learned Latin and Greek from the age of five, and well versed in Protestant ideas. He was serious and known throughout Europe for his intelligence, and for his saintly piety. Great things were expected of the young ruler, but he was never strong and died of tuberculosis at the age of 16. During his short reign the government was controlled first by his mother's brother, the duke of Somerset, and then by the duke of Northumberland. When dying of consumption, he persuaded Duke of Northumberland to name Lady Jane Grey his successor so as to prevent his Roman Catholic sister Mary from becoming queen. Edward VI died on 6 July 1553.

Lady Jane Grey (1553). Queen of England for 9 days in 1553, when she was only 15, beautiful and intelligent, she was beheaded seven months later. She was a niece of Henry VIII.

She reluctantly permitted Edward VI and her uncle, Northumberland, to elevate her to the English crown. She married Northumberland's son, Lord Guildford Dudley, on 21 May 1553. She was proclaimed queen on 10 July, and she ruled only for nine days before she was deposed by the rightful heir, Mary. Lady Jane and her husband were thrown in the Tower of London in July 1553 and executed on 12 February 1554.

Mary I

Reign	19 July 1553 – 17 November 1558 (5 years, 121 days)
Born	18 February 1516 / Palace of Placentia, Greenwich
Died	18 February 1516 / Palace of Placentia, Greenwich

Mary has come down in history with the unpleasant name of Bloody Mary because of the religious persecutions of Protestants during her reign. Also called Mary Tudor, she was the daughter of Henry VIII and Catherine of Aragon. None of Catherine's other children lived, and the king, who wanted a son and heir, resented his unattractive, sickly daughter.

Mary's troubles increased after Henry put aside her mother to marry Anne Boleyn. In order to annul the marriage, he cut England's ties with the pope. Mary clung staunchly to the Roman Catholic faith in which she had

been reared. Her situation improved after Henry put Anne Boleyn, who hated Mary, to death.

Mary became second in succession with the birth of Edward, Henry's son by his third wife, Jane Seymour. Young Edward VI died after a short reign. A plot to put *Lady Jane Grey*, a Protestant, on the throne was defeated and the English welcomed 37-year-old Mary as their queen. For a short time she was popular with the people. Soon, however, she, 38, married Philips at 27, eleven years her junior, heir to the Spanish throne. The English disliked the marriage because they feared England might become a province of Roman Catholic Spain.

The queen hoped vainly that she could win England back to the Catholic Church. Old laws for punishing heretics were revived, and some 300 Protestants suffered death by burning at the stake. The most notable martyr was Thomas Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury, who had annulled Henry's marriage to Mary's mother.

She died of cancer in London on Nov. 17, 1558. Her Protestant half-sister Elizabeth I, daughter of Henry and Anne Boleyn, succeeded her.

Why was Mary I called "Bloody Mary"?

This nickname was given to her by the Protestants for her cruelty and execution of Protestants. In 1555, the first year of religious persecution, 90 Protestants lost their lives. The total eventually exceeded 300. She was unpopular also because she married Philip II of Spain, who dragged England into a war against France in which Calais, a possession for 200 years, was lost in 1558.

Elizabeth I

Reign	17 November 1558 – 24 March 1603 (44 years, 127 days)
Born	7 September 1533 / Greenwich, England
Died	24 March 1603 (aged 69)/ Richmond, England

Popularly known as the Virgin Queen and Good Queen Bess, Elizabeth Tudor was 25 years old when she became queen of England. The golden period of her reign is called the *Elizabethan Age.*

As a child, Elizabeth was unusually serious. She received an excellent education that made her fluent in Greek, Latin, French and Italian. She was instructed in history, Protestant Theology, moral philosophy and rhetoric. She had a shrewd mind – later, as a queen, she would write her own speeches. She had beautiful handwriting and musical skills.

Elizabeth I became Queen of England in 1558. During her 45-year reign, England rose from a country ravaged by war and religious fighting to a powerful empire where commerce and the arts flourished.

Elizabeth took the throne at the height of the conflict between Catholics and Protestants. She favored Protestantism, but did not punish Catholics in England until the pope criticized her in 1570. She aided Protestant causes in other countries, including Scotland, where her pressure led to the abdication and eventual execution of *Mary Queen of Scots.*

Elizabeth improved the English navy with hopes of establishing trade in the New World, which was entirely controlled by Spain and Portugal. Under the command *of Sir Francis Drake* English ships eventually broke the Spanish monopoly on trade routes, selling African slaves to the West Indies and often attacking Spanish ships. England's defeat of the *Spanish Armada* in 1588 marked their undisputed control of the seas.

English literature also flourished during Elizabeth's reign. One of her lawyers, *Francis Bacon,* was an outstanding scholar whose works span the fields of philosophy, science, and literature. *Edmund Spenser* and *Christopher Marlowe* wrote during this time.

But the best known writer of the era was *William Shakespeare,* who performed some of his early plays for Queen Elizabeth, and is considered by many to be the greatest dramatist the world has ever produced.

Throughout her reign, Elizabeth received many offers of marriage, some of which would have eased tensions between England and other countries, but she never married. Upon her death, James VI of Scotland, son of Mary Queen of Scots, assumed the English throne and ruled both Scotland and England as James I.

At the beginning of her reign England was in despair. The country had been weakened by war and religious strife, and the treasury was empty. Spain and France were powerful, and both wanted to rule England. The people hoped their young queen would soon marry a strong man who would guide her.

But Elizabeth at once took the government into her own hands; and, though she had many suitors and close friendships with several men, she steadfastly refused to marry. When she died at the age of 69, she was still called the Virgin Queen. By then rich and secure, England was enjoying its

greatest literary period. English ships were sailing into all seas, and the island kingdom had begun to establish its position as a world leader.

What caused the "Spanish Invincible Armada" invasion?

Relations between Spain and England had been bad since Elizabeth I asserted her country's Protestant faith and encouraged attacks of Spanish treasure ships (1588). After the death of Mary Stuart (1587) Philip of Spain openly claimed the English throne. To enforce his claim he sent a great fleet of 130 vessels to attack England in May 1588. King Philip, former husband of Elizabeth's sister Mary was increasingly enraged by Elizabeth's support for Protestant revolt against Spanish rule in the Netherlands and by the activities of English adventurers such as Francis Drake and John Hawkins in harrying Spanish colonial shipping. The impetus for Philip's military action was also the 1587 execution of Mary, Queen of Scots. With the death of Mary, Philip saw that he himself could now lay claim to the English crown in the event of the restoration of Catholicism.

The fleet of some 130 ships was met by Francis Drake and Lord Howard with about 120 ships. They forced King Philip of Spain to abandon plans for an invasion of England and to set sail for home. By the time they arrived back home the fleet had lost at least 63 ships and around half (15000) of its 30000 men, compared with losses of fewer than 100 Englishmen. No English ships were lost in conflict. The defeat of the Armada was a key event of Elizabeth's reign. The victory consolidated the growing self-confidence of the English and also marked a shift in power from Catholic southern Europe to Protestant northern countries. England became the most powerful country at sea.

The Spanish Armada was completely defeated by the English navy in the English Channel. The victory meant the establishment of the English naval supremacy. The Spanish Armada was defeated more by bad weather than by English guns. Some Spanish ships were sunk but most were blown northward by the wind, many being wrecked on the rocky coasts of Scotland and Ireland. No English ships were lost in conflict. England became the most powerful country at sea.

Voyages of Discovery

In the service of Great Queen Elizabeth, English adventurers such as Sir Frances Drake, Sir Martin Frobisher, Sir John Hawkins and Sir Walter Raleigh tamed the high seas as they made voyages of exploration, piracy and colonization around the globe.

Walter Raleigh (1554-1618)

Raleigh was almost the complete Elizabethan man: gentleman, soldier, mariner, adventurer, poet, philosopher, orator, historian, martyr;

here was the *homo universale* of Renaissance dreams, who touched genius at every point, but never let the part become the whole. Born in Devonshire in 1552, entered Oxford in 1568, he fled from books into life and joined a gallant group of pedigreed** volunteers who crossed to France to fight for the Huguenots. Six years in those wars might have taught him some of the unscrupulous violence of action and reckless audacity of speech that molded his later fate. Back in England (1575), he forced himself to study law, but in 1578 he went off again as a volunteer to help the Dutch against Spain. Two years later he was in Ireland as a captain in the army that put down a rebellion there. Elizabeth rewarded him with twelve thousand acres in Ireland and favour at her court. Pleased with his figure, his compliments, and his wit, she listened with less than her customary skepticism to his proposal for English colonies in America; she gave him a charter, and in 1584 he sent out, but did not accompany, the first of several expeditions that tried – and failed – to establish a settlement in Virginia named in honour of the Virgin Queen. The first group of 107 settlers left at Roanoke Island, under the command of Sir Richard Grenville in 1585 was discouraged by Native American attacks and returned to England. Raleigh sent a second group of around 150 settlers in 1587. They built houses, but their commander, John White, sailed to England for supplies and was delayed in returning because of the Spanish Armada's threat. When he did return in 1590 he found the colony had mysteriously vanished – the only clue was the word "Croatoan" cut in a tree trunk. The attempt to establish the colony was abandoned.

In 1595 Raleigh explored what is now Venezuela and sailed the Orinoco River in search of the legendary city of gold, Manoa, which was said to be ruled by a king named "El Dorado".

Sir Francis Drake (1543-1596)

The most celebrated of Elizabeth's roving seafarers, Francis Drake, first made his name and fortune in a voyage to South America and Panama in 1572-1573. He set sail there with a privateering commission from the queen; essentially the permission to plunder Spanish territories and riches. A militant Protestant, he saw it not only as profitable but as a religious duty to plunder Catholic Spain, and returned to England with the most astonishing haul** of New World riches yet seen.

Drake next departed in 1577 on a voyage to explore South America and the South Pacific. Reaching South America, he sailed through the Strait of Magellan, and entered the Pacific, then sailing up the western coast reached the area of modern San Francisco. He claimed the land for Queen Elizabeth and dubbed it "New Albion". From there he sailed westwards across the Pacific, then home across the Indian Ocean and round the Cape of Good Hope to the Atlantic. Drake landed at Plymouth in 1580 to

complete his circumnavigation of the world; the first by an Englishman and only the second ever, following that by Portuguese captain Ferdinand Magellan. His ship "Golden Hind" was weighed down with glittering treasures and exotic spices. Queen Elizabeth – secretly delighted at the damage Drake had done to Spanish interests – came aboard the ship on the Thames and knighted Sir Francis Drake. The Spanish ambassador was outraged.

In the war with Spain that broke out in 1585, Drake won his crowning honors. After once more carrying death and destruction to Spanish settlements in the West Indies, he led a daring expedition into the port of Cadiz, Spain. Here he destroyed so many vessels that for an entire year the Spaniards had to delay the expedition they were preparing for the invasion of England. Drake returned home in triumph.

Some eight years later, on a final expedition against the Spaniards in the West Indies. Drake became ill and died on board his ship in January 1596 off the coast of Panama. More than any other of England's bold privateers, he had helped to set England on the way to becoming the mistress of the seas.

Martin Frobisher and John Hawkins

Other of Queen Elizabeth's freeranging 'privateers' were Martin Frobisher and John Hawkins.

Sir M. Frobisher led three voyages to Baffin Island* and Labrador* in search of gold mines in 1576-1578. He left his name in *Frobisher Bay** (south-eastern Baffin Island), but failed to find gold. Subsequently he sailed with Drake to the West Indies* in 1585 and was knighted for his services to the queen in defeating the Armada.

Sir John Hawkins was England's first slave trader. After making a great fortune in a pioneering 1562-1563 voyage financed by London merchants in which he sold Africans captured in Guinea* as slaves in the Spanish West Indies, he won the queen's backing for a second successful trip in 1564-1565. A third trip with his relatives, Francis Drake, nearly ended in disaster, however. Later Hawkins was responsible for supervising the construction of the swift, well-armed ships that outgunned the galleons of the Spanish navy in 1588. He was knighted for his part in England's great victory.

The Realm of "the Faerie Queen"

The defeat of the Spanish Armada raised English spirits high. Sober men were convinced that England was great. Young people believed that one Englishman could beat six Spaniards. During the years 1590-1600 the nation became intensely interested in its past. Playwrights catered to this

patriotism by writing chronicles, or history plays. These were great sprawling dramas telling the stories of England's kings.

Elizabeth was an enthusiastic and discerning** patron of the arts, which burst forth in an extraordinary flowering during her reign. The period produced dramatists William Shakespeare, Christopher Marlowe and Ben Jonson; musicians Thomas Tallis and William Byrd; poets Edward Spencer; philosopher Francis Bacon.

Edward Spencer

E. Spenser was born in London, England, to a poor family, in 1552 or 1553. He attended the Merchant Taylors' School, where his expenses were paid partly out of charity funds. Entering Cambridge University in 1569, he took a bachelor's degree in 1573 and a master's degree in 1576.

Active in public service he was a professional man of letters. His 'Shepheardes Calender' (1579) is made up of 12 poems. These poems were more charming than any England had seen for 200 years.

"The Faerie Queene" is an elaborate allegory in six volumes built on the story of a 12-day feast honoring the Queen of Fairyland (Elizabeth I). Spenser worked out a poetic stanza** well adapted to telling a story, a special form which is now known as the nine-line Spenserian stanza. In this poem the queen, named Gloriana, represents glory both in the abstract and in the person of Elizabeth. As Spenser wrote, "In that Faerie Queen I mean glory in my general intention, but in my particular I conceive the most excellent and glorious person of our sovereign the Queen." The poet presented the first three manuscript books of the poem to the queen at court in 1589.

Christopher Marlowe

Marlowe (1564-1593) promised more greatness than he achieved. He died in a tavern brawl. A line from his own 'Doctor Faustus' is his best epitaph: *"Cut is the branch that might have grown full straight."* His plays, such as 'Tamburlaine' (1587) and 'Doctor Faustus' (1588), bring passion and tragedy onto the stage in lines of great force.

The playwright Christopher Marlowe is believed to have been an agent in Elizabeth's secret service, who was sent in 1587 to spy on Catholics in France. He also had a reputation as an atheist and blasphemer** and, perhaps for this reason, the Privy Council* issued an order for his arrest on May 1593. He was killed in a tavern on 30 May 1593, probably over nothing more significant than the bill.

William Shakespeare

The great poet and dramatist William Shakespeare* (1564-1616) was often called by his people ‘Our National Bard’, ‘The immortal Poet of Nature’ and ‘The Great Unknown’.

Shakespeare was a true and bright Elizabethan man. He reflected the epoch to the full.

The English Renaissance reached its peak in the reign of Queen Elizabeth I (1558-1603). In this period England was emerging from the Middle Ages. It changed from an absorbing interest in heaven and an afterlife to an ardent wonder about this world and man’s earthly existence. It was an age when men were curious, active, and brave. They boldly explored the past, the Earth, and themselves.

At its worst the age was extravagant and brutal. Its extravagance showed in the general population’s dress, manners, and speech, which were elaborate and ornate. The language was growing fast. It was suited to magnificent poetry. Shakespeare’s vocabulary was large, but its size is less remarkable than its expressiveness. English speech reached its peak of strength between 1600 and 1610. Then the King James Version of the Bible was being made. Bacon was writing his famous ‘Essays’, and Shakespeare was composing his great tragedies.

The people of the English middle class were stern, moral, and independent. London’s citizens held fast to their rights. They did not hesitate to defy the royal court if it became too arrogant. Nobles, citizens, and common people all loved the stage, its pageantry and poetry. Wealthy people encouraged and supported the actors. They paid for the processions, masques, and tournaments which the public loved to watch. Men of the royal court competed with one another in dress, entertainment, and flattery of the queen.

Shakespeare made a tremendous contribution to World Literature and his merits were enormous. He created a new epoch in world literature. The ideas set forth by the Renaissance, the struggle for happiness and freedom, are expressed by him in the most realistic forms.

In many parts of his great tragedies the dramatist shows the worst aspect of things. He seems to realize how much bloodshed the struggle for freedom will cost and that neither he nor the next generations will ever live long enough to see what freedom is. Yet, in the same tragedies we feel Shakespeare’s firm belief in a better future for all mankind. He had faith in man. His love of man is seen in his intolerance towards injustice. Shakespeare's plays have become popular throughout the world because of these great humanist ideas and his universal and realistic characters.

The whole history of English drama can be traced throughout Shakespeare's works for he combined all forms that existed before him and developed them to great heights. His works emerge from the

Renaissance and become the forerunner for the literature of the following centuries. He creates characters of great depth and unusual intellects. Shakespeare is attracted by the intellect of man. We see a philosopher in Hamlet; a learned man in Horatio; a cunning diplomat in Claudius (the king of Denmark); even in the case of the stupid Polonius, the intellect is revealed in his artful machinations. When an illiterate man is depicted, he is shown as having sound common sense; and if he happens to be a comical character, he may be sly, or shrewd and witty. His wit is shown in the various puns (play upon words) as with the two servants in the "Two Gentlemen of Verona".

The development of Shakespeare's characters makes him different from his predecessors (Marlowe and others). Their characters remain static all through their plays while Shakespeare's characters change in the course of action. Shakespeare was the first dramatist to mix tragedy and comedy Shakespeare was also a great master of plot. We find more than one plot developing in such a play as "The Tragedy of King Lear".

The monologues (soliloquies) in Shakespeare's plays are not long. The give-and-take of his dialogue made it very easy for the common people of those days to understand his plays.

Many phrases, once caught by his audiences, remained with the people and became part of their everyday language.

There are some common phrases which the English owe to William Shakespeare. Some of them, perhaps, had been known before Shakespeare's time, but it is because Shakespeare used them, and put them into his plays, that they have now become part of the everyday language of Englishmen.

QUOTATIONS FROM SHAKESPEARE

1. *All's well that ends well*
2. *All that glistens is not gold*
3. *A sea of troubles*
4. *Brevity is the soul of wit.*
5. *Conscience does make cowards of us all.*
6. *Delays have dangerous ends.*
7. *He jests at scars, that never felt a wound.*
8. *Home-keeping youths have ever homely wits.*
9. *How much sharper than a serpent's tooth it is to have a thankless child.*
10. *Love's labour's (is) lost.*
11. *Much ado about nothing.*
12. *There is a history in all men's lives.*
13. *There is no darkness but ignorance.*
14. *To be, or not to be, that is the question.*
15. *What's in a name? That which we call a rose by any other name would smell as sweet.*

Francis Bacon

Historians have found Francis Bacon (1561-1626) a fascinating subject. He gained fame as a speaker in Parliament and as a lawyer in some famous trials. He also served as Lord Chancellor of England under King James I. As a philosopher and writer, Bacon attempted to explain the principles of acquiring knowledge. Because he tried to write while holding public office that demanded much time and attention, many of his works remained fragments. The writings that have been preserved have marked him as an innovative thinker.

In all, Bacon wrote more than 30 philosophical works and many legal, popular, scientific, historical, and other books and essays. His popular literature is noted most for the worldly wisdom of a few dozen essays. He laid out a plan for the reorganization of knowledge into categories in his 'Novum Organum' (1620), the second volume of an ambitious six-part series. But he never finished the 'Novum Organum' or his larger project, though parts of four of the other books have survived. Among the latter is 'The Advancement of Learning' (1605), considered with 'Novum Organum' as Bacon's main philosophical works.

Francis Bacon was born on Jan. 22, 1561, in London. The second son of Sir Nicholas Bacon, keeper of the royal seal, Bacon grew up familiar with the royal court. His mother, Ann Cooke, was famous for her learning. Bacon went to study at Trinity College, Cambridge, at the age of 12. He lived in Paris, France, from 1576 until his father's death in 1579.
A fine writer, Bacon contributed to the scientific revolution of the 17th century. He neglected the role of mathematics in science, but advised students of nature to follow the rule that *"whatever the mind seizes and dwells upon with particular satisfaction is to be held in suspicion"*. He felt deeply that science held the key to technological progress.

Mary Stuart

Reign	14 December 1542 – 24 July 1567
Born	8 December 1542 /Linlithgow Palace, Linlithgow
Died	8 February 1587 (aged 44) / Fotheringhay Castle, Northamptonshire

The life of Mary Stuart, also called Mary, queen of Scots, has been a favorite subject of dramatists and poets. She became the central figure in a complex political drama, which resulted in her untimely death. She lived

in the turbulent period of the Protestant Reformation, and she was a Catholic.

Mary Stuart, the daughter of King James V of Scotland and the French princess Mary of Guise*, was born on about Dec. 8, 1542. A few days after her birth her father died, and she inherited the crown of Scotland. The infant queen was pledged to marry Prince Edward of England (later Edward VI), but the Scots rightly feared that Edward's father. King Henry VIII wanted to annex Scotland to England. They therefore preferred a French alliance, so Mary was betrothed instead to the Dauphin (crown prince) Francis, heir to the French throne.

The child queen was sent to France. For ten years she lived with her mother's powerful relatives, the Guises, and acquired all the graces of the French court. *"This small queen of Scots,"* wrote her mother-in-law, Catherine de'Medici*, *"one has only to smile in order to turn all."*

In 1559 Mary's husband Francis became King of France, but after his sudden death, negotiations began for Mary's return to claim her throne in Scotland.

In 1561 the Catholic Mary Stuart returned from living in France to find her country, Scotland, dramatically changed. About eight years she tried and failed to win control over competing groups of nobels. In a long dramatic series of events she married her handsome Tudor cousin Henry Stuart, Earl of Darnley, gave birth to an heir, James, survived Darnley's murder and then unwilling wed the probable murderer, James Hepburn, 4th Earl of Bothwell. In 1567 she abdicated under threat of death in favour of her one-year-old son James VI. Then in May 1568, following civil war in Scotland, she fled to England for sanctuary**.

For nearly 19 years Mary Stuart was Elizabeth's prisoner. English Catholics formed plots to liberate her and place her on the throne of England. The Babington conspiracy of 1585* – named after the ringleader, Anthony Babington – was the last and fatal link in a series of events that at length induced Elizabeth to bring Mary to trial in 1586. Mary conducted her own defense with courage and eloquence but was found guilty of complicity in a plot to assassinate Elizabeth. Elizabeth reluctantly signed Mary Stuart's death warrant. On Feb. 8, 1587, Mary, bearing herself like a queen, was beheaded in Fotheringay Castle, Northamptonshire. When Elizabeth died 16 years later, Mary Stuart's son, James VI of Scotland, became James I of England, the first of England's Stuart line.

Why is the time of Tudor rule often thought of as the most glorious period in English history?

Henry VII (1485-1509) built the foundations of a wealthy nation state and a powerful monarchy. His son, Henry VIII (1509-1547), kept a

magnificent court, and made the Church in England truly English by breaking away from the Roman Catholic Church. Finally, his daughter Elizabeth (1558-1603) brought glory to the new state by defeating the powerful navy of Spain. During the Tudor age England experienced one of the greatest artistic periods in its history.

THE HOUSE OF STUART

1603-1625	James I of England and VI of Scotland
1625-1649	Charles I
1660-1685	Charles II
1685-1688	James II
1688-1702	William III and Mary II (died –1694)
1702-1714	Ann

Armorial of Stuart, 1603 onwards

The *Royal House of Stewart* – or *Stuart* as it came to be spelled in the late 16th – had been in Scotland for 232 years by the time King James VI took possession of the English crown as King James I of England in 1603. The first Stewart king was King Robert II (1371-1390), who acceded as the son of Robert I the Bruce's daughter, Marjorie.

After the death of Elizabeth I (1558-1603) King James VI of Scotland became King James I of England and Scotland (1603-1625). The only son of Mary Stuart, he was born in 1566 and became king of Scotland at the age of one month after his mother's abdication. He was 37 when he inherited the English crown from his mother's cousin, Elizabeth I. During his reign he wanted to act independently and the Commons quarreled with the king attempting to limit his power.

James VI became James I when he and his wife Ann were crowned at Westminster Abbey on 25 July 1603, and this ended Scottish independence.

James I and VI

Reign	24 July 1567 – 27 March 1625
Born	19 June 1566 / Edinburgh Castle, Scotland
Died	27 March 1625 (aged 58) / Theobalds House, England

In person and manners King James presented a stark and unwelcome contrast to the regal dignity of his illustrious predecessor. A slovenly man, with unfortunate tendency to drunkenness and laziness, he was ugly and awkward in appearance. He was cunning and greedy, rather tactless, and soon deeply angered the English by persecuting both the Catholics and the Puritans*. Yet James's self-indulgent behaviour was allied to a vast intelligence and a highly educated mind convinced of the king's dignity and his absolute right to demand obedience. He had very difficult relations with Parliament, which he treated with great tactlessness, often lecturing the Commons on their duty of obedience. Despite his appearance and behaviour, he saw himself as a man of regal bearing, dignity and authority.

"Great Britain"

Early in his reign James attempted to combine England and Scotland in a unified kingdom of 'Great Britain'. This was the policy he presented to his first Parliament on 22 March 1604. The Commons resisted the union. James defied them. On 20 October 1604 he proclaimed a new title for himself as "King of Great Britain".

On 12 April 1606 a new Anglo-Scottish flag was introduced for shipping, combining the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew and called the "Great Union" – or the "Union Jack" (from Jacques, the French from the king's name, which he preferred to use). Nevertheless, the instrument seeking to establish the union of the two countries was rejected in both Parliaments in 1607.

Another matter of concern at the start of the reign was the need to bring an end to the ruinously expensive war with Spain. A peace treaty was signed in London on 18 August 1604.

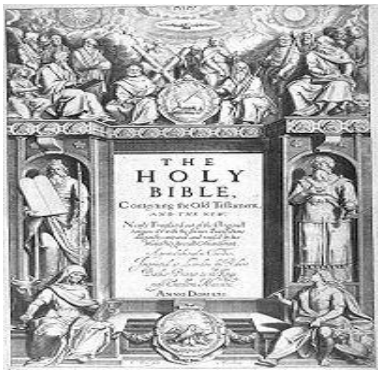
The Gunpowder Plot

James's early reign was marked by rebellions against his rule. The most serious plot aimed to depose the Protestant James and restore Catholicism in England. It followed harsh new laws passed in 1604 against Catholics who refused to worship in Church of England services.

The plot centered on the opening of James's second session of Parliament, scheduled for 5 November 1605. About 12 Catholic lords led by Robert Catesby and Guy Fawkes planned to blow up the Palace of Westminster with 35 barrels of gun powder. Details of the plan came out when one of the gang, warned his brother-in-law, who would have been killed in the Lords by the explosion. The lord passed on the information to those in authority and the plot was foiled** at the last moment. Since that day the British traditionally celebrate the 5th of November ("Guy Fawkes Night"*) by burning a dummy, made of straw and old clothes, on a bonfire. The dummy is called a "guy". The children can often be seen on the pavement asking grown-ups for "Penny for the Guy". If they collect enough money they can buy some fireworks.

The 'King James Version' of the Bible

A new English translation of the Holy Bible, "authorized" by King James, was published in 1611. James had proposed a new easily comprehensible English-language version of the Bible in 1601, before his accession in London. In January 1604, the idea was brought forward again by Oxford University's John Reynolds at a conference on the churches, which was held at Hampton Court, and was supported by the church. James personally approved 54 scholars to work on the translation, of whom 47 were finally involved, working for seven years in the six groups at three places with the original texts in Hebrew, Latin, Greek, as well as existing English translations. For four centuries the work known as the 'Authorized version' or the 'King James version' is generally accepted as the standard Bible in English churches.



The title page to the 1611 first edition of the Authorized Version Bible

James and the New World
The Settlement of America (1603-1605)

On 10 April 1606, James granted the Virginia companies in London and Bristol a royal charter to explore and settle land on part of the eastern seaboard of North America – roughly corresponding to the territory

between northern Maine and North Carolina, including the colony of Virginia, founded by the Tudor adventurer Sir Walter Raleigh in 1586-1590. Three ships, carrying 104 Virginia Company settlers set sail for North America in December 20, 1606 and arrived in Virginia in April 1607, where they founded on 14 May 1607 Jamestown, the first permanent English settlement in the new world.

On 16 September 1620 one of the most celebrated transatlantic voyages in history began under license from King James. Some 102 Protestants departed from Plymouth on board the *Mayflower** seeking a new life from the religious persecution they suffered at home, fifty of them were so-called Piligrims. Storms and high seas prevented the *Mayflower* from landing as intended in Virginia. The ship instead put in at Cape Cod on 21 November 1620 (at the site of modern Provincetown, Massachusetts). Before unloading fully on 26 December at a nearby site the new arrivals christened the place *New Plymous*. And this is how the story of New England began.

What is Irish Question?

The Irish question has long poisoned Anglo-Irish relations. Henry II landed in Dublin* in 1171 and established control over land in south-east Ireland that formed an area of English settlers there. In the next century Ulster* was seized by the English to be ruled by vassal Irish earls.

Tudor monarchs extended English influence by "planting" Protestant colonists on land confiscated from Irish chieftains. The Reformation did not penetrate Roman Catholic Ireland, which created a religious divide between the native Irish and the English settlers.

The character of the north of Ireland was changed in 1607 when more than 100 Ulster lords, tired of the restrictions imposed on them, fled to Europe. This allowed the mass settlement of the province by Protestant Scots and English.

Irish revolt during the Civil War was put down by Parliamentarian forces, led by Oliver Cromwell (in 1649).

In 1689 Catholics rose again, supporting James II's attempt to regain the English throne, but were defeated by the Protestants. For the next century Anglo-Irish Protestants ruled Ireland.

A Bloody Inheritance (Ireland)

James left a tragic legacy in Ireland. He backed the "Plantation" or settlement of Catholic Ulster by Protestant Scots and Englishmen, which began in 1611. Ulster was one of the most strongly Catholic parts of Ireland and was actively rebellious against English government. Under the scheme, Catholic landowners' estates were confiscated and six new counties of Tyrone, Donegal, Armagh, Fermanagh, Derry and Cavan were

created. The land was given to Protestant settlers. The "Plantation", under plans enthusiastically approved by King James in 1608, added further fuel to flames of religious conflict in the region.

The court of King James

The extraordinary 'English renaissance' of cultural life that began in the London of Queen Elizabeth continued in the reign of King James. In the first year of his reign James honoured William Shakespeare's theatrical company by making them the "King's Men", and many of Shakespeare's greatest plays were performed at the royal court. His extraordinary "*Sonnets*", a collection of 154 poems were printed in 1609. Rising playwright *Ben Jonson* forged a reputation as a creator of "masques" – theatrical performances with ornate costumes, choreographed dances and songs, often on classical themes. They were very popular with the royal family and courtiers. A clergyman's son and former bricklayer and soldier, Jonson had already made his mark in the late Elizabethan theatre world. His play "Every Man in his Humour" was performed in 1598 with Shakespeare himself in the cast. The major plays produced by him include "Volpone" (1605), "The Alchemist" (1610).

The poet *John Donne* was also patronized by James and partly by James's great favourite George Villiers (Duke of Buckingham). With his support Donne was made Dean of St. Paul's Cathedral, London. In addition to being a great poet, Donne was one of the greatest preachers of his day.

Also active at James's court was the architect and artist *Inigo Jones*, remembered as the founder of the English "classical tradition" in architecture.

Charles I

Reign	27 March 1625 – 30 January 1649
Born	19 November 1600 / Dunfermline Palace, Dunfermline, Scotland
Died	30 January 1649 (aged 48)/ Whitehall, England

James I died in the hands of his favourite, the Duke of Buckingham George Villiers*, on 27 March 1625 after suffering a stroke. His son Charles was a sickly child, so feeble** that he did not walk until he turned

seven, and did not learn to talk until he was about 5 years old. His personal characteristics made him profoundly ill-suited for the task history set him. Since he had an elder brother Henry, he was not expected to inherit the throne. But just before he turned 12, his brother died making Charles heir to the thrones of Scotland and England. The new Prince of Wales underwent a program of training, and soon could speak several languages and ride perfectly.

Charles inherited his father's throne in 1625 and became king in the twenty-fifth year of his age.

Influence of Buckingham

Life at Charles's court was rather more civilized than it had been under King James I. However, in one important sense, government and court life were unchanged: George Villiers*, the Duke of Buckingham was a favourite of Charles, just as he had been of James, and he continued to exert** a largely disastrous influence.

MPs were strongly critical of the Duke of Buckingham's disastrous diplomacy and military leadership, but Charles twice dissolved the Parliament (in 1626 and 1628) after MPs called for the Duke's impeachment and demanded him to be dismissed from court and government. Buckingham's death at the hand of an assassin in 1628 ended finally this sorry saga.

Religious Tensions Heat up

One of Charles's first acts as king was to welcome his new bride Henrietta Maria*, daughter of France's King Henry IV and Queen Marie de'Medici to England. Unfortunately, religious tension interfered with Charles's coronation: Henrietta Maria refused to attend because the ceremony was performed by a Protestant bishop. So she grew angry over Charles's failure to honour promises made by his father James in the marriage agreement that conditions for English Catholics would be improved.

In the late 1620s Charles continued to be in direct conflict with Parliament over two main issues – revenue and religion. He dissolved his first parliament (1625) after it had voted him only one-seventh of the revenue he needed and had attacked both Buckingham and the king's Roman Catholic leanings. The second parliament (1626) was also dissolved after it had tried to impeach Buckingham and refused to grant money to the king. During its first session (1628) the third parliament won the king's reluctant consent to the Petition of Right*. Its second session was so stormy that Charles dissolved it and attempted to rule without parliament for the next eleven years (1629-40).

The Scots' defiance of royal attempts to impose an Anglican church settlement in Scotland, in particular their resistance to the new Prayer Book and the episcopacy, led to the two Bishops' Wars* (1639-40) between Charles and the Scottish Presbyterians. The Scottish successes and his financial embarrassment compelled the king to summon the so-called Short Parliament* (April-May 1640), which was soon dissolved because it insisted on discussing its grievances before voting the king any money.

Further defeats in Scotland forced Charles to summon the Long Parliament* in Nov 1640. This proved even more uncooperative than its predecessors. In Nov 1641 the House of Commons stated its demands in the Grand Remonstrance*. The open breach between king and parliament came early in 1642, when Charles unsuccessfully tried to arrest one member of the Lords and five members of the Commons for treason. The king left London, and for the next seven months both sides built up their military strengths. In Aug 1642 Charles raised the royal standard at Nottingham and the Civil War began.

Charles was captured at Newark (1646) by the Scots, who handed him over to the English parliamentarians (1647). He escaped and, after secret negotiations with the Scots, agreed to accept the Presbyterian religion in Scotland and to establish Presbyterianism* in England within three years. The Scots in return agreed to support the king against the English parliamentarians.

After the defeat of the king's Scottish supporters at Preston (1648) the English army demanded his death. He was taken to London and tried by a special parliamentary court. Sentenced to death, he was beheaded in Whitehall on 30 Jan 1649.

The Long Parliament

In April 1640, Charles called his first Parliament for 11 years to try to raise money for his military action in Scotland. He encountered concerted opposition in Commons and so dismissed the Short Parliament* after just three weeks. He went ahead with the planned campaign in Scotland, but the Second Bishops' War ended in another defeat and Charles was forced to recall Parliament.

This Parliament would sit until 1660 and is known as the Long Parliament*.

When did the English Civil War begin?

The king's opponents in the Commons passed several laws to limit his powers and demands that Parliament could not be dissolved without its agreement. Charles angrily refused all their demands and in January 1642 he took the bold step of entering the Commons with an armed guard to

arrest five leading parliamentarians but he came too late. The MPs in question had escaped into hiding.

Charles fled London heading for northern England. Queen Henrietta Maria and Princess Mary left the country to raise financial support for the king in Continental Europe, and England prepared for Civil War.

On 13 September 1642 Charles began to move on London. This war is remembered as a contest between fun-loving aristocratic royalists or "Cavaliers" and over-serious puritan parliamentarian "Roundheads" (thus named for the style of their haircut). The Roundheads were victorious by 1645 although the war periodically started up again and continued until 1648, when Cromwell's New Model Army took control in the country. King Charles appeared on trial before a specially created "high court of justice", consisting of 159 commissioners appointed by the "Rump*" Parliament in the Painted chamber at the Palace of Westminster on 20 January 1649.

Cavaliers and Roundheads

"**Cavaliers**" was the name used by Parliamentarians for Royalist supporters of King Charles I during the English Civil War (1642-1651). Prince Rupert, commander of much of Charles I's cavalry, is often considered an archetypical Cavalier*.

Prince Rupert,
an archetypical Cavalier

Roundhead" a the nickname given to the supporters of Parliament during the English Civil War. Also known as Parliamentarians, they fought against King Charles I who claimed absolute power and the divine right of kings.

Most roundheads appear to have sought a constitutional monarchy, in place of the absolutist monarchy sought by Charles I, but at the end of the Second Civil War in 1649, republican leaders such as Oliver Cromwell were in a strong position to abolish the monarchy completely and establish the republican Commonwealth.

Roundheads tended to be Puritan or Presbyterian, but also included many smaller groups such as the Independents. Roundhead political factions included Diggers*, Levellers*, and Fifth Monarchy Men*.

Some, but by no means all, of the Puritans wore their hair closely cropped round the head, and there was an obvious contrast between them

and the men of courtly fashion with their long ringlets. According to some version, the word was first used on 27 December, 1641 by a disbanded** officer named David Hide, who during a riot is reported to have drawn his sword and said he would "cut the throat of those round-headed dogs that bawled** against bishops".

However, the origin of the term is also ascribed to a remark made by Queen Henrietta Maria at the trial of the Earl of Strafford earlier that year; referring to John Pym*, she asked who the roundheaded man was.

Ironically, after Anglican Archbishop Laud (1573-1645) made a statute in 1636 instructing all clergy to wear short hair, many Puritans rebelled to show their contempt for his authority, and began to grow their hair even longer, though they continued to be known as Roundheads. The longer hair was more common among the "Independent" and "high ranking" Puritans (which included Cromwell), especially toward the end of the Protectorate, while the "Presbyterian" (i.e. non-Independent) faction, and the military rank-and-file**, continued to abhor** long hair.

Charged with Treason

The king was charged with having governed according to his will and not by law; with having waged war "against the present Parliament and the people there represented" and with having committed treason against his own people. Charles refused to defend himself, or enter a plea in response to the charge, as he denied that the court had any authority over him. Sentence was passed on 27 January. The high court found the king guilty as a "Tyrant, traitor, murderer and public enemy to the Commonwealth of England" and sentenced him to be "Put to death by severing** of his head from his body". Just 59 commissioners of the 159 appointed signed the king's death warrant. The execution was planned for early in the morning of 30 January 1649. His last words were, "I go from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where no disturbance can be."

Subsequently, with the Restoration of the monarchy, the "cult of King Charles I was encouraged and in 1660 Parliament declared the king to be a martyr and made him a saint of the Anglican Church".

Who was the leader of the parliamentary army in the Civil War (1642-1649)?

Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658). Statesman and soldier. Born in Huntingdon of a distinguished but comparatively impoverished squirearchal family. He came under Puritan influence at Cambridge. In the 1630s Elected to the Long Parliament for Cambridge City, he made something of a name as a radical, and profited by his kinship with the Huntingdonshire magnate, the 2nd earl of Manchester. When war broke out he soon revealed a natural aptitude for cavalry organization and tactics.

Dissatisfied with the conduct of the war, he removed the existing generals, including Manchester, and created a *New Model Army**, of which he was appointed general of horse and second in command (to Sir Thomas Fairfax). He played a major role in the decisive royalist defeat it Naseby (1645) and became the leading figure during the time of Bourgeous Revolution in England.

Cromwell has been a very controversial figure in the history of the British Isles – a regicidal** dictator to some historians and a hero of liberty to others. In Britain he was elected as one of the Top 10 Britons of all time in a 2002 BBC poll. His measures against Irish Catholics have been characterized by some historians as genocidal or near-genocidal, and in Ireland itself he is widely hated.

Commonwealth and Protectorate

After King Charles I's execution the MPs in the Rump Parliament* passed an act abolishing the monarchy and making England a "Commonwealth and free state". The act also abolished the House of Lords and proclaimed Parliament "supreme authority of this nation". The term *Commonwealth* is loosely used to describe the system of government during the whole of 1649 to 1660, when England was de facto, and arguably de jure, a republic. It should not be confused with the Commonwealth of Nations (successor to the British Empire in 1949).

There was still powerful opposition to be forced, however. In September 1649, Cromwell was dispatched to Ireland to put down a royalist uprising among Irish royalists. He won devastating victories there. Then in June 1650, having been made Commander-in-Chief of the Commonwealth forces, Cromwell marched north to Scotland where the Covenanters* were promoting the cause of Charles I's son, Charles. On January 1651 Charles Stuart was crowned King Charles II of England, Scotland, Ireland and France (the last title traditional), at Scone in Scotland by royalist opposition. In August that year Charles led an army of Scots and marched on London. However, Cromwell inflicted a devastating defeat on him, forcing him to flee in disguise and go into hiding. Later Charles travelled as a servant of Miss Jane Lane, sister of a royalist colonel and finally fled to safety in France.

As Commander-in-Chief of the army, Cromwell was the dominant figure. On 20 April 1653 he declared the Rump Parliament dissolved. A new Parliament was appointed, made up of 140 officially approved Puritans. The first parliament to represent the whole of the British Isles, it was nicknamed the 'Barebones Parliament' from the name of one of its

members, the Anabaptist Praisegod Barebones. It was short-lived, for in December 1653 it voted itself out of existence and put power into the hands of Cromwell. He thus became the first man to rule a unitary state of Great Britain and Ireland. He was convinced that it had been God's will for the monarchy to be abolished and would not countenance** its reintroduction, though he was persuaded to become king. Instead he agreed to become "Lord Protector".

This change was introduced under England's first written constitution, the "Instrument of Government", which made the country a Protectorate. Government was to be by the Lord Protector through a council of state and the House of Commons. Religious toleration was to be guaranteed for all except Catholics.

When the new Parliament met in 1654 its attempts to alter the constitution and to restrict religious toleration led Cromwell to dissolve it once more. In July 1655 he introduced a new system of government under which 12 major-generals were appointed, with each ruling one of 12 English regions. This system also proved unpopular and inffective.

In April-May 1657, the Commons again urged Cromwell to take the crown and become King Oliver, but Cromwell refused again. He declared "I would not seek to set up that that providence hath destroyed and laid in the dust".

On 3 September 1658, Cromwell died aged 59. The extent to which he had become king in all but name, was marked by the fact that he named his son, Richard, to be Lord Protector in his stead.

The Return of Monarchy

Richard Cromwell's rule lasted only eight months. He resigned as Lord Protector when army leaders recalled the Rump Parliament in 1648. The Rump Parliament could not impose its authority, however, and army still fought for supremacy.

In early 1660 General Monck*, commander of the army in Scotland, marched to London and won the agreement of the Rump assembly to dissolve itself and recall the Long Parliament originally called in 1640. This opened the way for a new election and another new Parliament and the prospect of a return of the monarchy.

The Restoration of the Stuarts (1660-1714)

The execution of King Charles I on 30 January 1649 appeared to be the end for the royal house of Stuart. The Rump Parliament governed England while Cromwell put down revolts in Ireland and Scotland with great cruelty. In 1653 he came back from the wars, dismissed Parliament, and "Nominated" Parliament of his own, it was nicknamed after *Praise*

God Barbon, or *Barebones* (1596-1679) a sectarian preacher and one of its members.

The Puritans closed the theatres, suppressed horse racing, cockfighting**, and barebathing, and made Sunday strictly a day of worship. Cromwell's rule was more despotic than that of the king's. However, after his death in 1658 and the apparent failure of the Commonwealth and Protectorate, Charles I's son Charles Stuart was recalled from a sad and long exile in France, and was met in London with inexpressible joy and a triumph of about 20,000 people. Charles II was crowned on 23 April 1661.

Stuart monarchs regained power for a further 54 years. Even when Charles II's Catholic brother, James II, was overthrown and replaced, according to the will of Parliament by the Protestant William III, Stuarts remained on the throne, for William was Charles II's nephew, and William's wife, Mary II, was James II's daughter.

The Stuart line ended with the death of Mary's sister, Queen Anne, and the accession under the Act of Settlement* (1701) of King George, first ruler of the House of Hanover. However, even George had a blood connection to the Stuarts, for he was the son of Sophia, Electress** of Hanover, who was King James's granddaughter.

Charles II

Reign	30 January 1649 – 3 September 1651(King of Scotland) 29 May 1660 – 6 February 1685 (King of England, Scotland, and Ireland)
Born	29 May 1630 / St. James's Palace, London England
Died	6 February 1685 (aged 54) / Whitehall Palace, London

Charles Stuart, son of the executed King Charles I, arrived in London to claim the English throne on 29 May 1660. Some three and a half months earlier, the reconstructed Long Parliament* of 1640 had voted to dissolve itself ahead of election. The newly elected Convention Parliament was strongly proroyalist and declared that the government should be by a restored king, House of Lords and House of Commons. MPs approved Charles's restoration on the basis of the king's Declaration of Breda*, in which he promised a general pardon except those who were directly responsible for the execution of his father Charles I; liberty of conscience

in religion; to pay army and take soldiers into his own service and several more points.

Colour, spectacle and glamour were emphasized in Charles's coronation on 23 April 1661 in Westminster Abbey.

What is Oak Apple Day?

After Charles's triumphant entry into London on 29 May 1660, Parliament voted that this day should be kept as a national holiday, in the words of diarist Samuel Pepys*, "As a day of thanksgiving for our redemption from tyranny and the King's return to his Government". It was named *Oak Apple Day*, a reference to Charles's escape from the troops of the Parliamentary army when he hid in an oak tree near Boscobel House, Shropshire, following the Battle of Worcester, in 1651.

The Merry Monarch

Restoration Life

On 21 May 1662 Charles II married the pious Catholic princess Catherine, daughter of the King of Portugal. On the wedding day, the royal couple went through two ceremonies. The first, conducted in private, was a Catholic one. The second, conducted in public, was the official Church of England rite.

While he was astute** in his handling of parliamentary, military and religious, and a convinced believer in the sacredness of absolute monarchy, Charles was not a pious or particularly serious man. He was charismatic and charming and a passionate collector of mistresses, even after his wedding.

Charles was also a lover of sports. He liked golf. He also pioneered yachting in England. He was a frequent visitor to the racecourse and participated in and won a race over 6,5 km. His love of entertainment, coupled with his easy-going manner and enjoyment of pleasure, won him the nickname the "Merry Monarch".

Charles II was a keen and appreciative patron of the arts and sciences. London's theatres had been closed by the Puritan establishment in the years of the Commonwealth and Protectorate. And after years of repression, London's theatres burst forth once more in the vibrant stage scene of "Restoration theatre". The works of playwrights John Dryden*, Beaumont* and Fletcher* were widely performed and praised to the skies. Henry Purcell* was appointed court composer in 1677. The reign of Charles also saw a powerful surge** of scientific achievements.

Robert Boyle*, Robert Hooke*, Isaac Newton*, Edmond Halley* and John Flamsteed* were all at work during this period. This achievement was encouraged by the king, who granted a charter to a group of scientists to found the Royal Society* on 22 April 1662. In 1675 Charles appointed

Flamsteed the first “Astonomer Royal” and in 1675-76 built the Greenwich royal Observatory*.

Plague and Fire

There were many among the new king’s population who looked with horror at his court’s devotion to pleasure when two disasters struck London within years of the Restoration. Puritan critics could claim that the events were evidence of God’s displeasure at the hasty abandonment of England’s great republican experiment. Bubonic plague was a regular threat to London’s crowded streets from the start of the 17th century onwards, but it hit with particular virulence** following a heat wave in June 1665 as many as 70,000 people died.

Then on 2-6 September 1666 the Great Fire of London ravaged** the capital. Beginning in the early hours of 2 September at the king’s bakery in Pudding Jane, close of London Bridge where a young careless baker left a bundle of wood near a very hot oven. In a few hours big flames were seen all along the street. All the wooden houses were soon burning like match-boxes and the flames leapt from street to street with nothing to stop them. The Great Fire made 100,000 people homeless and destroyed 13,000 houses and 87 parish churches as well as St. Paul’s Cathedral. King Charles could be seen, clothes sodden and face blackened with smoke, working side by side with the desperate Londoners. He also sent food to the poverty-stricken and money to boost fire control efforts. He promised that he would build a splendid new city of stones and brick.

Detail of painting from 1666 of the Great Fire of London by an unknown painter, depicting the fire as it would have appeared on the evening of Tuesday, 4 September from a boat in the vicinity of Tower Wharf. The Tower of London is on the right and London Bridge on the left, with St. Paul’s Cathedral in the distance, surrounded by the tallest flames.

The rebuilding of London

Just days after the fire, Charles was presented with three separate plans for reconstruction. Robert Hook, chemist and architect and Cristopher Wren, Savilian Professor of Astronomy at Oxford University, both played central roles in the reconstruction of the city. Hook was appointed city surveyor for building of houses, while Wren was made surveyor – general of the king’s works in 1669. In this capacity Wren supervised the rebuilding of St. Paul’s Cathedral and of London’s parish churches. Although 87 churches had been destroyed, only 52 were rebuilt because

smaller parishes were amalgamated. Wren personally designed and approved each one.

For the foundation stone of St. Paul's Cathedral*, Wren asked a workman to find a flat piece from the remains of the burnt one. The stone, which Wren laid himself, was a fragment of a grave headstone bearing the Latin inscription "Resurgam" ("I will rise again"). St. Paul's Cathedral was not finished until 1710. Its magnificent dome became a London landmark.

What memorial commemorate fire of London in 1666?

The Monument. It was constructed in 1671-1677. It is the column of 61.5 meters high. Its height is equal to the distance from the monument to the baker's shop in Pudding Lane where the fire began. 311 steps ascend to the top of the column from which one can see the panorama of London. A cage was added in the mid-19th century at the top of the Monument to prevent people jumping off, after six people had committed suicide between 1788 and 1842.

The 311 step stairwell

Panorama of London taken from the top of the Monument

Charles II and the "New World"

The Growth of North America

The England of Charles II was in fierce competition with the Netherlands for control of maritime trade around the globe and in particular the sea transport of West African slaves to North America.

In 1664 an English privateering fleet took possession of the Dutch fur-trading post at 'New Amsterdam' on the Hudson River in North America. This settlement, at the foot of Manhattan Island, had been established for almost 40 years – since 1625. The war lasted just two years.

It began with a great English victory, as James, the Duke of York, sunk 16 Dutch vessels and captured nine more. The Treaty of Breda ending the war was signed on July 1667.

The English renamed the Manhattan Island settlement 'New York'* in honour of the King's brother James, the Duke of York. The two principal boroughs were King's (for King Charles) and Queen's (for Queen Catherine); the first is now called Brooklyn but the second has retained its original name (Queens). The wider surrounding area, the former Dutch colony of New Netherland, was also given by Charles to the Duke of York in return for annual 'rent' of 40 beaver skins. Shortly after the Restoration on 24 March 1663 Charles granted a wide tract of North America to a group of eight nobles. These men founded the colony of Caroline (from the Latin form of their monarch's name). Two years later the area was further extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific, embracing the whole territory of the present day South of the USA.

In 1681 King Charles made a large grant of land west of Delaware river to his friend William Penn*, a leading Quaker*. The grant was the way of cancelling a large debt Charles owed to Penn's father, Admiral Sir William Penn. On this land so given, William Penn founded American Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, named in honour of his father. It was intended to be a refuge for Quakers and other religious groups, exiled by European persecution, and an attempt to create a perfect Christian Commonwealth.

In 1679 Charles declared the land of New Hampshire* a separate royal province. For almost 40 years it had been governed as part of Massachusetts Bay Colony*. English colonization of North America was therefore well advanced by the end of Charles II's reign.

A Catholic at the Last

King Charles II died on February 1685. On his deathbed he secretly converted to the Catholicism espoused** by his wife and feared by his subjects. He was severely unwell for four days after suffering a stroke, but maintained his good humour and before he died made his peace with his queen and many illegitimate offsprings. Queen Catherine, who had loved him powerfully throughout his years of philandering, sat patiently with him during the illness, but was absent at the end because she grieved so fiercely. When she sent an apology for not being present, the king exclaimed, "Alas, poor woman. She beg my pardon? I beg hers with all my heart".

Charles was remembered indulgently by his subjects as the "Merry Monarch", celebrated in the Earl Rochester's lines, "We have a pretty witty King, whose word no man relies on; who never said a foolish thing, nor ever did a wise one". Although he has been criticised for lacking seriousness of mind and application to the affairs of government, he did

succeed in stabilizing the monarchy after the troubled years of the Commonwealth and Protectorate.

James II

Reign	6 February 1685 – 11 December 1688
Born	14 October 1633 / St. James's Palace, London
Died	16 September 1701 (aged 67) Saint-Germain-en-Laye, France

In Scotland, he was called James VII, as there were six previous kings of that nation named James. Unlike his brother, James II did not dissimulate** for the sake of policy. He dealt plainly with friends and foes alike. James did not desire to establish Catholicism or absolutism and offered iron-clad guarantees for the preservation of the Anglican Church.

He was a grandson of James I. His ideas of the "divine right of kings" were the same as those of his grandfather and his father, Charles I. He obstinately attempted to carry out these ideas in spite of the fact that his father had been beheaded by Parliament. It has been said of James II that he alienated** "not only the classes which had fought *against* his father, but also those that had fought *for* his father."

When he succeeded to the throne on the death of his brother, Charles II (1688), the people welcomed him and fought for him against a rebellion led by the duke of Monmouth*. But the cruelty that was shown to the followers of Monmouth at their trials – called the 'Bloody Assizes**' because of their vindictiveness – turned many against the king.

Then James further angered the nation by trying to restore Catholicism as the religion of England. He set aside or "dispensed" with the laws against Roman Catholics and Dissenters. He appointed many Catholics to office and even named some as bishops in the Church of England.

At first there was no organized opposition since James was 51 when he came to the throne and his two daughters by his first wife, Anne Hyde were both Protestants. But in 1688 a son was born to him by his second wife, Mary of Modena*, a devout Catholic. Afraid that the boy would become another Catholic king, Protestant nobles unjustly claimed that the child was not really the son of James and the queen, but was fraudulently smuggled into the palace. They used this excuse to invite James's daughter Mary and her husband, *William of Orange**, to come from Holland and

take the throne of England. When William landed, James lost his supporters and
fled to France.

Mary II

Reign	13 February 1689 – 28 December 1694
Born	30 April 1662 / St. James's Palace, London
Died	28 December 1694 (aged 32) / Kensington Palace, London

Mary was queen of England; joint ruler with William III. She was a Stuart, the elder daughter of James II. She became joint sovereign of Great Britain with her husband, William III, when the Revolution of 1688 drove her father from the throne. Although the administration was exclusively in the hands of William, it was the queen who made the reign popular by her youth, good heart, and pleasing manners. She died of smallpox on Dec. 28, 1694, after having ruled for only five years. She and William had no children. After William's death in 1702, Mary's sister Anne became queen.

Mary was twelve years younger than William and found him repulsive. Although terribly homesick while living in Holland, she eventually came to love both the man and his country. William maintained a long-lasting affair with Elizabeth Villiers, one of Mary's ladies-in-waiting, which prompted Mary to be completely devoted and subservient** to her husband. William's demeanor towards Mary seemed cold and indifferent on the surface, but his deep grief over her death indicated just how much he relied upon and respected her.

William III

Reign	14 November 1650 – 8 March 1702 (Prince of Orange) 13 February 1689 – 8 March 1702 (11 May 1689 – 8 March 1702 *in Scotland*) (King of England, Scotland and Ireland)
Born	14 November 1650 / Binnenhof, The Hague
Died	8 March 1702 (aged 51) / Kensington Palace, London

William III ruled jointly with his queen, Mary, until her death in 1694. The English invited them to come to England after the Glorious Revolution of 1688, which cost James II his crown.

William was the Prince of Orange, stadtholder (ruler) of the United Provinces of the Netherlands. He himself had little claim to the English throne, although his mother, Mary, was an English princess, daughter of Charles I. His wife, however, was regarded by many English people as the lawful successor to James II because she was James's elder daughter.

The English turned against James II when he began to show a strong Roman Catholic policy. William was the chief defender in Europe of *Protestant interests* against the growing power of Louis XIV of France. In this he followed in the footsteps of his great-grandfather, William the Silent, who had won for the Protestant Netherlands their freedom from Catholic Spain.

William had been in contact with the opponents of James II for more than a year before he accepted their invitation to become king. William landed on the south coast of England with a large force; but it was no hostile action. At once almost the whole of England and Scotland rallied to his support. James II fled to France. The English then crowned William and Mary as joint sovereigns. The ***Bill of Rights,*** passed by Parliament, legalized the changes. Ireland did not accept William and Mary until James was defeated in the battle of the Boyne.

William's chief interest was still on the continent. He had come to power in the Netherlands at a time when the French king Louis XIV was embarking on plans for "universal monarchy", and William had already won fame for his skill in generalship and in building alliances to resist French aggression. He valued the English crown chiefly for the added resources it brought him in this lifelong conflict.

After another eight years of war from 1689 to 1697, Louis XIV made a peace at Ryswick that left him only slight gains and bound him to cease his support of the Stuart pretender to the English throne. The peace, however, proved to be but a breathing space. Five years later, as the last and greatest of the wars against Louis XIV was about to break out, William III made preparations for leading Protestant Europe against the French. But in March 1702 he died as the result of a fall from his horse. Queen Mary had died eight years earlier. Since they had no children, the throne passed to Anne, Mary's sister.

Although William III was never very popular with his British subjects, his reign was one of considerable progress in real liberty and constitutional government. In the judgment of historians he ranks as one of the ablest of Britain's kings.

The Glorious Revolution

On 23 December 1688 – the day that King James II succeeded in escaping to France – the peers and bishops of the House of Lords asked William to assume the duties of government. William turned down a suggestion that he should claim the throme himself by right of conquest. Then on 28 January 1689 the Commons declared that James II's flight to France was an abdication of the government and that the throne was therefore vacant. Just because the Lords were concerned to safeguard the principle of hereditary succession to the throne it was suggested that Mary should rule alone (having inherited the throne as King James II's daughter), or that William and Mary should govern as regents until James II died. But William demanded the full power and sovereignty of a monarch, jointly held with his wife. So when William of Orange and Princess Mary jointly acceded to the throne on 13 February 1689, it marked the first time in English history that a royal succession had been settled not by hereditary right or military might, but by the will of the two Houses of Parliament. It was a bloodless process and that is why it got the name of the 'Glorious Revolution', or Bloodless one.

Constitutional Monarchy and the Declaration of Rights

On 12 February 1689 both houses of Parliament agreed a "Declaration of Rights". When on the following day William and Mary accepted the terms of the declaration and were elevated to the throne as joint rulers, a new kind of royal government was brought into being: constitutional monarchy.

The Declaration of Rights, which was made formal in a Bill of Rights[1] passed on 16 December 1689, made a number of groundbreaking changes to the relationship between monarch and Parliament. The monarch was barred from keeping a standing army, and Parliament had final authority in declaring war, raising taxes and passing laws. Free elections to Parliament would be held every three years, and MPs would be guaranteed freedom of speech. Subjects also had the rights to petition the monarch on matters of concern. All Protestants had the right to carry arms for self-

[1] Since the implementation of the Statute of Westminster in each of the Commonwealth realms (on successive dates from 1931 onwards) the Bill of Rights cannot be altered in any realm except by that realm's own parliament, and then, by convention, and as it touches on the succession to the shared throne, only with the consent of all the other realms.

In the United Kingdom, the Bill of Rights is further accompanied by the Magna Carta, Habeas Corpus Act 1679 and Parliament Acts 1911 and 1949 as some of the basic documents of the unwritten British constitution. A separate but similar document, the Claim of Right Act, applies in Scotland. Further, a bill of rights has been listed, in Republic of Ireland's Statute Law Revision (Pre-Union), as an English act of parliament to be retained as part of the country's law. The English Bill of Rights 1689 inspired in large part the United States Bill of Rights.

defence, to enjoy freedom from cruel and unusual punishments and to live free from fines imposed without trial. The Bill of Rights placed few restrictions on the new monarch's powers and prerogatives. It laid down the principles of Parliamentary supremacy, requesting free elections, frequent parliaments, and freedom of speech within parliament. This made it clear that Parliament was to be the supreme power in the state, controlling finance, the army and the appointment of judges. New laws and taxes had to be approved by parliament and the monarch. And the monarch lost his right to summon and dissolve parliament. Parliament could be dissolved only by its own consent.

Under the bill, all Catholics – including James II and his offspring and all those married to Catholics were barred from the succession. The Bill also specified the future Protestant succession: first, through the heirs of Queen Mary II, then through Mary's sister Princess Anne and her heirs and then through any heirs of William III by a later marriage.

A New Succession Crisis and the Act of Settlement

At the death of the 11-year-old Duke William of Gloucester, only son, of William III's recognized successor, Princess Ann put the Protestant succession in jeopardy**. On 12 June 1701 Parliament passed *the Act of Settlement*, which nominated a new and unexpected Protestant heir to follow Ann. The heir was to be Sophia, Electress of Hanover, the daughter of Charles I's sister Elizabeth, and her husband Frederick V the Elector** Palatinate. The act made it clear that final authority now resided in Parliament, which had the gift of the crown among its powers. The decision was that it was better to pass the crown to a foreign royal family than to risk it falling into Catholic hands. *The Act of Settlement* excluded from succession any Catholics who married princesses of the Stuart line. It also tried to limit potential problems arising from giving royal power to the Hanoverian royal line by stating that future monarchs would not be permitted to launch a war "for the defence of dominions or territories which do not belong to the Crown of England without the consent of Parliament".

Anne

Reign	8 March 1702 – 1 August 1714
Born	6 February 1665 / St. James's Palace, London
Died	1 August 1714 (aged 49) / Kensington Palace, London

King William died unexpectedly. On 21 February 1702 he fell from his horse and broke his collarbone after the animal stumbled over a molehill in Richmond Park. The fall plunged him into a terminal decline; he developed pulmonary fever and died on 8 March.

Queen Anne aged 37, proved a more able and astute** ruler than anyone had imagined. She was crowned in Westminster Abbey on 23April 1702. Her three principal ministers were all exceptionally able: John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough*, who was commander-in-chief and in charge of diplomatic and military affairs; Sidney, Baron Godolphin*, Lord Treasurer; and Sir Robert Harley*, Secretary of State.

For advice Queen Anne relied upon her close friend Sarah Jennings Churchill and Sarah's husband, who rose to be duke of *Marlborough.*

Under Marlborough's leadership in the War of the Spanish Succession, Britain and its allies put an end to the ambitions of Louis XIV of France. The Treaty of Utrecht (1713) gave England Gibraltar and important holdings in America, where the war was called *Queen Anne's War*. The Act of Union (1707) united the governments of England and Scotland.

Anne married Prince George of Denmark in 1683. She had 17 children, but none survived her. When she died, on Aug. 1, 1714, the crown passed to the nearest Protestant heir, the Elector of Hanover, who became King George I.

The Act of Union

Negotiations for the legal union of England and Scotland formally began in 1706 and on 22 July of that year a draft treaty was agreed by the 62 appointed commissioners, providing for a united Kingdom with a single Parliament in Westminster, a single currency**, a common union flag and a guaranteed Protestant succession to the Hanoverian royal line. In addition, the treaty provided for the Scottish church, education and legal systems to be independent of those in England. With a few minor

amendments and despite Scottish public opposition strong enough to fuel riots in Edinburgh and Glasgow – the Act of Union was passed by the Scottish Parliament on 16 January 1707. The Act received royal assent in Westminster on 6 March 1707.

Queen Anne's War (1701 - 1714)

A continuation of the War of the League of Augsburg, the War of the Spanish Succession lasted from 1701 to 1714. It was occasioned by the eagerly awaited death of Charles II, last of the Hapsburg kings of Spain, who died in 1700.

Because England, France, and the Dutch Republic were all pressing claims to Spain, a Treaty of Partition was drawn up in 1698 giving the kingship to the elector of Bavaria, Joseph Ferdinand. His death in February 1699 made a second treaty necessary. Holy Roman Emperor Leopold I would not agree to it, nor did the Spanish nobility. Charles II himself had decided to will the succession to the House of Bourbon. This would give Spain to the grandson of Louis XIV of France, Philip of Anjou.

Philip was proclaimed Philip V by Louis, who then launched an invasion of the Netherlands to secure it for Spain. An anti-French alliance was immediately formed by England, the Dutch Republic, the Holy Roman emperor, Prussia, Portugal, and some German states. Due to the outstanding generalship of the Duke of Marlborough for England and Eugene of Savoy for Austria, France lost the war. Nevertheless, Philip V was able to maintain himself on the throne of Spain. When Leopold I died in 1711, his son inherited all the Hapsburg possessions.

At this point rivalries broke out in the alliance. England especially was unwilling to see Charles, the new Holy Roman emperor, get Spain. As the alliance collapsed, each party negotiated separately with France, and the war ended in 1714. The North American part of the conflict was called Queen Anne's War.

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER

1714 -1727	George I
1727-1760	George II
1760-1820	George III
1820 -1830	George IV
1830-1837	William IV
1837-1901	Queen Victoria

The sovereigns of Great Britain, Scotland and the United Kingdom (1714-1901). The dynasty was named after the Hanover (known alternatively as Brunswick-Luneburg), the rulers of which were electors of the Holy Roman Empire. The Prince George Louis Elector of Hanover according to the Act of Settlement (1701) became George I. The dynasty provided six monarchs. The first two Georges were considered foreigners, especially by many Scots, and in 1715 and 1745 the Stuart claimants – James Edward, the Old Pretender, and Charles Edward, the Young Pretender – vainly attempted to regain the throne. George III, born in England, achieved wider British recognition.

In 1837 the personal union between Britain and Hanover (since 1815 a kingdom) ended, the crown of Hanover passing to Victoria's uncle, Ernest, Duke of Cumberland. The Hanover dynasty ended with Victoria's death in 1901. The dynastic name of the successor Edward VII was Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, which was renamed in 1917 the house of Windsor.

George I

Reign	1 August 1714 – 11 June 1727
Born	28 May 1660 / 7 June 1660 (N.S.) Osnabrück or Hanover
Died	11 June 1727 (aged 67) / 22 June 1727 (N.S.) Osnabrück

Prince George Louis, Elector of Brunswick-Lüneburg was in Hanover when he became king of England on 1 August 1714, less than nine hours after Queen Anne had died in Kensington. At the age of 54, he set a record as the oldest monarch on accession in British history.

George I was born March 28, 1660, son of Ernest, Elector of Hanover and Sophia, granddaughter of James I. He was raised in the royal court of Hanover, a German province and married Sophia, Princess of Zelle, in 1682. The marriage produced one son (the future George II) and one daughter (Sophia Dorothea, who married her cousin, Frederick William I, King of Prussia). After ruling England for thirteen years, George I died of a stroke on a journey to his beloved Hanover on October 11,1727.

George, Elector of Hanover since 1698, ascended the throne upon the death of Queen Anne, under the terms of the 1701 Act of Settlement. His mother had recently died and he meticulously settled his affairs in Hanover before coming to England. He realized his position and considered the better of two evils to be the Whigs (the other alternative was the Catholic son of James II by Mary of Modena, James Edward Stuart the Old Pretender). George knew that any decision was bound to offend at least half of the British population. His character and manners were strictly German; he never troubled himself to learn the English language, and spent at least half of his time in Hanover.

The pale little 54 year-old man arrived in Greenwich on September 29, 1714, with a full retinue of German friends, advisors and servants (two of which, Mohamed and Mustapha, were Negroes captured during a Turkish campaign). All were determined to profit from the venture, with George leading the way. He also arrived with two mistresses and no wife – Sophia had been imprisoned for adultery. The English population was unkind to the two mistresses, labeling the tall, thin Ehrengard Melusina as the “maypole”, and the short fat Charlotte Sophia as the “elephant”.

The Jacobites*, legitimist** Tories, attempted to depose George and replace him with the Old Pretender* in 1715. The rebellion was a dismal failure. The Old Pretender failed to arrive in Britain until it was over. After the rebellion, England settled into a much needed time of peace, with internal politics and foreign affairs coming to the fore.

George’s ignorance of the English language and customs actually became the cornerstone of his style of rule: leave England to its own devices and live in Hanover as much as possible Cabinet positions became of the utmost importance; the king’s ministers represented the executive branch of government while Parliament represented the legislative. George’s frequent absences required the creation of the post of Prime Minister, the majority leader in the House of Commons who acted in the king’s stead. The first was Robert Walpole. His successful work in politics placed him in the position of dominating British politicians for the next 20

years, and the reliance on an executive Cabinet marked an important step in the formation of a modern constitutional monarchy in England.

George[2] avoided entering European conflicts by establishing a complex web of continental alliances. He and his Whig ministers were quite skillful; the realm managed to stay out of war until George II declared war on Spain in 1739. George I and his son, George II, literally hated each other, a fact that the Tory party used to gain political strength. George I, on his many trips to Hanover, never placed the leadership of government in his son's hands, preferring to rely on his ministers when he was abroad. This disdain between father and son was a blight which became a tradition in the House of Hanover.

Jacobite Troubles

The Old Pretender

George's claim to the throne lay chiefly as a Protestant blood relationship to the English ruling line. He acceded under the 1701 *Act of Settlement*, which in order to secure a Protestant succession, had raised George's mother Sophia, Electress of Hanover, above more than 50 Stuart relations with better claim. On August, Parliament proclaimed George was to be crowned at Westminster Abbey on 20 October and, although there were demonstrations in favour of the Jacobite claim of James Stuart, the 'Old Pretender', the occasion went well.

In 1715 the new king faced a large-scale rebellion of Highlanders** and northern English Jacobites[3] in support of the 'Old Pretender'. A minority of Scots favoured the Jacobite cause for several reasons: one pressing factor was resentment at the Act of Union; another was affective for the House of Stuart, originally a Scottish royal family; a third was loyalty to the Catholic cause, which remained strong among the Highland clans although it had little appeal to most Presbyterian Lowland Scots.

The Battle near Stirling in Scotland, on 13 November ended inconclusively** and the English Jacobites were crushingly defeated the

[2] Thackeray, in *The Four Georges*, allows both a glimpse of George I's character, and the circumstances under which he ruled England: "Though a despot in Hanover, he was a moderate ruler in England. His aim was to leave it to itself as much as possible, and to live out of it as much as he could. His heart was in Hanover. He was more than fifty-four years of age when he came amongst us: we took him because we wanted him; because he served our turn; we laughed at his uncouth German ways, and sneered at him. He took our loyalty for what it was worth; laid hands on what money he could; kept us assuredly from Popery and wooden shoes. I, for one, would have been on his side in those days. Cynical, and selfish, as he was, he was better than the Old Pretender with a French King's orders in his pocket and a swarm of Jesuits in his brain".

[3] Jacobites – the supporters of James II's son, James Stuart, the self-declared King James III of England and King James VIII of Scots.

next day at Preston. The Old Pretender landed at Peterhead just before Christmas, but the uprising dwindled to nothing and on 4 February1716 he returned to France, having achieved nothing.

This collapse of the Jacobite uprising was by no means the end of efforts by supporters of James II's son to undo the Hanoverian succession and put a Catholic Stuart monarch on the English throne. But two attempts to reach the aim in 1719 and 1722 failed.

George I, Patron of the Arts

Music, Art and Architecture (1714-1727)

King George enjoyed the music – he played on strings, trumpets, flutes, recorders, horns, oboes and bassoons. He had become a patron of the composer Handel before acceding to the throne: he appointed him Kapellmeister to the Hanover court in 1710. That same year Handel had made his first impact in England and over the next four years so pleased Queen Anne that she awarded him a pension of £200 a year for life.

As King, George granted the composer a further annual pension. In 1726 Handel became a British subject and was appointed composer of the Chapel Royal. George demonstrated the love of music by signing up for a £1000 subscription to help establish the Royal Academy of Music.

George I was also a patron of visual arts, a supporter of British-born artist James Thornhill, whose allegories of the Protestant succession in the Painted Hall, Greenwich (1708-27) and eight scenes on the inner dome of St. Paul's Cathedral (1715-19). George appointed Thornhill royal history painter in 1718 and knighted him in 1720.

Georgian Architecture

Many fine churches and residential buildings were raised or completed in George's reign. At the end of Queen Anne's reign, architect Nicholas Hawksmoor, who had worked with his professional patron Sir Christopher Wren on St. Paul's Cathedral, was appointed to commission or design 50 new churches. Four of his designs were built largely within King George's reign: St. Anne, St. Mary, St. George, and Christ Church.

In the year of his accession King George appointed leading architect John Vanbrugh* comptroller** of royal works. He would be the first man to be knighted by the king in 1714.

Many leading writes made reputations during George's reign. These included Alexander Pope, Jonathan Swift (whose "Gulliver's Travels" was published in 1726) and Daniel Defoe, who published "Robinson Crusoe" (1719) and "Moll Flanders" (1722). However the king's very poor grasp of English inevitably limited his contact with writing in that language. The scholars believe that his support for French philosopher and poet Voltaire,

exiled in London from 1726 to 1729 – whom George received and gave £200 in January 1727 – was probably politically motivated, in the interest of promoting an Anglo-French alliance.

The Royal Society

Like his predecessor Charles II, George I showed a keen interest in scientific developments. He received a number of prominent scientists at court and become patron of the Royal Society – the scientific body founded in 1660 – in May 1727.

George II

Reign	11 June 1727 – 25 October 1760 (33 years, 125 days)
Born	30 October/9 November 1683 / Herrenhausen Palace, Hanover
Died	25 October 1760 (aged 76) / Kensington Palace, London

George II was born November 10. 1683. the only son of George I and Sophia His youth was spent in the Hanoverian court in Germany and he married Caroline of Anspach in 1705 He was truly devoted to Caroline; she bore him three sons and five daughters, and actively participated in government affairs, before she died in 1737. Like his father, George was very much a German prince, but at the age of 30 when George I ascended the throne, he was young enough to absorb the English culture that escaped his father, George II died of a stroke on October 25, 1760.

George possessed three passions: the army, music and his wife. He was exceptionally brave and has the distinction of being the last British sovereign to command troops in the field (at Dettingen against the French in 1743). He inherited his father's love of opera, particularly the work of George Frederick Handel who had been George I's court musician in Hanover. Caroline proved to be his greatest asset. She revived traditional court life (which had all but vanished under George I, was fiercely intelligent and an ardent supporter of Robert Walpole. Walpole continued in the role of Prime Minister at Caroline's behest. The hatred George felt towards his father was reciprocated by his son, Frederick, Prince of Wales who died in 1751.

Walpole retired in 1742, after establishing the foundation of the modern constitutional monarchy, – a Cabinet responsible to a Parliament,

which was, in turn, responsible to an electorate. At that time, the system was far from truly democratic; the electorate was essentially the voice of wealthy landowners and mercantilists. The Whig party was firmly in control, although legitimist Torries attempted one last Jacobite rebellion in 1745, trying to restore a Stuart to the throne. Prince Charles Edward Stuart, known as the Young Pretender or Bonnie Prince Charlie, landed in Scotland and marched as far south as Derby, causing yet another wave of Anti-Catholicism to wash over England. The Scots retreated, and in 1746. Bonnie Prince Charlie escaped to France and later died in Rome. The Tories became suspect due to their associations with Jacobitism, ensuring oligarchic Whig rule for the following fifty years.

Walpole managed to keep George out of continental conflicts for the first twelve years of the reign, but George declared war on Spain in 1739, against Walpole's wishes The Spanish war extended into the 1740's as a component of the War of Austrian Succession, in which England fought against French dominance in Europe. George shrank away from the situation quickly: he negotiated a hasty peace with France, to protect Hanover. The 1750s found England again at war with France, this time over imperial claims. Fighting was intense in Europe, but North America and India were also theatres of the war.

A Stately Coronation

King George II and Queen Caroline were crowned with great ceremony in Westminster Abbey on 11 October 1727. Handel wrote four new anthems for the service, including the majestic "Zadok the Priest", which so impressed King and court that it became standard fare for coronation services, and has been used at every British crowning from 1727 to the present day. The moment at which King George took the coronation oath was marked by the firing of guns at the Tower of London and in Hyde Park.

The Birth of 'Georgia'

On 9 June 1732, King George granted a royal charter for the formation of a new English colony in North America, to be called "Georgia" in his honour. The holder of the charter, James Oglethorpe, planned to allow imprisoned debtors and other people in severe poverty to make a new life in the colony. A group of 114 colonists departed from Gravesend on a frigate named the *Anne*. Some of these settlers landed at Yamacraw Bluff on the Savannah river on 12 February 1733 and founded the settlement of Savannah. Local Indians helped the first Georgians, and after a difficult beginning the colony soon began to thrive** and prosper.

Bonnie Prince Charlie and the 1745 Rising

In 1745 Prince *Charles Edward Stuart, grandson of the ousted King James II of England, launched the last attempt by Jacobite supporters of the Stuart claim to regain the British crown. The charismatic 24-year-old was the elder son, of James Stuart*, the man derided as the "Old Pretender", who had been the figurehead of failed Jacobite revolts in 1708, 1715 and 1722.

Charles Stuart landed in the Outer Hebrides on 23 July 1745, and declared, "I am come home". He was supported by just 12 men, but after travelling on the mainland he was able to raise the support of the largely pro-Stuart and anti-English Highland clans. On 17 September 1745 he entered Edinburgh at the head of a force of 2,400 men. His Scots supporters acclaimed him as "Bonnie Prince Charlie", while the Hanoverians mocked him as the "Young Pretender". In Edinburgh he proclaimed his father King James VIII of Scots. He won the first battle at Prestonpans, and in London King George and the Hanoverian establishment began to fear that, after so many failed attempts, the Jacobites might finally succeed.

A popular song began to do the rounds, lauding** King George and begging God for help. It was first played in public on 28 September – just one week after the Jacobite victory at Prestonpans. Three days later, the words were printed in "The Gentleman's Magazine". At this stage, the song consisted of the first three verses, but a fourth, anti-Jacobite verse was later added. The words were by an unknown author while the tune may have been based on a Tudor galliard** or a tune by French composer Jean-Baptise Lully. By 1819 it was established as the national anthem. In 1946 the original second stanza was replaced by a new one and the fourth stanza was deleted.

Encouraged by his success at Prestonpans, Charles marched into England. The 5,000-strong Jacobite army got as far as Derby, where on 5 December it was faced by a government force six times its size. Charles was forced to retreat to Scotland and the Jacobites were pursued northwards by the Duke of Cumberland at the head of a large Hanoverian army. At last on the morning of 16 April 1746 they went into battle against the 9000-odd troops of Cumberland's army on Culloden Moor. Cumberland's army overwhelmed Charles's force and brutally slaughtered the wounded and prisoners. Few escaped the massacre, but Prince Charles was one of them. He escaped from Scotland in female disguise as the Irish maid of local woman Flora MacDonald. On 20 September 1746 he boarded a French frigate and escaped into exile forever.

Georgian Britain (1745-1760)

In the latter years of King George II's reign Britain greatly expanded in colonial holdings. This took place in the course of the French

and Indian War (1754-63), which was the North American phase of the Seven Years War fought with France in Europe (usually dated 1756-63). Fighting began in 1754 in the upper valley of the Ohio River and for four years resulted in uninterrupted French victories. However, in 1758-59, thanks to a British naval blockade that prevented French supplies getting through, the British won a series of astonishing victories. These culminated in the Battle of Quebec on 13 September 1759, which forced the surrender of Quebec. In October 1760, the month of King George II's death, the British also captured the city of Montreal.

A Rich Culture

George II, who declared his lack of interest in books and learning presided over and made a major contribution to the foundation of the British Museum, as well as a culture of glittering musical, artistic and literary achievement.

The British Museum was established by an Act of Parliament on 7 June 1753. Its principle collection consisted of 71,000 objects and 50,000 books left to King George for the nation in a will that year by physicist Sir Hans Sloane. In 1757 King George then donated the "Old Royal Library" belonging to the monarchs of England, a rich and venerable** collection of 10,000 books and 1,800 manuscripts. The new collection was housed in Montagu House in Bloomsbury and opened to the public on 15 January 1759.

At this time London had a thriving literary culture: Dr Samuel Johnson's Dictionary of the English Language was published in 1735, while the novels "Clarissa" by Samuel Richardson and "Tom Jones" by Henry Fielding had recently been published. In the visual arts William Hogarth was named painter to the court of King George in June 1757.

In music, George Frederic Handel remained an active composer for his royal patrons throughout the reign. German-born, but a British citizen since 1726, by the time of his death on 14 April 1759, Handel was established as a British institution. He was buried in Poets' Corner, Westminster Abbey.

Death of the King

King George II died of a stroke on 25 October 1760 shortly before his 77th birthday. His 33-year reign had seen a consolidation of the arrangements of constitutional monarchy, under which the King reigned but scarcely ruled, as power became concentrated in the hands of ministers such as William Pitt. He may have preferred Hanover to Britain, but on his death he left an increasingly secure and successful nation, with British naval and military might bringing rapid expansion in overseas possessions. He would be remembered as the last British monarch to lead his army into

battle. Following the death of his hated son Frederick in 1751, George's heir was his grandson George William Frederick, who succeeded as King George III.

George III

Reign	25 October 1760 – 29 January 1820
Born	4 June 1738 / Norfolk House, St James's Square
Died	29 January 1820 (aged 81) / Windsor Castle, Berkshire

George III was born in 1738, first son of Frederick. Prince of Wales and Augusta he married Charlotte of Mecklinburg-Strelitz in 1761, to whom he was devoted. The couple produced a prolific fifteen children nine sons and six daughters. George was afflicted with porphyria**, a maddening disease which disrupted his reign as early as 1765. Several attacks strained his grip on reality and debilitated him in the last years of his reign. Personal rule was given to his son George, the Prince Regent, in 1811. George III died blind, deaf and mad at Windsor Castle on January 29, 1820.

George III succeeded his grandfather. George II, in 1760 (Frederick, Prince of Wales, had died in 1751 having never ruled). George was determined to recover the prerogative lost to the ministerial council by the first two Georges; in the first two decades of the reign, he methodically weakened the Whig party through bribery, coercion** and patronage. Bouts with madness and the way he handled the American Revolution eroded his support and the power of the Crown was granted again to the Prime Minister.

George's moral nature, together with a strongly developed sense of the dignity of the monarchy, found expression in his attempts to place limits on the amorous exploits of members of the royal family. His own marriage was happy and he was the first king since Charles I not to keep a royal mistress. However, the behaviour of many of his close relatives fell far below his own standards.

War with America Revolution, 1773-1783

Conflicts began over the Stamp Act, imposed in March 1765 on legal documents, newspapers, pamphlets and many other paper items, including playing cards, as a way of raising revenue to help cover the costs of the Seven Years War* (1756-63). Americans resisted, demanding their representation in London's Parliament. The Stamp Act was repealed** in 1766, but further taxes on tea, glass, lead, paper and paint were introduced under the 1767 Townshend Act (named after the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Charles Townshend). In Boston, Massachusetts they provoked a boycott of British goods and rioting. Such events as the Boston Massacre of 5 March 1770 and the "Boston Tea Party" of 16 December 1773, escalated disagreement and in 1774 Parliament passed the Coercive Acts containing punitive measures against the colonists and, in February 1775, Massachusetts was declared to be in a state of rebellion.

The American War of Independence began on 19 April 1775. The colonial army, under General George Washington, drove the British out of Boston on 17 March 1776. The conflict in North America was prolonged and expensive. After Britain lost control of the seas to the French in 1781 General Cornwallis surrendered to American forces at Yorktown on 19 October 1781. The Treaty of Versailles [vₑə´sai], on 3 September 1783 recognized independence of the United States of America and Britain retained possession of Gibraltar, India, Canada and West Indies. King George III had by this time reconciled himself with some sadness to the loss of Britain's American colonies.

George III in Government

King George III's attempts to maintain the power of the monarchy both at home and in American colonies were attacked as tyranny or attempts at absolutism. However, George did not want to turn the clock back to the Stuart era of absolute royal rule. Devout** and conscientious, he saw it as his God-given duty to rule with authority and expected the willing consent of Parliament. Right from the start of the reign he struggled to maintain this authority in the face of an ever stronger and more independent Parliament and public criticism of his actions.

End of an Era

James Stuart, son of King James II and figurehead for the Jacobite revolts of 1715, 1719 and 1745, died in Rome on 1 January 1766 at the age of 77. He was buried in St. Peter's after a truly splendid memorial ceremony – in which his body, dressed in robes of crimson velvet and wearing a crown, was laid beneath a banner proclaiming him Jacobus Jertius Magnate Britannia Rex ("King James III of Great Britain"). His son,

"Bonnie Prince Charlie", survived him. But he, too, died on 30 January 1788 in Rome. The death of the men known as the "Old Pretender" and the "Young Pretender" marked the end of the Stuart era in European royal life.

Britain Abroad

In King George III's long reign the foundations were laid for Britain's great global empire of the 19th and early 20th centuries. At the close of the Seven Years War, the 1763 Treaty of Paris brought Britain widespread territories. Many of these were retained, following the loss of the North American colonies, in the 1783 Treaty of Versailles, when Britain remained in control of the West Indies, Canada and Gibraltar. Captain James Cook claimed Australia and New Zealand for Britain in the early 1770; the penal colony of Botany Bay was established near the 'new town' of Sydney in January 1788. The 1801 Act of Union* eased British anxieties that following the creation of the USA and the French Revolution of 1789, Ireland would achieve independence.

King George and the Arts

George III was a keen musician and an able performer on harpsichord and flute. He liked chess, was an amateur painter and also collected books. He took interest in mechanics and science, investigating the workings of clocks as well as studying astronomy.

George was also a significant patron of the arts. In 1768 he founded the Royal Academy, "for the purpose of cultivating the arts of painting, sculpture and architecture". Its first president was portrait painter Sir Joshua Reynolds.

King George and Queen Charlotte received the eight-year-old boy genius Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart in 1764. Later in the reign the Austrian composer Joseph Haydn became a favourite. George also bought Buckingham House, the future Buckingham Palace, in 1762 and had Dr. Johnson create a library there in 1767. Robert Adam was appointed to the post of royal architect 1761-1769 and Josiah Wedgwood served as the the Queen's potter from 1765.

When was the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland formed?

In 1800 the separate Irish Parliament was closed and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland was formed. Achieved by legislation of the separate parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland, union was enacted on 1 August 1800, establishing the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland on 1 January 1801. The Irish rebellion of 1798 and French invasion threats convinced Pitt* the Younger that union was essential. He failed,

however, in his aim of simultaneous Catholic emancipation as George III denied it.

The cross of St. Patrick was added to the flag Union Jack in 1801. Originally and correctly, the name Union Jack was applied to the flag only when used on the ship Jack-flag.

Why is the Battle of Trafalgar famous?

In 1805 a British fleet under the command of Admiral Horatio Nelson defeated Napoleon's fleet at the Battle of Trafalgar. Nelson's Column of Trafalgar Square in London commemorates this national hero who was killed in the battle.

The Battle of Trafalgar by J. M. W. Turner (oil on canvas, 1806 to 1808)

Nelson on top of his column in Trafalgar Square

When did the Parliament for the first time allow written records of its debates to be published in press?

In 1771. Hansard, the official reports of proceeding and debates of the Houses of Parliament, named after the Hansard family of printers. The unofficial publication of parliamentary reports was begun in 1803 and, as "Hansard's Parliamentary Debates", was continued by the family until 1889. The government finally took over publication in 1909.

Insanity and the King, 1810-1820

On 3 November 1810 King George was confined in a straitjacket. The death of his beloved youngest child, Princess Amelia, at the age of 27, brought a recurrence of the mysterious illness that robbed him of his mental faculties. He had recovered from previous attacks but this time he

descended beyond the reach of his doctors into a decade – long darkness that lasted until his death in January 1820.

The first attack of madness came in the autumn of 1788. The illness attacked the king's eyesight and also made him talk in a rambling, incoherent and sometimes lewd manner. This first attack ended after three months in the spring of 1789. A second attack, with identical symptoms to the first, including the profound mental confusion, struck on 13 February 1801 and lasted around four weeks. Another attack in February 1804 lasted till the summer when George had fully recovered. But after 1811 the king was a truly pathetic figure, completely blind and increasingly deaf. He did not recognize Queen Charlotte and could not sleep. He was detached from his former self and the glorious life he had once lived. History has not been kind to King George III. He is remembered as a pathetic figure in his madness. He is generally remembered as something of a fool; an incompetent king, provoking a war that brought about the loss of the North American colonies – a catastrophic event for Britain.

The Prince Regent, 1811-1820

Parliament passed the Regency Act* on 5 February 1811, under which the Prince of Wales took "Full power and authority, in the name and on behalf of His Majesty and under the stile** and title of Regent of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, to exercise and administer the royal power".

Initially both the prince and the government hoped that the Regency would be short-lived, but by February 1812 it was apparent that the king would not recover and the Prince of Wales's regency was made permanent.

On 1 August 1814 the Prince Regent hosted lavish** celebrations of the 100th anniversary of the Hanoverian accession. The celebrations included the erection of a spectacular seven-storey Chinese pagoda in St James's Park and of arcades and roundabouts in Hyde Park; meanwhile, a 'sea battle' was enacted on the waters of the Serpentine. After dark, fire works lit the sky above Green Park, where a gothic castle had been temporarily built. The Duke of Wellington's defeat of the French emperor Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo on 18 June 1815 was one of the great events of prince's regency. The Prince leraned the news on the very evening of the battle when he received the battle dispatch from Wellington. After Lord Liverpool read it aloud, Prince George commented, 'It is a glorious victory and we must rejoice at it. But the loss of life has been fearful.'

With the death of the 82-year-old King George III on 29 January 1820, the Prince Regent acceded to the throne as King George IV.

Regency Arts and Architecture, 1811-1821

First as Prince of Wales, then Prince Regent and finally King George IV he was an enthusiastic patron of the arts, particularly in the field of architecture. He enriched his realm through his association with architect John Nash, designer of Regent's Park and Regent Street in London and extravagant remodeller of the Royal Pavilion in Brighton. Nash made his name as an architect of country houses in Wales, before entering the employment of the Prince of Wales in 1898. In 1806, as Prince Regent, George appointed Nash as Architect in the Office of Woods and Forests. It allowed Nash to make his mark in the design of the 'New Street' proposed to link the Regent's palace, Carlton House, to new developments in Marylebone Park (now Regent's Park).

Work began on the street under the New Street Act of 1813 and was completed around 1825. Nash's original and highly stylish plans for the park, which created an elegant layout with grand terraces, scattered villas were fulfilled between 1817 and 1828.

In the year 1815-23 Nash remodeled George's Royal Pavilion in Brighton in an extravagant "Hindu-Gothic" style that combined classical architecture with elements derived from Indian temples and palaces.

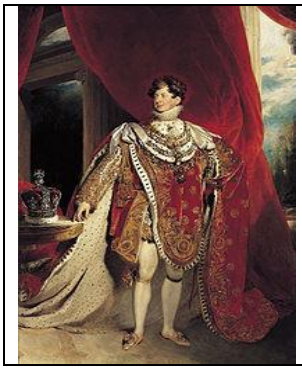
Other Nash projects included the redesign of St. James's Park (1827-29) and the redevelopment of Buckingham House as a palace.

Art, Music and Literature

In the field of the visual arts, George commissioned works from John Constable, George Stubbs, Thomas Gainsborough, Thomas Lawrence and Joshua Reynolds, while also buying art by masters such as Rubens and Rembrandt for his Carlton House collection. He opened his collection to the public, and he played an important role in the 1824 establishment of the National Gallery. In music George was a keen patron of the Austrian composer Joseph Haydn.

In 1820 George was a founding member of the Royal Society of Literature. He was a friend of Sir Walter Scott and reportedly a keen reader of the novels of Jane Austen. George invited Austen to Carlton House in 1815. She was informed that George kept a set of her novels in each of his houses. She returned the compliment by putting her dedication to the Prince Regent at the start of her next novel, "Emma" (1816).

George IV



Reign	29 January 1820 – 26 June 1830
Born	12 August 1762 / St James's Palace, London
Died	26 June 1830 (aged 67) / Windsor Castle, Berkshire

Two days after the death of George III, his son the Prince Regent was proclaimed King George IV on 29 January 1820. The fat, self-indulgent prince had pursued a hard-drinking, womanizing lifestyle since at least 1779 when, at the age of 17, he began a love affair with a married actress. His behaviour made him unpopular, and this was exacerbated** by his refusal to mend his ways following his marriage to Princess Caroline of Brunswick-Wolfen-Güttel in 1795. The royal couple lived together for only one out of 19 years from that date until 1814, when the princess abandoned her husband and returned to Brunswick. She returned from the Continent in June 1820 to claim her rightful position as Queen of England. But the following year, when King George IV was crowned in the utmost splendour at Westminster Abbey, his Queen tried several times without success to gain admission to the Abbey. She accepted a payment of £ 50,000 per annum to go abroad, but died within a fortnight of the coronation.

The King's Illness

From 1823 George increasingly kept away from London, in his extravagant Brighton Pavilion at Windsor Castle with his latest mistress. Years of debauchery** had ruined his health. He continued in his bad habits, drinking very heavily. The Duke of Wellington, who visited him in Windsor, declared that there was nothing wrong with the king save the troubles caused by "Strong liquors taken too frequently and in too large quantities, adding that George ´Drinks spirits morning, noon and night´".

There was little sadness at his death on 26 June 1830. 'The Times' declared that there had never been "an individual less regretted by his fellow creatures than this deceased king".

George was succeeded by his brother William, Duke of Clarence, who reigned as King William IV.

William IV

Reign	26 June 1830 – 20 June 1837
Born	21 August 1765 / Buckingham House, London
Died	20 June 1837 (aged 71) / Windsor Castle, Berkshire

The 64-year-old Duke of Clarence had been heir to the throne for only three years following the death in January 1827 of Frederick, Duke of York. He had a bluff, easy-going manner, perhaps explained by the fact that he joined the navy aged 13. He had risen to the rank of lieutenant and taken command of a frigate of 28 guns before he was recalled to civilian life by the Prince of Wales in 1788. William lived from 1791 to 1811 with the celebrated actress Mrs. Dorothy Jordan, with whom he had ten children (five daughters and five sons). In 1818 he married Princess Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, but all the children of his marriage died in early childhood, so on his accession he was unable to offer a succession through legitimate heirs.

A Popular King

William was immediately popular with his people. He regularly walked the streets of Windsor, London and Brighton rather than ride in a carriage and had the facility of talking easily to strangers. Acutely aware of the resentment that had been caused by the extravagance of his self-indulgent brother George IV, he took care to have a relatively low-key** coronation in Westminster Abbey on 8 September 1831. The ceremony cost around £ 30,000, one-eighth of the £ 240,000 lavished by George IV on his coronation. One wag** called King William's event 'half-coronation', a reference to the low-denomination half-crown coin. He died of pneumonia on June 20, 1837, leaving the throne of England to his niece Victoria.

The Electoral Reform Act of 1832

An act originated in 1831 by the Whig government of Lord Grey in response to widespread unrest. It was defeated three times by the House of Lords and only in December, 1832 it became law. The act disenfranchised most rotten boroughs, and the released seats were redistributed among the

counties and previously unrepresented boroughs. In the boroughs £10 householders were granted the vote. The electorate in England and Wales was increased immediately by some 50%, but the vote had been extended only to the prosperous middle class. The king's actions in April 1831 earned him the nickname 'Reform Billy'. On that day King William went personally to the Lords and used his power to dissolve Parliament, thus forcing an election in which the Whigs won a greater majority. The following year, when the Lords continued to block the bill, William created sufficient Whig peers to pass the bill and the Act became law.

The Age of Victoria, 1837-1901

When the 18-year-old Princess Victoria came to the throne on 20 June 1837, the reputation of the monarchy had been considerably damaged by the excesses of the first four kings of the House of Hanover – from George I (1714-27) to George IV (1820-30) – and its reputation was only partially restored by the more restrained William IV (1830-37). However, by the time Queen Victoria died on 22 January 1901, after a reign of sixty-three-and-a half years, the monarchy was a well-respected and essential British institution: the queen had become a proud symbol of the stability and power of Britain, country that now possessed 20 per cent of global territory in the greatest worldwide empire known in history.

Victoria

Reign	20 June 1837 – 22 January 1901
Born	24 May 1819 / Kensington Palace, London
Died	22 January 1901 (aged 81) / Osborne House, Isle of Wight

Victoria came to the throne as the only legitimate child of Edward Augustus, Duke of Kent, the fourth son of King George III. In 1818, Edward married Princess Victoria of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, and their daughter Alexandrina Victoria was born in Kensington Palace on 24 May 1819. The duke was extremely proud of his baby daughter, and would tell people she was destined to be queen. Unfortunately, within months of the princess's birth he died of pneumonia.

Victoria grew up into a serious-minded young woman. She was crowned in great splendour in Westminster Abbey on 28 June 1838. (The young queen was 1.5 m tall.)

Victoria announced her engagement to Prince Albert* of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha on 23 November 1839, and they were married at St. James's Palace on 10 February 1840.

In the 1840s the youthful Queen Victoria survived a number of assassination attempts (five all in all) at a time of growing republican sentiment among radical groups. Some of the assassins were connected with chartists*, working-class supporters of parliamentary reform, in particular of universal suffrage for all males over 21.

Victoria and Albert marriage, stable life and large family did much to restore the dignity and standing of the monarchy after the excesses and public disgraces of the early Hanoverian Kings.

The royal couple had nine children, all of whom survived to adulthood, which was highly unusual even among the wealthy at the time.

Many of Victoria's children married into other European royal families. When she died, she had 31 surviving grandchildren and 40 great-grandchildren. Her granddaughters included the queens of Denmark, Belgium, Sweden, Norway, Greece, Romania, Spain, and the Tsarina of Russia. One of her grandsons became Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany. A complex web of dynastic relationships led her to become known as the "matriarch" of Europe.

Prince Albert's death on 14 December 1861 from typhoid fever aged 42 was a shock for Victoria and she might have suffered from a mental breakdown and withdrew to the Isle of Wight. Her withdrawal from public life was almost total and lasted at least 10 years. In 1871, however, Victoria was able to open a lasting memorial to her husband in the form of the magnificent Royal Albert Hall in Kensington, and that same year she began to reemerge.

The Great Exhibition

On 1 May 1851, Queen Victoria and Prince Albert opened an "Exhibition of the Works of Industry of all Nations".

More than 100,000 items were put on display by 14,000 exhibitors from around the world: more than half were from Britain and the British Empire. There were 560 exhibits from the United States, including a Colt pistol, Goodyear* India rubber products and false teeth.

The exhibition was housed in the magnificent Crystal Palace, made of glass and cast-iron. The palace stood 563m long and 124m across. It covered 7 hectares of parkland, while the exhibition floorspace was 9 hectares. It contained almost 300,000 panes of glass and 4,000 tons of iron.

The project was closely associated with Prince Albert, who at a meeting of the Royal Society of Arts in 1849 had promoted an early suggestion by Henry Cole to put on such an exhibition. Albert declared that it would promote "Achievements of modern invention" and be a "Living picture of the point of development at which mankind has arrived, and a new starting point from which all nations will be able to direct their future exertions".

The Great Exhibition was open from 1 May to 15 October 1851. It attracted 6 million visitors from around the world and made a profit of £ 186.000, which was used to build the Natural History Museum, the Victoria and Albert Museum and the Science Museum in the second half of the 19th century. The Great Exhibition and the Crystal Palace are generally seen as symbols of the Victorian Age.

What are the six points of the Petition of 1837 which became known as the Charter?

1.Universal manhood suffrage (a vote for every man over 21; at that time there was no idea of votes for women). Manhood suffrage was achieved by 1918 and votes for all women only in 1928. Voting age was reduced to 18 in 1969.

2.Vote by Secret Ballot (this was achieved in 1872).

3. Payment of M.P.'s (achieved in 1911).

4. Abolition of Property Qualification for M.P.'s (achieved in 1918).

5. Equal Electoral Districts (obtained gradually between 1885-1918).

6. Annual Parliament (not achieved; the maximum interval between General Elections is still 5 years. The date when the parliament is dissolved and the new election is held is decided by the government in office).

What was the worst disaster in Ireland in the 19th century?

For three years, 1845-1847, the potato crop, which was the main food of the poor, failed. In these years, 1.5 million people (about 20%) died from hunger.

The Political Parties

The old political parties of England, the Whigs* and the Tories* transformed during the reign of Victoria. Robert Peel's* support of the Corn Law Repeal* splintered the Tories into two camps. Peel's supporters joined with Whigs to create the Liberal Party (emerged in the 1860s) and the anti-Peel Tories became the Conservative Party(emerged in the 1830s). Liberals represented traders and manufacturers, with Conservatives representing the landed gentry. Victoria's role after this political

reformation was one of mediation between departing and arriving Prime Ministers (the Prime Minister was chosen by the party in control of the House of Commons). She was particularly fond of Conservative Benjamin Disraeli*, who, by linking Victoria to the expansion of the empire, garnered** respect for the monarchy that had been lacking since Victoria's seclusion. She despised the other prominent Prime Minister of the day, the Liberal William Gladstone, whose party dominated Parliament from 1846-1874. Even during her seclusion, Victoria gave close attention to daily business and administration, at a time when England was evolving politically and socially. Legislation passed in the era that included the Mines Act (1842)*, The Education Act (1870)*, The Public Health and Artisan's Dwelling Acts (1875)*, Trade Union Acts (1871 and 1876)* and Reform Acts in 1867 and 1884* which broadened suffrage.

The conservative party

It is one of the main British political parties. It developed from the old Tory Party in 1830s, and is still sometimes called by this name. It is a right-wing party, supporting capitalism arid free enterprise (=an economic system in which there is open competition in business and trade, and no government control). It formed the latest government in Britain from 1979 to 1997, during which time its leaders were Margaret Thatcher and then John Major. Today its leader is David Cameron.

Tory

Tory is the other name of the Conservative Party. The Tories were originally a group of politicians who apperared in the 17th century and wanted the Roman Catholic James, Duke of York (later James II) to be allowed to become King of England. They were powerful for various periods during the 18th and 19th centuries.

In the 1830s, the Tories developed into the Conservative Party and the name is widely used as an informal alternative name for the Conservative Party.

The Liberal Party

It is one of the two major political parties from the 1860s until the 1920s. The party, dominated by Gladstone from 1867 until 1894 with the foundation of the Labour Party in 1900-1906 the Liberal Party began to loose its popularity in the 20th century and by now only few members represent Liberals in the Parliament.

Years of Jubilee

Since 1877, Queen Victoria had been Empress of India. She was the ruler of history's greatest empire and revered** in many far-flung parts of

the world. At the close of the decade lavish** ceremonies had been held in July 1887 to mark *the Golden Jubilee* – the 50th anniversary of Victoria's accession. London's streets were packed by thousands of well-wishers, who cheered Victoria as she rode in procession to Westminster Abbey. At a party in Hyde Park 30,000 children were treated to buns and milk in special Jubilee mugs. She received telegrams of congratulation from across the empire, including one from India which read, "*Empress of Hindustan, Head of all Kings and Rulers, and King of all Kings, who is one in a hundred, is Her Majesty Queen Victoria.*"

On 23 September 1896, Victoria had become the longest-reigning monarch in British history, when she passed the previous record, set by George III, of 59 years and 96 days. George III, of course, was a forgotten man for the final ten years of his reign, reduced by the madness. However Victoria remained active and had never been more popular. On 22 June 1897 she paraded for 6 miles (10km) through London past vast, cheering crowds to celebrate her *Diamond Jubilee* – the 60th anniversary of her accession to the throne. The Jubilee procession included representatives from Australia, Borneo, India, Canada and British parts of Africa. Everywhere she went, she was cheered to the skies. No fewer than eleven colonial prime ministers travelled to London for the Diamond Jubilee and afterwards held an imperial conference.

The Victorian Empire

Barely eighteen Victoria ascended the throne upon the death of William IV, and refused any further influence from her domineering mother and ruled in her own stead. Popular respect for the Crown was at low point at her coronation, but the modest and straightforward young Queen won the hearts of her subjects. She wished to be informed of political matters, although she had no direct input in policy decisions. The Reform Act of 1832* had set the standard of legislative authority residing in the House of Lords, with executive authority resting within a cabinet formed of members of the House of Commons, the monarch was essentially removed from the loop. She respected and worked well with Lord Melbourne. Prime Minister in the early years of her reign, and England grew both socially and economically.

The reform of government allowed England to avoid the politically tumultuous** conditions sweeping across Europe in the mid-nineteenth century. The continent experienced the growing pains of conservatism, liberalism and socialism, and the nationalistic struggle for political unification. England focused on developing industry and trade and expanding its imperial wealh; during the reign of Victoria, the empire doubled in size, encompassing Canada, Australia, India and various locales** in Africa and the South Pacific. Her reign was almost free of war,

with an Irish uprising (1848), the Boer Wars in South Africa (1881, 1899-1902) and an Indian rebellion (1857) being the only exceptions. Victoria was named Empress of India in 1878. England avoided continental conflict from 1815 through 1914, the lone exception being the Crimean War (1853-56). The success in avoiding European entanglements was, in large part, due to the marriage of Victoria's children: either directly or by marriage, she was related to the royal houses of Europe.

The national pride connected with the name of Victoria – the term *Victorian England*, for example, stemmed from the Queen's ethics and personal tastes, which generally reflected those of the middle class. The Golden Jubilee brought her out of her shell, and she again embraced public life. She toured English possessions and even visited France (the first English monarch to do so since the coronation of Henry VI in 1431). When she died at the age of 81 on 22 January 1901, the Victorian age ended and died with her. From the 1850s, the adjective 'Victorian' had been given to the reign and the historical age in Britain, in the United States and across Europe.

Victoria's long reign witnessed an evolution in English politics and the expansion of the British Empire, as well as political and social reforms on the continent.

By 1900 Britain's empire included the dominions of Canada and Australia and colonies in the Honduras, the Bahamas, the West Indies, Guyana, southern, western and eastern Africa, Kuwait, India, Borneo and the South Solomon islands. The empire contained 20 per cent of the world's territory and 23 per cent of the global population.

Victoria was not a great ruler or a particularly brilliant woman. She was fortunate through most of her reign in having a succession of politically able Cabinet ministers. She happened, however, to be queen of Great Britain for most of the 19th century – a century that saw more changes than any previous period in history. The queen became the living symbol of peace and prosperity. Governments rose and fell. Industry expanded beyond everyone's wildest dreams. Science, literature, and the arts found new meaning. Through all these long years of peaceful change, there was always the queen.

Who was the last sovereign of the House of Hanover?

Queen Victoria, the only child of George III's fourth son Edward, Duke of Kent and Princess Mary Louisa Victoria of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld. She came to the throne after the death of her uncle King William IV (1830-1837). She was succeeded by her son the prince of Wales Edward VII in 1901.

THE HOUSES OF SAXE-GOBURG-GOTHA TO WINDSOR

1901-1910	Edward VII
1910-1936	George V
1936	Edward VIII
1936-1952	George VI
1952-	Elizabeth II

Queen Victoria's death on 22 January 1901 marked the end of British rule by the House of Hanover, which had reigned since the accession of George I in 1714. Victoria's son, Edward VII was the first king of the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha: its name came from that of Victoria's beloved husband, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, whom she married on 10 February 1840.

Edward VII and his son George V ruled as kings of the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. However, on 17 July 1917, in the midst of the WWI against Germany, at a time when the royal family's German origins were a matter of general embarrassment, George V decreed that hencefore he and his descendants would be known as "Windsor". The name had no particular relevance, except that it was one of the King's principal palaces, Windsor Castle.

George V's descendants have ruled under this name to the present day. The children of Queen Elizabeth II would normally be expected to take the surname Mountbatten, that of Elizabeth's husband Prince Philip. However, in the first year of her reign, 1952, Elizabeth II declared that her descendants would be called *Windsor*.

Badge of the House of Windsor

Edward VII

Reign	22 January 1901 – 6 May 1910
Born	9 November 1841 / Buckingham Palace, London
Died	6 May 1910 (aged 68) / Buckingham Palace, London

Edward VII lived a large period of his life as Prince of Wales. On his accession in 1901, he was 59 years old and keen to make his mark. The new king, who was christened Edward Albert, made clear his desire to put some distance between his rule and that of his mother when he declared that he would be known as Edward VII and not – as Victoria had wanted in honour of his father – Albert I. He was proclaimed King Edward VII on 23 January 1901. He was the first British monarch of the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, which was renamed the House of Windsor by his son, George V.

Edward was the eldest son of Victoria. He was strictly brought up but pursued a life devoted largely to pleasure. Politically, he had less influence than Victoria, lacking both experience and detailed application.

Before his accession to the throne, Edward held the title of Prince of Wales and was heir apparent to the throne for longer than anyone else in history. During the long widowhood of his mother, Queen Victoria, he was largely excluded from political power and came to personify the fashionable, leisured elite. As Prince of Wales, Edward had become associated with riotous social life in which he indulged his taste for 'fast' living, with gambling, and horse racing. However, he had also proved, during his trips to Canada and the United States in 1860 and to India in 1876, that he made a very effective overseas ambassador for his country. Both his personality and his achievements as ambassador would play a notable part during his reign as King.

As king, he strengthened the position of the monarchy by reviving royal public ceremonial.

The Edwardian period, which covered Edward's reign and was named after him, coincided with the start of a new century and heralded significant changes in technology and society, including powered flight and the rise of socialism and the Labour movement. Edward played a role in the modernisation of the British Home Fleet, the reform of the Army Medical Services, and the reorganisation of the British army after the Second Boer

War. He fostered good relations between Great Britain and other European countries, especially France, for which he was popularly called "Peacemaker", but his work was unable to prevent the outbreak of World War I in 1914.

King Edward VII suffered from bronchitis for many years, but in 1910, after catching a chill, he had a very serious attack and died on 6 May. He was succeeded by his second son who reigned as George V.

Labour Party

A political party formed in 1906. Working-class political activity developed after the failure of Chartism in the mid-19th century.

In 1900 a number of trade unions, the Independent Labour Party (ILP) founded in 1893, the SAF (Social Democratic Federation, established in 1881), and the Fabian Society (1884) founded a Labour Representation Committee to promote a separate parliamentary Labour party. The party formally adopted a socialist policy of "Common ownership of the means of production". From 1922 Labour's middle-class element increased, and the party came to replace the Liberals as one of the two major parties.

The post war Labour government implemented nationalization policies and established the National Health Service. (Its first majority administration was formed under Attlee (1945-1951), then again in office under Harold Wilson (1964-1970, 1974-1976) and James Callaghan (1976-1979). Since 1997 it has been reelected three times under John Blair. He was the leader of the party since 1994 up to 2007. Gordon Brown was the leader of the party from 2007 up to 2010. At the following election the Conservative Party with David Cameron at the head won and is being in power now.

George V

Reign	6 May 1910 – 20 January 1936
Born	3 June 1865 / Marlborough House, London
Died	20 January 1936 (aged 70) / Sandringham House, Norfolk

George V was not raised to be king. He was recalled from naval duty after his older brother Albert's death in 1892, when his father was still Prince of Wales (future Edward VII). On 6 July 1893, George married his

late brother's fiancée, Princess Mary of Teck. A genuinely devoted family man, he produced six children with Princess Mary, including the future King Edward VIII and the future king George VI.

His coronation in Westminster Abbey in 1911 was attended by rulers and government figures across the empire. George V's reign saw the years of the First World War, which erupted in 1914. The royal family came out of the war with great credit. Another difficult development in a period of rapid and profound change was the break-up of the British empire. An Imperial Conference of 1926 agreed the autonomy in domestic and foreign policy of the British 'dominions over the seas' (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa). The Statute of Westminster of 11 December 1931 established the British Commonwealth of Nations.

In India, Mohandas Gandhi* led a peaceful campaign for independence. In October 1931, while in London for an India Round Table Conference, Gandhi was received at Buckingham Palace. India finally achieved independence in August 1947, in the reign of George's son, George VI.

At home, George faced the formation of the first *Labour government in 1924, the General Strike of 1926 and the economic crisis of 1930-1931*, the foundation of the United Kingdom and Northern Ireland (1920-1922). Throughout all these difficulties he was a force for common sense and decency, urging moderation and national unity.

When did Britain enter the First World War?

In 1914 Britain declared war on Germany. Until the 1940s, the First World War was known in Britain as the "Great War". 750.000 British soldiers were killed in the WW I.

When did Northern Ireland appear as a separate country?

Under the Government of Ireland Act of 1920, the six counties of the province of Ulster became a separate political division of the United Kingdom, known as Northern Ireland, with its own constitution, parliament, and administration for local affairs. (The Treaty between Britain and the Irish Parliament in Dublin was signed in 1921. By this treaty the new Irish Free State accepted continued British use of certain ports, the sovereignty of British Crown, and most important of all, the loss of Northern Ireland, which remained under British control.) So the United Kingdom originally created by the Union of Great Britain and Ireland Act in 1801, took its present form and name of the *United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland* in 1921.

What event is known as "Easter Rising"?

On Easter 1916 in Ireland the republicans rebelled against British rule in Dublin. They knew they could not win, but they hoped that their rising would persuade other Irishmen to join the republican movement.

Silver Jubilee

King George celebrated the Silver Jubilee of his reign in May 1935, riding through cheering crowds of Londoners to a service of celebration in St. Paul's Cathedral. The king admired for his decency was serenaded at Buckingham Palace by a crowd singing 'For He's a Jolly Good Fellow'.

King George V died in 1936 aged 70 at Sandringham* from chest and heart problems probably brought on by his long-term cigarette-smoking habit. His eldest son, Edward, succeeded at the age of 41 as King Edward VIII.

Edward VIII

Reign	20 January 1936 – 11 December 1936
Born	23 June 1894 / White Lodge, Richmond, Surrey, England
Died	28 May 1972 (aged 77) / 4 Rue du Champ d'Entraînement, Neuilly-sur-Seine, Paris, France

Edward VIII (Edward Albert Christian George Andrew Patrick David; later The Duke of Windsor) was King of the United Kingdom and the British dominions, and Emperor of India from 20 January 1936 until his abdication on 11 December 1936, after which he was immediately succeeded by his younger brother, George VI. After his father, George V, Edward was the second monarch of the House of Windsor, his father having changed the name of the royal house from Saxe-Coburg and Gotha in 1917.

Eldest son of George V Edward was created Prince of Wales in 1911 and served as an army officer throughout World War I. As a Prince of Wales he achieved great popularity by his charm and informal manners, as well as for his concern for the plight of the unemployed during the Depression. His brief reign, however, was unhappy. He wished to marry Mrs. Wallis Simpson (1896-1986) (an American, who divorced for the

second time in October 1936), but the prime minister, Baldwin, supported by the church and Commonwealth leaders, maintained that he could not also remain king. Edward abdicated in George VI's favour before he had been crowned. Created duke of Windsor, he married in 1937 and served as governor of the Bahamas from 1940 to 1945, subsequently setting in France. No members of the royal family attended his wedding, and thereafter the Duke and Duchess of Windsor were effectively excluded from the royal life.

Edward died from throat cancer aged 77 in his Paris home in 1972. His body was flown back to Windsor where he was buried on 5 June. Wallis died on 24 April 1986 and was buried beside Edward.

Edward VIII is generally remembered without fondness as the king who put private pleasure before public duty.

George VI (1894-1952)

Reign	11 December 1936 – 6 February 1952
Born	14 December 1895 / York Cottage, Sandringham House, Norfolk, United Kingdom
Died	6 February 1952 (aged 56) / Sandringham House, Norfolk

George VI (Albert Frederick Arthur George) was King of the United Kingdom and the British Dominions from 11 December 1936 until his death in 1952. He was the last Emperor of India (until 15 August 1947), the last King of Ireland (until 1949), and the first Head of the Commonwealth.

Second son of George V, Prince Albert (that was his name) had served in the navy and air force before he was called to the throne on the abdication of his brother Edward VIII and crowned as King George VI because Queen Victoria in her will expressed her wish to keep the name of her beloved husband Prince Albert as the only one among future kings of the U.K.

The new king had a strong sense of duty and set out to restore the good name and dignity of the royal family, which he felt had been blemished by the abdication crisis.

In his role as King George VI was greatly supported by his elegant and charming wife Lady Elizabeth-Lyon (1900-2002) whom he married in 1923 and enjoyed with her and their two daughters Elizabeth and Margaret Rose the happy home life.

Within three years of George's accession, Britain was plunged into the Second World War. In September 1939 as war loomed over Europe, George and Queen Elizabeth made a six-week tour of Canada and the USA. The visit was the first by a reigning British king and queen to North America in hope that both countries would give Britain much-needed backing in the war against Germany.

After the beginning of the Second World War the royals set out to share in the hardships of the British people, enduring food and clothes rationing, and turning off the central heating in Buckingham Palace. To help counter food shortages, the king authorized the ploughing of 600 hectares of Windsor Great Part to plant cereal crops.

Towards the end of the war, in March 1945, Princess Elizabeth joined the ATS (Auxiliary Transport Service).

The domestic tranquility of the royal family was celebrated on 30 April 1948, when King George and Queen Elizabeth marked their silver wedding anniversary with much of the pomp common for jubilees of the monarchs.

King George developed lung cancer and in autumn 1951 had an operation to remove his right lung. He died from a heart attack on 6 February 1952 aged 56, and was buried in St. George's Chapel, Windsor. His memory was honoured: he reestablished the public standing of the monarchy.

Elizabeth Angela Marguerite Bowes-Lyon (born 1900 - 2002)

Queen of George VI of England, mother of Elizabeth II.

Elizabeth Angela Marguerite Bowes-Lyon, the youngest daughter of the 14th Earl of Strathmore, was a beautiful and much-sought-after young lady. When she caught the eye of King George V's shy second son, Prince Albert, Duke of York, it was love at first sight – for him. But Elizabeth, the darling of the London debutante circle, took some persuading that he was the man for her.

Twice he proposed and twice he was turned down. Then, on Saturday, January 13, 1923. Bertie – as his family always called him – arrived to stay at Elizabeth's Hertfordshire home, St Paul's Walden Bury. The next morning they went for a walk, and when they returned they were engaged.

Their parents, who had been exerting subtle pressure behind the scenes, were delighted. Elizabeth's many former admirers were not so pleased.

“There’s not a man in England today who doesn’t envy him,” wrote socialite Henry ‘Chips’ as the engagement was announced.

Elizabeth and Bertie were married in Westminster Abbey on April 26, 1923 – the first time a King’s son had married there since the 13th Century. Nobody expected that the couple would one day become King and Queen, and a leader in The Times commented: *“There is but one wedding to which the people look forward with still deeper interest – the wedding which will give a wife to the Heir.”*

Elizabeth II (1926-)

Reign	since 6 February 1952
Born	21 April 1926 Mayfair, London, United Kingdom

Elizabeth II is the queen regent of sixteen independent states known informally as the Commonwealth realms: the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Jamaica, Barbados, the Bahamas, Grenada, Papua New Guinea, the Solomon Islands, Tuvalu, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Belize, Antigua and Barbuda, and Saint Kitts and Nevis. She holds each crown separately and equally in a shared monarchy, and carries out duties for each state of which she is sovereign, as well as acting as Head of the Commonwealth, Supreme Governor of the Church of England, Duke of Normandy, Lord of Mann, and Paramount** Chief of Fiji. In theory her powers are vast; however, in practice, and in accordance with convention, she rarely intervenes** in political matters.

Elizabeth became Queen of the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Pakistan, and Ceylon upon the death of her father, George VI, on 6 February 1952. Her reign of 59 years has seen sweeping changes, including the continued evolution of the British Empire into the modern Commonwealth of Nations. As colonies gained independence from the United Kingdom, she became queen of 25 newly independent countries.

Elizabeth married Prince Philip Mountbatten who was the son of Prince Andrew of Greece and Denmark. Before his engagement, he renounced his Greek nationality and became a British citizen, adopting the

surname Mountbatten. The king gave Elizabeth's husband the title of Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh. The couple has four children [Charles (Prince of Wales; 1948), Ann (Princess Royal; 1950), Andrew (duke of York; 1960) and Edward (duke of Wessex; 1964)] and eight grandchildren.

Elizabeth and the Commonwealth

From the start of her reign Elizabeth impressed all with the calm and dignity she displayed in taking on large responsibilities at a young age. In the early years of her reign she made several tours to visit her subjects, the people of the Commonwealth: in 1953-1954 she became the first ruling monarch to visit Australia, New Zealand, then Africa in 1956, and the following year Elizabeth and Philip toured North Africa. In Canada she became the first ruling monarch to open the Canadian parliament, in Ottawa. Later Elizabeth travelled to the USA, where she visited Jamestown, Virginia, to mark the 350th anniversary of the establishment of England's first permanent overseas colony, before being received at the White House by President and Mrs. Eisenhower.

The Commonwealth grew out of the British empire. It began as a collection of former British colonies that had been transformed into self-governing "dominions" and which maintained ties with Britain to promote cooperation and friendship. A 1931 British parliamentary act, the Statute of Westminster, referred to a number of dominions – principally Australia, Canada, the Irish Free State, New Zealand and South Africa – as the "British Commonwealth of Nations". The word British was dropped in 1946.

The monarch has an important symbolic role as head of the Commonwealth. On 21 April 1947, when she was still Princess Elizabeth and a subject of King George VI, she turned 21 in South Africa. In a radio broadcast, she declared: "my whole life, whether it be short or long, shall be devoted to your service, and the service of our great Imperial Commonwealth to which we all belong." In the early 21st century the Commonwealth consists of 53 countries, and has a total population of 1.8 billion people.

When did Britain enter the Second World War?

In September 1939. It lost over 303.000 soldiers and 60.000 civilians in air raids.

World War II (1 September 1939- 8 May 1945)

A conflict between Allied nations (chiefly United States, Great Britain, Soviet Union, France, and China) and Axis Powers (Germany, Italy, and Japan), wherein Allies – after six years of strife on continents of

Europe, Africa, and Asia and in Pacific Ocean-halted aggression of Axis countries and finally defeated them.

World War II and Sir Winston Churchill (1874-1965)

Winston Churchill played an outstanding role in that war. Once called "a genius without judgment," Sir Winston Churchill rose through a stormy career to become an internationally respected statesman during World War II. He was one of Britain's greatest prime ministers.

The years between the first and second World Wars found Churchill gradually slipping from power. On Sept. 3, 1939, war came. Chamberlain at once appointed Churchill to his former post as first lord of the admiralty. Eight months later, on May 10, 1940. Chamberlain was forced to resign as prime minister. Churchill succeeded him.

Churchill tours the ruins of Coventry Cathedral in October, 1941

At the moment Churchill took office, the armed might of Germany was sweeping Europe. Yet Churchill stood firm before the British people and declared, "I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, tears, and sweat." He promised "to wage war against a monstrous tyranny, never surpassed in the dark, lamentable catalogue of human crime." His thundering defiance and courage heartened Britain, and his two fingers raised in the "V for Victory" sign became an international symbol for determination and hope.

Before the United States entered the war, he obtained American destroyers and lend-lease aid and met with President Franklin D. Roosevelt* in 1941 to draw up the Atlantic Charter*. Later he helped plan overall Allied strategy. Although Churchill held that international Communism was a threat to peace, he worked with Soviet Premier Joseph Stalin for the defeat of the common enemy-Nazi Germany.

Churchill in Yalta, February, 1945

United Nations (UN)

An organization, founded in 1945 in place of the League of Nations (1920) to foster international peace and cooperation in the resolution of the world's economic, social, culture and humanitarian problems. Britain was one of the 51 founder members. The first meetings of the General Assembly and the Security Council took place in Westminster Central Hall in London in January 1946.

European Union

European Economic Community (EEC, popularly called the Common Market) was founded in 1957 and its original six members were Belgium, France, West Germany, Italy, Luxemburg, and the Netherlands. They were joined by the UK, Denmark, and the Republic of Ireland 1973, Greece 1981, and Spain and Portugal 1986. East Germany was incorporated on German reunification 1990. Austria, Finland, and Sweden joined Jan 1995. Norway rejected membership in November 1994. In 1995 there were more than 360 million people in EU countries. In 1991 after the collapse of the communism in East Europe the possibility of full membership was signed with Chechoslovakia, Hungary and Poland, and other European states were taking steps toward becoming members of the EEC. On 1 November 1993 the Maastricht Treaty on European Union came into effect and the new designation European Union was adopted. Its goals were to establish the economic union of member nations and eventually to bring about political union. It has sought to eliminate internal tariffs, institute a uniform external scale of tariffs achieve free movement of labor and capital from one nation to another, abolish obstructions to free competition, to introduce collective trade and transportation policies.

A single market with free movement of goods and capital was established in January 1993.With ratification of the Maastricht Treaty on European Union in Nov 1993, the former name of European Economic Community was dropped.

Maastricht /'ma:strict 'ma:strixt/ a city in the Netherlands. The leaders of the 12 countries of the European Community met there in 1992 to sign *the Maastricht Treaty*, an agreement about closer union between European countries. This included plans to have a single currency, a shared defense force and a more powerful European parliament. Many people in Britain were opposed to the agreement, and there were disagreements about it within the British Conservative government. Britain finally signed it in 1993, but the continued disagreements within the government were an important factor in their defeat at the election of 1997. A new version of the Treaty was signed in Amsterdam in 1997 by the British Labour government.

Economic and Monetary Union

It was intended that a single European currency would be introduced in 1999. In 1997 the Labour government decided that Britain would not join before 2002, and then only if the economic benefits were clear and the public voted for it in a referendum. On January 1999 the *Euro*, which replaced the *ECU* (European Current Unit), was introduced in the 11 countries which had supported monetary union. In "Euroland" all business going through banks is now transacted in euros, which were introduced in 2002. The U.K keeps its own currency, that is pound.

Devolution

Devolution involves the transfer of political power from a central government to a regional government. In the United Kingdom, this process took place in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland in the late 1990s. Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, mainly through their national parties had both demanded to have power devolved from the Parliament of the United Kingdom to their own political assemblies.

Scotland has for a long time had its own law and a lot of control over its affairs, and until 1999 the Secretary of State at the Scottish Office had wide powers. Wales had always been concerned about cultural as well as its political identity. Until 1999 the Welsh Office in Cardiff had responsibilities for the local economy, education and social welfare.

Northern Ireland had its own parliament from 1921 until 1972, when the British government closed it and established direct rule from London. In 1998 a new Northern Ireland Assembly was set up as part of the peace process agreed between Irish politicians and the British government. In 1997 Tom Blair's government held a referendum in Scotland and Wales

on the issue of devolution. A large majority of Scottish people and a small majority of Welsh people voted in favour of it.

The Scottish Parliament started work in Edinburgh in 1999. It consists of 129 MSPs (Members of the Scottish Parliament). 56 of them are elected by proportional representation. It is led by a First Minister who is chosen by the Parliament. It has the power to raise or lower the basic rate of income tax, and to make laws affecting Scotland in areas including education, health, transport, local government, justice, agriculture and the environment, transportation, sports and recreation, etc.

The Welsh Assembly was opened in Cardiff in 1999. It consists of 60 AMs (Assembly Members). Twenty of them are elected by proportional representation. The Welsh Assembly has less power than the Scottish Parliament. It cannot make its own laws or raise taxes, but it has the power to develop and carry out policies affecting Wales in areas including education, culture, health, agriculture, the environment, tourism and the Welsh language.

Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland still have MPs in the British parliament in London, and people may be members of both parliaments, though some people think it is wrong that Irish, Scottish and Welsh MPs continue to discuss English affairs in the British parliament.

The Monarch

Queen Elizabeth II is a formal head of the state. Her power is limited by the constitution and she takes all the decisions on the advice of the Prime Minister. Her official title is "Her Most Excellent Majesty Elisabeth the Second by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms and Territories Queen, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of Faith".

She is the personification of the state. In law, she is the head of the executive, an integral part of the legislature, the head of the judiciary, the commander-in-chief of all the armed forces of the Crown and the temporal head of the established Church of England. In practice, she acts only on the advice of her Ministers, which she cannot constitutionally ignore.

However, these remain certain discretionary powers in the hands of the monarch, known as the Royal Prerogative (Icing's right). One of them is the duty of appointing the Prime Minister. When a Prime Minister dies or resigns (or after general election) the monarch has to choose his successor. In practice, she is usually bound to appoint the leader of the party, which has a majority in the House of Commons.

Other functions of the sovereign are:

- The queen summons prorogues and dissolves Parliament. As a rule she opens each session with a speech from the throne, in the House of Lords;

- She must give Royal assent before a Bill which has passed all its stages in both Houses of Parliament becomes legal;
- It is her duty to make appointments to all important State offices, including those of judges and diplomats, officers in the armed forces, governors, ambassadors, and to all leading positions in the established Church of England. At least in theory, she must see all Cabinet documents, important dispatches, memoranda, etc., and she has the power to conclude treaties, to cede or accept territory, to declare war or to make peace. And it is assumed that all these powers are a mere formality, because of the general principal that the monarch can only act on the advice of her Ministers, but all these matters are conducted in her name.

Monarchy in Britain is an ideological symbol for maintaining the stability of the regime. It is not an idea deeply cherished, but an idea deeply cultivated.

Elizabeth's II brightest prime-ministers

Winston Churchill (1874-1965) – was born on Nov. 30, 1874, at Blenheim Palace, in the 21,000-acre estate of the dukes of Marlborough. His father was Lord Randolph Churchill, the third son of the seventh duke. His mother, Jennie Jerome, had been a New York society beauty. When Winston was born, his father was chancellor of the Exchequer for Queen Victoria. As Winston grew to boyhood, his grandfather became viceroy of Ireland and his father served as vice regal secretary. So Winston spent his early years in Dublin, then attended two private schools in England.

Churchill's return to England in 1899 changed his career. Disliking his low army salary, he determined to enter politics. But when he "stood" for Parliament, he was defeated. But Churchill was undaunted.

Even Churchill's foes could not deny that he was a hard worker. His enormous energy carried him through a succession of offices. At 32 he became undersecretary of State for the colonies (1906-8). Two years later he entered the Cabinet as president of the board of trade (1908-10). He also served as Secretary of State for home affairs (1910-11).

In 1951 Churchill was again chosen prime minister, resigning in 1955. Churchill lost to the Labour Party and Clement Atlee (1883-1967) became the Prime-minister of Great Britain, turning it to Socialism system.

In 1953 he was knighted by Queen Elizabeth II and received the Nobel prize for literature.

Since 1908 Churchill had been married to the former Clementine Ogilvy Hozier. They had one son, Randolph, and three daughters: Diana, Sarah, and Mary. Churchill died in London on Jan. 24, 1965. He received a state funeral, the first for a commoner since 1898. He was buried next to his parents at Bladon, near Blenheim Palace.

Margaret Thatcher (1925 -) – The first woman to be elected prime minister of the United Kingdom was Margaret Thatcher, who was also the first woman to hold such a post in the history of Europe. The first prime minister since the 1820s to win three consecutive elections. Thatcher held office longer than any other 20th-century British leader, served as prime minister of the United Kingdom from 1979 to 1990. A leader of the Conservative Party, she was the first woman in England's history to achieve that position.

Thatcher's term of office was noted, above all, for her determination to roll back decades of socialist policy that had brought England's economy to the brink of ruin. Her efforts were largely successful, as many industries were returned to private ownership, and the power of the labor unions was stymied.

In 1982, after Argentina had invaded and occupied the Falkland Islands, Thatcher sent an armada of ships and planes to reclaim them. Her decisive leadership in this small war helped her win re-election in 1983. She won her third term in 1987.

Thatcher's last term was beset by problems that included increased inflation, a new flat-rate poll tax, and differences among Conservatives over the extent to which Britain should participate in the European Communities, an economic alliance with other West European nations. In November 1990 members of Thatcher's own party voted her out as party leader, and she was replaced by John Major, who was in many ways Thatcher's protégé. The name of the European economic alliance was changed to European Union on Nov. 1, 1993.

Tony Blair (1957-) – Anthony Charles Lynton "Tony" Blair is a former British Labour Party politician who served as the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom from 2 May 1997 to 27 June 2007. He was the Member of Parliament (MP) for Sedgefield from 1983 to 2007 and Leader of the Labour Party from 1994 to 2007, he resigned from all of these positions in June 2007.

Blair was born in Edinburgh on 6 May 1953 and educated at Durham Choristers School, Fettes College, Edinburgh, and at St John's College, Oxford, where he studied law. He was called to the Bar at

Lincoln's Inn in 1976 and practised as a barrister until 1983, specializing in employment and industrial law.

Mr. Blair was elected MP in 1983.

He was elected to the Shadow Cabinet in October 1988 and became Shadow Secretary of State for Energy, leading the Labour Party's opposition to electricity privatisation.

Blair was elected to the National Executive Committee of the Labour Party in September, 1992.

He was elected Leader of the Labour Party in July, 1994, following the death of the Rt. Hon. John Smith, MP, and was made a Privy Counsellor in the same month.

Mr. Blair and his wife, Cherie (Booth), whom he married in 1980, have two sons (Euan, 19 January 1984, and Nicky, 6 December 1985) and a daughter (Kathryn, 2 March 1988). Mrs. Blair is a barrister.

Blair and his allies succeeded in making the Labour Party electable again, after almost two decades in opposition. To his critics, this achievement was made at the cost of abandoning the party's principles. To his supporters, he was a man willing to risk public unpopularity in the pursuit of policies (most notably the war in Iraq) that he felt were morally justified.

David Cameron (1966-)

David William Donald Cameron is the current Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, First Lord of the Treasury, Minister for the Civil Service and Leader of the Conservative Party. Cameron represents Witney as its Member of Parliament (MP).

Cameron studied Philosophy, Politics and Economics at Oxford, gaining a first class honours degree. He then joined the Conservative Research Department.

A first candidacy for Parliament at Stafford in 1997 ended in defeat, but Cameron was elected in 2001 as the Member of Parliament for the Oxfordshire constituency of Witney. With a public image of a young, moderate candidate who would appeal to young voters, he won the Conservative leadership election in 2005.

In the 2010 general election held on 6 May, the Conservatives gained a plurality of seats in a *hung parliament and Cameron was appointed Prime Minister on 11 May 2010, as the head of a coalition between the Conservatives and the Liberal Democrats. At the age of 43, Cameron became the youngest British Prime Minister since 1812. The

Cameron Ministry is the first coalition government in the United Kingdom since the Second World War.

Charles

	**Born**	14 November 1948 Buckingham Palace / London, England

As the eldest son of Queen Elizabeth II of England and her husband-Prince Philip, the duke of Edinburgh, Charles is heir to the British throne. As the prince of Wales, Charles became an international celebrity, known for his devotion to polo and other sports. At home he was admired for his often outspoken views on urban renewal, poverty, the environment, and other social issues.

Charles Philip Arthur George was born in London at Buckingham Palace on Nov. 14, 1948. His earliest education was with tutors at the palace. From 1956 he attended several schools in London and then in Scotland (Hill House*, Cheam School*, and Gordonstown School*. After several months as an exchange student in Australia, he enrolled at Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1967. Four years later his bachelor's degree was the first ever received by an heir to the Crown. To prepare for his investiture as prince of Wales-on July 1, 1969 – Charles studied Welsh at the University College of Wales. After attending the Royal Air Force College and the Royal Naval College, Charles had a tour of duty in the Royal Navy until 1976.

On July 29 1981, Charles married Lady Diana Spencer in a wedding at St. Paul's Cathedral that was televised worldwide. Prince William, their first son and second in line for the throne, was born on June 21, 1982. A second son, Henry (called Harry), was born on Sept. 15, 1984. Charles and Diana divorced in 1996.

Prince Charles has attempted to use his status and wealth to develop solutions for social and environmental problems. In 1976 he founded the Prince's Trust to help disadvantaged young people in the UK through practical support and training.

He began to convert his estates to organic methods in 1986. His Duchy Originals brand of organic foods was launched with an oat biscuit in 1992.

The royal wedding of Prince Charles and Camilla Parker-Bowles was held in Windsor Guildhall on 9 April, 2005.

Lady Diana (1960-1997)

Diana was, in fact, the first English girl to marry an heir to the British throne since Anne Hyde, the daughter of the Earl of Clarendon, wed the future James II in 1660: the last Princess of Wales, who became Queen Mary, was of German descent and the one before her, the consort of Edward VII, was the Danish Princess Alexandra. The Queen Mother, who married King George V's younger son without expecting him to occupy the throne, comes from the Scottish nobility. Despite her aristocratic antecedents, Diana Spencer was very much a girl of her time: she was the first Princess of Wales and queen consort to have lived a normal life – as part time cook, children's nanny and kindergarten teacher – and to have shared an apartment, done the household chores and had parking problems with her mini Metro car like any other London working girl.

She has also known the trauma of a parental divorce, something that in earlier times would have barred her from consideration as a potential royal consort.

A family like the Spencer, sprung from generations of courtiers and royal aides, naturally imposes its own kind of discipline and diplomatic flair.

Diana, "Queen of People's Heart"

In 1995 Diana gave an interview to the BBC news program "Panorama", in which she produced enduring phrase that she wanted to be "Queen of people's hearts". After that interview the queen proposed a swift divorce which the couple received on 28 August 1996. In the negotiated settlement Diana was given around £17 million but was denied the title 'Her Royal Highness'; she would be called Diana, Princess of Wales.

Diana's tragic death on 30 August 1997 in a car accident in Paris provoked an extraordinary outpouring of public emotion in Britain. Crowds flocked with tributes of flowers to her London home, Kensington Palace, creating an ocean of around one million bouquets outside the building. At St. James's Palace, mourners queued for up to 12 hours to sign books of condolence Prime Minister Tony Blair declared her, "The people's princess".

On Friday 5 September, Queen Elizabeth made a television broadcast in which she paid glowing tribute to her former daughter-in-law as "an exceptional and gifted human being".

The funeral on 6 September 1977 was televised live in 187 countries around the world as well as on giant screens in Regent's Park and Hyde Park, central London. She was buried on an island in a lake at the Spencer family estate of Althorp.

In November 1997, just two months after Diana's tragic death, South African President Nelson Mandela praised her work with the poor and sick, hailed her as, "One who became a citizen of the world through her care for people everywhere."

From the mid-1980s until her death Diana represented a wide range of charities, including those supporting victims of AIDS and leprosy, the Red Cross, hospices for the terminally ill. She served as an International Red Cross VIP volunteer in the organization's campaign against landmines, helping to prepare the ground for the signing of the Ottawa Treaty in December 1997.

Diana, Princess of Wales, won many admires for her charitable and campaigning work, and Princes William and Harry have been keen to follow their mother's lead. In summer 2000, William volunteered in Chile with *Raleigh International, a body that carries out environmental and community projects around the world. In 2004, Prince Harry built on his mother's work for AIDS sufferers. Prince William, in a 2004 interview declared that he shared his younger brother's desire to help combat AIDS in Africa and that he also wanted to help the homeless in Britain. He said, "My mother introduced that sort of area to me ... it was a real eye-opener and I'm very glad she did."

The Golden Jubilee of Elizabeth

In the months leading up to the celebrations planned for Elizabeth's Golden Jubilee in 2002, the Queen lost both her mother, who died at the age of 101, and her sister Margaret.

Criticism of the royal family's response to Diana's death had led to some anxiety in royal circles about public response to Jubilee. But in the event, the Queen's enduring popularity was triumphantly demonstrated in the nationwide celebrations of the 50th anniversary of her accession.

The celebrations climaxed in a four-day "Jubilee Weekend" of festivities in London. The event, known as the "Prom at the Palace" was attended by 12000 people across the UK, who had been chosen by a ballot the previous march.

On the 4 June the Queen processed with the duke of Edinburgh in the golden state coach from Buckingham Palace to a service of

thanksgiving in St. Paul's Cathedral, and then, as in 1977, attended lunch at the Guildhall*.

She declared herself "Deeply moved" by the public acclamation of her reign, adding, "Gratitude, respect and pride, these words sum up how I feel about the people of this country and the Commonwealth and what this Golden Jubilee means to me." She also said, "I think we can all look back with measured pride on the achievements of the last 50 years."

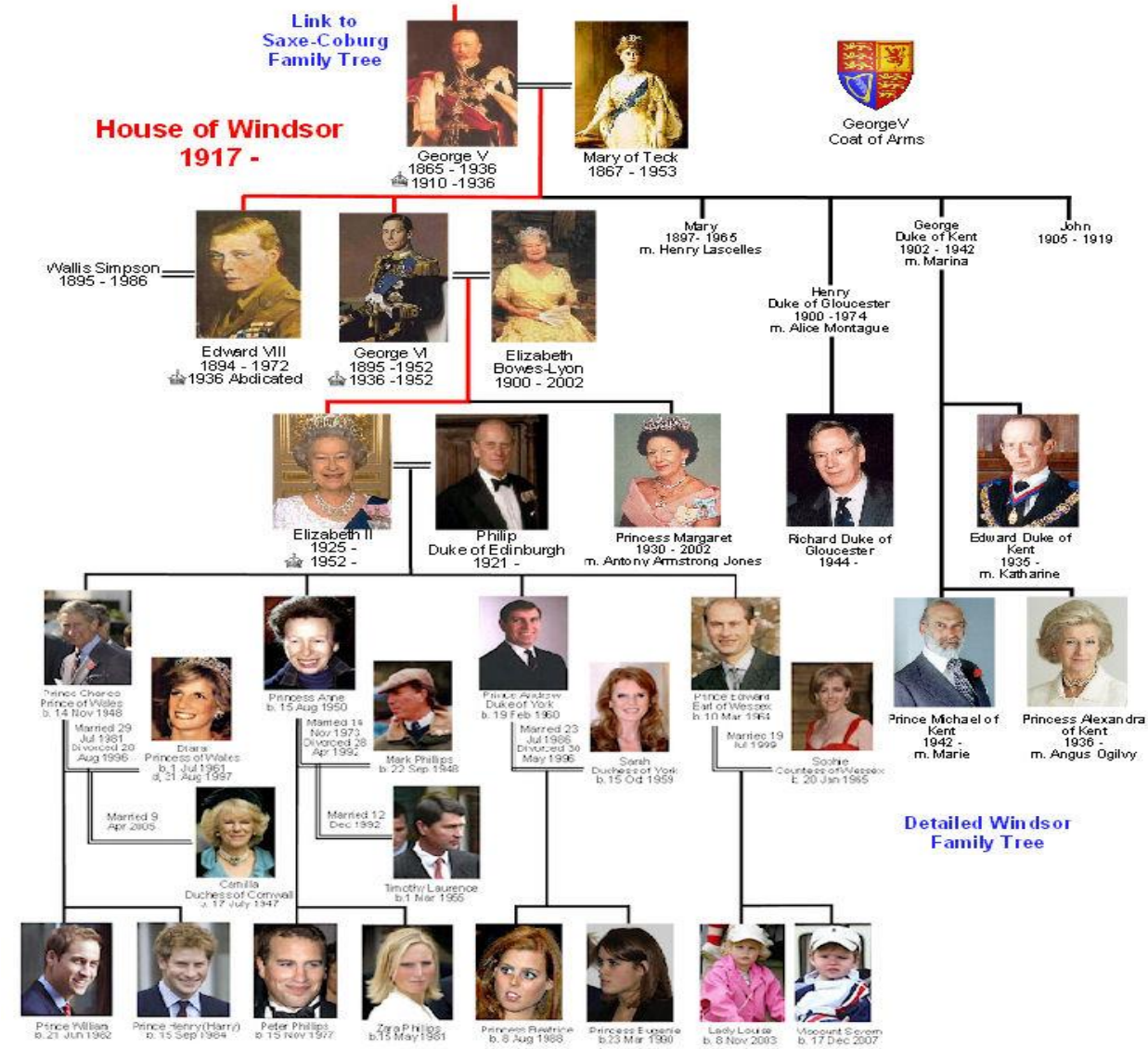
A Jubilee festival procession in the Mall* was designed to celebrate many changes in British life during the 50 years of Elizabeth II's reign. At its climax, 4000 people from 54 countries of the Commonwealth paraded in national costumes.

Throughout the year the Queen made a series of celebratory trips to the countries of Commonwealth. These included visits to Jamaica, New Zealand, Australia, and Canada. The royal couple also visited every region of the U.K.

There were two certainties for 1996: the British monarchy will survive, and there will be no letup in hostilities inside the warring House of Windsor.

In Britain, public respect for the royal family dropped sharply in the 1990s, according to opinion polls; the family now registers below doctors, police officers, teachers, social workers and even civil servants. But Queen Elizabeth 11 remains one of the country's icons – a beacon of stability and probity**. And Parliament, which determines the British Constitution, is in no mind to abolish the monarchy.

The Royal family



Elizabeth's father was Albert, Duke of York, second son of George V. Her mother was Lady Elizabeth Bowes-Lyon, a member of the Scottish aristocracy. Princess Elizabeth was born on April 21, 1926, at the London home of her mother's parents, Lord and Lady Strathmore. Five weeks later she was baptized at Buckingham Palace and christened Elizabeth Alexandra Mary, after three queens of her country. She was 4 years old when her sister, Margaret Rose*, was born (Aug. 21, 1930). In spite of the difference in their ages, the princesses became close companions. Margaret Rose was lively and mischievous; Elizabeth, rather serious and thoughtful.

The family's London home was a large Victorian house at 145 Piccadilly. Summer vacations were usually spent in Scotland and weekends at the Duke's country house, Royal Lodge, in Windsor Great Park, 25 miles west of London. Here the children had a playhouse, a gift of the people of Wales. Its name was "Y Bwthyn Bach," or The Little Thatched** Mouse.

It was complete with small furniture, linens, electric lights, plumbing, and windows that opened and shut. Since only children could stand up in it, the princesses themselves cleaned it and kept it in order.

The little princesses did not go to school but were taught by a governess, Miss Marion Crawford, a young Scottish woman. Their daily routine varied little from day to day. Elizabeth, at the age of five, rose at 6 AM and went out for a riding lesson with a groom. After breakfast she and her sister went to their parents' room. They spent the rest of the morning with their governess. After lunch they had lessons in French, voice, and piano. In the afternoon they played in the garden, usually with their governess. They would become so absorbed in their games of hide-and-seek or "sardines" that they seldom noticed the people who would gather outside the garden fence to watch them. They rarely had the company of other children, but they had many pets, particularly horses and dogs. Occasionally their governess would give them a special treat by taking them for a ride in the Underground (subway) or on top of a bus. They dressed simply, in cotton dresses at home and in tweed coats and berets when they went out. They went to bed early, after a visit with their parents.

Prince Philip adopted the family name of Mountbatten when he became a naturalized British subject and renounced his Royal title in 1947. The Queen and Prince Philip both have Queen Victoria as a great-great-grandmother. They are also related through his father's side. His paternal grandfather, King George I of Greece, was Queen Alexandra's brother.

The position has been held by Prince Philip, duke of Edinburgh, since the coronation of Elizabeth II. The highest officer on active duty is the commandant general, who has his headquarters in London.

Elizabeth II calls the Windsor family a 'Firm'. She thinks of it as a business rather than a family. And the main business of the royal family is being royal. And they are paid for it. The Queen is one of the richest women in the world and yet she gets about 8 million pounds a year to be Queen. But many people agree that she does her job well and she deserves her salary.

Being Queen is a really busy job. Elizabeth II gets up early and begins the day by looking through the newspapers. Then she reads letters from the public (she gets more than 1000 each week), and tells her staff how she would like them to be answered. The Queen has daily meetings with her Private Secretary who helps her to go through her paperwork and lots of meetings with ambassadors, new judges, and bishops.

In the afternoon Elizabeth Π often goes out on public engagements – she gets thousands of invitations each year. She opens new hospitals, bridges and factories.

Once a week, the Queen has a meeting with the Prime Minister and they discuss government business and important things that are happening in the country.

In the evening the Queen reads the report of the day from Parliament. She isn't a politician, and in modern Britain the power belongs to the government, but she must agree to every new law. It's a formal agreement; .no king or queen has refused a new law since 1701!

Being Queen is not a 9 to 5 job, and Elizabeth II has to work from early in the morning until late at night. And people watch her all the time.

Of course, she has some free time, and some private life, hut less than most people.

In her spare time Elizabeth II enjoys horse racing, fishing, and walking in the countryside. She also enjoys photography and likes taking photos on her travels.

Many people think that the Royals are useless and monarchy is outdated. But... the British people seem to like them that way. They like to read about the royal family, royal scandals and shocking secrets. They like to watch royal ceremonies, they are proud of the tradition of monarchy. Britain has had kings and queens for a thousand years – probably they'll have them for another thousand.

According to a survey conducted during the Queen's Golden Jubilee, six out of ten people in Britain thought the monarchy was not out of date. But young people were less sure. Those aged under 24 were split evenly. One half liked the Royals, the others thought they were not important anymore and said they weren't happy with the cost of keeping the Royal Family.

Wedding of Prince William, Duke of Cambridge, and Catherine Middleton

Signing up for a degree in History of Art at St Andrews brought Catherine into the orbit of William Arthur Philip Louis Windsor, second in line to the British throne and Britain's future king. As housemates sharing a cottage in the Scottish town, Kate and the Prince fell for each other, and embarked on a romance that became a source of intense media interest across the world.

At St Andrews the two were protected from tabloid** scrutiny by a gentleman's agreement between newspaper editors and the royal household.

The romance between them went from strength to strength, with Kate joining William, along with his father and brother, on several skiing holidays. She was also presented to the Queen, who was said to be much taken to her grandson's choice of partner. She won the approval of the rest of the royal family for her loyalty and good sense.

It came as a shock to royal watchers, therefore, to discover on April 14 that the pair had called time on the romance and were to go their own ways. The separation didn't last long, however. By June there was speculation they'd rekindled** their romance. With reports they'd decided to give their romance a second chance filling the papers, Kate and her royal beau** were careful to conduct their relationship out of the limelight**, and were rarely seen out clubbing together at their old haunts**.

Whilst William remained reticent about marriage, royal observers noted that Kate's ever-increasing presence in the young prince's life may soon lead to wedding bells.

William, 28, proposed during a holiday in Kenya in October, 2010 after asking Kate's father for his daughter's hand following a marathon eight-year courtship. Kate, also 28, had been dubbed "Waity Katy" amid criticism she was hanging on for a proposal and did not have a proper job but now her wait was finally over.

On 16th November 2010 the couple appeared in public, when the Princess-in-waiting showed off her engagement ring. It was the same engagement ring as William's late mother Princess Diana wore – a gorgeous 18 carat blue sapphire surrounded by smaller diamonds.

William explained the significance of the ring, saying: "It's very special, as Kate is very special. It's my way of making sure my mother didn't miss out on today and the excitement."

Their royal wedding was going to be the biggest event since Prince Charles and Diana got married in 1981.

The wedding of Prince William, Duke of Cambridge, and Catherine Middleton took place on Friday, 29 April 2011 at Westminster Abbey in London. Prince William, second in the line of succession to Queen Elizabeth II, first met Catherine Middleton in 2001, whilst both were studying at the University of St Andrews.

The build-up to the wedding and the occasion itself attracted much media attention, with the service being broadcast live around the world, and

being compared and contrasted in many ways with the 1981 marriage of William's parents, Prince Charles and Lady Diana Spencer. It was estimated that the wedding would be watched by a global television audience of two billion people.

Much of the attention focused on Middleton's status as a commoner marrying into royalty. Hours before the service, the Queen conferred the titles Duke of Cambridge, Earl of Strathearn, and Baron Carrickfergus upon William. Upon her marriage, Middleton therefore became *Her Royal Highness The Duchess of Cambridge*, but is not styled as 'Princess Catherine'.

As William was not the heir-apparent to the throne, the wedding was not a full state occasion and many details were left to the couple themselves to decide, such as much of the guest list of about 1,900. It was, however, a public holiday in the United Kingdom and featured many ceremonial aspects, including use of the state carriages and roles for the Foot Guards and Household Cavalry. It was attended by most of the Royal Family, as well as many foreign royals, diplomats, and the couple's chosen personal guests.

The groom travelled to the ceremony in a Bentley State Limousine with his brother and best man (left) and the bride in a Rolls-Royce Phantom VI 'Silver Jubilee Car' with her father (right)

The dress was of the bride made of satin and featured a lace applique** bodice** and skirt. The lace bodice design was hand-made using a technique that originated in Ireland in the 1820s, which involved cutting out the detailings of roses*, thistles*, daffodils* and shamrocks* and applying them to the ivory silk tulle** individually. The dress received approval from fashion world and the general public.

The bride's shield-shaped wired bouquet contained myrtle, Lily of the Valley, Sweet William and hyacinth. In keeping with royal tradition, the duchess's bridal bouquet was returned to Westminster Abbey where it was placed it on the grave of the unknown warrior in honour of Britain's war dead. It was a tradition started by the late Queen Mother in 1923.

Prince William wore the uniform of his honorary rank of Colonel of the Irish Guards. William's best man was his brother, Prince Harry, while the bride's sister, Pippa, acted as her maid of honour.

After the ceremony, the newly married couple travelled in procession to Buckingham Palace for the traditional appearance on the balcony and a flypast before crowds assembled in The Mall. Later the Prince drove his Duchess the short distance to Clarence House.

Following the wedding, the couple continued residing on the Isle of Anglesey in North Wales, where Prince William is based as an RAF Search and Rescue pilot.

The cost of the wedding was reportedly £20 million. The Australian newspaper *Herald Sun* estimated AU$32 million for security and AU$800,000 for flowers. According to the Confederation of British Industry, a further $6.4 billion was lost in productivity because of the bank holiday. Offsetting this, the wedding was estimated to have generated a £2 billion boost for UK tourism.

Wedding cake

The wedding cake had a strong British floral theme, using elements of the Joseph Lambeth technique. It was an eight-tiered traditional fruit cake decorated with cream and white icing and 900 sugar paste flowers. A team of 10 worked on the vast fruitcake, which also was big enough to cater for all the guests at the reception. They worked at it for two days before the wedding, setting it up with her team. The hardest part was transporting the cakes from Leicestershire to the palace.

Furthermore, McVitie's created a special cake from chocolate biscuit for the reception at Buckingham Palace. The chocolate biscuit cake was made from a Royal Family recipe and was specially requested by Prince William.

Wedding ring

The wedding ring of Catherine is made from Welsh gold. Since 1923, it has been a tradition in the royal family to use Welsh gold for the wedding ring of the bride. This ring was made from a small amount of gold that had been kept in the royal vaults** since it was presented to Queen Elizabeth II.

Unlike Middleton, Prince William did not wear a wedding ring.

The couple's private photographer, described the couple as "buzzing with happiness" and the party's atmosphere as "absolutely extraordinary".She said the wedding speeches, by best man Prince Harry and the duchess's father Michael Middleton among others, were "absolutely hysterical".

Celebrations to mark the marriage of Prince William and Catherine Middleton continued into the early hours at Buckingham Palace.

Willie Willie Harry Stee
Harry Dick John Harry three;
One two three Neds, Richard two
Harrys four five six.... then who?
Edwards four five, Dick the bad,
Harrys (twain), Ned six (the lad);
Mary, Bessie, James you ken,
Then Charlie, Charlie, James again...
Will and Mary, Anna Gloria,
Georges four, Will four Victoria;
Edward seven next, and then
Came Goerge the fifth in nineteen ten;
Ned the eighth soon abdicated
Then George six was coronated;
After which Elizabeth
And that's all folks until her death.

(Children's rhyme)

Part II

CULTURAL LITERACY VOCABULARY

A

Albion – ancient name for Britain most likely dates from Celtic times. In Gaelic Scotland is called *Alba.* Albion was mentioned in the 4th century BC by a Greek navigator. The Romans assumed it came from *albus,* the Latin for white, and referred to the white cliffs of the south-east coast.

Act of Settlement, 1701, the – was introduced in the reign of William III, to provide for a stable executive branch to the British government.

The future Queen Anne was very sickly and had problems producing an heir. She had 17 pregnancies, but none of her children survived childhood. She also had Roman Catholic relatives, who would assume the throne before the Protestant Hanoverian line by order of succession. She would not sit on the throne herself if the traditional order of succession had been followed – William and Mary had seen to that. Uniquely in the history of the monarchy, the Crown was shared between William III and Mary II.

The Act was a last ditch attempt by Parliament to maintain the status quo, as there had been too much slaughter of one side or the other, ever since Henry VIII broke away from the Roman Catholic Church.

Today, it is probably the only remaining piece of anti-Catholic legislation of any note on the British statute books.

This Act has recently come under fire, because it ensures that only Protestant descendent of Princess Sophia (granddaughter of James VI and I of Scotland and England) can become the sovereign of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Legal challenges have been made by the national newspaper *The Guardian* and private members bills have been introduced in Parliament in an effort to repeal it.

Act of Union, 1801 – legislative agreement uniting Great Britain (England and Scotland) and Ireland under the name of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

The Irish Rebellion of 1798 brought the Irish question forcibly to the attention of the British Cabinet; and William Pitt the Younger, the British prime minister, decided that the best solution was a union. By legislative enactments in both the Irish and the British parliaments, the Irish Parliament was to be abolished, and Ireland thenceforth was to be

represented at the Parliament in Westminster, London, by 4 spiritual peers, 28 temporal peers, and 100 members of the House of Commons. A union, Pitt argued, would both strengthen the connection between the two countries and provide Ireland with opportunities for economic development. It would also, he thought (mistakenly), make it easier to grant concessions to the Roman Catholics, since they would be a minority in a United Kingdom. Naturally the union met with strong resistance in the Irish Parliament, but the British government, by the undisguised purchase of votes, either by cash or by bestowal of honours, secured a majority in both the British and Irish Houses that carried the union on March 28, 1800. The Act of Union received the royal assent on Aug. 1, 1800, and it came into effect on Jan. 1, 1801. Henceforth, the monarch was called the king (or queen) of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

The union remained until the recognition of the Irish Free State (excluding six of the counties of the northern province of Ulster) by the Anglo-Irish treaty concluded on Dec. 6, 1921. The union officially ended on Jan. 15, 1922, when it was ratified by the Provisional Government led by Michael Collins in Ireland. (On May 29, 1953, by proclamation, Elizabeth II became known as queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.)

Agreement of the People, the – was the principal constitutional manifesto issued by the Levellers*. It was intended to be signed by all those who wished to enjoy rights of citizenship. The Agreement developed over several versions between October 1647 and May 1649.

Alfred the Great – (849 – 26 October 899) was King of Wessex from 871 to 899. Alfred is noted for his defence of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of southern England against the Vikings, becoming the only English king to be accorded the epithet “the Great”. Alfred was the first King of the West Saxons to style himself “King of the Anglo-Saxons”.

Details of his life are described in a work by the Welsh scholar and bishop Asser. Alfred was a learned man who encouraged education and improved his kingdom’s legal system and military structure. Alfred is regarded as a saint by the Roman Catholic Church and as a hero of the Christian Churchby the Anglican Communion, with a feast day of 26 October.

Angevin empire – is a modern term describing the collection of states once ruled by the Angevin Plantagenet dynasty. The Plantagenets ruled over an area stretching from the Pyrenees to Ireland during the 12th and early 13th centuries. This “empire” extended over roughly half of medieval France, all of England, and nominally all of Ireland. However, despite the extent of Plantagenet rule, they were defeated by the King of France, Philip II Augustus of the House of Capet, which left the empire split in two, having lost the provinces of Normandy and Anjou. This defeat,

after which the ruling Plantagenets retained their English territories and the French province of Gascony, set the scene for the Saintonge and the Hundred Years' War.

Anne Boleyn – (c.1501/1507 – 1536) was Queen of England from 1533 to 1536 as the second wife of Henry VIII of England and 1st Marquess of Pembroke in her own right for herself and her descendants. Henry's marriage to Anne, and her subsequent execution, made her a key figure in the political and religious upheaval that was the start of the English Reformation.

In 1525, Henry VIII became enamoured of Anne and began pursuing her. She resisted all his attempts to seduce her, refusing to become his mistress as her sister, Mary Boleyn, had. It soon became the one absorbing object of Henry's desires to annul his marriage to Queen Catherine, so he would be free to marry Anne. When it became clear that Pope Clement VII would not annul the marriage, the breaking of the power of the Catholic Church in England began.

The Archbishop of York, Thomas Wolsey, was dismissed to his diocese, allegedly at Anne Boleyn's instigation, and later the Boleyn family's chaplain, Thomas Cranmer, was appointed as Archbishop of Canterbury. Henry and Anne married on 25 January 1533. On 23 May 1533, Cranmer declared Henry and Catherine's marriage null and void; five days later, he declared Henry and Anne's marriage to be good and valid. Shortly afterwards, the Pope decreed sentences of excommunication against Henry and Cranmer. As a result of this marriage and these excommunications, the first break between the Church of England and Rome took place, and the Church of England was brought under the King's control.

Anne was crowned Queen of England on 1 June 1533. On 7 September, she gave birth to the future Elizabeth I of England. To Henry's displeasure, however, she failed to produce a male heir.

In April-May 1536, Henry had Anne investigated for high treason. She was arrested and sent to the Tower of London, where she was tried before a jury of peers and found guilty on 15 May. She was beheaded four days later on Tower Green. Modern historians view the charges against her, which included adultery and incest, as unconvincing. Following the coronation of her daughter, Elizabeth, as queen, Anne was venerated as a martyr and heroine of the English Reformation, particularly through the works of John Foxe. Anne has been called "the most influential and important queen consort England has ever had," since she provided the

occasion for Henry VIII to divorce Catherine of Aragon, and declare his independence from Rome.

Antonine Wall, the – a wall built in 142 AD across southern Scotland during the reign of the Roman emperor Antoninus Pius. It was about 37 miles (59 km) long and was intended to replace Hadrian's Wall further south as the northern frontier of the Roman Empire, but it had to be abandoned by 197 AD. Little of the wall now remains.

Antonius Puis (Titus Aurelius Fulvus Boionius Arrius Antoninus) – (19 September 86 – 7 March 161) was Roman Emperor from 138 to 161. He was a member of the Nerva-Antonine dynasty and the Aurelii. He did not possess the sobriquet "Pius" until after his accession to the throne. Almost certainly, he earned the name "Pius" because he compelled the Senate to deify his adoptive father Hadrian; the Historia Augusta, however, suggests that he may have earned the name by saving senators sentenced to death by Hadrian in his later years.

Arthurian knights – knights, who sat with King Arthur around a circular table, became the focal point of fellowship between knights. Some of them are famous as heroes and champions of just cause. In theory, they were brothers; however, jealousy, envy and hatred existed with the fellowship. There were enemies within the Round Table* as well as those who were not member of the fellowship. In the end, it was adultery committed by one of its members, Lancelot, with Arthur's queen, the enmity of Gawain, and the betrayal of Mordred that finally brought about downfall of Arthur's kingdom.

Athelstan – (895-October 27, 940) called *the Glorious*, was the King of England 924-39. The son of Edward the Elder, Athelstan brought about English unity by ruling both Mercia and Wessex. *Æ*thelstan's success in securing the submission of Constantine II, King of Scots, at the Treaty of Eamont Bridge in 927 through to the Battle of Brunanburh in 937 led to his claiming the title "king of all Britain". He overcame the Scandinavian kingdom based in York and increased English power on the Welsh and Scottish borders.His reign is frequently overlooked, with much focus going to Alfred the Great before him, and Edmund after. However, it was of fundamental importance to political developments in the 10th century.

Artisans' and Labourers' Dwellings Improvement Act 1875, the – was an Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom designed by Richard Cross, Home Secretary during Prime Minister Benjamin *Disraeli's second Conservative Government, which involved allowing local councils to buy up areas of slum dwelling in order to clear it and then rebuild. Part of Disraeli's social reform aimed at his "elevation of the people" (the working class) policy stated in his 1872 speeches at Manchester and Crystal Palace, when campaigning for the 1874 General Election against William Ewart Gladstone.

Atlantic Charter, the – was an agreement between the United States of America and Great Britain that established the vision of Franklin Roosevelt and Winston Churchill for a post-World War II world. One of the interesting aspects of the charter that was signed on August 14, 1941 was that the United States of America was not even a part of the war at the time. However, Roosevelt felt strongly enough about what the world should be like that he put forth this agreement with Winston Churchill. The Atlantic Charter can be boiled down to eight points:

- The United States And Great Britain agreed to seek no territorial gains as a result of the outcome of World War II.
- Any territorial adjustments would be made with the wishes of the affected people taken into consideration.
- Self-determination was a right of all people.
- A concerted effort would be made to lower trade barriers.
- The importance of the advancement of social welfare and global economic cooperation were recognized as important.
- They would work to establish freedom from fear and want.
- The importance of freedom of the seas was stated.
- They would work towards postwar disarmament and the mutual disarment of aggressor nations.

This was a bold step on the part of the Great Britain and the United States. As stated it was very significant for the United States because they were not yet involved in World War II.

Authorized (or King James) Version of the Bible – is an English translation of the Christian Holy Bible begun in 1604 and completed in 1611 by the Church of England. Printed by the King's Printer, Robert Barker, the first edition included schedules unique to the Church of England. This was the third such official translation into English; the first having been the *Great Bible* commissioned by the Church of England in the reign of King Henry VIII, and the second having been the *Bishop's Bible* of 1568. In January 1604, King James I of England convened the Hampton Court Conference where a new English version was conceived in response to the perceived problems of the earlier translations as detected by the Puritans, a faction within the Church of England.

James gave the translators instructions intended to guarantee that the new version would conform to the ecclesiology and reflect the episcopal structure of the Church of England and its beliefs about an ordained clergy. The translation was by 47 scholars, all of whom were members of the Church of England.

While the Authorized Version was meant to replace the *Bishops' Bible* as the official version for readings in the Church of England, it was apparently (unlike the *Great Bible*) never specifically "authorized",

although it is commonly known as the *Authorized Version* in the United Kingdom.

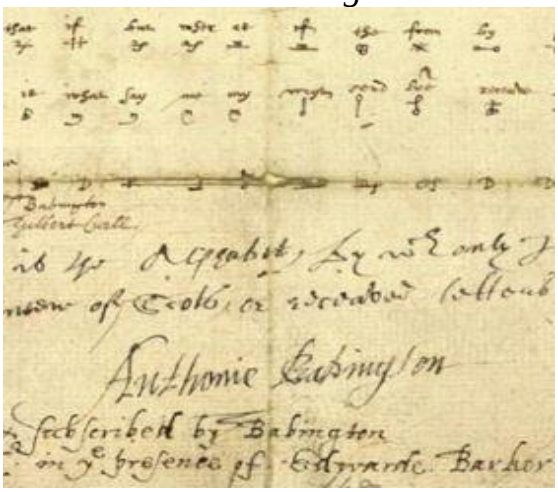
By the first half of the 18th century, the *Authorized Version* was effectively unchallenged as the English translation used in Anglican and Protestant churches. Over the course of the 18th century, the *Authorized Version* supplanted the *Latin Vulgate* as the standard version of scripture for English speaking scholars.

Throughout most of the world, the *Authorized Version* has passed out of copyright and is freely reproduced. In the United Kingdom, the British Crown restricts production of the *Authorized Version* per transitional exemptions from the *Copyright Act 1775* (which implemented this clause) in the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988, which expire in 2039. Cambridge University Press, Oxford University Press, HarperCollins and the Queen's Printers have the right to produce the *Authorized Version.*

B

Babington conspiracy of 1585, the – was the event which most directly led to the execution of Mary, Queen of Scots. This was a second major plot against Elizabeth I of England after the Ridolfi plot. It was named after the chief conspirator Anthony Babington (1561–1586), a young Catholic nobleman from Derbyshire.

Secret codes and the Babington Plot



All the letters were given to Walsingham. The letters were written in a secret code called 'a nomenclator cipher'. Walsingham had the code deciphered. Walsingham waited and gathered evidence that would implicate Mary in a plot against Queen Elizabeth.

On 28 June 1585 Babington wrote to Mary outlining a plot to murder Elizabeth and release Mary with the support from an invasion from Spain.

"Myself with ten gentlemen and a hundred of our followers will undertake the delivery of your royal person from the hands of your enemies.

For the dispatch of the usurper, from the obedience of whom we are by the excommunication of her made free, there be six noble gentlemen, all my private friends, who for the zeal they bear to the Catholic cause and your Majesty's service will undertake that tragical execution."

Extract from Anthony Babington letter to Mary, June 1585

Mary's reply was intercepted and sent to Walsingham. It was sealed with a drawing of a gallows. Walsingham had the evidence he needed.

Babington and the other plotters were arrested, tortured, tried and condemned to be hanged, drawn and quartered. The damning evidence of the letters between Mary and the plotters was presented to Queen Elizabeth. It was only a matter of time before Mary would be sentenced to death.

Baffin Island –in the Canadian territory of Nunavut is the largest member of the Canadian Arctic Archipelago. It is the largest island in Canada and the fifth largest island in the world, with an area of 507,451 km^2 and has a population of 11,000 (2007 estimate). Named after English explorer William Baffin, it is likely that the island was known to Pre-Columbian Norse of Greenland and Iceland and may be the location of Helluland spoken of in the Icelandic sagas.

In September 2008, *Nunatsiaq News* reported archaeological remains of yarn, rats, tally sticks, a carved wooden Dorset culture face mask depicting Caucasian features, and possible architectural remains, which place European traders and possibly settlers on Baffin Island not later than AD 1000.http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Baffin_Island - cite_note-2 What the source of this Old World contact may have been is unclear; the report states: "Dating of some yarn and other artifacts, presumed to be left by Vikings on Baffin Island, have produced an age that predates the Vikings by several hundred years. So [...] you have to consider the possibility that as remote as it may

seem, these finds may represent evidence of contact with Europeans prior to the Vikings' arrival in Greenland".

Ball John – (1338-1381) was an English Lollard priest who took a prominent part in the Peasants Revolt of 1381.

John Ball believed it was wrong that some people in England were very rich while others were very poor. Ball's church sermons criticising the feudal system upset his bishop and in 1366 he was removed from his post as the priest of St James' Church.

John Ball now became a travelling priest and gave sermons in local churches. The Archbishop of Canterbury gave instructions that all people found listening to John Ball's sermons should be punished. When this failed to work, John Ball was arrested and sent to Maidstone Prison.

On 7th June, 1381, Ball was rescued from Maidstone Prison by rebels led by Wat Tyler. After ransacking the Archbishop of Canterbury's palace, the rebels began their march on London. When the rebels arrived at Blackheath it was estimated that there were about 30,000 people in Wat Tyler's army. Ball was with Tyler when he carried out negotiations with Richard II at Mile End on 14th June. The following day Tyler was killed and the rebels, after being granted charters signed by the king, agree to leave London. An army, led by Thomas of Woodstock, John of Gaunt's younger brother, was sent into Essex to crush the rebels. The king's army was experienced and well-armed and the peasants were easily defeated. It is believed that over 500 peasants were killed during the battle.

King Richard with a large army began visiting the villages that had taken part in the rebellion. At each village, the people were told that no harm would come to them if they named the people in the village who had encouraged them to join the rebellion. Those people named as ringleaders were then executed. The king's officials were instructed to look out for John Ball. He was eventually caught in Coventry. He was found guilty of high treason and was hung, drawn and quartered on 15th July, 1381.

Barebones Parliament – (4 July-12 December 1653) an assembly composed of 140 "godly men" chosen by Oliver Cromwell* and the Council of Officers. Also called the nominated Parliament, it was nicknamed after Barebones (1596-1679), a sectarian preacher and one of its members. The unpopular radical reforms of this parlaiment alarmed the conservatives and they voted to end the assembly. The dissolution of Barebones heralded** the Instrument of Government and the proclamation of Oliver Cromwell as lord protector.

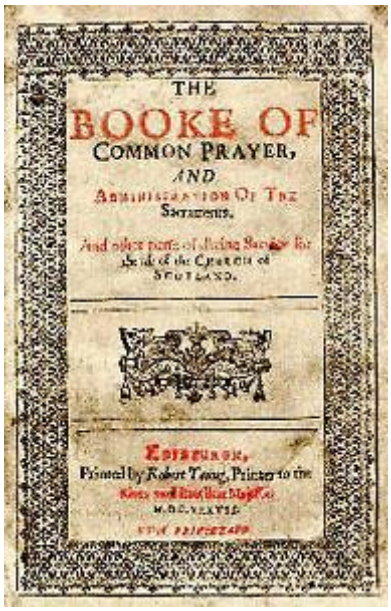
Bayeux Tapestry – is a 0.5 by 68.38 metres long embroidered cloth – not an actual tapestry – which depicts the events leading up to the Norman conquest of England as well as the

events of the invasion itself. The Bayeux Tapestry is annotated in Latin. It is exhibited in a special museum in Bayeux, Normandy called Musée de la Tapisserie de Bayeux, with a Victorian-era replica in Reading, Berkshire.

Beaumont Francis – English Jacobean poet and playwright who collaborated with John Fletcher on comedies and tragedies between about 1606 and 1613.

Francis Beaumont was born 1584, the son of Sir Francis Beaumont of Grace-Dieu, Leicestershire, a judge of the common pleas. He was educated at Broadgates Hall (now Pembroke College), Oxford, which he entered in 1597. On the death of his father in 1598, he left the university without a degree, and in 1600 became a member of the Inner Temple. The law, however, if he ever really studied it, was soon abandoned for poetry; and Beaumont became an intimate of Jonson and his circle at the Mermaid. His collaboration with Fletcher began early, and seems to have been brought about by personal preference, not, like most collaboration at that time, by the exigencies of the theatrical manager. Aubrey has preserved the tradition of their domestic intimacy and similarity of tastes. Their joint-production seems to have begun about 1605, and there is no evidence that Beaumont wrote any plays after 1612. About 1613 he married, and three years later died and was buried in Westminster Abbey. He had achieved a high contemporary reputation for his non-dramatic poetry, but he survives as a dramatist.

Bishops' Wars, the – were conflicts, both political and military, which occurred in 1639 and 1640 centred around the nature of the governance of Church of Scotland, and the rights and powers of the crown. They constitute part of a larger political conflict across Scotland, England and Ireland, and are often considered a prelude to the English Civil Wars. They were so named due to the central conflict between Charles I, who favoured an episcopalian system of church government for Scotland (with bishops), and the desire of much of the polity of Scotland for a presbyterian system of governance (without bishops).


THE
BOOKE OF
COMMON PRAYER,
AND
ADMINISTRATION OF THE
SACRAMENTS,
EDINBURGH,
Printed by Robert Young, Printer to the

James VI of Scotland had reintroduced episcopacy to the Church of Scotland in 1584. After acceding to the English throne, he increased the numbers of bishops. His son, Charles I continually tried to foster uniformity between the established churches of his realms along the Anglican model. When Charles attempted to strengthen episcopacy in Scotland by imposing (1637) the English Book of Common Prayer, the Scots countered by pledging themselves in the National Covenant (1638) to restore Presbyterianism. A general

assembly of the Scottish church abolished episcopacy. The first war was ended without fighting by the Pacification of Berwick, in which Charles conceded the Scottish right to a free church assembly and a free parliament. However, the assembly that met promptly reaffirmed the covenant. In spite of the refusal of his Short Parliament* to vote him money, Charles managed to raise another army, but it was unable to stop the Scots from invading England and occupying Northumberland and Durham. Charles made peace at Ripon (Oct., 1640), and his promise there to pay an indemnity to the Scots necessitated his calling the Long Parliament*.

Boyle, Robert – (1627-1691) an Irish chemist and physicist, studied the compression and expansion of air and other gases, and formulated Boyle's law. His experimental approach did much to bring about new scientific methods. He published his "The Sceptical Chymist" in 1661. Later he helped to found the Royal Society.

Boyle also wrote extensively on natural theology, advocating the notion that God created the universe according to definite laws.

Boer – is the Dutch and Afrikaans word for farmer, which came to denote the descendants of the Dutch-speaking settlers of the eastern Cape frontier in Southern Africa during the 18th century, as well as those who left the Cape Colony during the 19th century to settle in the Orange Free State, Transvaal (which are together known as the Boer Republics), and to a lesser extent Natal. Their primary motivations for leaving the Cape were to escape British rule and extract themselves from the constant border wars between the British imperial government and the native tribes on the eastern frontier.

Breda, Declaration of (4 Apr 1660) – the declaration in which Charles II made the concessions that smoothed the way for his restoration. Charles offered a free and general pardon (with certain exceptions) to those who had acted against the crown during the Civil War and Interregnum. He confirmed all sales of royalist lands made in the same period. Furthermore, he promised swift payment of the army's arrears, and a measure of religious liberty to tender consciences. All the clauses were subject to ratification by parliament.

Britannia – is the ancient name of Britain. It was accepted after the Roman conquest in the first century AD. The Romans gave this name to their northern province, which covered, approximately, the area of present-day England. "Britannia" is also the name given to the female embodiment of Britain. She is portrayed as a seated figure wearing a helmet and armed with a shield and trident (the symbol of power over the sea), hence the

patriotic song, which begins “Rule Britannia, Britannia rule the waves”. The first known representation of Britain as a female figure is on a Roman coin of Antonius Puis, who died in 161. The figure reappeared on the copper coin in the rein of Charles II, 1665, and the model was Miss Stewart, afterwards created Duchess of Richmond. In 1825 a new design was made.

C

Caernarvon Castle – is architecturally one of the most impressive of all of the castles in Wales.

It was intended as a seat of power and as a symbol of English dominance over the subdued Welsh.

Caernarvon is located at the southern end of the Menai Strait* between north Wales and Anglesey. During Edward I’s invasions of Wales, this was strategically an excellent place to build a castle; Anglesey was referred to as the garden of Wales, providing agriculturally rich land close to the poorer land on north Wales.

There has been a motte-and-bailey castle in Caernarfon since the late 11th century. The current stone structure was built on the site of the earliest castle by King Edward I of England following his conquest of Wales in 1283. From its inception, Caernarfon Castle acted as the administrative centre of north Wales and as a result was built on a grand scale.

While the castle was under construction, town walls were built around Caernarfon. The work cost between £20,000 and £25,000 from the start until the end of work in 1330.

During the English Civil War Caernarfon Castle was held by Royalists, and was besieged three times by Parliamentarian forces. This was the last time the castle was used in war. Caernarfon Castle was

neglected until the 19th century when the state funded repairs. In 1911, Caernarfon Castle was used for the investiture of the Prince of Wales, and again in 1969. It is part of the World Heritage Site "Castles and Town Walls of King Edward in Gwynedd".

Cambridge – is a university town and the administrative centre of the county of Cambridgeshire, England. It lies in East Anglia about 50 miles (80 km) north-by-east of London. Cambridge is also at the heart of the high-technology centre known as Silicon Fen – a play on Silicon Valley and the fens surrounding the city.

Cambridge is well known as the home of the University of Cambridge, one of the world's premier universities. The university includes the renowned Cavendish Laboratory, King's College Chapel, and the Cambridge University Library. The Cambridge skyline is dominated by the last two buildings, along with the chimney of Addenbrooke's Hospital in the far south of the city and St John's College Chapel tower in the north.

According to the 2001 United Kingdom census, the city's population was 108,863 (including 22,153 students), and the population of the urban area (which includes parts of South Cambridgeshire district) is estimated to be 130,000. Cambridge is surrounded by many smaller towns and villages.



Canterbury Cathedral – is one of the oldest and most famous Christian structures in England and forms part of a World Heritage Site.

It is the cathedral of the Archbishop of Canterbury, leader of the Church of England and symbolic leader of the worldwide Anglican Communion. Its formal title is the *Cathedral and Metropolitical Church of Christ at Canterbury.*

The cathedral's first archbishop was St. Augustine of Canterbury, previously abbot of St. Andrew's Benedictine Abbey in Rome. He was sent by Pope Gregory the Great in 597 as a missionary to the Anglo-Saxons. Augustine founded the cathedral in 602 and dedicated it to St. Saviour. Archaeological investigations under the nave floor in 1993 revealed the foundations of the original Saxon cathedral, which had been built across a former Roman road.

Augustine also founded the Abbey of St. Peter and Paul outside the city walls. This was later rededicated to St. Augustine himself and was for many centuries the burial place of the successive archbishops. The abbey is part of the World Heritage Site of Canterbury, along with the ancient Church of St. Martin.

Canute (Cnut) the Great – (985 or 995 –1035) was the first true Danish king of England, who became a respected and enlightened monarch. For a century before his reign the Danes, or Vikings, had raided the country. In 1013 Canute sailed to England with his father, the king of Denmark, and shared in the victorious invasion. He was generally accepted as the king of England, but, after his death in 1014, Canute had to renew the Viking conquest. Edmund Ironside, the Saxon king, put up such strong resistance that Canute agreed in 1016 to divide the kingdom with him. However, Edmund died a few weeks later, and Canute became king of all England.

Cardinal Thomas Wolsey – (1473-1530) was Henry VIII's most important government minister who acquired much power which ended only after he failed to secure for Henry a divorce from Catherine of Aragon.

Wolsey was educated at Magdalen College, Oxford University. Wolsey decided on a life devoted to God and he joined the church. He held a number of private chaplainries but he soon came to the attention of Henry VII as Wolsey was quickly identified as a man who had excellent managerial skills with a very good grasp of detail. He continued to serve at court when Henry VIII succeeded his father in 1509.

However, Wolsey quickly outgrew this support and he became the unofficial royal secretary. This position gave him almost daily contact with Henry VIII who rewarded the hard work and dedication Wolsey showed towards him by giving him numerous religious titles that were to finance the luxurious lifestyle Wolsey was to have.

In 1515, Wolsey was appointed a cardinal and in 1518 he became a "Legate a latere" which made him a special and permanent representative of the pope. This position gave him huge power of the church in England at the time – far more power than Warham had as Archbishop of Canterbury.

As Chancellor, Wolsey dominated the Royal Council. The nobility had been severely weakened under Henry VII and tried, at times, to

resurrect their old power in the early years of Henry VIII's reign. Wolsey ensured this did not happen and he used his position to tame the aristocracy. Wolsey was, at times, the government of the country.

Wolsey did a great deal to reform the legal system in England. It was modernised and, ironically, the power of the Church courts was reduced as the power of the Star Chamber and the common law courts was increased. The government was run effectively as would be expected from such a man.

In foreign affairs, Wolsey supported Henry's campaigns against France. He also had as a priority the security of England from European threats.

Wolsey's fall from grace was over his inability to persuade the pope that Henry should have a divorce from Catherine of Aragon. Henry believed that Wolseyhad the necessary influence in Rome to secure his much wanted divorce. When Wolsey failed to do this, his position at court was doomed. On September 22nd 1529, Wolsey was dismissed as Chancellor. Henry's anger at Wolsey's failure to get a divorce became more intense and he ordered his arrest which happened in November 1530. Wolsey was meant to be locked up in the Tower of London. However, he died during the journey from York to London at Leicester Abbey on November 29th 1530.

Castle Rising – is a village and civil parish in the English county of Norfolk. It is best known as the location of Castle Rising Castle, which dominates the village.

Castle Rising is included in Snettisham's complex entry in the Domesday book where it is divided in ownership between William de Warenne and the Bishop of Bayeux. Related berewicks are *West Newton* and *Castle Rising*. However Castle Rising is clearly in the ownership of the Bishop of Bayeaux Prior to the Reform Act of 1832, Castle Rising had the status of a parliamentary borough and, because of its small population, was often cited as a rotten borough. Its most notable member was Robert Walpole, Prime Minister from 1721 to 1742. Samuel Pepys also served as its member.

Catherine de'Medici – (1519 – 1589) Italian-born French queen, regent and mother of three kings of France. She was a powerful influence in 16th century France, particularly during the Wars of Religion.

In 1533, at the age of fourteen, Caterina married Henry, second son of King Francis I and Queen Claude of France. She was Queen consort of France as the wife of King Henry II of France from 1547 to 1559. Throughout his reign, Henry excluded Catherine from participating in state affairs and instead showered favours on his chief mistress, Diane de Poitiers*, who wielded much influence over him. Henry's death thrust Catherine into the political arena as mother of the frail fifteen-year-old King Francis II. When he died in 1560, she became regent on behalf of her ten-year-old son King Charles IX and was granted sweeping powers. After Charles died in 1574, Catherine played a key role in the reign of her third son, Henry III. He dispensed with her advice only in the last months of her life.

Catherine's three sons reigned in an age of almost constant civil and religious war in France. The problems facing the monarchy were complex and daunting. At first, Catherine compromised and made concessions to the rebelling Protestants, or Huguenots*, as they became known. She failed, however, to grasp the theological issues that drove their movement. Later, she resorted in frustration and anger to hard-line policies against them. In return, she came to be blamed for the excessive persecutions carried out under her sons' rule, in particular for the St. Bartholomew's Day massacre* of 1572, in which thousands of Huguenots were killed in Paris and throughout France.

Some recent historians have excused Catherine from blame for the worst decisions of the crown, though evidence for her ruthlessness can be found in her letters. In practice, her authority was always limited by the effects of the civil wars. Her policies, therefore, may be seen as desperate measures to keep the Valois monarchy on the throne at all costs, and her spectacular patronage of the arts as an attempt to glorify a monarchy whose prestige was in steep decline.

Catherine of Aragon – (1485 – 1536) was Queen of England as the first wife of King Henry VIII of England and Princess of Wales as the wife to Arthur, Prince of Wales. In 1507, she also held the position of Ambassador for the Spanish Court in England, becoming the first female ambassador in European history. For six months, she served as Queen Regent of England while Henry VIII was in France. The controversial book "The Education of Christian Women" by Juan Luis Vives, which claimed women have the right to an education, was dedicated to and commissioned by her. Such was Catherine's impression on people, that even her enemy, Thomas Cromwell, said of her "If not for her sex, she could have defied all the heroes of History." William Shakespeare described her as "The Queen of Earthly Queens", and during her early years as queen consort she was

described as "The most beautiful creature in the world." She won widespread admiration by starting an extensive programme for the relief of the poor. She was also a patron of Renaissance Humanism, and a friend of the great scholars Erasmus of Rotterdam and Saint Thomas More.

Henry VIII's move to have their 24-year marriage annulled set in motion a chain of events that led to England's break with the Roman Catholic Church. Henry was dissatisfied because their sons had died in infancy and others were stillborn. When Pope Clement VII refused to annul the marriage, Henry defied him by assuming supremacy over religious matters. This allowed him to marry Anne Boleyn on the judgment of clergy in England, without reference to the Pope. He was motivated by the hope of fathering a male heir to the Tudor dynasty. Catherine refused to accept Henry as Supreme Head of the Church of England and considered herself, as did most of England and Europe, the King's rightful wife and Queen until her death.

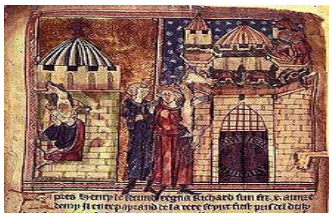
Catherine of Valois – (1401 –1437) was the Queen consort of England from 1420 until 1422. She was the daughter of King Charles VI of France, wife of Henry V *of Monmouth*, King of England, mother of Henry VI, King of England and King of France, and through her secret marriage with Owen Tudor, the grandmother of King Henry VII of England. Catherine's older sister, Isabella of Valois, was Queen consort of England from 1396 – 1399, as the child bride of King Richard II of England.

Catherine was buried at Westminster Abbey, and during the reign of Henry VII her coffin lid was accidentally raised, revealing her corpse, which for generations became a tourist attraction; Catherine's remains were not properly reinterred until the reign of Queen Victoria.

Cavalier – derives from the Spanish word *caballeros*, itself originating in the Vulgar Latin word *caballarius*, meaning horseman. Shakespeare used the word *cavaleros* to describe an overbearing swashbuckler** or swaggering** gallant in "Henry IV", Part 2, in which Shallow says "I'll drink to Master Bardolph, and to all the cavaleros about London."

Caxton William (1422 – 1492) – was an English merchant, diplomat, writer and printer. As far as is known, he was the first English person to work as a printer and the first to introduce a printing press into England. He was also the first English retailer of printed books (his London contemporaries in the same trade were all Dutch, German or French).

Chalus – is a commune in the Haute-Vienne department in the Limousin region in western France. Châlus is where Richard I of England was mortally wounded by a crossbow bolt. It was shot by Pierre Basile while he was besieging the castle in 1199.


Richard I of England lethally hurt in Châlus


Le château de Chalus Chabrol

Châlus has a castle named Château de Châlus-Chabrol and a ruined castle named Château de Châlus-Maulmont.

Richard's bowels are still preserved in the chapel, and there is a medieval garden. Other attractions of the village include a museum dedicated to the chestnut. The biggest Giant sequoia (Sequoiadendron Giganteum) of Europe, a circumference of 13,3 m, is in a private garden.

Chamberlain Austen (1863-1937) – British statesman, born in Birmingham; son of Joseph Chamberlain; elected to Parliament 1892; held many government posts, including member of the war Cabinet during World War I; received 1925 Nobel prize for work on Locarno Pacts of 1925.

Charles Goodyear – (1800 –1860) was an American inventor who developed a process to vulcanize rubber, a method which he discovered in 1839 and received patent number 3633 from the United States Patent Office on June 15, 1844. Goodyear discovered the vulcanization process accidentally after five years of searching for a more stable rubber.

Chartism – was a movement for political and social reform in the United Kingdom during the mid-19th century, between 1838 and 1850. It takes its name from the *People's Charter* of 1838.

Chartism was possibly the first mass working class labour movement in the world. Its leaders have often been described as either "physical force" or "moral force" leaders, depending upon their attitudes to violent protest. Chartists were largely unsuccessful at convincing Parliament to reform the voting system of the mid-19th century; however, this movement caught the interest of the working class. The working class's interest in politics from that point on aided later suffrage movements.

Cheam School – is a preparatory school in Headley in the civil parish of Ashford Hill with Headley in the English county of Hampshire. It was founded in 1645 by the Reverend George Aldrich in Cheam, Surrey and has been in operation ever since. The school started in a house called Whitehall, now the site of a museum and visited on an annual basis by the younger children. Cheam School now educates boys and girls between the ages of three and thirteen. It has a combination of boarders and day-

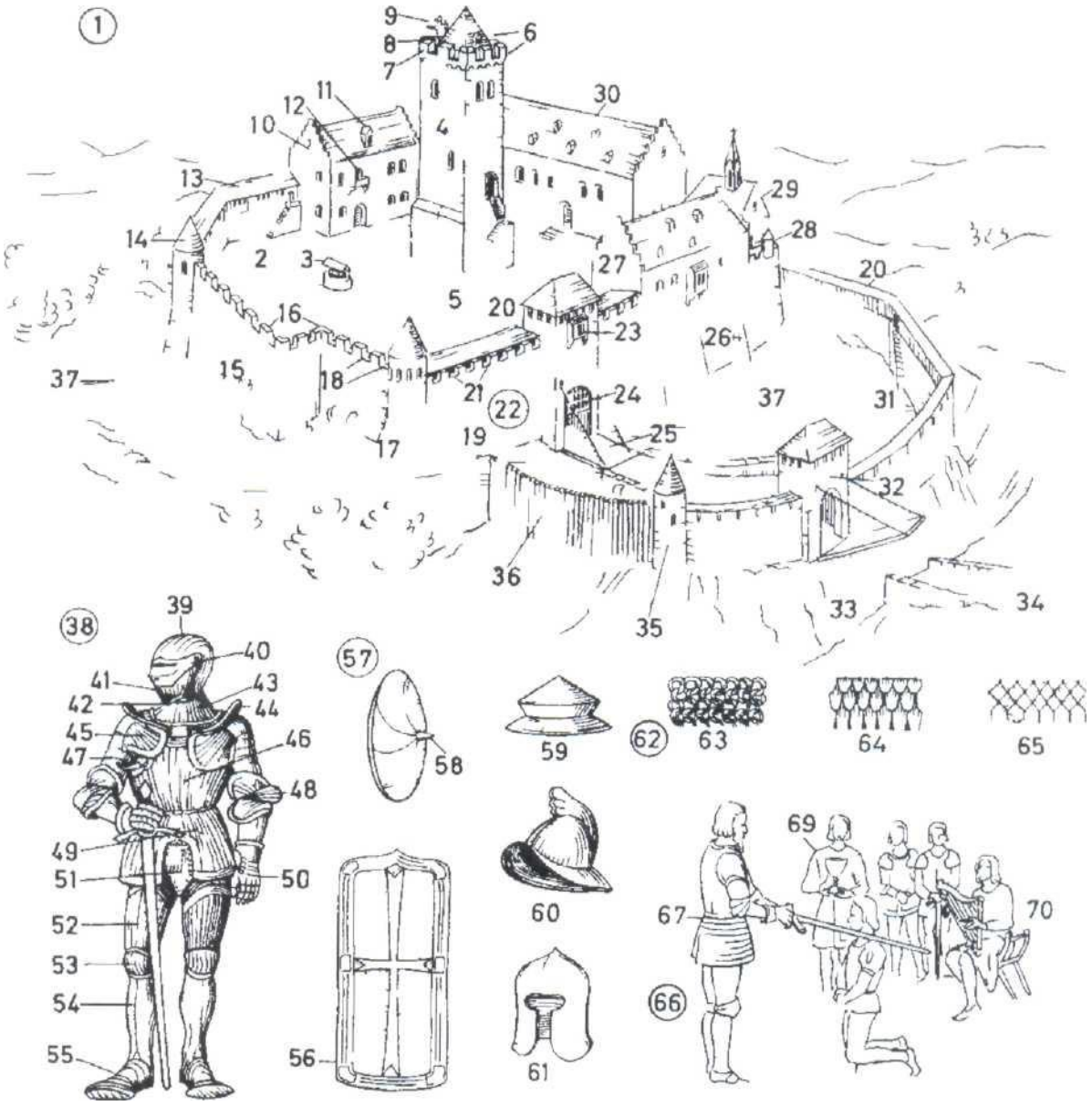
students. The school has a high level of academic work, as well as drama productions, music and sports. Nearly a third of pupils in the last two years have gained Scholarships and Exhibitions to Public Schools. Already eight academic awards have been earned in 2010 to schools such as Winchester, Radley, Marlborough, Cheltenham Ladies' College, Wycombe Abbey, Wellington and Harrow.

Chivalryhttp://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chivalry_-_cite_note-0 – is a term related to the medieval institution of knighthood which has a military provenance of individual training and service to others. It is usually associated with ideals of knightly virtues, honor and courtly love. The word is derived from the French word "chevalerie", itself derived from "chevalier", which means knight, derived from "cheval", horse (indicating one who rides a horse).Today, the terms *chivalry* and *chivalrous* are often used to describe courteous behavior, especially that of men towards women.

Chivalric orders first appeared with military activities against non-Christian states. During the Middle Ages, Western Europe aggressively sought to expand its area of control. The first orders of chivalry were very similar to the monastic orders of the era. Both sought the sanctification of their members through combat against "infidels" and protection of religious pilgrims, and both had commitments that involved the taking of vows and submitting to a regulation of activities.

13th Century conventions of chivalry directed that men should honor, serve, and do nothing to displease ladies and maidens. Knights were members of the noble class socially as bearers of arms, economically as owners of horse and armor, and officially through religious-oriented ceremony. While some were knighted on the battlefield, most spent long years as a squire, practicing the art of war while serving his master. People during the Middle Ages heard of the exploits of knights both mythical and real in epics like La Chanson de Roland and Le Morte D"Arthur.

After the Crusades, knights continued to show their prowess and skills in medieval tournaments.


1
9
8
7
6
11
12
10
4
30
13
29
14
2
3
27
28
20
5
20
23
26
16
37
15
18
21
22
24
37
31
17
19
25
32
36
35
33
34
38
39
40
41
43
42
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
62
63
64
65
60
61
66
67
69
70

Castle and Chivalry

1 knight's castle (castle)
2 inner ward
3 draw well
4 keep(donjon)
5 dungeon
6 battlements
7 merlon
8 tower platform
9 watchman
10 ladies' apartments
11 dormer window
12 balcony
13 storehouse
14 angle tower
15 curtain wall
16 bastion
17 angle tower
18 crenel
19 inner wall
20 battlemented parapet
21 parapet
22 gatehouse
23 machicolation
24 portcullis
25 drawbridge
26 buttress
27 offices and service rooms
28 turret
29 chapel
30 great hall
31 outer ward
32 castle gate
33 moat (ditch)
34 approach
35 watchtower
36 palisade
37 moat
38-65 knight's armour
38 suit of armour
39-42 helmet
39 skull
40 visor
41 beaver
42 throat piece
43 gorget
44 epauliere
45 pallette
46 breastplate
47 brassard
48 cubitiere
49 tasse
50 gauntlet
51 habergeon
52 cuisse
53 knee cap
54 Jambeau
55 solleret
56 pavis
57 buckler
58 boss
59 iron hat
60 morion
61 light casque
62 types of mail and armour
63 mail
64 scale armour
65 plate armour
66 accolade
67 liege lord, a knight
68 esquire
69 cupbearer
70 minstrel
71 tournament
72 crusader
73 Knight Templar
74 caparison
75 herald
76 tilting armour
77 tilting helmet
78 panache
79 tilting target
80 lance rest
81 tilting lance
82 vamplate
83-88 horse armour
83 neck guard
84 chamfron
85 poitrel
86 flanchard
87 tournament saddle
88 rump piece

Churchill John, 1st Duke of Marlborough – (1650-1722) – beginning his career at the age of 15 as page of honor to the duke of York, later King James II, the duke of Marlborough went on to become one of the greatest generals and statesmen of his age. Although his political fortunes

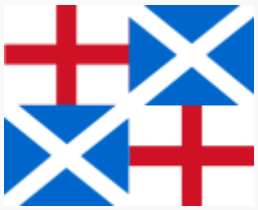
depended at times on the influence of others, including his wife, Sarah, favorite of Queen Anne, born near St. Albans, England.

John Churchill, who did not become a duke until 1702, was born in 1650 in Devonshire, England. His father, like his famous descendant, was named Winston Churchill- Ik-had some influence at court but little money. Churchill was ambitious, good-looking, and well-bred. It was the duke of York's friendship with his sister Arabella that won the boy the post of page. Later, at the age of 17, it also helped him obtain an army commission. He served with Great Britain's French allies against the Dutch. There he learned the art of war under Marshal Henri Turenne. At 28 he married Sarah Jennings. His military achievements were unquestionably his alone.

Commonwealth, the – is a period in English history when the country was governed without a king or queen. For the first four years after the death of King Charles I, the country was governed by the House of Commons. Then in 1653 the army gave power to Oliver Cromwell with the title Lord Protector. The years 1653-1659 are therefore known as the Protectorate. The Commonwealth ended with the "Restoration*" of King Charles II.

Commonwealth of England

← → **1649 – 1653**
← → **1653 – 1659: Protectorate**
← → **1659 – 1660**



Flag

Coat of arms

Motto
PAX QUÆRITUR BELLO
(English: *Peace is sought through war*)

Commonwealth of Nations, the – a quarter of the world's population lives in one of the 54 member states of the Commonwealth of Nations. The name was coined by the politician Lord Rosebery in 1884, to reflect the British Empire's changing nature as a group of equal sovereign states, rather than ruler and dependants. Only Mozambique, which joined in

1995, is not a former British colony, although many others, including Palestine, Yemen and even France in 1956, have tried and failed to join this exclusive worldwide club.

The Commonwealth promotes trade and alliance between its member states through political meetings and cultural events including the Commonwealth Games, held every four years. Until 1949 the British monarch was head of state in all Commonwealth countries. Today, she retains the position in just 16, and is symbolic head of the association.

Completion of the Suez Canal – in the thousands of years that international trade has existed, the chief obstacle to shipping between Europe and Asia has been Africa. The idea of building a waterway to connect the Mediterranean Sea and the Red Sea had occurred to the Egyptians at least 3,000 years ago. But it was not until France occupied Egypt in 1798-1801 that a survey was made of the land through which the canal now passes. In 1854 a French diplomat named Ferdinand de Lesseps received permission from the viceroy of Egypt to build a canal. The Suez Canal Company was formed in 1856.

Construction of the canal was started in 1859. The canal began at Port Said in the north and wound southward through three intervening lakes to Port Taufiq in the Gulf of Suez. The work had been estimated to take six years, but it took ten. It opened on Nov. 17, 1869, in the presence of many foreign dignitaries. The length of the completed project was 101 miles (163 kilometers). Great Britain had opposed building the canal because it was concerned about the security of its communications with India, but it later came to accept the canal and became its chief guardian. In 1875 Britain's Prime Minister, Benjamin Disraeli, was able to buy the largest single block of shares in the canal company from the ruler of Egypt. Ferdinand de Lesseps went on to attempt construction of the Panama Canal, but he failed in that project.

Convention Parliament – are those parliaments in English history which, owing to the abeyance of the crown, have assembled without the formal summons of the sovereign.

Corn Law, the – were import tariffs designed to protect corn (grain) prices in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland against competition from less expensive foreign imports between 1815 and 1846. The tariffs were introduced by the *Importation Act 1815* and repealed by the *Importation Act 1846*. These laws are often viewed as examples of British mercantilism, and their abolition marked a significant step towards free trade. The Corn Laws enhanced the profits and political power associated with land ownership.

A Corn Law was first introduced in Britain in 1804, when the landowners, who dominated Parliament, sought to protect their profits by imposing a duty on imported corn. During the Napoleonic Wars it had not

been possible to import corn from Europe. This led to an expansion of British wheat farming and to high bread prices.

Farmers feared that when the war came to an end in 1815, the importation of foreign corn would lower prices. This fear was justified and the price of corn reached fell. British landowners applied pressure on members of the House of Commons to take action to protect the profits of the farmers. Parliament responded by passing a law permitting the import of foreign wheat free of duty only when the domestic price reached 80 shillings per quarter (8 bushels).

This legislation was hated by the people living in Britain's fast-growing towns who had to pay these higher bread prices.

Court of Star Chamber – a court of law sitting in the Star Chamber at Westminster: it acted as supplement to regular courts and was popular because it could enforce laws when other courts would not because of corruption. It was abolished by Long Parliament, 1641, when Charles I used it to force unpopular political a religious policies.

Covenanters – a Scottish Presbyterian movement that played an important part in the history of Scotland, and to a lesser extent in that of England and Ireland, during the 17th century. Presbyterian denominations tracing their history to the Covenanters and often incorporating the name continue the ideas and traditions in Scotland and internationally.

They derive their name from the Scots term *covenant* for a band or legal document. There were two important covenants in Scottish history, the National Covenant and the *Solemn League and Covenant.

Cromwell Oliver – English soldier and statesman who helped make England a republic and then ruled as lord protector from 1653 to 1658.

Oliver Cromwell began to make his name as a radical Puritan when, in 1640, he was elected to represent Cambridge, first in the Short Parliament and then in the Long Parliament.

Civil war broke out between Charles I and parliament in 1642. Although Cromwell lacked military experience, he created and led a superb force of cavalry, the 'Ironsides', and rose from the rank of captain to that of lieutenant-general in three years. He convinced parliament to establish a professional army – the New Model Army – which won the decisive victory over the king's forces at Naseby (1645). The king's alliance with the Scots and his subsequent defeat in the Second Civil War convinced Cromwell that the king must be brought to justice. He was a prime mover in the trial and execution of Charles I in 1649 and subsequently sought to

win conservative support for the new republic by suppressing radial elements in the army. Cromwell became army commander and lord lieutenant of Ireland, where he crushed resistance with the massacres of the garrisons at Drogheda and Wexford (1649).

Cromwell then defeated the supporters of the king's son Charles II at Dunbar (1650) and Worcester (1651), effectively ending the civil war. In 1653, frustrated with lack of progress, he dissolved the rump of the Long Parliament and, after the failure of his Puritan convention (popularly known as Barebones Parliament) made himself lord protector. In 1657, he refused the offer of the crown. At home Lord Protector Cromwell reorganised the national church, established Puritanism, readmitted Jews into Britain and presided over a certain degree of religious tolerance. Abroad, he ended the war with Portugal (1653) and Holland (1654) and allied with France against Spain, defeating the Spanish at the Battle of the Dunes (1658). Cromwell died on 3 September 1658 in London. After the Restoration his body was dug up and hanged.

Cromwell's son Richard was named as his successor and was lord protector of England from September 1658 to May 1659. He could not reconcile various political, military and religious factions and soon lost the support of the army on which his power depended. He was forced to abdicate and after the restoration of the monarchy in 1660 he fled to Paris. He returned to England in 1680 and lived quietly under an assumed name until his death in 1712.

Curthose Robert – (1051 or 1054-1134) was the Duke of Normandy from 1087 until 1106 and an unsuccessful claimant to the throne of the Kingdom of England. His nickname, Curthose, comes from the Norman French *Courtheuse*, meaning short stockings.

Robert Curthose, the eldest son of William the Conqueror and Matilda of Flanders, was born in about 1053. At the age of 14 he became co-regent of Normandy with his mother. In 1061 it was arranged for Robert to Margaret, the sister and heiress of Count Herbert II of Maine. However, the death of Margaret, brought an end to this arrangement.

Robert suggested in 1077 to his father that he should become the ruler of Normandy and Maine. When the king refused, Robert rebelled and attempted to seize Rouen. The rebellion failed and Robert was forced to flee.

Robert inherited Normandy after his father's death in 1087. He also expected to become king of England but instead his younger brother, William Rufus, took the throne. The following year some Normans, led a rebellion against the rule of William Rufus on Robert's behalf. However most Normans in England remained loyal and William defeated the rebels.

Norman chroniclers claim that Robert had squandered the whole of his father's wealth. He asked his brother Henry Beauclerk, for a loan and when he refused, he sold him land in Normandy for £3,000.

In 1096 Robert joined the First Crusade and was one of those involved in capturing Jerusalem in July 1099. When William Rufus died in 1100 he made a second bid to become king of England. He invaded but decided to withdraw rather than risk battle.

Robert was captured by King Henry I in Normandy in 1106 and was imprisoned in the Tower of London. In 1128 he was transferred to a castle in Devizes and during his last couple of years was held in Cardiff where he died on 10th February, 1134. Robert Curthose is buried in Gloucester Cathedral.

Cymri, Cymry, Cumric – Western Celts. Cambria is a poetic name of Wales.

According to Geoffrey of Monmouth in the first part of his pseudohistory *Historia Regum Britanniae*, the Trojan Brutus had three sons among whom he divided his lands after landing in Britain. His elder son, Locrinus, received the land between the rivers Humber and Severn, which he called *Loegria* (England). His second son, Albanactus, got the lands beyond the Humber, which took from him the name of Albany (Scotland). The younger son, Camber, was bequeathed** everything beyond the Severn, which was called after him "Cambria". This legend was widely prevalent** throughout the 12th-16th centuries.

D

Devolution – The transfer of some powers from central government to provincial assemblies in Scotland and Wales has become known as devolution. The Labour government proposed setting up a new Scottish parliament and a less powerful Welsh assembly in 1974. Referenda were held in 1979, with the Welsh voting against. The Scots narrowly voted in favour, but Westminster required the support of at least 40 per cent of the Scottish electorate.

The intervening Conservative government stood fast against devolution, but in 1997 the new Labour government moved swiftly to hold new devolution referenda. This time both countries voted in favour. The Scottish parliament and Welsh assembly, both elected in May 1999, received authority and legislative power over domestic issues, such as health, education, transportsation, housing and social services, while central government at Westminster retained control over defense, economic policy, employment, taxation and foreign affairs. The Northern Ireland

laid out the process for electing the Assembly members and for the peaceful transfer of functions for the new Northern Ireland Assembly.

Diane de Poitiers – (3 September 1499 – 25 April 1566) was a French noblewoman and a courtier at the courts of Kings Francis I and his son, Henry II of France. She became notorious as the latter's favourite mistress, although she was 20 years his senior.

She was immortalised in art as the subject of paintings by François Clouet as well as other anonymous painters.

Diggers – a small extreme group that attempted to practise a form of agrarian communism during the Commonwealth. Seeing the Civil War as a defeat for the landowning class 20 Diggers, assembled in April 1649, to set up a colony in which land was cultivated communally. Believers in passive resistance, the Diggers were harassed by legal action and mob violence, and by 1650 had been dispersed.

Disraeli Benjamin (1804-81) – a clever novelist and a brilliant statesman, Disraeli led the Tory (now Conservative) political party in Great Britain. Twice he held the post of prime minister.

In 1848 Disraeli became the leader of the Conservative party in the House of Commons. Disraeli is known as the founder of British imperialism. He personally purchased for Britain shares in the Suez Canal from the khedive of Egypt and so safeguarded England's route to India.

In 1876 he had Queen Victoria proclaimed empress of India. He played a clever part against Russia in the Congress of Berlin in 1878, blocking its progress in the Balkans and saving Turkey from its domination.

The queen rewarded him with the title earl of Beaconsfield and a seat in the House of Lords. In 1880 the Conservatives were defeated and he retired. He died the next year.

Dover – is a town and major ferry** port in the county of Kent, in South East England. It faces France across the narrowest part of the English Channel, the Strait of Dover (34 km). The town is the administrative centre of the Dover District. Its strategic position has always been evident throughout its history: archaeological finds have revealed that the area has always been a focus for peoples entering and leaving Britain and this continues to this day. Services related to the Port of Dover provide a great deal of the town's employment, although many of the former ferry services have declined. Dover has a strong tourist base. Dover's name originated with its river – the River Dour, deriving from the Brythonic Dubras ("the waters"), via its Latinized form of Dubris. The Romans called it "Porte Dubris"; the modern name was in use at least by the time Shakespeare wrote "King Lear" (between 1603 and 1606), in which the town and its cliffs play a prominent role.

The town gives its name both to the surrounding chalk cliffs; and to the narrow sea passage – the Strait of Dover – on which it stands. The cliffs also gave Britain its ancient name of Albion ("white").

Dryden John – (9 August 1631 – 1 May 1700) was an influential English poet, literary critic, translator, and playwright who dominated the literary life of Restoration England to such a point that the period came to be known in literary circles as the Age of Dryden. Walter Scott named him "Glorious John".

Dublin – is the primate and capital city of Ireland. The English name comes from the Irish *Dubh Linn* meaning "black pool". It is located near the midpoint of Ireland's east coast, at the mouth of the River Liffey and at the centre of the Dublin Region. Originally founded as a Viking settlement, it evolved into the Kingdom of Dublin and became the island's primary city following the Norman invasion. Today, it is ranked 23rd in the Global Financial Centres Index, has one of the fastest growing populations of any European capital city, and is listed by the GaWC as a global city with a ranking of Alpha, placing Dublin among the top 25 cities in the world. Dublin is a historical and contemporary cultural centre for the island of Ireland as well as a modern centre of education, the arts, administrative function, economy and industry.

Duke of Monmouth, the (1649-1685) – he was Charles's II illegitimate son, and after the King's Catholic brother, James, was crowned in Westminster Abbey on 23 April. He managed to gather a force of 4000-old solidiers to stake his claim as the Proresrant heir to the throne. The rebellion was a fiasco as the local gentry refused to sanction civil war. Monmouth was executed and more that 600 of his supporters were either hanged or deported in the brutal aftermath of the rebellion.

E

Ealdorman – is the term used for a high-ranking royal official and prior magistrate of an Anglo-Saxon shire or group of shires from about the ninth century to the time of King Cnut. The term ealdorman was rendered in Latin as *dux* in early West Saxon charters, and as *præfectus*. In the *Life* of King Alfred by the Welsh bishop Asser, the Latin equivalent is *comes*. As the chief magistrate of a shire or group of shires (county) in Anglo-

Saxon England, he commanded the army of the shire(s) and districts under his control on behalf of the king. They were appointees of the king and were originally mostly from the ancient and powerful families. The office was not hereditary, but there are several examples of tenth-century ealdormen whose sons became ealdormen, such as Æthelstan Half-King and Æthelweard the Chronicler.

Eaton College – is a British independent school for boys aged 13 to 18. All the pupils board. It was founded in 1440 by King Henry VI as "The King's College of Our Lady of Eton besides Windsor".

It is located in Eton, near Windsor in England, north of Windsor Castle, and is one of the original nine English public schools as defined by the Public Schools Act 1868.


Eton has a very long list of distinguished former pupils. David Cameron is the nineteenth British Prime Minister to have attended Eton.

Eton has traditionally been referred to as "the chief nurse of England's statesmen", and has been described as the most famous public school in the world. Early in the 20th century, a historian of Eton wrote, "No other school can claim to have sent forth such a cohort of distinguished figures to make their mark on the world".

The *Good Schools Guide* called the school "the number one boys' public school," adding, "The teaching and facilities are second to none."

Economic crisis of 1930-1931, the – this worldwide economic crisis began as early as 1929 in some countries and didn't end until the beginning of World War II. International trade dropped by one-half to one-third of pre-depression levels and unemployment skyrocketed. The demand for British goods plummeted, leading to widespread closing of British factories and a nationwide unemployment rate of 20 percent. In some places, it exceeded 70 percent. In protest, citizens organized hunger marches, the largest and one of the most violent being the National Hunger March of September-October 1932.

Edgar – (943-975), also called *the Peaceable*, was a king of England (959-75). Edgar was the younger son of Edmund I of England.

His cognomen, "The Peaceable", was not necessarily a comment on the deeds of his life, for he was a strong leader, shown by his seizure of the Northumbrian and Mercian kingdoms from his older brother, Eadwig, in

958. A conclave of nobles held Edgar to be king north of the Thames, and Edgar aspired to succeed to the English throne.

Though Edgar was not a particularly peaceable man, his reign was a peaceful one. The Kingdom of England was at its height. Edgar consolidated the political unity achieved by his predecessors. By the end of Edgar's reign, England was sufficiently unified that it was unlikely to regress back to a state of division among rival kingships, as it had to an extent under Eadred's reign.

Edgar died on 8 July 975 at Winchester, and was buried at Glastonbury Abbey. From Edgar's death to the Norman Conquest, there was not a single succession to the throne that was not contested. Some see Edgar's death as the beginning of the end of Anglo-Saxon England, followed as it was by three successful 11th-century conquests – two Danish and one Norman.

Edred (Eadred) – (923-955) was the King of England from 946 until his death in 955. He was a son of Edward the Elder by his third marriage, to Eadgifu, daughter of Sigehelm, ealdorman of Kent.

He succeeded his elder brother King Edmund I, who was stabbed to death at Pucklechurch (Gloucestershire), on St Augustine's Day, 26 May 946. The same year, on 16 August, was consecrated by Archbishop Oda of Canterbury at Kingston upon Thames (Surrey, now Greater London), where he appears to have received the submission of Welsh rulers and northern earls.

Education Act (1870), the – After the passing of the 1867 Reform Act, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Robert Lowe, remarked that the government would now "have to educate our masters." As a result of this view, the government passed the 1870 Education Act. The act, drafted by William Forster stated:

(a) the country would be divided into about 2500 school districts;

(b) School Boards were to be elected by ratepayers in each district;

(c) the School Boards were to examine the provision of elementary education in their district, provided then by Voluntary Societies, and if there were not enough school places, they could build and maintain schools out of the rates;

(d) the school Boards could make their own by-laws which would allow them to charge fees or, if they wanted, to let children in free.

The 1870 Education Act allowed women to vote for the School Boards. Women were also granted the right to be candidates to serve on the School Boards. Several feminists saw this as an opportunity to show they were capable of public administration. In 1870, four women, Flora Stevenson, Lydia Becker, Emily Davies and Elizabeth Garrett were elected to local School Boards. Elizabeth Garrett, a popular local doctor, obtained more votes Marylebone than any other candidate in the country.

Edward the Elder – (c. 874-7 - 924) was an English king. He became king in 899 upon the death of his father, Alfred the Great. His court was at Winchester, previously the capital of Wessex. He captured the eastern Midlands and East Anglia from the Danes in 917 and became ruler of Mercia in 918 upon the death of Æthelflæd, his sister.

All but two of his charters give his title as "king of the Anglo-Saxons". He was the second king of the Anglo-Saxons as this title was created by Alfred. Edward's coinage reads "EADVVEARD REX." The chroniclers record that all England "accepted Edward as lord" in 920. But the fact that York continued to produce its own coinage suggests that Edward's authority was not accepted in Viking ruled Northumbria. Edward's eponym "the Elder" was first used in Wulfstan's *Life of St Æthelwold* (tenth century) to distinguish him from the later King Edward the Martyr.His main achievement was to use the military platform created by his father to bring back, under English control, the whole of the Danelaw, south of the Humber River.

Edwy (Eadwig) – (941-959), sometimes nicknamed *All-Fair* or *the Fair*, was King of England from 955 until his death four years later. Eadwig was chosen by the nobility to succeed his uncle Eadred as King. His short reign was marked by ongoing conflicts with his family, thegns, and especially the Church, under the leadership of Saint Dunstan and Archbishop Odo.

He was crowned at Kingston by Archbishop Odo, and his troubles began at the coronation feast. He had retired to enjoy the company of the ladies Aethelgifu (perhaps his foster mother) and her daughter Aelfgifu, whom the king intended to marry. The nobles resented the king's withdrawal, and he was induced by Dunstan and Cynesige, bishop of Lichfield, to return to the feast. Edwy naturally resented this interference, and in 957 Dunstan was driven into exile. By the year 956 Aelfgifu had become the king's wife, but in 958 Archbishop Odo of Canterbury secured their separation on the ground of their being too closely akin. Edwy, to judge from the disproportionately large numbers of charters issued during his reign, seems to have been weakly lavish in the granting of privileges, and soon the chief men of Mercia and Northumbria were disgusted by his partiality for Wessex. The result was that in the year 957 his brother, the Aetheling Edgar, was chosen as king by the Mercians and Northumbrians. It is probable that no actual conflict took place, and in 959, on Edwy's death, Edgar acceded peaceably to the combined kingdoms of Wessex, Mercia and Northumbria.

Edward the Martyr – (962 -978), was king of the English from 975 until he was murdered in 978. Edward was the eldest son of King Edgar, but not his father's acknowledged heir. On Edgar's death, the leadership of the England was divided, some supporting Edward's claim to

be king and other supporting his much younger half-brother Æthelred the Unready. Edward was chosen as king and was crowned by his main clerical supporters, Archbishops Dunstan and Oswald of Worcester.

Edward's reign began inauspiciously when a comet was sighted. A famine followed. The great nobles of the kingdom, ealdormen Ælfhere and Æthelwine quarrelled and civil war almost broke out. The nobles took advantage of Edward's weakness to dispossess the Benedictine reformed monasteries of lands and other properties which King Edgar had granted to them. Edward's short reign was brought to an end by his murder by members of Æthelred's household at Corfe Castle.

Edward's body was reburied with great ceremony at Shaftesbury Abbey early in 980. In 1001 his remains were moved to a more prominent place in the abbey, probably with the blessing of his half-brother King Æthelred. Edward was already reckoned a saint by this time. A number of lives of Edward were written in the centuries following his death in which he was portrayed as a martyr, generally seen as a victim of his stepmother Queen Dowager Ælfthryth. He is today recognized as a saint in the Eastern Orthodox Church, the Roman Catholic Church, and the Anglican Communion.

Edmund I – (922 -946), called *the Elder*, *the Deed-doer*, *the Just*, or *the Magnificent*, was King of England from 939 until his death. He was a son of Edward the Elder and half-brother of Athelstan. Athelstan died on 27 October 939, and Edmund succeeded him as king.He had fought with Æthelstan at Brunanburh. Combated the Norse Vikings in Northumbria and subdued them in Cumbria and Strathclyde. He entrusted these lands to an ally, Malcolm I of Scotland. Edmund met his death when he was killed at Pucklechurch, in Gloucestershire, by a robber.

Edmund II, Ironside – (c. 988/993-1016) was king of the English from 23 April to 30 November 1016. Edmund was King of England for only a few months. After the death of his father, Æthelred II, in April 1016, Edmund led the defense of the city of London against the invading Knut Sveinsson (Canute), and was proclaimed king by the Londoners. Meanwhile, the Witan (Council), meeting at Southampton, chose Canute as King. After a series of inconclusive military engagements, in which Edmund performed brilliantly and earned the nickname "Ironside", he defeated the Danish forces at Oxford, Kent, but was routed by Canute's forces at Ashingdon, Essex. A subsequent peace agreement was made, with Edmund controlling Wessex and Canute controlling Mercia and Northumbria. It was also agreed that whoever survived the other would take control of the whole realm. Unfortunately for Edmund, he died in November, 1016, transferring the Kingship of All England completely to Canute.

Egbert – was King of Wessex from 802 until 839. His father was Ealhmund of Kent. In the 780s Egbert was forced into exile by Offa of Mercia and Beorhtric of Wessex, but on Beorhtric's death in 802 Egbert returned and took the throne.

Little is known of the first twenty years of Egbert's reign, but it is thought that he was able to maintain Wessex's independence against the kingdom of Mercia, which at that time dominated the other southern English kingdoms. In 825 Egbert defeated Beornwulf of Mercia and ended Mercia's supremacy at the Battle of Ellandun, and proceeded to take control of the Mercian dependencies in southeastern England. In 829 Egbert defeated Wiglaf of Mercia and drove him out of his kingdom, temporarily ruling Mercia directly. Later that year Egbert received the submission of the Northumbrian king at Dore, near Sheffield. The *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* subsequently described Egbert as a "Ruler of Britain".

Egbert was unable to maintain this dominant position, and within a year Wiglaf regained the throne of Mercia. However, Wessex did retain control of Kent, Sussex and Surrey; these territories were given to Egbert's son Æthelwulf. When Egbert died in 839, Æthelwulf succeeded him; the southeastern kingdoms were finally absorbed into the kingdom of Wessex after Æthelwulf's death in 858.

Eleanor of Aquitaine – (1122 -1204) was one of the wealthiest and most powerful women in Western Europe during the High Middle Ages. She was queen consort of France 1137–1152 and queen consort of England 1154-1189. She was the patroness of such literary figures as Wace, Benoît de Sainte-More, and Chrétien de Troyes.

Eleanor succeeded her father as Duchess of Aquitaine and Countess of Poitiers at the age of fifteen, and thus became the most eligible bride in Europe. Three months after her accession she married Louis VII, son and junior co-ruler of her guardian, King Louis VI. She participated in the unsuccessful Second Crusade. Soon after the Crusade was over, Louis VII and Eleanor agreed to dissolve their marriage, because of Eleanor's own desire for divorce and also because the only children they had were two daughters – Marie and Alix. The royal marriage was annulled on 11 March 1152. Their daughters were declared legitimate and custody of them awarded to Louis, while Eleanor's lands were restored to her.

As soon as she arrived in Poitiers, Eleanor became engaged to the eleven years younger Henry II, Duke of the Normans, her cousin within the third degree. On 18 May 1152, eight weeks after the annulment of her first marriage, Eleanor married the Duke of the Normans. On 25 October 1154 her husband ascended the throne of the Kingdom of England, making Eleanor Queen of the English. She bore Henry eight children: five sons, two of whom would become king, and three daughters. However, Henry and Eleanor eventually became estranged. She was imprisoned between

1173 and 1189 for supporting her son Henry's revolt against her husband, King Henry II.

Eleanor was widowed on 6 July 1189. Her husband was succeeded by their son, Richard the Lionheart, who immediately moved to release his mother. Now queen mother, Eleanor acted as a regent for her son while he went off on the Third Crusade. Eleanor survived her son Richard and lived well into the reign of her youngest son King John. By the time of her death she had outlived all of her children except for King John and Eleanor, Queen of Castile.

Eleanor of Provence – (1223-1291) was Queen consort of England as the spouse of King Henry III of England from 1236 until his death in 1272.

Although she was completely devoted to her husband, and staunchly defended him against the rebel Simon de Montfort, 6th Earl of Leicester, she was very much hated by the Londoners. This was because she had brought a large number of relatives with her to England in her retinue; these were known as "the Savoyards", and they were given influential positions in the government and realm. On one occasion, Eleanor's barge was attacked by angry citizens who pelted her with stones, mud, pieces of paving, rotten eggs and vegetables.

Eleanor was the mother of five children including the future King Edward I of England. She also was renowned for her cleverness, skill at writing poetry, and as a leader of fashion.

England – is a country which is part of the United Kingdom. Its inhabitants account for more than 83% of the total UK population. England shares land borders with Scotland to the north and Wales to the west and elsewhere is bordered by the North Sea, Irish Sea, Celtic Sea, Bristol Channel and English Channel. The capital is London, the largest urban area in Great Britain, and the largest urban zone in the European Union by most, but not all, measures.

England became a unified state in the year 927 and takes its name from the Angles, one of the Germanic tribes who settled there during the 5th and 6th centuries. It has had a significant cultural and legal impact on the wider world being the place of origin of the English language, the Church of England and English law, which forms the basis of the common law legal systems of many countries around the world. In addition, England was the birthplace of the Industrial Revolution being the first country in the world to become industrialised. It is home to the Royal Society, which laid the foundations of modern experimental science. England is the world's oldest parliamentary democracy and consequently many constitutional, governmental and legal innovations that had their origin in England have been widely adopted by other nations.

The Kingdom of England (including Wales) continued as a separate state until 1 May 1707, when the Acts of Union, putting into effect the terms agreed in the Treaty of Union the previous year, resulted in political union with the Kingdom of Scotland to create the united Kingdom of Great Britain.

English Channel, the – which separates Great Britain from France is 120 miles at its widest point and only 21 miles (34 km) at its narrowest. One can see the white cliffs of Dover from the French coast on a clear day. This may explain the origin of the old romantic name given to Britain – Albion*.

The British Channel is one of the busiest and most dangerous shipping routes in the world. Half of all the world's ship collisions take place between the Western end of the Channel and the Baltic. There is a strong tide running up the Channel from the south, and another coming down from the north. These two tidal movements meet near the mouth of the Thames River, creating very strong currents.

Also there is a huge sand mountain called the Goodwin Sands* in the Channel. It is 30 km long and 13 km wide. The mountain of sand constantly moves and sucks ships into it. For centuries the Channel has been Britain's defence against invaders. Now it is the world's busiest sea passage, used by some 350 ships each day. When the Channel Tunnel opened in 1994 it became possible to go from. Several armies of swimmers have crossed the Channel by balloon, canoe, rowing-boat, parachute water-skis and swimming. It presents a challenge even to the strongest swimmer as the tides and currents make it difficult for a swimmer to stay on course and swim in a straight line. The maneuvers to avoid the currents more than double the distance. The first person to swim the Channel in 1875 was Captain Matthew Webb. He landed in France 21 hours and 45 minutes after entering the water at Dover*****. Since then, almost 4000 people have tried, but less than 400 have succeeded. The water in the Channel is usually cold, there is oil on the surface and there are lots of jellyfish under the water. The swimmers cover their bodies with grease to protect their bodies. They are fed by men who accompany them in small boats. The Channel swimmer loses about seven kilograms of his weight during the swimming. But swimming enthusiasts are not stopped by the difficulties. Their purpose is not only to cross the Channel, but to set a new record. An Englishman called Michael Read swam the Channel 31 times. The fastest time was 7 hours 40 minutes. The youngest person to swim was an eleven-year-old boy. It took him almost twelve hours to swim across in September 1988.

Erin – see *Hiberia*.

Ethelbald (834-860) – (means roughly 'Noble Bold') was King of Wessex from 856 to 860. He was the second of the five sons of King Æthelwulf of Wessex and Osburga.

Ethelbald's father, King Ethelwulf, embarked on a lengthy pilgrimage to Rome, taking with him his youngest and favourite son, Alfred, whom he hoped to name as his heir. During the King's absence, Wessex had been governed by a council of ministers under the joint leadership of Ethelbald, St. Swithin, Bishop of Winchester and Bishop Ealstan of Sherborne. In a pre-emptive move Ethelbald was crowned King of Wessex at Kingston-upon-Thames before his father's return.

Ethelbald was the very antithesis of his pious and mild-mannered father, he was a tough and hardened warrior like his grandfather, Egbert, many were sorry that the ageing Ethelwulf, never an inspiring figure, had returned at all, much preferring the rule of his warlike son. Ethelwulf prevented the looming prospect of civil war by his acceptance of the situation and abdication.

After the death of his father two years later, Ethelbald foolishly made himself highly unpopular with the church by scandalously marrying his sixteen year old step-mother, Judith of France. The relationship was deemed incestuous and in direct contravention of church law. Her outraged father, Charles the Bald, King of France, intervened and forced his errant daughter into a nunnery. The much married Judith later eloped with Baldwin, Count of Flanders, making her the ancestress of another Queen of England, Matilda of Flanders, the consort of England's first Norman King, William the Conqueror.

Despite the scandal with his step-mother, Ethelbald made a popular king. He died at Sherbourne in Dorset on 20 December, 860, aged around 35, after a four year reign. He seems to have been greatly mourned by his people, although Bishop Asser describes him as being "headstrong and arbitrary". It should be remembered, however, that he evoked the censure of the church through his uncanonical marriage, making Asser's opinion of the King a highly biased one.

Ethelbert (836-865) – (meaning "Magnificent Noble") was the King of Wessex from 860 to 865. He was the third son of Æthelwulf of Wessex and his first wife, Osburga. In 855 he became under-king of Kent while his father, Æthelwulf, visited Rome. His brother Æthelbald was left in charge of the West Saxons. After his father's death in 858 he succeeded him as king of Kent and the other eastern parts of the kingdom. When Æthelbald died childless in 860, the kingship of the West Saxons also passed to Æthelbert.

Ethelred (840-871) – ("noble counsel") was King of Wessex from 865 to 871. He was the fourth son of King Æthelwulf. He succeeded his brother, Æthelberht (Ethelbert), as King of Wessex and Kent in 865. He married Wulfrida and had two sons, Æthelwold, the elder, and Æthelhelm, the younger.

Æthelred was not able to control the increasing Danish raids on England. On 4 January 871 at the Battle of Reading, Ethelred suffered a heavy defeat. Although Æthelred was able to re-form his army in time to win a victory at the Battle of Ashdown, he suffered another defeat on 22 January at the Battle of Basing, and was killed at the Battle of Merton on 23 April 871.

Æthelred is buried at Wimborne in Dorset. Following his death, he was popularly regarded as a saint, but never canonised. He was succeeded by his younger brother, Alfred the Great

Ethelred the Unready – (968 -1016) was king of the English (978–1013 and 1014–1016). He was son of King Edgar and Queen Ælfthryth. Æthelred was only about 10 (no more than 13) when his half-brother Edward was murdered. Æthelred was not personally suspected of participation, but as the murder was committed at Corfe Castle by the attendants of Ælfthryth, it made it more difficult for the new king to rally the nation against the invader, especially as a legend of St Edward the Martyr soon grew. Later, Æthelred ordered a massacre of Danish settlers in 1002 and also paid tribute, or Danegeld, to Danish leaders from 991 onwards. His reign was much troubled by Danish Viking raiders. In 1013, Æthelred fled to Normandy and was replaced by Sweyn, who was also king of Denmark. However, Æthelred returned as king after Sweyn died in 1014.

"Unready" is a mistranslation of Old English *unræd* (meaning bad-counsel) – a twist on his name "Æthelred" (meaning noble-counsel).

Ethelwulf (795- 858) – (means 'Noble Wolf') was King of Wessex from 839 to 856. He is the only son who can indisputably be accredited to King Egbert of Wessex. He conquered the kingdom of Kent on behalf of his father in 825, and was sometime later made King of Kent as a sub-king to Egbert. He succeeded his father as King of Wessex on Egbert's death in 839: his kingdom then stretched from the county of Kent in the east to Devon in the west. At the same time his eldest son Æthelstan became sub-king of Kent as a subordinate ruler.

Historians give conflicting assessments of Æthelwulf. According to Richard Humble, Æthelwulf had a worrying style of Kingship. He had come to the throne of Wessex by inheritance. He proved to be intensely religious, cursed with little political sense, and with too many able and ambitious sons. To Frank Stenton "Æthelwulf seems to have been a religious and unambitious man, for whom engagement in war and politics was an unwelcome consequence of rank." However Janet Nelson thought that his reign has been under-appreciated in modern scholarship, and that he laid the foundations for Alfred's success, finding new as well as traditional answers, and coping more effectively with Scandinavian attacks than most contemporary rulers.

F

Fifth monarchy men – an extreme Puritan sect during the Commonwealth and Protectorate. Its members took their name from their belief that the fifth monarchy (the rule of Christ and the saints, succeeding that of the Assyrian, Persian, Greek, and Roman monarchies, which was foretold in Daniel 2) was at hand. They welcomed the calling of Barebones* Parliament (the "parliament of saints"), but its failure and the establishment of the Protectorate turned them into opponents of Cromwell, and their leaders were imprisoned.

First Labour government, the – lasted from January to November 1924. The Labour Party, under James Ramsay MacDonald, had failed to win the general election of December 1923, with 191 seats, although the combined Opposition tally exceeded that of the Conservative government creating a hung parliament. Stanley Baldwin remained in office until January 1924.

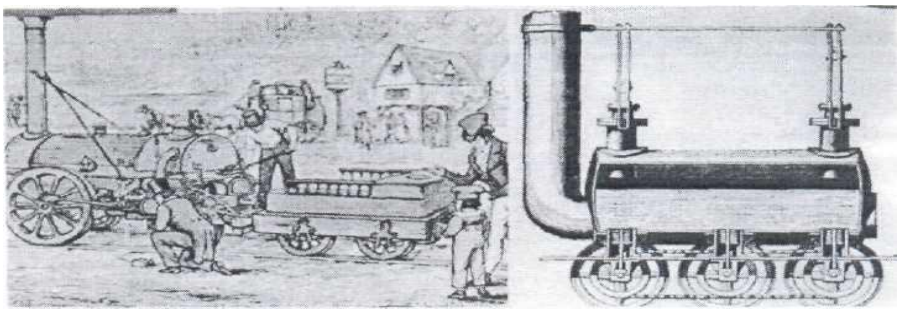
The Conservatives had won the previous general election held in 1922 shortly after the fall of the Lloyd George Coalition when, along with their Unionist allies, they had won 344 seats. This seemed a significant enough majority to expect a full-parliamentary term. Nevertheless, shortly after the election the Conservative leader Andrew Bonar Law died, and was replaced by Baldwin, who reneged on his predecessor's electoral pledge not to introduce protective tariffs. As such, Baldwin sought a fresh mandate from the electorate in 1923. The result was decisive against protectionism and it was clear the Conservatives had lost, despite remaining the largest party. Baldwin had little chance of remaining prime minister when the balance of power was held by the Liberal Party under H. H. Asquith, who had campaigned vigorously for free trade, to the point of healing the rift that existed between the Asquith and Lloyd George factions. Baldwin advised the King to send for MacDonald, since the Labour Party held more seats in the Commons than the Liberals. MacDonald accepted the King's commission later that day, arriving with his Labour colleagues, to the amusement of many and dismay of others, in full court dress.

First railroad – tracks had been used in Europe as early as the 16th century, but early railroad cars were pulled by men or horses, not mechanical force. They were only moderately efficient and were used mostly to transport ores through mines. By 1804 inventors were trying, but finding it impractical, to use steam power to move railroad cars. About 20 years later, the Briton George Stephenson, a former engine mechanic, made steam engines a practical method of locomotion.

In 1825, Stephenson's first railroad locomotive, the *Active,* pulled railroad cars carrying a total of 450 people at a speed of 15 miles per hour. Stephenson kept improving his engine, and by 1829 his second locomotive,

the *"Rocket"'*, travelled at 36 miles per hour. This locomotive signaled the beginning of the dominance of the railroad in transportation.

Railroad lines sprang up quickly across the world. Goods could travel more quickly than before, and people from distant parts of the world could meet within days, instead of weeks or months. Perishable commodities could be shipped farther away, and the economic markets of the world expanded incredibly. The new railroads put the frontiers of Canada, Russia, and the United States within reach of settlers. Until the mid-20th century, trains carried most of the goods and passengers in industrialized nations. Today automobiles and airplanes are dominant, but railroads are still an integral part of most countries' transportation systems.



Stephenson's first locomotive

Flamsteed John – (1646-1719) was the son of a prosperous merchant in Denby near Derby, Derbyshire, England. He studied astronomy between 1662 and 1669 on his own and opposed by his father. He was employed by King Charles II as Britain's first Royal Astronomer on March 4, 1675, on the recommendation of Jonas Moore. The Royal Observatory at Greenwich was built for him and he began observing in 1676, but he had to fund and bring his own instruments. He was elected to the Royal Society in 1677, where he was a Member of council from 1681-4 and 1698-1700.

His main work was collecting improved observations and position measurements for stars, which finally led to the compilation of a large catalog, Historia Coelestis Britannica (Flamsteed1725), and an atlas of stars, Atlas Coelestis (Flamsteed1729).

Other notable work of Flamsteed included Lunar theory, optics of telescopes, and meteorological observations with barometers and thermometers, as well as longitude determination.

Flamsteed died on December 31, 1719 in Greenwich. His greatest enemy, Halley*, was to succeed him as the second Astronomer Royal.

Fletcher, John – (baptized 1579 – d.1625) English Jacobean dramatist who collaborated with Francis Beaumont and other dramatists on comedies and tragedies between about 1606 and 1625.

Fletcher's plays were written for the elite, sophisticated audiences which frequented the "private" theaters of Jacobean London. Although his

plays are still admired for their dramatic craftsmanship, they are commonly thought of as refined entertainments lacking the larger significance and universality of appeal which distinguish the work of his greater contemporaries. Fletcher employed a variety of dramatic forms, including revenge tragedy (*Valentinian*, ca. 1614), satiric comedy (*The Humorous Lieutenant*, 1619), and farce (*Rule a Wifeand Have a Wife*, 1624).

Fletcher died in 1625, reportedly a victim of the plague. He was buried at St. Saviour's Church in London.

Frobisher Bay – is a relatively large inlet of the Labrador Sea in the Qikiqtaaluk Region of Nunavut, Canada. It is located in the southeastern corner of Baffin Island. Its length is about 230 km.

Frobisher Bay is named for the English navigator Sir Martin Frobisher, who, during his search for the Northwest Passage in 1576, became the first European to visit it. Until 1861, the Bay was thought by Europeans to be a strait separating Baffin Island* from another island.

The first Church of England service recorded on North American soil was a celebration of Holy Communion at Frobisher Bay in the last days of August or early September 1578. The Anglican Church of Canada's Prayer Book fixes the day of commemoration as September 3. The chaplain on Frobisher's voyage was "'Maister Wolfall (probably Robert Wolfall), minister and preacher', who had been charged by Queen Elizabeth 'to serve God twice a day'."

Fyrd – tribal militia-like arrangement existing in Anglo-Saxon England from approximately ad 605. Local in character, it imposed military service upon every able-bodied free male. It was probably the duty of the ealderman, or sheriff, to call out and lead the fyrd. Fines imposed for neglecting the fyrd varied with the status of the individual, landholders receiving the heaviest fines and common labourers the lightest. The fyrd was gradually superseded by the gathering of the thanes (feudal lords) and their retainers, but it was occasionally called out for defensive purposes even after the Norman Conquest (1066).

G

Gandhi Mohandas Karamchand – (1869-1948) was the pre-eminent political and ideological leader of India during the Indian independence movement. He pioneered *satyagraha*. This is defined as resistance to tyranny through mass civil disobedience, a philosophy firmly founded upon total nonviolence. This concept helped India gain independence and inspired movements for civil rights and freedom across the world. He is officially honored in India as the *Father of the Nation*. His birthday, 2 October, is commemorated as a national holiday, and worldwide as the International Day of Non-Violence. Gandhi was assassinated on 30 January 1948 by Nathuram Godse, a Hindu Nationalist.

Gandhi first employed civil disobedience while an expatriate lawyer in South Africa, during the resident Indian community's struggle for civil rights. After his return to India in 1915, he organized protests by peasants, farmers, and urban laborers concerning excessive land-tax and discrimination. After assuming leadership of the Indian National Congress in 1921, Gandhi led nationwide campaigns to ease poverty, expand women's rights, build religious and ethnic amity, end untouchability, and increase economic self-reliance. Above all, he aimed to achieve the independence of India from foreign domination. He launched the civil disobedience movement in 1942, demanding immediate independence for India. Gandhi spent a number of years in jail in both South Africa and India.

Gandhi swore to speak the truth and advocated that others do the same. He lived modestly in a self-sufficient residential community and wore the traditional Indian *dhoti* and shawl, woven from yarn that he had spun by hand himself. He ate simple vegetarian food, experimented for a time with a fruitarian diet

1926 General Strike in the United Kingdom, the – was a general strike that lasted ten days, from 3 May 1926 to 13 May 1926. It was called by the General Council of the Trades Union Congress (TUC) in an unsuccessful attempt to force the British government to act to prevent wage reduction and worsening conditions for coal miners.

Geoffrey, Count of Anjou – Geoffrey V (1113 -1151), called the Handsome (French: *le Bel*) and Plantagenet, was the Count of Anjou, Touraine, and Maine by inheritance from 1129 and then Duke of Normandy by conquest from 1144. By his marriage to the Empress Matilda, daughter and heiress of Henry I of England, Geoffrey had a son, Henry Curtmantle, who succeeded to the English throne and founded the Plantagenet dynasty to which Geoffrey gave his nickname.

George Villiers, 1st Duke of Buckingham (1592 -1628) – was the favourite, claimed by some to be the lover, of King James I of England.

Despite a very patchy political and military record he remained at the height of royal favour for the first two years of the reign of Charles I, until he was assassinated. He was one of the most rewarded royal courtiers in all history.

Gladstone William (1809-98) – After his graduation from Oxford in 1831, William Gladstone wanted to become a clergyman in the Church of England. But his strong-willed father. Sir John Gladstone, insisted that he enter politics. For 60 years William Gladstone served the government almost continuously, achieving one of the most brilliant state careers in British history. Four times during the reign of Queen Victoria he was prime minister.

In the 1860s the more liberal Whigs – or Liberals, as they came to be called – attracted some of the free-trade Conservatives. Gladstone, originally a Tory, or Conservative, was among those who moved toward Liberalism. The Liberals' power increased when the electorate was broadened in 1867 to include workingmen in towns. Gladstone explained his change from Tory to extreme Liberal thus: "I was brought up to distrust and dislike liberty: I learned to believe in it". When he was 85, approaching blindness forced him to retire from public life.

He died at his home in Hawarden Castle, Wales, in 1898. He had served as prime minister from 1868 to 1874; from 1880 to 1885; from February to July 1886; and from 1892 to 1894.

Godolphin Sidney, 1st Earl of Godolphin (1645-1712) – was a senior politician whose career spanned the reigns of Charles II, James II, William III and Anne. Godolphin was primarily a political manager and his links to any political party was tenuous. Godolphin's primary political expertise was in finance and he can be considered one of the leading Treasury men of the era.

Godolphin was a non-party man who had a significant gift for financial and administrative matters. In many senses he was a modern-day civil servant as opposed to a politician. Because of his seeming political neutrality, Godolphin could act as a manager between the Crown and Parliament or between the Crown and the two political parties of the day – the Whigs and Tories. Godolphin was also more than capable of bringing together groups that held very diverse political ideas.

Outside of politics and finance, Godolphin had a keen interest in gambling and horse racing and he is credited with pioneering race horse breeding at Newmarket, Suffolk.

Sidney Godolphin, 1st Earl of Godolphin, died on December 15th 1712.

Godwin, Earl of Wessex – (990-1053) was one of the most powerful lords in England under the Danish king Cnut the Great and his successors. Cnut made him the first Earl of Wessex. Godwin was the father

of King Harold Godwinson and Edith of Wessex, wife of King Edward the Confessor.

Goodwin Sands – is a group of dangerous banks of sand just below the surface of the sea in the English Channel near Dover. Many ships have been damaged and sunk there. According to the legend they used to be an island belonging to an earl called Godwin which was washed away by the sea.

Gordonstoun School – is a co-educational independent school for boarding pupils in Moray in North East Scotland. Named after the 150 acre estate originally owned by Sir Robert Gordon in the 1600s; the school now uses this estate as its campus. It is located near Duffus to the north-west of Moray's county town of Elgin.

Founded in 1934 by Kurt Hahn, Gordonstoun has an enrollment of around 500 full boarders as well as about 100 day pupils between the ages of 8 and 18. Annual full boarding fees range between £17 500 and £28 500 but scholarships are available. There are nine boarding houses, including three 17th century buildings that were part of the original estate, the other houses have been built or modified since the school was established.

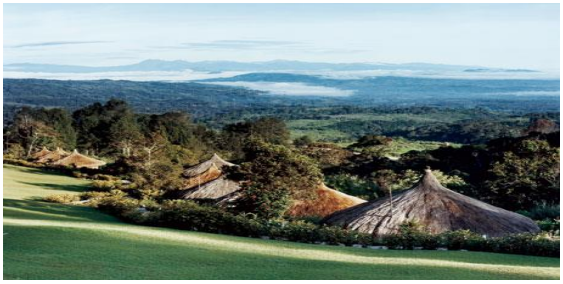
Gordonstoun has many notable alumni. Three previous generations of British royalty were educated at Gordonstoun since its establishment including The Duke of Edinburgh and Prince Charles. Due to Dr. Hahn's influence the school has a strong connection with Germany and forms part of The Round Square Conference of Schools, a group of over 60 schools across the globe. Around 30% of students attending Gordonstoun come from abroad.

Grand Remonstrance (1641), the – a comprehensive statement, drawn by Pym* and other parliamentary leaders and aimed against the authoritarian rule of Charles I. It listed the reforms already enacted by the Long Parliament*. The Remonstrance was printed only to be rejected by Charles, who denied the need for any reform of the church or of his ministers. *The Grand Remonstrance*, one of the major English

constitutional documents, led to a hardening of division between parliamentarians and royalists.

Guildhall, **the** – is a building in the City of London, off Gresham and Basinghall streets, in the wards of Bassishaw and Cheap. It has been used as a town hall for several hundred years, and is still the ceremonial and administrative centre of the City of London and its Corporation. The term Guildhall refers both to the whole building and to its main room, which is a medieval-style great hall. The Guildhall complex houses the offices of the City of London Corporation and various public facilities.

The Guildhall should not be confused with London City Hall, which is the administrative centre for Greater London, of which the City of London is only a small part.



Guinea – is a country in West Africa. Formerly known as French Guinea, it is today sometimes called Guinea-Conakry to distinguish it from its neighbor Guinea-Bissau.

Conakry is the capital, the seat of the national government, and the largest city.

Guinea has almost 246,000 square kilometres. It forms a crescent by curving from its western border on the Atlantic Ocean toward the east and the south. Its northern border is shared with Guinea-Bissau, Senegal, and Mali, the southern one with Sierra Leone, Liberia, and Côte d'Ivoire. The Niger River arises in Guinea and runs eastward.

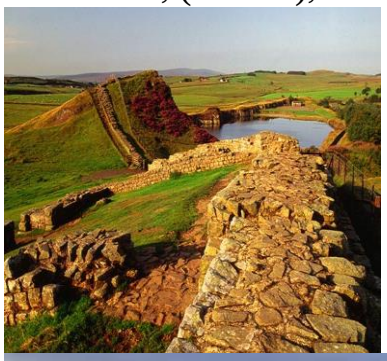
Guinea's 10,000,000 people belong to twenty-four ethnic groups. The most prominent groups are the Fula, Mandinka, and Susu.

Guy Fawkes Night – also known as Bonfire Night, is an annual celebration held on the evening of 5 November to mark the failure of the Gunpowder Plot of 5 November 1605, in which a number of Catholic conspirators, including Guy Fawkes, attempted to destroy the Houses of Parliament in London. The occasion is primarily celebrated in Great Britain where, by an Act of Parliament called *The Thanksgiving Act*, it was compulsory until 1859, to celebrate the deliverance of the King of England, Scotland, and Ireland. It is also celebrated in some former British colonies including New Zealand, Newfoundland, South Africa, parts of the Caribbean and the British Overseas Territory of Bermuda. Bonfire Night was celebrated in Australia until the mid-to-late 1970s, when sale and public use of fireworks was made illegal and the celebration was

effectively abolished. Festivities are centred on the use of fireworks and the lighting of bonfires.

H

Hadrian's Wall –was built, beginning in A.D. 122, to keep Roman Britain safe from hostile attacks from the Picts. It was the northernmost boundary of the Roman empire until early in the fifth century. Hadrian's Wall, stretching from the North Sea to the Irish Sea (from the Tyne to the Solway), was 80 Roman miles (about 73 modern miles) long, 8-10 feet wide, and 15 feet high. In addition to the wall, the Romans built a system of small forts called milecastles (housing garrisons of up to 60 men) every Roman mile along its entire length, with towers every 1/3 mile. Sixteen larger forts holding from 500 to 1000 troops were built into the wall, with large gates on the north face. To the south of the wall the Romans dug a wide ditch, (vallum), with six foot high earth banks.




Halley, Edmund – (1656-2742) was an English astronomer. He calculated the orbits of many comets, and correctly foretold the return of the commet of 1682. It is now called Halley's Comet. He was born in London and educated in Oxford. His first name sometimes spelt Edmont.

Harold I – (1015-1040) was King of England from 1035 to 1040. Harold was made regent of England after Canute's death. Hardecanute, Canute's son by Emma and claimant to the English throne, was not chosen because he was occupied with affairs in Denmark, where he became king.

In 1036 Harold was responsible for the brutal murder of another royal claimant, Alfred the Aetheling, son of King Ethelred the Unready (Ethelred II; reigned 978–1016). His cognomen "Harefoot" referred to his speed, and the skill of his huntsmanship. He was the son of Cnut the Great, king of England, Denmark, and Norway by Ælfgifu of Northampton. Though there was some scepticism he was really Cnut's son, this was probably just propaganda by the opponents of his kingship.

Harold II (Harold Godwinson) – (1022 -1066) was the last Anglo-Saxon King of England before the Norman Conquest. Harold reigned from 5 January 1066, until his death at the Battle of Hastings on 14 October of that same year, fighting the Norman invaders led by William the Conqueror. Harold is one of only three Kings of England to have died as a result of battle, alongside Richard the Lionheart and Richard III.

Harthacanute – (1018-1042) was King of Denmark from 1035 to 1042 and England from 1040 to 1042. He was the only son of Canute the Great and Emma of Normandy.He followed his father as King of Denmark in 1035, becoming Canute III. Fighting with Magnus I of Norway stopped him from sailing to England to take up his throne. His older, illegitimate half-brother, Harold Harefoot, became regent of England.

Harold took the English crown for himself in 1037. After Harthacanute had settled the situation in Scandinavia he prepared an invasion of England to take over his kingdom. Harold died, and Harthacanute was able to take back his throne peacefully.

Harthacanute was a harsh and unpopular ruler: to pay for his ships, he greatly increased the rate of taxation. In 1041 the people of Worcester killed two of Harthacanute's men who had been collecting the tax. Harthacanute burned the city. The story of Lady Godiva riding naked through the streets of Coventry to persuade the local earl to lower taxes, may come from the reign of Harthacanute. The *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* says of him: "He never accomplished anything kingly for as long as he ruled."

In 1041, Harthacanute asked his half-brother Edward the Confessor (his mother Emma's son by Ethelred the Unready) back from exile in Normandy to become a member of his household, and probably made Edward his heir. Harthacanute was unmarried and had no children. On June 8, 1042, he died at Lambeth – he "died as he stood at his drink, and he suddenly fell to the earth." He was buried at Winchester, Hampshire. Edward became the new king.

Henrietta Maria – (1609 –1669) was the Queen consort of England, Scotland and Ireland as the wife of King Charles I. She was mother of two kings, Charles II and James II, and grandmother of two queens and one king, Mary II, William III and Anne of Great Britain, as well as paternal aunt of Louis XIV of France.

Her Catholic religion made her unpopular in England, and also prohibited her from being crowned in an Anglican service; therefore she never had a coronation. She began to immerse herself in national affairs as civil war loomed on the horizon, and was compelled to seek refuge in France in 1644, following the birth of her youngest daughter, Henrietta, during the height of the First English Civil War. The execution of King Charles in 1649 left her impoverished. She settled in Paris, and then returned to England after the Restoration of her eldest son, Charles, to the throne. In 1665, she moved back to Paris, where she died four years later.

The U.S. state of Maryland was named in her honour.

Henry Bolingbroke – Henry IV (1366-1413) was King of England and Lord of Ireland (1399-1413). He also asserted his grandfather's claim to the title King of France. He was born at Bolingbroke Castle in Lincolnshire, hence the other name by which he was known, *Henry (of) Bolingbroke*. His father, John of Gaunt, was the third son of Edward III, and enjoyed a position of considerable influence during much of the reign of Richard II. Henry's mother was Blanche, heiress to the considerable Lancaster estates.

Heptarchy – is a collective name applied to the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of south, east, and central Great Britain during late antiquity and the early Middle Ages, conventionally identified as seven: Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Essex, Kent, Sussex and Wessex. The Anglo-Saxon kingdoms eventually unified into the Kingdom of England.

The term has been in use since the 16th century, but the initial idea that there were seven Anglo-Saxon kingdoms is attributed to the English historian Henry of Huntingdon in the 12th century and was first used in his *Historia Anglorum*.

The heptarchy did not consider any of the Sub-Roman Brythonic realms such as Elmet, Rheged, Strathclyde, Ebrauc, Bryneich and Gododdin, and during the same period, what are now Ireland, Scotland and Wales were also divided into comparable petty kingdoms.

Hibernia – an inhabitant of Highland region, an administrative area of northern Scotland, to the north of the Grampian Mountains and including some of the inner Hebrides islands.

Hill House – Of the many schools named *Hill House School*, there is one which is a preparatory day school based in Knightsbridge, London. It was founded in September 1951 by Lt-Col Stuart Townend and has several branches located in West London and in Switzerland. Former pupils include Prince Charles and Lily Allen.

The *Good Schools Guide* described the school as "A school with a notable and inescapable past which booms at a visitor from every wood-panelled wall, display board and cabinet," also stating that "Its aim from the first was to be 'international' and to nurture each individual child's talents."

Pupils attend the school from the ages of four to 13. Many of the pupils come from abroad.

The school used to have a policy of not preparing pupils for scholarships. That has recently changed, and the school is now rapidly gaining a reputation for helping pupils win scholarships to highly ranked institutions like St Paul's School, Lancing College and Benenden.

Hooke, Robert (1635-1703) – experimented with early reflecting microscope and published his *Micrographical Small Drawings* in 1665. He was one of the earliest pioneers of the theory of evolution. He constructed the first reflecting telescope, and was the first person to use a spiral spring to regulate watches. He discovered the cell, and also saw the principle of the law of gravitation before Sir Isaac Newton*. He was born in the Isle of Whight, and attended Oxford University. He had varied interests.

House of Blois – 1135-1154

In 1135, Stephen of Blois, the son of Henry I's sister Adela, seized the English throne, his cousin Empress Matilda of Anjou's claims being ignored by the Norman barons. His wife, Matilda of Boulogne, became his Queen consort, but her elder son died, and Stephen was forced to appoint the Empress's son as his successor.

Picture	Name	Father	Birth	Marriage	Became Consort	Coronation	Ceased to be Consort	Death	Spouse
	Matilda of Boulogne	Eustace III, Count of Boulogne (Boulogne)	c. 1105	1125	22 December 1135 *husband's ascension*	22 March 1136	3 May 1152		Stephen

Huguenots, the – were members of the Protestant Reformed Church of France (or French Calvinists) from the sixteenth to the eighteenth centuries. Since the eighteenth century, Huguenots have been commonly designated "French Protestants", the title being suggested by

their German co-religionists or "Calvinists". Protestants in France were inspired by the writings of John Calvin in the 1530s and the name Huguenots was already in use by the 1560s. By the end of the 17th century, roughly 200,000 Huguenots had been driven from France during a series of religious persecutions. They relocated primarily in England, Switzerland, Holland, the German Palatinate, and elsewhere in Northern Europe, as well as to what is now South Africa and to North America.

Hung Parliament – In a two-party parliamentary system of government, a *hung parliament* occurs when neither major political party (or bloc of allied parties) has an absolute majority of seats in the parliament (legislature). It is also less commonly known as a *balanced parliament* or a legislature under *no overall control*. If the legislature is bicameral, and the government is responsible only to the lower house, then 'hung parliament' is used only with respect to that chamber. Most general elections in a two-party system will result in one party having an absolute majority and thus quickly forming a new government; a 'hung parliament' is an exception to this pattern, and may be considered anomalous or undesirable. One or both main parties may seek to form a coalition government with smaller third parties, or a minority government relying on external support from third parties or independents. If these efforts fail, a dissolution of parliament and a fresh election may be the last resort. In a multi-party system, as is usual in legislatures elected by proportional representation, it is common for an election to be followed by negotiations leading to a coalition; the term 'hung parliament' is not used.

I

Industrial Revolution – was not a sudden event that happened in a particular year, as most revolutions do. It was instead the beginning of a dynamic, ongoing process that continues today. Its immediate effect was the factory system of manufacture, in contrast to the earlier guild system in the cities or cottage industries in rural areas.

The Industrial Revolution arrived at a time when worldwide trade and commerce had been developing for centuries, most notably in northern and western Europe. The prosperity of cities had been increasing since at least the 15th century, as wealthy merchants and bankers were able to purchase the rights of self-government from nobles and kings. The gaining of rights, especially the right of private property, was a requisite for the emergence of the factory system and a new business class. Property rights made possible such types of ownership as joint stock companies and corporations.

The changes began with John Kay's flying shuttle (1733). This device made it possible for one person to handle a wide loom. Next came James Hargreaves' spinning jenny (1764), which worked as many as a hundred spindles from a single wheel Another device, Richard Arkwright's spinning frame (1769), worked by water power Samuel Crompton's spinning mule (1779) helped complete the industrialization of the one-time handcraft of spinning Edmund Cartwright's power loom (1785) did the same for weaving.

Another ingredient of the revolution was technological change in the factory system: new steam-, water-, and wind-power systems and new machines for manufacturing. A third main ingredient was the division of labor in industry.

The early Industrial Revolution produced a transportation revolution; there were new-kinds of ships and paved roads, and railroads were invented. Change continued in the second half of the 19th century with a communications revolution, aided by electric power, which gave new impetus to the factory system. A third stage of industrialism materialized in the second half of the 20th century with an information revolution, underpinned by computer technology and robotics.

Interregnum – was the period of parliamentary and military dictatorship by the Lord Protector Oliver Cromwell under the Commonwealth of England after the English Civil War. It began with the overthrow, and execution, of Charles I in January 1649, and ended with the restoration of Charles II on May 29, 1660.

This era in English history can be divided into four periods:

•The first period of the Commonwealth of England from 1649 until 1653;

• The Protectorate under Oliver Cromwell from 1653 to 1658;

• The Protectorate under Richard Cromwell from 1658 to 1659;

• The second period of the Commonwealth of England from 1659 until 660.

J

Jacobitism was the political movement dedicated to the restoration of the Stuart kings to the thrones of England, Scotland, and the Kingdom of Ireland. The movement took its name from the Latin form *Jacobus* of the name of King James II and VII.

Jacobitism was a response to the deposing of James II and VII in 1688 when he was replaced by his daughter Mary II jointly with her husband and first cousin William of Orange. The Stuarts lived on the European mainland after that, occasionally attempting to regain the throne

with the aid of France and Spain. The primary seats of Jacobitism were Ireland and Scotland, particularly the Scottish Highlands. In England, Jacobitism was strongest in the north, and some support also existed in Wales.

Many embraced Jacobitism because they believed parliamentary interference with monarchical succession to be illegitimate, and many Catholics hoped the Stuarts would end discriminatory laws. Still other people of various allegiances became involved in the military campaigns for all sorts of motives. In Scotland the Jacobite cause became entangled in the last throes of the warrior clan system, and became a lasting romantic memory.

The emblem of the Jacobites is the White Rose of York. White Rose Day is celebrated on 10 June, the anniversary of the birth of the Old Pretender in 1688.

John Balliol – (c. 1249-1314), known to the Scots as *Toom Tabard* ("empty shirt"), was King of Scots from 1292 to 1296.

John of Gaunt – 1st Duke of Lancaster, 5th Earl of Leicester, 2nd Earl of Derby, Duke of Aquitaine, (1340-1399) was a member of the House of Plantagenet, the third surviving son of King Edward III of England and Philippa of Hainault. He was called "John of Gaunt" because he was born in Ghent (in modern Belgium), *Gaunt* in English.

John exercised great influence over the English throne during the minority of his nephew, Richard II, and during the ensuing periods of political strife, but was not thought to have been among the opponents of the King.

When John died in 1399, his estates were declared forfeit as King Richard II had exiled John's son and heir, Henry Bolingbroke, in 1398. Bolingbroke returned from exile to reclaim his inheritance and deposed Richard. Bolingbroke then reigned as King Henry IV of England (1399-1413), the first of the descendants of John of Gaunt to hold the throne of England.

John of Gaunt was buried beside his first wife in the nave of Old St. Paul's Cathedral.

L

Labrador – is a distinct, northerly region within the Canadian province of Newfoundland and Labrador. It comprises the mainland portion of the province, separated from the island of Newfoundland by the Strait of Belle Isle. It is the largest and northernmost geographical region in Atlantic Canada.

Labrador occupies the eastern section of the Labrador Peninsula, in an area roughly the same size as the US state of Colorado. It is bordered to the west and the south by the Canadian province of Quebec. Labrador also shares a small land border with the Canadian territory of Nunavut on Killiniq Island.

Though Labrador is over twice as large in area as the island of Newfoundland, it is home to approximately 6% of the province's population. These people include the Inuit, Innu and Métis Aboriginal groups, as well as generations of European immigrants known as *Settlers*.

Laud, William – (1573-1645) was Archbishop of Canterbury from 1633 to 1645. One of the High Church Caroline divines, he opposed radical forms of Puritanism. This and his support for King Charles I resulted in his beheading in the midst of the English Civil War.

Levellers – a radical faction of parliamentarians, active between 1645 and 1649, originating among MPs and strongly supported in the lower ranks of the New Model Army*. Levellers campaigned against social distinctions (hence their name). They wanted to replace the monarchy and the nobility with a sovereign parliament elected by manhood suffrage. They also pressed for religious toleration and the dismantling of church establishments. Their program was embodied in the "Agreement of the People"* (1647). Even after its final suppression by Cromwell in 1649 the movement continued to influence radical thought.

London – is the capital of both England and the United Kingdom, and the largest metropolitan area in the European Union. An important settlement for two millennia, London's history goes back to its founding by the Romans. Since its foundation, London has been part of many movements and phenomena throughout history, including the English Renaissance, the Industrial Revolution, and the Gothic Revival. The city's core, the ancient City of London, still retains its limited medieval boundaries; but since at least the 19th century, the name "London" has also referred to the whole metropolis that has developed around it. Today the bulk of this conurbation forms the London region of England and the Greater London administrative area, with its own elected mayor and assembly.

London is one of the world's most important business, financial and cultural centres and its influence in politics, education, entertainment, media, fashion and the arts contributes to its status as a major global city.

Central London is the headquarters of more than half of the UK's top 100 listed companies and over 100 of Europe's 500 largest companies. The city is a major tourist destination for both domestic and overseas visitors, with annual expenditure by tourists of around £15 billion. London hosted the 1908 and 1948 Summer Olympic Games and will host the 2012 Summer Olympic Games. Samuel Johnson, the author of the first complete

dictionary, famously wrote about the city, citing "You find no man, at all intellectual, who is willing to leave London. No, Sir, when a man is tired of London, he is tired of life; for there is in London all that life can afford."

Greater London contains four World Heritage Sites: the Tower of London; the historic settlement of Greenwich; the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew*; and the site comprising the Palace of Westminster, Westminster Abbey and St. Margaret's Church.

London's population draws from a wide range of peoples, cultures, and religions, and over 300 languages are spoken within the city. As of July 2007, it had an official population of 7,556,900 within the boundaries of Greater London making it the most populous municipality in the European Union, and the metropolitan area is estimated to have a total population of just under 14 million. The public transport network, administered by Transport for London, is one of the most extensive in the world.

Long Parliament, the – is the name of the English Parliament called by Charles I, on 3 November 1640, following the Bishops' Wars. It received its name from the fact that through an Act of Parliament, it could only be dissolved with the agreement of the members, and those members did not agree to its dissolution until after the English Civil War and at the end of Interregnum* in 1660. It sat from 1640 until 1648, when it was purged, by the New Model Army, of those who were not sympathetic to the Army's concerns. Those members who remained after the Army's purge became known as the Rump Parliament*. During the Protectorate, the Rump was replaced by other Parliamentary assemblies, only to be recalled by the Army in 1659 after Oliver Cromwell's death in the hope of restoring credibility to the Army's rule. When this failed, General George Monck allowed the members barred in 1648 to retake their seats so that they could pass the necessary legislation to allow the Restoration and dissolve the Long Parliament. This cleared the way for a new Parliament, known as the Convention Parliament*, to be elected.

Lord Palmerston (1784-1865) – Except for a few months in 1835, Lord Palmerston was a member of Great Britain's House of Commons from 1807 until his death on Oct. 18, 1865. He served as foreign secretary three times (1830-34. 1835-41, and 1846-51), and he was prime minister for nearly the whole decade of 1855 to 1865. In his lifetime he was regarded as

the embodiment of British nationalism, "the most English minister who ever governed England". Although a liberal member of the Whig party, he would today be regarded as a staunch conservative. He was a defender of the propertied classes, an opponent of voting rights for working people, and a strong advocate of British activism in foreign policy.

M

Mall, t**he (**in central London) – is the road running from Buckingham Palace at its western end to Admiralty Arch and on to Trafalgar Square at its eastern end. It is closed to traffic on Sundays and public holidays, and on ceremonial occasions. The surface of The Mall is coloured red which gives the effect of a giant red carpet leading up to Buckingham Palace.

The Mall was created as a ceremonial route in the early 20th century.

During state visits to the United Kingdom, the monarch and the visiting head of state are escorted in a state carriage up the Mall and the street is decorated with Union Flags and the flags of the visiting head of state's country. During the Golden Jubilee ceremonies of Queen Elizabeth II in 2002, over one million people packed the Mall to watch the public displays and the appearance of the British Royal Family on the palace balcony.

Margaret Rose/Princess Margaret, Countess of Snowdon – (1930-2002) was the younger sister of Queen Elizabeth II and the younger daughter of King George VI and his wife Queen Elizabeth.

Margaret spent much of her childhood years in the company of her older sister and parents. Her life changed dramatically in 1936, when her paternal uncle, King Edward VIII, abdicated to marry the divorced American Wallis Simpson. Margaret's father became King in Edward's place, and her older sister became heiress presumptive with Margaret second in line to the throne. During World War II, the two sisters stayed at Windsor Castle, despite government pressure to evacuate to Canada. During the war years, Margaret was not expected to perform any public or official duties, and instead continued her education. After the war, she fell in love with a divorced older man, Group Captain Peter Townsend, her father's equerry. Her father died at around the same time, and her sister

became Queen. Many in the government felt that Townsend was an unsuitable husband for the Queen's sister, and the Church of England refused to countenance the marriage. Under pressure, Margaret chose to abandon her plans, and instead accepted the proposal of the photographer Antony Armstrong-Jones, who was created Earl of Snowdon by Elizabeth II. The marriage, despite an auspicious start, soon became unhappy; the couple divorced in 1978.

Margaret was often viewed as a controversial member of the royal family. Her divorce earned her negative publicity, and she was romantically linked with several men. Her health gradually deteriorated for the final two decades of her life; a heavy smoker all her adult life, she had a lung operation in 1985, a bout of pneumonia in 1993, and at least three strokes between 1998 and 2001. Margaret died at King Edward VII Hospital, London, on 9 February 2002. After a private funeral, her body was cremated. Two months later, after the death of her mother, Margaret's ashes were interred beside the bodies of her parents in the George VI Memorial Chapel at St. George's Chapel, Windsor Castle.

Mary of Guise (1515-1560) – was the queen consort of Scotland as the second spouse of King James V of Scotland. She was the mother of Mary, Queen of Scots, and served as regent of Scotland in her daughter's name from 1554 to 1560.

Mary of Guise was married in 1534 to Louis d'Orleans. After he died in 1537, Mary of Guise rejected a possible marriage with Henry VIII of England and instead married James V of Scotland, in June 1538.

The two sons of James V and Mary of Guise, James and Arthur, died in 1541, and their daughter Mary was born the next year. On December 14, James V died, leaving Mary of Guise in a position of influence during her daughter's minority. The pro-English James Hamilton, second earl of Arran, was made regent, and Mary of Guise maneuvered for years to replace him, succeeding in 1554.

Mary of Guise overturned Arran's betrothal of the infant Mary to England's Prince Edward, and was able to marry her instead to the dauphin of France, part of her campaign to bring Scotland and France into a close alliance. The young Mary, Queen of Scots, was sent to France to be raised in the court there.

After sending her daughter into Catholic France, Mary of Guise resumed suppression of Protestantism in Scotland. But the Protestants, already strong and led spiritually by John Knox, rebelled. Drawing armies of both France and England into the conflict, the civil war resulted in Mary of Guise being deposed in 1559. On her deathbed the next year, she urged the parties to make peace and declare allegiance to Mary, Queen of Scots.

Mary of Modena, Maria Beatrice Anna Margherita Isabella d'Este – (1658-1718) was Queen consort of England, Scotland and

Ireland as the second wife of King James II and VII. A devout Catholic, Mary became, in 1671, the second wife of James, Duke of York, who later succeeded his older brother Charles II as King James II. Mary was uninterested in politics and devoted to James and her children, two of whom survived to adulthood: the Jacobite claimant to the English, Scottish and Irish thrones, James Francis Edward Stuart, known as "The Old Pretender", and Princess Louise Mary.

Mary is primarily remembered for the controversial birth of James Francis Edward, her only surviving son. The majority of the English public believed he was a changeling, brought into the birth-chamber in a warming-pan, in order to perpetuate King James II's Catholic dynasty. Although the accusation was entirely false, and the subsequent privy council investigation only reaffirmed this, James Francis Edward's birth was a contributing factor to the Glorious Revolution. The revolution deposed James II and replaced him with his daughter from his first marriage Mary and her husband, William III of Orange.

Exiled to France, the "Queen over the water" – as Jacobites called Mary – lived with her husband and children in the Château de Saint-Germain-en-Laye. Mary was popular among Louis XIV's courtiers; however, James was considered a bore. In 1701, when James II died, James Francis Edward became king in the eyes of Jacobites, as "James III". As he was too young to assume the nominal reins of government, Mary acted as regent until he reached the age of 16. When "James III" was asked to leave France as part of the Treaty of Utrecht, Mary stayed, despite having no family there, Princess Louise Mary having died of smallpox. Fondly remembered by her French contemporaries, Mary died of breast cancer in 1718.

Massachusetts Bay Colony – was an English settlement on the east coast of North America in the 17th century, in New England, centered around the present-day cities of Salem and Boston. The area is now in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, one of the 50 United States of America.
The early colony was made up of Puritans from England. Political and religious events in England were driving many Puritans to flee England. They were angry because King Charles promised his wife, Maria that she could practice the Roman Catholic religion, and raise their children practicing Catholicism. The Puritans hated this, because they had tried to purify the Church of England of all its Catholic remnants. Both King James I and his son Charles I attempted to suppress the Puritan movement.

The imprisonment of many Puritans led them to believe religious reform would not be possible while Charles was King, and to seek a new life in the American colonies. The Reverend John White of Dorchester, England had worked hard to obtain a patent in 1628 for lands between the

parallel that ran three miles south of the Charles River to three miles north of the Merrimack River, and all the way from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

Concerned about the legality of conflicting land claims given to several companies including the New England Company to the still little-known territories of the New World, and because of the increasing number of Puritans that wanted to join the company, White sought a Royal Charter for the colony. Charles granted the new charter in March 1629, superseding the land grant and establishing a legal basis for the new English Colony at Massachusetts. It was not apparent that Charles knew the Company was meant to support the Puritan emigration. The charter omitted a significant clause – the location for the annual stockholders' meeting and election of their leaders. This allowed formation of the Cambridge Agreement later that year, which set the locus of government in New England. The Massachusetts Bay Colony became the only English chartered colony whose board of governors did not reside in England. This independence helped the settlers to maintain their Puritan religious practices with very little oversight by the King, Archbishop Laud, and the Anglican Church. The charter remained in force for 55 years, when, as a result of colonial insubordination with trade, tariff and navigation laws, Charles II revoked it in 1684

After this the colony continued to grow, aided by the Great Migration. Many ministers reacting to the newly repressive religious policies of England made the trip with their flocks. John Cotton, Roger Williams, Thomas Hooker, and others became leaders of Puritan congregations in Massachusetts.

Mayflower, the – was the ship that transported the English Separatists, better known as the Pilgrims, from a site near the Mayflower Steps in Plymouth, England, to Plymouth, Massachusetts, United States (which would become the capital of Plymouth Colony), in 1620. There were 102 passengers and a crew of 25-30.

The vessel left England on September 6, 1620 (Old Style)/September 16 (New Style), and after a grueling 66-day journey marked by disease, which claimed two lives, the ship dropped anchor inside the hook tip of Cape Cod (Provincetown Harbor) on November 11/November 21. The *Mayflower* was originally destined for the mouth of the Hudson River, near present-day New York City, at the northern edge of England's Virginia colony, which itself was established with the 1607 Jamestown Settlement. However, the *Mayflower* went off course as the winter approached, and remained in Cape Cod Bay. On March 21/31, 1621,

all surviving passengers, who had inhabited the ship during the winter, moved ashore at Plymouth, and on April 5/15, the *Mayflower*, a privately commissioned vessel, returned to England. In 1623, a year after the death of Captain Christopher Jones, the *Mayflower* was most likely dismantled for scrap lumber in Rotherhithe, London.

The *Mayflower* has a famous place in American history as a symbol of early European colonization of the future US. With their religion oppressed by the English Church and government, the small party of religious Puritan separatists who comprised about half of the passengers on the ship desired a life where they could practice their religion freely. This symbol of religious freedom resonates in US society and the story of the *Mayflower* is a staple of any American history textbook. Americans whose roots are traceable back to New England often believe themselves to be descended from *Mayflower* passengers.

The main record for the voyage of the *Mayflower* and the disposition of the Plymouth Colony comes from William Bradford who was a guiding force and later the governor of the colony.

Menai Strait, the – is a narrow stretch of shallow tidal water about 23 km long, which separates the island of Anglesey from the mainland of Wales. The strait is bridged in two places – the main A5 road is carried over the strait by Thomas Telford's elegant iron suspension bridge, the first of its kind, opened in January 1826, and adjacent to this is Robert Stephenson's 1850 Britannia Tubular Bridge. Originally this carried rail traffic in two wrought-iron rectangular box spans, but after a disastrous fire in 1970, which left only the limestone pillars remaining, it was rebuilt as a steel box girder** bridge.

In places the strait is nearly two miles across but it narrows to little more than 200 metres where it passes underneath the two bridges. The differential tides at the two ends of the strait cause very strong currents to flow in both directions through the strait at different times, creating dangerous conditions. One of the most dangerous areas of the strait is known as the Swellies** between the two bridges.

Mines Act (1842), the – was an Act of Parliament passed in Great Britain in 1842 which was a response to the working conditions of children revealed in the Children's Employment Commission (Mines) 1842 report. The act prevented women and girls and boys under the age of 10 from working underground. The Commission was headed by Lord Anthony Ashley-Cooper, 7th Earl of Shaftesbury.

Monck, George, 1st duke of Albemarle – (1608-1670) general and statesman. After helping suppress the Irish rebellion in Ulster (1642-1643), he returned to fight for Charles I in the Civil War and was captured at Nantwich (1644). After the king's defeat in 1646 the parliamentarians, recognizing Monck's abilities, gave him command in Ireland. He

subsequently assisted Cromwell's campaign in Scotland (1650-1651), of which he was then appointed commander in chief. In the politically uncertain times following Cromwell's death Monck sided with the *Rump of the Long Parliament against the army and in 1659 began to march south. Entering London in Feb 1660, he brought about the recall of those MPs excluded from the Long Parliament in 1648 by Pride's purge*.

N

New Model Army – the English Roundhead force established by Parliamentary ordinance on 15 February 1645. A single army of 22,000 men, it was formed largely from the uncoordinated Roundhead forces of the first phase of the English Civil War. Its first commander-in-chief was the Puritan Baron Thomas Fairfax, with Philip Skippon commanding the infantry and, after the Self-Denying Ordinance*, Oliver Cromwell* in charge of the cavalry. Derided at first by the Cavaliers as the 'New Noddle Army', it consisted of regularly paid, well disciplined, and properly trained men, who became known as the Ironsides. Promotion was by merit. Resounding victories, such as Naseby and Preston won the war for the Roundheads. The army was inextricably involved in national developments until the Restoration. Religious and political radicalism quickly permeated its ranks, with Leveller* influence particularly strong between 1647 and 1649. The army was responsible for Pride's purge* (1648), and formed the basis of government in the following years.

New Hampshire – is a state in the New England region of the northeastern United States of America. The state was named after the southern English county of Hampshire. It borders Massachusetts to the south, Vermont to the west, Maine and the Atlantic Ocean to the east, and the Canadian province of Quebec to the north. New Hampshire ranks 44th in land area, 46th in total area of the 50 states, and 41st in population.

It became the first post-colonial sovereign nation in the Americas when it broke off from Great Britain in January 1776, and was one of the original thirteen states that founded the United States of America six months later. In June 1788, it became the ninth state to ratify the United States Constitution, bringing that document into effect. New Hampshire was the first U.S. state to have its own state constitution.

Concord is the state capital, while Manchester is the largest city in the state. It has no general sales tax, nor is personal income taxed at either the state or local level.

Its license plates carry the state motto: "Live Free or Die". The state nickname is "The Granite State", in reference to its geology and its tradition of self-sufficiency. Many state agencies and New Hampshire

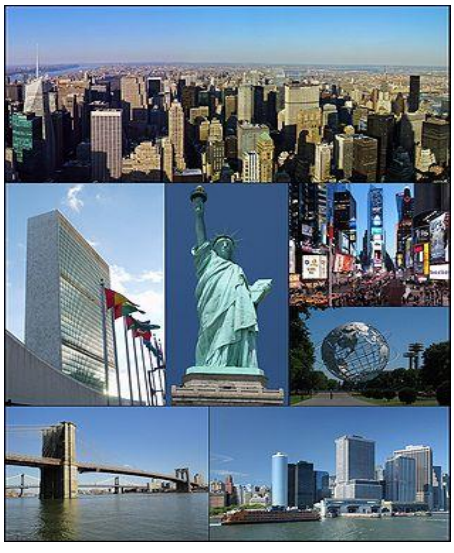
license plates carry the image of the Old Man of the Mountain, a former granite stone face in the White Mountains. Several other official nicknames exist but are rarely used.

New Hampshire has produced one president: Franklin Pierce.

New Hampshire's major recreational attractions include skiing, snowmobiling and other winter sports, hiking and mountaineering. The White Mountain National Forest links the Vermont and Maine portions of the Appalachian Trail, and boasts the Mount Washington Auto Road, where visitors may drive to the top of 6,288-foot (1,917 m) Mount Washington.

Newton Isaac – (1642-1727) demonstrated his themes on the laws of gravity at the Royal Society in 1683-4, and in 1687 he published his masterwork: Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy.

New York is the most populous city in the United States, and the center of the New York metropolitan area, which is one of the most populous metropolitan areas in the world. A leading global city, New York exerts a powerful influence over global commerce, finance, media, culture, art, fashion, research, education, and entertainment. As host of the United Nations Headquarters, it is also an important center for international affairs.



Located on a large natural harbor on the Atlantic coast of the Northeastern United States, the city consists of five boroughs: The Bronx, Brooklyn, Manhattan, Queens, and Staten Island. The city's 2009 estimated population approached 8.4 million, and with a land area of 305 square miles, New York City is the most densely populated major city in the United States. The New York metropolitan area's population is also the

nation’s largest, estimated at 19.1 million people over 6,720 square miles.

New York served as the capital of the United States from 1785 until 1790. It has been the country’s largest city since 1790. As many as 800 languages are spoken in New York City, making it the most linguistically diverse city in the world.

Many districts and landmarks in the city have become well known to outsiders. The Statue of Liberty greeted millions of immigrants as they came to America in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Times Square, iconified as “The Crossroads of the World”, is the brightly illuminated hub of the Broadway theater district, one of the world’s busiest pedestrian intersections, and a major center of the world’s entertainment industry. Anchored by Wall Street, in Lower Manhattan, New York vies with London as the financial capital of the world and is home to the New York Stock Exchange, the world’s largest stock exchange by market capitalization of its listed companies. The original Manhattan Chinatown attracts throngs of tourists to its bustling sidewalks and retail establishments. World-class schools and universities such as Columbia University and New York University also reside in New York City.

Norfolk – is a low-lying county in the East of England. It has borders with Lincolnshire to the west, Cambridgeshire to the west and southwest and Suffolk to the south. Its northern and eastern boundaries are the North Sea coast, including The Wash. The county town is Norwich. Norfolk is the fifth largest ceremonial county in England, with an area of 5,371 km².

Of the 34 non-metropolitan English counties, Norfolk is the seventh most populous, with a population of 850,800 (mid 2008). However, as a largely rural county it has a low population density, 155 people per square kilometre. Norfolk has about one-thirtieth the population density of Central London, the tenth lowest density county in the country, with 38% of the county's population living in the three major built up areas of Norwich (259,100), Great Yarmouth (71,700) and King's Lynn (43,100). The Broads, a well known network of rivers and lakes, is located on the county's east coast, bordering Suffolk. The area has the status of a National Park and is protected by the Broads Authority. Historical sites, such as those in the centre of Norwich, also contribute to tourism.

Northern Ireland – is a country within the United Kingdom, lying in the northeast of Ireland, covering 14,139 km², about a sixth of the island's total area. It shares a border with the Republic of Ireland to the south and west. Northern Ireland consists of six of the nine counties of the historic Irish province of Ulster. In the UK, it is generally known as one of the four Home Nations and is the only one that is not located on the island of Great Britain.

Northern Ireland was established as a distinct administrative region of the United Kingdom on 3 May 1921 under the Government of Ireland Act 1920. For over 50 years it was the only part of the UK to have its own form of devolved government until it was suspended in 1972. Northern Ireland's current devolved government bodies, the Northern Ireland Assembly and Executive were established by the Northern Ireland Act 1998 but were suspended several times. They were restored on 8 May 2007. Northern Ireland's legal system descends from the pre-1921 Irish legal system. It is based on common law. Northern Ireland is a distinct jurisdiction, separate from England and Wales and Scotland.

Northern Ireland was for many years the site of a violent and bitter ethno-political conflict between those claiming to represent Nationalists, who are predominantly Roman Catholic, and those claiming to represent Unionists, who are predominantly Protestants.

In general, Nationalists want the unification of Ireland, with Northern Ireland joining the rest of Ireland and Unionists want Northern Ireland to remain part of the United Kingdom. Protestants are in the majority in Northern Ireland, though Roman Catholics represent a significant minority. In general, Protestants consider themselves British and Catholics see themselves as Irish but there are some who see themselves as both British and Irish. In addition to UK citizenship, people from Northern Ireland are also entitled to Irish citizenship.

O

Old Pretender, the – James Francis Edward, Prince of Wales (James Francis Edward Stuart; "The Old Chevalier"; 10 June 1688 – 1 January 1766) was the son of the deposed James II of England (James VII of Scotland). As such, he claimed the English, Scottish and Irish thrones (as James III of England and Ireland and James VIII of Scotland) from the death of his father in 1701, when he was recognized as king of England, Scotland and Ireland by his cousin Louis XIV of France. Following his death in 1766 he was succeeded by his son Charles Edward Stuart in the Jacobite Succession.

Order of the Garter – is an order of chivalry*, or knighthood, originating in medieval England.

Origins. The Order of the Garter was the first, and remains the most prestigious, British order of chivalry. It was begun in or around 1348 by Edward III, and initially included the monarch and 25 knights. Membership in the order was intended as a mark of royal favour and a reward for loyalty to the sovereign and for outstanding military service.

The legendary beginnings of the Order centre around the figure of Joan, Countess of Salisbury. The story goes that while the Countess, a notable beauty who was rumored to be the king's mistress, danced at a court function, she chanced to loose a garter. King Edward gallantly picked it up and tied it to his own leg. When he observed the snickers of those around him, Edward remarked "Honi soit qui mal y pense" (Shame on he who thinks evil of this). This offhand remark became the motto of the order.

Some modern scholars have suggested that the garter may have originated with the leather straps used to fasten pieces of armour. Given the military focus of the Order that seems a likely, if less romantic, possibility.

Variations on this story have the woman in question being Queen Philippa or Joan, the "Fair Maid of Kent", later the wife of the king's eldest son, Edward the Black Prince.

There is nothing to specifically disprove the above story, but it seems equally likely that the Order was a considered attempt by Edward to provide a focus for loyalty towards the monarch among his leading nobles. Edward was well aware of the growing cult of St. Denis in France, and thought that providing his own realm with a national saint tied to the monarchy, would only benefit his own position and solidify the ever-precarious loyalty of his nobles.

Insignia of the Order. Thus, at roughly the same time that the Order of the Garter was founded, Edward proclaimed Saint George as the patron saint of England and the Order. Aside from a blue garter, worn below the left knee, the first insignia of the Order was "the George", a badge depicting St. George slaying a dragon. St. George's Chapel at Windsor Castle was named the spiritual home of the Order.

As the years went by further insignia were added to the official apparel of Order members. During the 16th century a collar was added to the garter and George badge. The collar could not feature precious stones, but could otherwise be freely adorned according to the tastes and budget of the owner.

In the 17th century a broad red ribband was added, and the familiar silver star badge with the red cross of St. George set within radiating beams of silver. Blue velvet robes complete the picture.

Membership in the Order. Members were appointed by the monarch alone until the 18th century. Then the government in Parliament "suggested" members to the monarch. In 1946 the power to name members was returned to the sovereign without government interference. The membership in the Order today thus fills its original role as a mark of royal favour.

English subjects can be named Knights of the Garter in exchange for meritorious public service, contributions to the nation, or simply as reward for personal service to the monarch.

Over the centuries a number of changes have been made in membership requirements; during the Middle Ages women were named to the order, though not as full members. From 1509-1901 the order was exclusively male, with the exception of reigning queens. After 1987 women were accorded full membership privileges.

Numerous foreign nobles have been named to the order over the years. The distinction of membership helped cement foreign treaties and alliances. Foreign monarchs are known as "Stranger Knights" and their numbers are in addition to the normal quota of 24 knights (plus royals) in the order.

Obligations. Though the Order today is purely ceremonial, members are obliged to display their "achievements" in St. George's Chapel, Windsor Castle. These "achievements" include a banner depicting their heraldic coat of arms, an enameled stallplate, sword, crest, and helmet. When a member dies the insignia are returned to the monarch, but the stallplates remain in place, providing a memorial and heraldic record.

Every June an official gathering of the Order is held at Windsor Castle, and at that time any vacancies are filled with new members. The monarch and royal members of the order attend an official luncheon at the Waterloo Chamber, after which they walk in procession to a service at the

Chapel. At this writing (March 2001), royal members of the Order include Queen Elizabeth, Prince Phillip, The Queen Mother, Prince Charles, and Princess Anne.

P

Peel Robert, 2nd Baronet (1788-1850) – was a British Conservative statesman who served as Prime Minister of the United Kingdom from 10 December 1834 to 8 April 1835, and again from 30 August 1841 to 29 June 1846. Peel, whilst Home Secretary, helped create the modern concept of the police force, leading to officers being known as "bobbies" (in England) and "Peelers" (in Ireland) to this day. The first police force was organized in London in 1829. Whilst Prime Minister, Peel repealed the Corn Laws and issued the Tamworth Manifesto, leading to the formation of the Conservative Party out of the shattered Tory Party.

Penn, William (1644-1718) – founded the Province of Pennsylvania, the British North American colony that became the U.S. state of Pennsylvania. The democratic principles that he set forth served as an inspiration for the United States Constitution. Ahead of his time, Penn also published a plan for a United States of Europe, "European Dyet, Parliament or Estates."

On November 28, 1984 Ronald Reagan, upon an Act of Congress by Presidential Proclamation 5284 declared William Penn and his second wife, Hannah Callowhill Penn, each to be an Honorary Citizen of the United States.

There is a statue of William Penn atop the City Hall building of Philadelphia, built by Alexander Milne Calder. At one time, there was a gentlemen's agreement that no building should be higher than Penn's statue. One Liberty Place was among the first of several buildings in the late 1980s to be built higher than Penn.

There is a common misconception that the smiling Quaker found on boxes of Quaker Oats is William Penn. The Quaker Oats Company has stated that this is not true.

Pepys Samuel – (1633-1703) was an English naval administrator and Member of Parliament, who is now most famous for the diary he kept for a decade while still a relatively young man. Although Pepys had no maritime experience, he rose by patronage, hard work and his talent for administration, to be the Chief Secretary to the Admiralty under both King Charles II and subsequently King James II.

His influence and reforms at the Admiralty were important in the early professionalisation of the Royal Navy.

The detailed private diary Pepys kept from 1660 until 1669 was first published in the nineteenth century, and is one of the most important primary sources for the English Restoration period. It provides a combination of personal revelation and eyewitness accounts of great events, such as the Great Plague of London, the Second Dutch War and the Great Fire of London.

Petition of Right, the – an important document setting out the rights and liberties of the subject as opposed to the prerogatives of the crown. This action favouring the common man was championed by Sir Edward Coke (1552-1634), a prominent parliamentary adversary of the crown. His sparkling resume included public service as Speaker of the House of Commons, Attorney General, Chief Justice of the Court of Common Pleas and Chief Justice of the King's Bench.

The Petition of Right was produced by the English Parliament in the run-up to the English Civil War. It was passed by Parliament in May 1628, and given the royal assent by Charles I in June of that year. The Petition is most notable for its confirmation of the principles that taxes can be levied only by Parliament, that martial law may not be imposed in time of peace, and that prisoners must be able to challenge the legitimacy of their detentions through the writ of *habeas corpus*.

Pitt William, 1st Earl of Chatham PC (1708-1778) – was a British Whig statesman who achieved his greatest fame leading Britain during the Seven Years' War (known as the French and Indian War in North America). He again led the country (holding the official title of Lord Privy Seal) between 1766-68. He is often known as *William Pitt, the Elder* to distinguish him from his son, William Pitt the Younger. He was also known as *The Great Commoner*, because of his long-standing refusal to accept a title until 1766. The major American city of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, is named after him, as are numerous other cities and towns in the United States, Canada, and Australia.

Pitt the Younger, William (1759-1806) – was a British politician of the late 18th and early 19th centuries. He became the youngest Prime Minister in 1783 at the age of 24 (although the term *Prime Minister* was not then used). He left office in 1801, but was Prime Minister again from 1804 until his death in 1806. He was also the Chancellor of the Exchequer throughout his premiership. He is known as "the Younger" to distinguish him from his father, William Pitt the Elder, who previously served as Prime Minister of Great Britain.

The younger Pitt's prime ministerial tenure, which came during the reign of George III, was dominated by major events in Europe, including the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars. Pitt, although often referred to as a Tory, or "new Tory", called himself an "independent Whig" and was generally opposed to the development of a strict partisan political system.

Presbyterianism refers to many different Christian churches adhering to the Calvinist theological tradition within Protestantism, and organized according to a characteristic Presbyterian polity. Presbyterian theology typically emphasizes the sovereignty of God, the authority of the Scriptures, and the necessity of grace through faith in Christ.

Presbyterianism originated primarily in Scotland and was confirmed as the means of Church Government in Scotland by the Act of Union in 1707. Most Presbyterians found in England can trace a Scottish connection. The Presbyterian denominations in Scotland hold to the theology of Calvin and his immediate successors, although there is a range of theological views within contemporary Presbyterianism.

Modern Presbyterianism traces its institutional roots back to the Scottish Reformation.

The roots of Presbyterianism lie in the European Reformation of the 16th century, with the example of John Calvin's Geneva being particularly influential. Most Reformed churches who trace their history back to Scotland are either Presbyterian or Congregationalist in government.

In the twentieth century, some Presbyterians played an important role in the Ecumenical Movement, including the World Council of Churches. Many Presbyterian denominations have found ways of working together with other Reformed denominations and Christians of other traditions, especially in the World Alliance of Reformed Churches. Some Presbyterian churches have entered into unions with other churches, such as Congregationalists, Lutherans, Anglicans, and Methodists.

Pride's Purge – is an event in December 1648, during the Second English Civil War, when troops under the command of Colonel Thomas Pride forcibly removed from the Long Parliament all those who were not supporters of the Grandees in the New Model Army and the Independents.

Pride's Purge has been called the only military coup in English history. There is a certain amount of truth in that claim. Certainly it was not usual for the army to interfere with the workings of Parliament, but that is what occurred on this occasion. Without Pride's Purge, it is possible that the execution of Charles I might never have occurred, and the monarchy might never have been abolished.

Though it is unclear whether army head Sir Thomas Fairfax actually ordered the purge, it seems probable that Fairfax's second, Oliver Cromwell, must have been aware of what was about to transpire. In light of

his subsequent rise to rule under the Commonwealth, we can safely say that if the Purge had never occurred, Cromwell would never have had the powerful role in English history that he eventually had.

Pride, Thomas – (d. 1658) Parliamentary colonel in the Civil War. On 6 December 1648, on the orders of the army council, he carried out "Pride's purge*", the arrest or exclusion of about 140 MPs. Those who remainded the "Rump**" – voted that Charles I be brought to trial. Pride was a judge at the trial and signed the King's death warrant.

Prince Albert (1819-1861) – prince of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, prince consort of Queen Victoria of England; fostered interest in the arts and sciences; died of typhoid fever.

They were married in 1840 after Victoria had decided that as queen it was her right to propose to Albert. It was a happy marriage. Albert loved art, music, and literature. He was devoted to his family.

His political life, however, was difficult. Albert's role as advisor to his wife came into full force after the death of Lord Melbourne, the prime minister, who had exerted a strong paternal influence over Victoria, and Albert began to act as the queen's private secretary. He encouraged in his wife a greater interest in social welfare and invited Lord Shaftesbury, the driving force behind successive factory acts, to Buckingham Palace to discuss the matter of child labour. His constitutional position was a difficult one, and although he exercised his influence with tact and intelligence, he never enjoyed great public popularity during Victoria's reign. It wasn't until 1857 that he was formally recognised by the nation and awarded the title 'prince consort'.

Victoria and Albert had nine children most of whom married into the other royal houses of Europe. She arranged their marriages: her eldest daughter became empress of Germany and mother of William II, and a granddaughter was the last empress of Russia. By the end of the 19th century, Victoria had so many royal relatives that she was called the"grandmother of Europe".

In the autumn of 1861, Albert intervened in a diplomatic row between Britain and the United States and his influence probably helped to avert war between the two countries.

After Albert's untimely death in 1861, Victoria went into seclusion. She avoided London and spent most of her time at Balmoral Castle in Scotland, at Osborne House on the Isle of Wight, and at Windsor.

Privy Council – is a body that advises the head of state of a nation concerning the exercise of executive authority, typically, but not always, in the context of a monarchic government. The word "privy" means "private" or "secret"; thus, a privy council was originally a committee of the monarch's closest advisors to give confidential advice on affairs of state.

Her Majesty's Most Honourable Privy Council is a body of advisors to the British Sovereign. Its members are largely senior politicians, who were or are members of either the House of Commons or House of Lords of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

The Privy Council, the successor of the *Privy Council of England*, was formerly a powerful institution, but its policy decisions are now controlled by one of its committees, the Cabinet of the United Kingdom. It advises the Sovereign on the exercise of the Royal Prerogative, and issues executive orders known as Orders-in-Council and Orders of Council. Orders-in-Council make government regulations and appointments. Orders of Council are issued under the specific authority of Acts of Parliament, which delegate such matters to the Council, and are normally used to regulate public institutions. The Council advises on the issuing of Royal Charters, which grant special status to incorporated bodies and city and borough status to towns.

The Council also performs judicial functions, which are for the most part delegated to the Judicial Committee. The Committee consists of senior judges appointed as Privy Counsellors: Justices of the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom, judges of the Court of Appeal of England and Wales, judges of the Court of Appeal in Northern Ireland and judges of the Inner House of the Court of Session (the supreme civil court of Scotland). It was formerly a supreme court of appeal for the entire British Empire, and continues to hear appeals from British Overseas Territories, Sovereign Base Areas, Crown Dependencies and some Commonwealth countries.

Public Health Act of 1875, **the** – was established in the United Kingdom to combat filthy urban living conditions, which caused various public health threats, the spreading of many diseases such as cholera and typhus. Reformers wanted to resolve sanitary problems, because sewage was flowing down the street daily, including the presence of sewage in living quarters. The act required all new residential construction to include running water and an internal drainage system. This act also led to the government prohibiting the construction of shoddy housing by building contractors.

Many factors delayed reform, however, such as the fact that to perform a clean up, the government would need money, and this would have to come from factory owners, who were not keen to pay, and this further delayed reform. But reformers eventually helped to counteract the government's laissez-faire attitude, and a public health act was introduced in 1875.

The act also meant that towns had to have pavements and street lighting.

In 1875 a comprehensive public health act was bought into power. It covered: housing, sewage and drainage, water supplies and contagious diseases. It was to combat all of the cholera epidemics and filthy living conditions.

Purcell Henry – (1659-1695) was born into a family of musicians, and he has a musical upbringing as a boy chorister (as have many other British composers). It was very fortunate for young Henry that he was born at the time he was, and not earlier. Cromwell's regime ended in 1660, and it was a good thing for the musical establishment. Cornwall destroyed the musical establishment in Britain, and they had to begin all over again when Charles II entered the throne. So, there were few musicians around when Purcell was born.

Purcell worked with the British Court until the 1680's, where he began composing more for the theatre. Purcell made some of his greatest music for the royals. He also made instrumental music. During the 1690's Purcell wrote mostly for the theatre, but he did also write a beautiful and move ode on the death of Queen Mary in 1695.

Puritans – were a significant grouping of English-speaking Protestants in the 16th and 17th centuries.

They were blocked from changing the system from within, but their views were taken by the emigration of congregations to the Netherlands and later New England, and by evangelical clergy to Ireland and later into Wales, and were spread into lay society by preaching and parts of the educational system, particularly certain colleges of the University of Cambridge. Initially, Puritans were mainly concerned with religious matters, rather than politics or social matters. They took on distinctive views on clerical dress and in opposition to the episcopal system, particularly after the 1619 conclusions of the Synod of Dort were resisted by the English bishops. They largely adopted Sabbatarian views in the 17th century, and were influenced by millennialism. In alliance with the growing commercial world, the parliamentary opposition to the royal prerogative, and in the late 1630s with the Scottish Presbyterians with whom they had much in common, the Puritans became a major political force in England and came to power as a result of the First English Civil War. After the English Restoration of 1660 and the 1662 Uniformity Act, almost all Puritan clergy left the Church of England, some becoming nonconformist ministers, and the nature of the movement in England changed radically, though it retained its character for much longer in New England.

Puritans by definition felt that the English Reformation had not gone far enough, and that the Church of England was tolerant of practices which they associated with the Catholic Church. They formed into and identified with various religious groups advocating greater "purity" of

worship and doctrine, as well as personal and group piety. Puritans adopted a Reformed theology. In church polity, some advocated for separation from all other Christians, in favor of autonomous gathered churches. These separatist and independent strands of Puritanism became prominent in the 1640s, when the supporters of a Presbyterian polity in the Westminster Assembly were unable to forge a new English national church.

Pym, John – (1584-1643) parliamentary statesman. He first entered Parliament in 1614, and became prominent in the 1620s, taking part in the impeachment of Buckingham (1626). He participated in the impeachment of Strafford* (a former friend) and Laud*. A leading member of the Long Parliament, he was one of the five members whom Charles attempted to arrest in 1642.

Q

Quaker – is the Religious Society of Friends, a religious community. The Religious Society of Friends is a name used by a range of independent religious organizations which all trace their origins to a Christian movement in mid-17th century England and Wales. A central belief was that ordinary people could have a direct experience of the eternal Christ. Today different groups of Friends meet for worship in a variety of forms. Some meet for silent worship with no human leader and no fixed programme. Some meet for services led by a pastor with readings and hymns. Some have a form of worship which incorporates elements of both styles.

Some branches of the Religious Society of Friends are known to the public by testifying to their religious beliefs in their actions and the way they live their lives. Such testimony varies according to how different individuals are led and events in the wider world at the time, however well-known examples at different points in history include refusing to participate in war; social action aimed at promoting social justice and equality including participating in the anti-slavery movement in North America during the mid-18th Century and the women's rights movement; wearing particular, simple, clothing; using the same form of address to refer to everyone (e.g. using *thee* and *thou* to talk to anyone and not using titles such as Mr, Mrs, etc.); and refusing to swear oaths.

R

Raleigh International – is a UK-based educational development charity that aims to help people of all backgrounds and nationalities to discover their full potential.

Red hand – the symbol of Northern Ireland, shown as a red upright hand cut off at the wrist. It was originally the symbol of one of the ruling families.

The *Red Hand of Ulster* is a symbol used in heraldry to denote the Irish province of Ulster. It is also to a lesser extent known as the *Red Hand of O'Neill* and the *Red Hand of Ireland*. Its origins are said to be attributed to the son of the Celtic sun god and appear in other mythical tales passed down from generation to generation in the oral tradition. According to the myth, Ulster had at one time no rightful heir. Because of this it was agreed that a boat race should take place and that "whosoever's hand is the first to touch the shore of Ulster, so shall he be made the king'. One potential king so loved and desired Ulster that, upon seeing that he was losing the race, he cut off his hand and threw it to the shore – thus winning the kingship. The hand is most likely red to represent the fact that it would have been covered in blood. Another story concerns two giants engaged in battle, one of whom had his hand cut off by the other, and a red imprint of the hand was left on the rocks.

The flag of the province of Ulster

Reform Act 1867, the – was a piece of British legislation that enfranchised the urban male working class in England and Wales. Before the bill, only one million of the five million adult males in England and Wales could vote; the act doubled that number. In its final form, the Reform Act of 1867 enfranchised all male householders and abolished compounding (the practice of paying rates to a landlord as part of rent). However, there was little redistribution of seats; and what there was had been intended to help the Conservative Party.

Reform Act 1884, the – was the third reform to Britain's system of voting in the Nineteenth Century. The 1867 Reform Act had been so extensive that there seemed to be little to change. However, while the 1867 Reform Act had concentrated on urban areas, the 1884 Reform Act was to target rural areas that had been bypassed by the 1867 act.

The act extended the 1867 concessions from the boroughs to the countryside. All men paying an annual rental of £10 or all those holding land valued at £10 now had the vote. The British electorate now totalled over 5,500,000. An Act a year later redistributed constituencies, giving more representation to urban areas (especially London).

The 1884 Reform Act did not establish universal suffrage: although the size of the electorate was widened considerably, all women (regardless of their wealth) and 40% adult males were still without the vote at the time.

Regency Act, the (February 5, 1811) – In late 1810, King George III was once again overcome by mental illness, following the death of his youngest daughter, Princess Amelia. Parliament agreed to follow the precedent of 1788; without the King's consent, the Lord Chancellor affixed the Great Seal of the Realm to letters patent naming Lords Commissioners. Such letters patent were irregular, because they did not bear the Royal Sign Manual, and only Letters Patent signed by the Sovereign himself can provide for the appointment of Lords Commissioners or for the granting of Royal Assent. However, because the King was already incapacitated de facto, resolutions by both Houses of Parliament approved the action, directing the Lord Chancellor to prepare the Letters Patent and to affix the Great Seal to them even without the signature of the monarch. The Lords Commissioners thus appointed, in the name of the King, signified the granting of the Royal Assent to a bill, which became the Care of King during his illness. Parliament restricted some of the powers of the Prince Regent.

By February 5, 1811, both houses of Parliament had passed the Regency Act, making George, Prince of Wales, the Regent for his incapacitated father, George III, who was under doctors' care at Windsor Castle. The Prince took the royal oath on February 6, 1811.

The importance of this Regency Act was that it did not require a Council of Regency, as required by previous legislation. One reason for this was that the Prince Regent was heir to the throne in any case, and would assume full powers upon his father's death.

Reform Act of 1832, the – Between 1770 and 1830, the Tories were the dominant force in the House of Commons. The Tories were strongly opposed to increasing the number of people who could vote. However, in November, 1830, Earl Grey, a Whig, became Prime Minister. Grey explained to William IV that he wanted to introduce proposals that would get rid of some of the rotten boroughs. Grey also planned to give Britain's fast growing industrial towns such as Manchester, Birmingham, Bradford and Leeds, representation in the House of Commons.

In April 1831 Grey asked William IV to dissolve Parliament so that the Whigs could secure a larger majority in the House of Commons. Grey explained this would help his government to carry their proposals for parliamentary reform. William agreed to Grey's request and after making his speech in the House of Lords, walked back through cheering crowds to Buckingham Palace.

After Lord Grey's election victory, he tried again to introduce parliamentary reform. On 22nd September 1831, the House of Commons

passed the Reform Bill. However, the Tories still dominated the House of Lords, and after a long debate the bill was defeated. When people heard the news, Reform Riots took place in several British towns; the most serious of these being in Bristol in October 1831.

On 7th May 1832, Grey and Henry Brougham met the king and asked him to create a large number of Wig peers in order to get the Reform Bill passed in the House of Lords. William was now having doubts about the wisdom of parliamentary reform and refused.

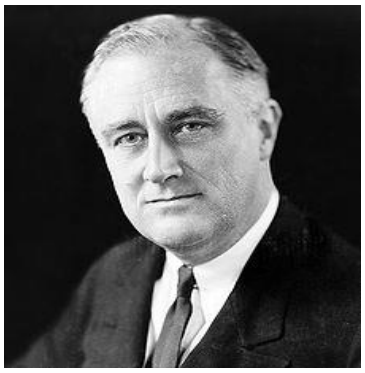
Lord Grey's government resigned and William IV now asked the leader of the Tories, the Duke of Wellington, to form a new government. Wellington tried to do this but some Tories, including Sir Robert Peel, were unwilling to join a cabinet that was in opposition to the views of the vast majority of the people in Britain. Peel argued that if the king and Wellington went ahead with their plan there was a strong danger of a civil war in Britain.

When the Duke of Wellington failed to recruit other significant figures into his cabinet, William was forced to ask Grey to return to office. In his attempts to frustrate the will of the electorate, William IV lost the popularity he had enjoyed during the first part of his reign. Once again Lord Grey asked the king to create a large number of new Whig peers. William agreed that he would do this and when the Lords heard the news, they agreed to pass the Reform Act.

Many people were disappointed with the 1832 Reform Bill. Voting in the boroughs was restricted to men who occupied homes with an annual value of £10. There were also property qualifications for people living in rural areas. As a result, only one in seven adult males had the vote. Nor were the constituencies of equal size. Whereas 35 constituencies had less than 300 electors, Liverpool had a constituency of over 11,000.

Restoration of Monarchy (1660-1688 (1689)) – Charles II (1660-1685) and James II (1685-1688). The reinstatement of the English monarchy under Charles II after the collapse of the Protectorate. In art and literature "Restoration" often refers to the period 1660-1700, during which a new cosmopolitanism, sensuality and gaiety epitomized in Lely's portraits and Wycherley's comedies, were characteristic.

Robert the Bruce (Robert I) – (1274-1329) was King of Scots from March 25, 1306, until his death in 1329. He became one of Scotland's greatest kings, as well as one of the most famous warriors of his generation, eventually leading Scotland during the Wars of Scottish Independence against the Kingdom of England. He claimed the Scottish throne as a fourth great-grandson of David I of Scotland, and saw the recognition of Scotland as an independent nation during his reign. Today in Scotland, Bruce is remembered as a national hero.



Roosevelt Franklin Delano (1882-1945) – the only U.S. President elected to more than two terms, was a central figure in world events during the mid-20th century, leading the United States during a time of worldwide economic crisis and world war. Often referred to by his initials, **FDR** won his first of four presidential elections in 1932, while the United States was in the depths of the Great Depression. His combination of optimism and economic activism is often credited with keeping the country's economic crisis from devolving into a political crisis. He led the United States through most of World War II, and died in office of a stroke, shortly before the war ended.

Roosevelt dominated the American political scene, not only during the twelve years of his presidency, but for decades afterwards. His presidency created a realignment in American politics that dominated American politics until the election of Ronald Reagan in 1980.

Roosevelt has been consistently ranked by historians as one of the most successful of U.S. Presidents.

Roundhead – The term Roundheads was applied to soldiers who supported Parliament during the Civil War. It originated as a term of abuse and referred to those Puritans who had their hair cut very short.

Round Table, the – is King Arthur's famed table in the Arthurian legend, around which he and his Knights congregate. As its name suggests, it has no head, implying that everyone who sits there has equal status. The table was first described in 1155 by Wace, who relied on previous depictions of Arthur's fabulous retinue. The symbolism of the Round Table developed over time; by the close of the 12th century it had come to represent the chivalric order associated with Arthur's court.

King Arthur presides at the Round Table

Royal Greenwich Observatory, the (RGO) – in London, England played a major role in the history of astronomy and navigation, and is best known as the location of the prime meridian. It is situated on a hill in Greenwich Park, overlooking the River Thames.

The observatory was commissioned in 1675 by King Charles II, with the foundation stone being laid on 10 August. At this time the king also created the position of Astronomer Royal (initially filled by John Flamsteed),

to serve as the director of the observatory and to "apply himself with the most exact care and diligence to the rectifying of the tables of the motions of the heavens, and the places of the fixed stars, so as to find out the so much desired longitude of places for the perfecting of the art of navigation." The scientific work of the observatory was relocated elsewhere in stages in the first half of the 20th century, and the Greenwich site is now maintained as a tourist attraction.

Royal Society of London for the Improvement of Natural Knowledge, the / the Royal Society – is a learned society for science, and is possibly the oldest such society in existence. Founded in November 1660, it was granted a Royal Charter by King Charles II as the "Royal Society of London". The Society was initially an extension of the "Invisible College", with the founders intending it to be a place of research and discussion. The Society today acts as a scientific advisor to the British government, receiving a parliamentary grant-in-aid. The Society acts as the UK's Academy of Sciences, and funds research fellowships and scientific start-up companies.

The Society is governed by its Council, which is chaired by the Society's President, according to a set of Statutes and Standing Orders. The members of Council and the President are elected from and by its Fellows,

the basic members of the Society, who are themselves elected by existing Fellows. There are currently 1,314 Fellows, allowed to use the postnominal title FRS (Fellow of the Royal Society), with 44 new Fellows appointed each year. There are also Royal Fellows, Honorary Fellows and Foreign Fellows, the last of which are allowed to use their postnomial title ForMemRS (Foreign Member of the Royal Society). The current President is Lord Rees of Ludlow. Since 1967, the Society has been based at 6–9 Carlton House Terrace, a Grade I listed building in central London that underwent a substantial renovation between 1999 and November 2003.

Rump – those members of the Long Parliament* who retained their seats after *Pride's purge (6 December 1648) and declared the Commonwealth of England. Increasingly corrupt and ineffective, the Rump (or remnant of the Long Parliament) refused dissolution** until Cromwell's soldiers ejected** in (20 April 1653), replacing it with the Barebones* Parliament.

"Rump" normally means the hind end of an animal; its use meaning "remnant" was first recorded in the above context. Since 1649, the term "rump parliament" has been used to refer to any parliament left over from the actual legitimate parliament.

S

Salic law – was a body of traditional law codified for governing the Salian Franks in the early Middle Ages during the reign of King Clovis I in the 6th century. Although Salic Law reflects very ancient usage and practices, it likely was first compiled only sometime between 507 and 511.

The best-known tenet of Salic law is agnatic succession, the rule excluding females from the inheritance of a throne or fief. Indeed, "Salic law" has often been used simply as a synonym for agnatic succession. But the importance of Salic law extends beyond the rules of inheritance, as it is a direct ancestor of the systems of law in many parts of Europe today.

Sandringham – is the much-loved country retreat of Her Majesty The Queen, and has been the private home of four generations of British monarchs since 1862. The house is perhaps the most famous stately home in Norfolk and is at the heart of the Sandringham Estate. It's open to the public free of charge every day of the year.

"Dear old Sandringham, the place I love better than anywhere in the world" [King George V]

The Estate is a thriving mixed landscape, including the tidal mudflats of the Wash, woodland and wetland, arable, livestock and fruit farms, and commercial and residential properties; it is managed to a high standard and sustainably with the aims always of being financially self-sufficient and of providing a place of enjoyment not only for The Royal Family but also for the many thousands of visitors who come to see the House, Museum and Gardens or just to enjoy the Country Park.

Scone Abbey – was a house of Augustinian canons based at Scone, Perthshire (Gowrie), Scotland. Varying dates for the foundation have been given, but it was certainly founded between 1114 and 1122.

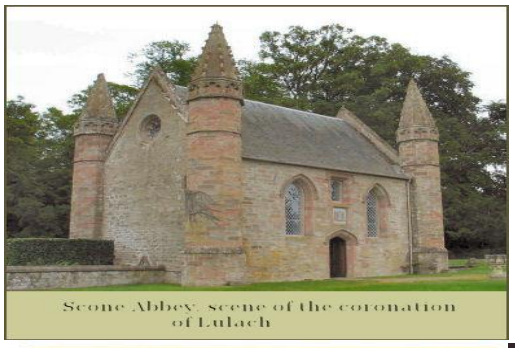
The priory was established by six canons from Nostell Priory in West Yorkshire, under the leadership of Prior Robert, who was the first prior of Scone (later bishop of St Andrews). The foundation charter, dated 1120, was once

thought to be spurious but is now regarded as being of late 12th century origin, perhaps the copying owing to the fire which occurred there sometime before 1163 (it would experience a similar destruction of records during the Wars of Scottish Independence).

In either 1163 or 1164, in the reign of King Máel Coluim IV, Scone Priory's status was increased and it became an abbey. The abbey had important royal functions, being next to the coronation site of Scottish kings and housing the coronation stone (until it was taken away by King Edward I of England). Scone Abbey was, in the words of King Máel Coluim IV, "in principali sede regni nostri" ("in the principal seat of our kingdom"), and as such was one of the chief residences of the Scottish kings. The abbey would play host to the king while he resided there, even if the abbey did not have a separate palace. It is probable that the abbey buildings (now gone) overlapped with the modern palace.

The abbey also had relics of the now obscure St Fergus, which made it a popular pilgrimage centre. Although the abbey would remain famous for its music, the abbey's status declined over time. After the reformation, Scottish abbeys disappeared as institutions.

In Scone's case, it became a secular lordship, first for the earl of Gowrie, and then to the man who became the first Viscount Stormont. Although the buildings are now gone, the property is now in the possession of the earls of Mansfield.



Scone Abbey flourished for over four hundred years. In 1559 it fell victim to a mob from Dundee during the early days of the Reformation and

was largely destroyed. In 1580 the abbey estates were granted to Lord Ruthven, later the Earl of Gowrie, who held estates around what is now called Huntingtower Castle. The Ruthvens rebuilt the Abbot's Palace of the old abbey as a grand residence. In 1600, James VI charged the family with treason and their estates at Scone were passed to Sir David Murray of Gospetrie, one of James' loyal followers.

The precise location of Scone Abbey had long remained a mystery, but in 2007 archaeologists pinpointed the location using magnetic resonance imaging technology. The find revealed the structure to have been somewhat larger than had been imagined. A stylised illustration of the Abbey on one of its seals suggests that it was a major Romanesque building, with a central tower crowned with a spire.

Scotland – is a country in northwest Europe that occupies the northern third of the island of Great Britain. It is part of the United Kingdom, and shares a land border to the south with England. It is bounded by the North Sea to the east, the Atlantic Ocean to the north and west, and the North Channel and Irish Sea to the southwest. In addition to the mainland, Scotland consists of over 790 islands including the Northern Isles and the Hebrides.

Edinburgh, the country's capital and second largest city, is one of Europe's largest financial centres. It was the hub of the Scottish Enlightenment of the 18th century, which saw Scotland become one of the commercial, intellectual and industrial powerhouses of Europe. Scotland's largest city is Glasgow, which was once one of the world's leading industrial metropolises, and now lies at the centre of the Greater Glasgow conurbation which dominates the Scottish Lowlands. Scottish waters consist of a large sector of the North Atlantic and the North Sea, containing the largest oil reserves in the European Union.

The Kingdom of Scotland was an independent state until 1 May 1707 when it joined in a political union with the Kingdom of England to create a united Kingdom of Great Britain. This union was the result of the Treaty of Union agreed in 1706 and put into effect by the Acts of Union that were passed by the Parliaments of both countries despite widespread protest across Scotland. Scotland's legal system continues to be separate from those of England, Wales, and Northern Ireland and Scotland still constitutes a distinct jurisdiction in public and in private law.

Self-Denying Ordinance – (3 April 1645) an English parliamentary regulation under which all Members of Parliament had to resign their military commands. Oliver Cromwell* was determined to create an efficient national army controlled and paid from Westminster, rather than by the counties. The House of Lords amended the Ordinance, so that it was possible for certain Members of Parliament to be reappointed to

the New Model Army*, thereby enabling Cromwell to continue his military career as lieutenant-general under commander-in-chief Sir Thomas Fairfax.

Seven Years' War, the – was a major military conflict that lasted from 1756 until the conclusion of the treaties of Paris (signed on 10 February 1763) and Hubertusburg (signed on 15 February 1763). It involved all of the major European powers of the period – but in reality had begun two years earlier as the French and Indian War in Colonial America (and heavily involving a young George Washington as emissary and commander) after the Governor of Virginia ordered the Forks of the Ohio be fortified to better establish English claims to the Ohio Country. Because of its global nature, it has been described as the "first World War". It resulted in some 900,000 to 1,400,000 deaths and significant changes in the balance of power and territories of several of the participants.

The fighting in North America is known in the United States as the French and Indian War and in Quebec as the "War of Conquest".

War in Europe began in 1756 with the French siege of British Minorca in the Mediterranean Sea, and Frederick the Great of Prussia's invasion of Saxony on the continent which also upset the firmly established Pragmatic Sanction put in place by Charles VI of Austria. Despite being the main theatre of war, the European conflict resulted in a bloody stalemate which did little to change the pre-war status quo, while its consequences in Asia and the Americas were wider ranging and longer lasting. Concessions made in the 1763 Treaty of Paris ended France's position as a major colonial power in the Americas (where it lost all claim to land in North America east of the Mississippi River along with what is now Canada, in addition to some West Indian islands). Great Britain strengthened its territories in India and North America, confirming its status as the dominant colonial power.

Shakespeare William – (baptised 1564 – died 1616) was an English poet and playwright, widely regarded as the greatest writer in the English language and the world's pre-eminent dramatist. He is often called England's national poet and the "Bard of Avon". His surviving works, including some collaborations, consist of about 38 plays, 154 sonnets, two long narrative poems, and several other poems. His plays have been translated into every major living language and are performed more often than those of any other playwright.

Shakespeare was born and raised in Stratford-upon-Avon. At the age of 18, he married Anne Hathaway, with whom he had three children: Susanna, and twins Hamnet and Judith. Between 1585 and 1592, he began

a successful career in London as an actor, writer, and part owner of a playing company called the Lord Chamberlain's Men, later known as the King's Men. He appears to have retired to Stratford around 1613, where he died three years later. Few records of Shakespeare's private life survive, and there has been considerable speculation about such matters as his physical appearance, sexuality, religious beliefs, and whether the works attributed to him were written by others.

Shakespeare produced most of his known work between 1589 and 1613. His early plays were mainly comedies and histories, genres he raised to the peak of sophistication and artistry by the end of the sixteenth century. He then wrote mainly tragedies until about 1608, including *Hamlet*, *King Lear*, and *Macbeth*, considered some of the finest works in the English language. In his last phase, he wrote tragicomedies, also known as romances, and collaborated with other playwrights.

Many of his plays were published in editions of varying quality and accuracy during his lifetime. In 1623, two of his former theatrical colleagues published the First Folio, a collected edition of his dramatic works that included all but two of the plays now recognised as Shakespeare's.

Shakespeare was a respected poet and playwright in his own day, but his reputation did not rise to its present heights until the nineteenth century. The Romantics, in particular, acclaimed Shakespeare's genius, and the Victorians worshipped Shakespeare with a reverence that George Bernard Shaw called "bardolatry". In the twentieth century, his work was repeatedly adopted and rediscovered by new movements in scholarship and performance. His plays remain highly popular today and are constantly studied, performed and reinterpreted in diverse cultural and political contexts throughout the world.

Tragedies

Antony and Cleopatra
Coriolanus
Hamlet
Julius Caesar
King Lear
Macbeth
Othello
Romeo and Juliet
Timon of Athens
Titus Andronicus

Histories

King Henry IV Part 1
King Henry IV Part 2
King Henry V
King Henry VI Part 1
King Henry VI Part 2
King Henry VI Part 3
King Henry VIII
King John
Richard II
Richard III

Comedies

All's Well That Ends Well
As You Like It
Comedy of Errors
Cymbeline
Love's Labour's Lost
Measure for Measure
Merchant of Venice
Merry Wives of Windsor
Midsummer Night's Dream
Much Ado About Nothing
Pericles, Prince of Tyre
Taming of the Shrew
Tempest
Troilus and Cressida
Twelfth Night
Two Gentlemen of Verona
Winter's Tale

Poetry

A Lover's Complaint

Sonnets 1-30	Sonnets 91-120	The Rape of Lucrece
Sonnets 121-154	The Passionate Pilgrim	Venus and Adonis
Sonnets 31-60	The Phoenix and the	
Sonnets 61-90	Turtle	

Sheriff – is in principle a legal official with responsibility for a county. In practice, the specific combination of legal, political, and ceremonial duties of a sheriff varies greatly from country to country.

The word "sheriff" is a contraction of the term "shire reeve". The term designated a royal official responsible for keeping the peace (a "reeve") throughout a shire or county on behalf of the king. The term was preserved in England notwithstanding the Norman Conquest. From the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms the term spread to several other countries, at an early point to Scotland, latterly to Ireland and the United States.

England and Wales

The High Sheriff is, or was, a law enforcement position in many English-speaking nations. The High Sheriff of an English or Welsh county is an unpaid, partly ceremonial post appointed by The Crown through a Warrant from the Privy Council. In Cornwall the High Sheriff is appointed by the Duke of Cornwall.

Historically, the court officers empowered to enforce High Court writs were called Sheriffs or Sheriff's Officers. In April 2004 they were replaced by High Court enforcement officers.

City of London

In the City of London, the position of sheriff is one of the officers of the Corporation. Two are elected by the liverymen of the City each year to assist the Lord Mayor, attend the Central Criminal Court at the Old Bailey, and present petitions to Parliament: usually one is an alderman and the other is not. The aldermanic sheriff is then likely to become Lord Mayor in due course.

Scotland

In Scotland, a sheriff is analogous to a judge and sits in a second-tier court, called the Sheriff Court. The sheriff is legally qualified, in comparison with a lay Justice of the Peace who preside over the first-tier District Courts of Scotland.

The sheriff court is a court of first instance for the majority of both civil and criminal cases. However, the court's powers are limited, so that major crimes such as rape or murder and complex or high-value civil cases are dealt with in the High Court (for criminal matters) or the Court of Session (for civil matters).

There are six sheriffdoms in Scotland, each with a Sheriff Principal. Within each sheriffdom there are several Sheriff Courts; each court has at

least one courtroom and at least one Sheriff (technically a Sheriff Depute). A Sheriff may sit at different courts throughout the sheriffdom.

Sheriffs are usually advocates and, increasingly, solicitors with many years of legal experience. Until recently, they were appointed by the Scottish Executive, on the advice of the Lord Advocate. However, the Scotland Act 1998 introduced the European Convention of Human Rights into Scots law. A subsequent legal challenge to the impartiality of the sheriffs based on the provisions of the Convention led to the setting up of the Judicial Appointments Board for Scotland, which now makes recommendations to the First Minister, who nominates all judicial appointments in Scotland other than in the District Court. Nominations are made to the Prime Minister, who in turn makes the recommendation to the Queen.

Ireland

In Ireland, a sheriff can be either:

A court officer in both Dublin City and County and Cork City and County who earn their fees from poundage (commission).

Civil servants employed by the Revenue Commissioners, known popularly as "tax sheriffs".

In both cases sheriffs are charged with enforcing civil judgments against debtors within their bailiwick. Outside Dublin and Cork the County Registrar carries out the functions of the sheriff regarding judgments. The Dublin and Cork sheriffs also perform all the duties of returning officers in elections (other than local elections) and some other duties concerning pounds. Sheriffs may appoint court messengers, subject to approval of the Minister for Justice, to assist them with their work.

Short Parliament, the – was a Parliament of England that sat from 13 April to 5 May 1640 during the reign of King Charles I of England, so called because it lasted only three weeks.

After 11 years of attempting Personal Rule (1629-1640), Charles recalled Parliament in 1640 on the advice of Lord Wentworth, recently created Earl of Strafford. He was forced to call the Short Parliament primarily to obtain money to finance his military struggle with Scotland in the Bishops' Wars*. Like its predecessors, the new parliament had greater interest in redressing perceived grievances occasioned by the royal administration than in voting the King funds to pursue his war against the Scottish Covenanters.

John Pym, MP for Tavistock, quickly emerged as a major figure in debate; his long speech on 17 April expressed the refusal of the House of Commons to vote subsidies unless royal abuses were addressed. John Hampden, on the other hand, was persuasive in private: he sat on nine committees. Charles's attempted offer to cease the levying of ship money did not impress the Members of Parliament. A flood of petitions

concerning abuses were coming up to Parliament from the country. Impatient with their resuming debate where it had left off in 1629, touching the violation of Parliamentary privileges by the arrests of Members in 1629, and unnerved about coming scheduled debate over the deteriorating situation in Scotland, Charles dissolved the body (5 May 1640) after only three weeks' sitting. It was followed by the Long Parliament*.

Simon de Montfort (6th Earl of Leicester, 1st Earl of Chester) – (1208-1265) was a French-English nobleman. He led the barons' rebellion against King Henry III of England during the Second Barons' War of 1263-4, and subsequently became de facto ruler of England. During his rule, de Montfort called the first directly elected parliament in medieval Europe. For this reason, de Montfort is regarded today as one of the progenitors of modern parliamentary democracy. After a rule of just over a year, de Montfort was killed by forces loyal to the king in the Battle of Evesham.

Sir John Vanbrugh (1664–1726) – was an English architect and dramatist, perhaps best known as the designer of Blenheim Palace and Castle Howard. He wrote two argumentative and outspoken Restoration comedies, *The Relapse* (1696) and *The Provoked Wife* (1697), which have become enduring stage favourites but originally occasioned much controversy. He was knighted in 1714.

Vanbrugh was in many senses a radical throughout his life. As a young man and a committed Whig, he was part of the scheme to overthrow James II, put William III on the throne and protect English parliamentary democracy, and he was imprisoned by the French as a political prisoner. In his career as a playwright, he offended many sections of Restoration and 18th century society, not only by the sexual explicitness of his plays, but also by their messages in defence of women's rights in marriage. He was attacked on both counts, and was one of the prime targets of Jeremy Collier's *Short View of the Immorality and Profaneness of the English Stage*. In his architectural career, he created what came to be known as English Baroque. His architectural work was as bold and daring as his early political activism and marriage-themed plays, and jarred conservative opinions on the subject.

Sir Robert Harley, 1st Earl of Oxford and 1st Earl Mortimer (1661-1724) – was a British politician and statesman of the late Stuart and early Georgian periods. He began his career as a Whig, before defecting to a new Tory Ministry. Between 1711 and 1714 he served as First Lord of the Treasury, effectively Queen Anne's Chief Minister. He has been called a *Prime Minister*, though it is generally accepted that the position was first held by Robert Walpole in 1721.

Harley's government agreed the Treaty of Utrecht with France, bringing an end to British involvement in the War of the Spanish Succession. He later fell from favour following the Hanoverian Succession

and was for a time imprisoned in the Tower of London by his political enemies.

He was also a noted literary figure and served as a patron of both the October Club and the Scriblerus Club. Harley Street is sometimes said to be named after him, although it was his son Edward Harley who actually developed the area.

Solemn League and Covenant, the – was an agreement between the Scottish Covenanters and the leaders of the English Parliamentarians. It was agreed to in 1643, during the First English Civil War.

The Protestant leaders of the embattled English parliament, faced with the threat of Irish Catholic troops joining with the Royalist army, requested the aid of the Scots. The Presbyterian Covenanters promised their aid against the 'papists', on condition that the Scottish system of church government was adopted in England. This was acceptable to the majority of the English Long Parliament*, as many of them were Presbyterians, while others preferred allying with the Scots to losing the Civil War.

Sovereignty – the supreme, absolute, and uncontrollable power by which any independent state is governed; supreme political authority; the supreme will; paramount control of the constitution and frame of government and its administration; the self-sufficient source of political power, from which all specific political powers are derived; the international independence of a state, combined with the right and power of regulating its internal affairs without foreign dictation; also a political society, or state, which is sovereign and independent.

Sovereignty in government is that public authority which directs or orders what is to be done by each member associated in relation to the end of the association. It is the supreme power by which any citizen is governed and is the person or body of persons in the state to whom there is politically no superior. The necessary existence of the state and that right and power which necessarily follow is "sovereignty." By "sovereignty" in its largest sense is meant supreme, absolute, uncontrollable power, the absolute right to govern. The word which by itself comes nearest to being the definition of "sovereignty" is will or volition as applied to political affairs.

Strafford, Thomas Wentworth – (1593-1641) was an English statesman and a major figure in the period leading up to the English Civil War. He served in Parliament and was a supporter of King Charles I. From 1632 to 1639 he instituted a harsh rule as Lord Deputy of Ireland. Recalled to England, he became a leading advisor to the king, attempting to strengthen the royal position against Parliament. When Parliament condemned him to death, Charles signed the death warrant and Wentworth was executed.

St. Albans Abbey – is the oldest site of continuous Christian worship in Britain. It stands over the place where Alban, the first martyr,

was buried after giving his life for his faith over 1700 years ago – more than 200 years before St Augustine arrived in Canterbury.

The building's amazing mixture of architectural styles bears witness to the many centuries of its life, first as a monastic Abbey and now as a Cathedral. Down all those centuries countless pilgrims have come to honour the saint's sacrifice and offer their prayers at his shrine – and they still come in their thousands today.

At 84 metres, its nave is the longest of any cathedral in England. With much of its present architecture dating from Norman times, it became a cathedral in 1877, and is the second longest cathedral in the United Kingdom. Local residents often call it "the Abbey", although the present cathedral represents only the church of the old Benedictine abbey.

The abbey church, although legally a cathedral church, differs in certain particulars from most of the other cathedrals in England: it is also used as a parish church, of which the Dean is rector. He has the same powers, responsibilities, and duties as the rector of any other parish.

St. Bartholomew's Day massacre, the – (*Massacre de la Saint-Barthélemy* in French) in 1572 was a targeted group of assassinations, followed by a wave of Roman Catholic mob violence, both directed against the Huguenots (French Calvinist Protestants), during the French Wars of Religion. Traditionally believed to have been instigated by Catherine de' Medici, the mother of King Charles IX, the massacre took place six days after the wedding of the king's sister Margaret to the Protestant Henry III of Navarre (the future Henry IV of France). This marriage was an occasion for which many of the most wealthy and prominent Huguenots had gathered in largely Catholic Paris.

The massacre began two days after the attempted assassination of Admiral Gaspard de Coligny, the military and political leader of the Huguenots. Starting on 23 August 1572 (the eve of the feast of Bartholomew the Apostle) with murders on orders of the king of a group of Huguenot leaders including Coligny, the massacres spread throughout Paris. Lasting several weeks, the massacre extended to other urban centres and the countryside. Modern estimates for the number of dead vary widely between 5,000 and 30,000 in total.

The massacre also marked a turning point in the French Wars of Religion. The Huguenot political movement was crippled by the loss of many of its prominent aristocratic leaders, as well as many re-conversions by the rank and file, and those who remained were increasingly radicalized. Though by no means unique, it "was the worst of the century's religious massacres." Throughout Europe, it "printed on Protestant minds the indelible conviction that Catholicism was a bloody and treacherous religion".

Stone of Destiny – also commonly known as the *Stone of Scone* or the *Coronation Stone* is an oblong block of red sandstone, used for centuries in the coronation of the monarchs of Scotland, the monarchs of England, and, more recently, British monarchs. Historically, the artifact was kept at the now-ruined Scone Abbey in Scone, near Perth, Scotland. Other names by which it has sometimes been known include Jacob's Pillow Stone and the Tanist Stone. Its size is about 26 inches (660 mm) by 16.75 inches (425 mm) by 10.5 inches (270 mm) in size and weighs approximately 336 pounds (152 kg). The top bears chisel-marks. At each end of the stone is an iron ring, apparently intended to make transport easier.

On St Andrews Day, 30th November 1996, Scotland's coronation stone, the Stone of Destiny, was installed in Edinburgh Castle.

About 10,000 people lined the Royal Mile to watch the procession of dignitaries and troops escort the stone from Holyrood Palace to the castle. In a service at St Giles cathedral the Church of Scotland Moderator, the Right Reverend John MacIndoe, formally accepted the stone's return saying it would "strengthen the proud distinctiveness of the people of Scotland".

Once inside the castle the stone was laid on an oak table before the grand fireplace of the early 16th century Great Hall. The Scottish Secretary of State Michael Forsyth ceremoniously received it from Prince Andrew, who was representing the Queen.

Outside the castle, under clear blue skies, a twenty-one gun salute was fired from the Half-Moon Battery, echoed by HMS Newcastle lying anchored off Leith harbour in the Firth of Forth.

St Paul's Cathedral – is the Anglican cathedral on Ludgate Hill, in the City of London, and the seat of the Bishop of London. The present building dates from the 17th century and is generally reckoned to be London's fifth *St Paul's Cathedral*, although the number is higher if every major medieval reconstruction is counted as a new cathedral. The cathedral sits on the highest point of the City of London, which originated as a Roman trading post situated on the River Thames. The cathedral is one of London's most visited sites.

Stuart, Charles Edward – called The Young Pretender, The Young Chevalier, and Bonnie Prince Charlie (1720-88), claimant to the British throne who led the Scottish Highland army in the Forty-five Rebellion.

The son of James Francis Edward Stuart and grandson of James II of England, Charles Edward was born in 1720. In 1744, after his father had obtained the support of the French government for a projected invasion of England, Charles Edward went to France to assume command of the French expeditionary forces. Unfavorable weather and the mobilization of a powerful British fleet to oppose the invasion led to cancellation of the plan by the French government.

The Jacobite cause was still supported by many Highland clans, both Catholic and Protestant, and the Catholic Charles hoped for a warm welcome from these clans to start an insurgency by Jacobites throughout Britain, but there was no immediate response. Charles raised his father's standard at Glenfinnan and there raised a large enough force to enable him to march on the city of Edinburgh, which quickly surrendered. On 21 September 1745 he defeated the only government army in Scotland at the Battle of Prestonpans, and by November was marching south at the head of around 6,000 men. Having taken Carlisle, Charles' army progressed as far as Derby. Here, despite the objections of the Prince, the decision was taken by his council to return to Scotland, largely because of the almost complete lack of the support from English Jacobites that Charles had promised. By now he was pursued by the King George II's son, the Duke of Cumberland, who caught up with him at the Battle of Culloden on 16 April 1746.

At Culloden his forces were utterly routed. He was hunted as a fugitive for more than five months, but the Highlanders never betrayed him, and he escaped to France in September 1746. Two years later he was expelled from that country in accordance with one of the provisions of the second Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), which stipulated that all members of the house of Stuart were to be driven from France. For a number of years Charles Edward wandered about Europe. Secretly visiting London in 1750 and in 1754, he attempted without success on both occasions to win support for his cause. In 1766, on his father's death, Charles Edward returned to

Italy, where he spent his last years. Charles died in Rome on 31 January 1788. He was first buried in the Cathedral of Frascati, where his brother Henry Benedict Stuart was bishop. At Henry's death in 1807, Charles's remains were moved to the crypt of Saint Peter's Basilica in the Vatican where they were laid to rest next to those of his brother and father. When the body of Charles Stuart was transferred to the Saint Peter's Basilica, his "praecordia" were left in Frascati Cathedral: a small urn encloses the heart of Charles, placed beneath the floor below the funerary monument.

Stuart, James (Francis Edward, Prince of Wales; James Francis Edward Stuart; "The Old Pretender" or "The Old Chevalier") – (1688-1766) was the son of the deposed James II of England (James VII of Scotland). As such, he claimed the English, Scottish and Irish thrones (as James III of England and Ireland and James VIII of Scotland) from the death of his father in 1701, when he was recognized as king of England, Scotland and Ireland by his cousin Louis XIV of France. Following his death in 1766 he was succeeded by his son Charles Edward Stuart in the Jacobite Succession.

T

Thomas More – (1478-1535) Lord chancellor of England (1529-32), scholar, and saint. He was canonized in 1935. His writings include *Utopia* (1516), a description of an ideal society.

Tories, the – were members of two political parties which existed, sequentially, in the Kingdom of England, the Kingdom of Great Britain and later the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland from the 17th to the early 19th centuries.

The word 'Tories' was originally used to describe rural bandits in Ireland. In the 17th century it had become a term applied to monarchists in the House of Commons. By the 18th century the Tories were politicians who favoured royal authority, the established church and who sought to preserve the traditional political structure and opposed parliamentary reform. After 1834 this political group in the House of Commons preferred to use the term Conservative.

Trade Union Act 1871 – was a UK Act of Parliament which legalised trade unions for the first time in the United Kingdom. This act secured the legal status of trade unions. As a result of this legislation no trade union could be regarded as criminal because "in restraint of trade"; trade union funds were protected. Although trade unions were pleased with this act, they were less happy with the Criminal Law Amendment Act passed the same day that made picketing illegal.

Trade Union Act of 1876 – Shortages of labour due to the Victorian gold rush from 1851, the creation of responsible government which increased representation in 1857, the British Trade Union Act of 1871 and the 8 hour day campaign all contributed to a climate that fostered the Trade Union movement and the Trade Union Act of 1876. South Australia became the first territory of the empire outside Britain to legalise trade unions. The purposes of any Trade Union shall not, by reason merely that they are in restraint of trade, be deemed to be unlawful so as to render any member of such Trade Union liable to criminal prosecution for conspiracy, or otherwise [*The Trade Union Act*, 1876 (SA) s 2].

Treaty of Troyes, the – was an agreement that Henry V of England and his heirs would inherit the throne of France upon the death of King Charles VI of France. It was signed in the French city of Troyes on 21 May 1420 in the aftermath of the Battle of Agincourt. It forms a part of the backdrop of the latter phase of the Hundred Years' War, in which various English Kings tried to establish their claims to the French throne.

Thegns – from OE "servant, attendant, retainer", is commonly used to describe either an aristocratic retainer of a king or nobleman in Anglo-Saxon England, or as a class term, the majority of the aristocracy below the ranks of ealdormen and high-reeves. It is also the term for an early medieval Scandinavian class of retainers.

The Simpsons – is an American animated television series created by Matt Groening for the Fox Broadcasting Company. The series is a satirical parody of a working-class American lifestyle epitomized by its family of the same name, which consists of Homer, Marge, Bart, Lisa, and Maggie. The show is set in the fictional city of Springfield, and lampoons American culture, society, television and many aspects of the human condition.

The Simpsons has won dozens of awards since it debuted as a series, including 27 Primetime Emmy Awards, 27 Annie Awards and a Peabody Award. *Time* magazine's December 31, 1999 issue named it the 20th century's best television series, and on January 14, 2000 the Simpson family was awarded a star on the Hollywood Walk of Fame.

Treaty of Winchester (1153), the – was the formal conclusion of the war between King Stephen and Henry, Matilda's son and the future Henry II. The treaty was arranged because the armies refused to join battle, so that Stephen and Henry were effectively in stalemate. This treaty occupies an important position in the origins of the common law, because it set the pattern by which the king undertook an obligation for the maintenance of certain tenures and thus interfered for the first time in a

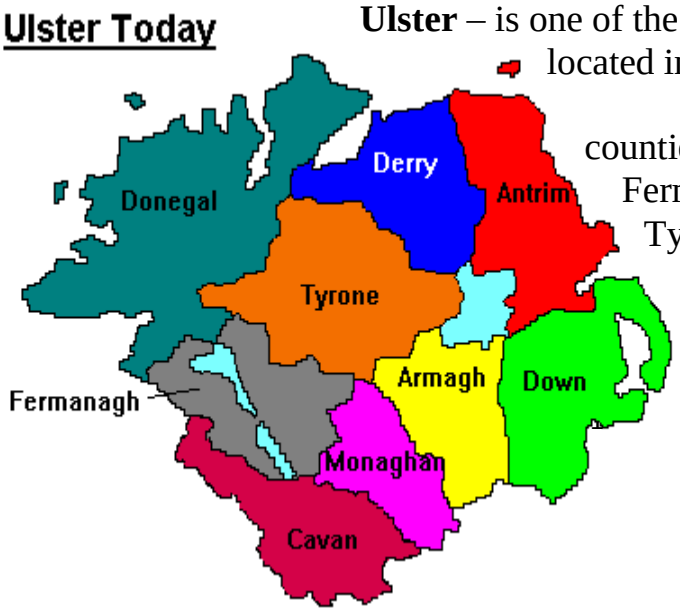
regular way between his tenants-in-chief and their tenants. For the first time the holding of such land became a concern for the king, instead of being a contractual matter between the lord and his tenant to be handled in the lord's own feudal court, a court structured as a communal court. The treaty itself shows none of this, but the terms must be understood to understand what happened.

Tyndale William – (1494 – 1536) was a 16th century scholar and translator who became a leading figure in Protestant reformism towards the end of his life. He was influenced by the work of Desiderius Erasmus, who made the Greek New Testament available in Europe, and Martin Luther. Tyndale was the first to translate considerable parts of the Bible into English, for a public, lay readership. While a number of partial and complete translations had been made from the seventh century onward, particularly during the 14th century, Tyndale's was the first English translation to draw directly from Hebrew and Greek texts, and the first to take advantage of the new medium of print, which allowed for its wide distribution. This was taken to be a direct challenge to the hegemony of both the Catholic church and the English church and state. Tyndale also wrote, in 1530, *The Practyse of Prelates*, opposing Henry VIII's divorce on the grounds that it contravened scriptural law.

In 1535, Tyndale was arrested by church authorities and jailed in the castle of Vilvoorde outside Brussels for over a year. He was tried for heresy, strangled and burnt at the stake. The heretical Tyndale Bible, as it was known, continued to play a key role in spreading Reformation ideas across Europe.

The fifty-four independent scholars who revised extant English bibles, drew significantly on Tyndale's translations to create the King James Version of 1611 (still in mainstream use today). One estimation suggests the King James New Testament is 83.7 % Tyndale's and the Old Testament 75.7 %.

U



Ulster – is one of the four provinces of Ireland, located in the north of the island. Ulster is composed of nine counties: Antrim, Armagh, Down, Fermanagh, Londonderry, and Tyrone comprise Northern Ireland, while Cavan, Donegal, and Monaghan are part of the Republic of Ireland.

Union of England and Scotland, the – The Union of the crowns was effected by the succession (1603) of James VI of Scotland to the English throne as James I, and from 1608, all those born in Scotland after James' accession to the English throne were English citizens. From 1654 until 1660, under the Protectorate, England and Scotland were temporarily united, but the act establishing an "incorporating" union between England and Scotland was not passed until 1707. The act resulted from the increasing difficulties monarchs had experienced in reconciling the conflicting claims of the two British parliaments. Scotland lost its own parliament but was represented in the new parliament of Great Britain by 45 MPs in the Commons and 16 Peers. Scotland retained its legal system and established church and gained free trade with England.

V

Victorian Age – the "widow of Windsor", in a long self-imposed isolation, became an almost legendary figure until the last years of her reign. The longest reign in British history (64 years), it was marked with the glitter and pageantry of her Golden Jubilee in 1887 and her Diamond Jubilee in 1897.

Victoria was not a great ruler or a particularly brilliant woman. She was fortunate through most of her reign in having a succession of politically able Cabinet ministers. She happened, however, to be queen of Great Britain for most of the 19th century – a century that saw more changes than any previous period in history. The queen became the living symbol of peace and prosperity. Governments rose and fell. Industry expanded beyond everyone's wildest dreams. Science, literature, and the arts found new meaning. Through all these long years of peaceful change, there was always the queen.

Victoria had lived from the dissolute days of George III to the beginning of the 20th century. She made the Crown a symbol of *"private virtue and public honor."* Victoria died on the Isle of Wight on Jan. 22, 1901, but the Victorian Age is considered to have continued until 1914, when Europe was plunged into World War I. She was succeeded on the throne by her son Edward VII.

Opium Wars – by the mid-19th century, China believed itself to be self-sufficient, needing and wanting nothing from the outside. Yet if other countries were to buy Chinese goods without being able to sell anything to China, a large trade deficit would develop. It was this problem that stood behind the Opium Wars.

British traders smuggled opium – a dangerous and addictive narcotic – into China. Most of the opium trade was concentrated in the

southern part of China, around Canton, because China had restricted the entry of foreigners to this district. In 1839 the government of China decided to rid itself of the opium trade. It confiscated all the opium in warehouses around Canton.

This led to open animosity between the British and the Chinese. English sailors killed a Chinese villager a few days after the opium confiscation. When the British authorities refused to turn the sailors over to the Chinese, hostilities broke out.

The more powerful British military forces quickly won the conflict. The British then imposed on the Chinese treaties very favorable to England. It was at this time that China was forced to cede Hong Kong to Great Britain.

A second Opium War occurred in 1856, when China broke the Treaty of Nanking, which had ended the first war. The second war lasted four years. By the end of the conflict, Great Britain and France forced China to sign the Tientsin treaties, which opened the Yangtze River to foreign ships and legalized the opium trade.

Crimean War (1854-56) – waged by Great Britain with aid of other powers in defense of Turkey against Russian aggressions; siege of Sevastopol'; Turkey left intact.

Boer War (1899-1902) – spirited but futile resistance of Boer* settlers in South Africa to extension of British claims; Transvaal and Orange Free State made British colonies.

Europeans began to settle in the area that is now South Africa in 1652, when the Dutch founded a station for their ships at the Cape of Good Hope. A large number of Dutch and some French immigrants arrived in 1707; their descendants became known as Afrikaners, eventually developing their own language and customs.

In 1795, as a result of the Napoleonic Wars, the area around the Cape came under British control. Although the colony became very prosperous, thanks in part to the labor provided by African slaves and servants, about half the Afrikaners left the settled areas to live as nomadic farmers, or *trekhoeren*, later known as Boers. The highly independent Boers grew unhappy under the new British regime, especially in regard to the British policy of freeing the Boers' slaves. Between 1836 and 1841 about 12,000 Boers left the colony and began the Great Trek north into areas of southern Africa that were not yet colonized by Europeans.

After many battles with the powerful African nations that controlled the area at the time, the Boers settled in the Natal, Transvaal, and Orange Free State regions of southern Africa. The Natal settlers were forced to leave their area, but the Transvaal and Orange Free State Boers eventually achieved their independence from the British and created their own republics. The conflict between the Boers and the British did not end,

however, and was settled only by the Boer, or South African, War, which began in 1899.

W

Wales – is a country that is part of the United Kingdom. It is closely, but not completely, integrated both politically and geographically with England. Wales is located in the south-west of the island of Great Britain and is bordered by England to the east, the Bristol Channel to the south and the Irish Sea to the west and north, and also by the estuary of the River Dee in the north-east. Wales has a population of 5,144,200 with around two-thirds of this located around the country's capital – and largest city since 1955– Cardiff.

Wat Tyler – (1341-1381) was the leader of the English Peasants' Revolt of 1381. He led more than 100 000 peasants in a march to London after the overtaxed people lost patience when the Crown ordered a new head tax. The rebels demanded an end to serfdom and a repeal of oppressive labor laws. A young king Richard II agreed to their demands but Wat Tyler was soon killed by the mayor of London and the king's promises put aside.

Watling Street – is the name given to an ancient trackway in England and Wales that was first used by the Britons mainly between the modern cities of Canterbury and St Albans. The Romans later paved the route – from London to the port of Dover. Its route is now covered by the A2 road from Dover to London, and the A5 road from London to Wroxeter.The name derives from the Old English *Wæcelinga Stræt*. Originally the word "street" simply meant a paved road (Latin: "via strata"), and did not have the modern association with populated areas.

West Indies – an archipelago between southeast North America and northern South America, separating the Caribbean Sea from the Atlantic Ocean and including the Greater Antilles, the Lesser Antilles, and the Bahama Islands. The original inhabitants were Caribs and Arawaks. Several of the islands were sighted and explored by Columbus during his voyages of 1492-1504. The first permanent European settlement was made by the Spanish on Hispaniola in 1496. During the colonial period the English, French, and Dutch also laid claim to various islands, and the United States acquired Puerto Rico and part of the Virgin Islands in the late 19th and early 20th centuries.





Whigs, the – were a party in the Parliament of England, Parliament of Great Britain, and Parliament of the United Kingdom, who contested power with the rival Tories from the 1680s to the 1850s. The Whigs' origin lay in constitutional monarchism and opposition to absolute rule. Both parties began as loose groupings or tendencies, but became quite formal by 1784, with the ascension of Charles James Fox as the leader of a reconstituted "Whig" party ranged against the governing party of the new "Tories" under William Pitt the Younger. Both parties were founded on rich politicians, more than on popular votes; there were elections to the House of Commons, but a small number of men controlled most of the voters.

The Whig party slowly evolved during the 18th century. The Whig tendency supported the great aristocratic families, the Protestant Hanoverian succession and toleration for nonconformist Protestants, while some Tories supported the exiled Stuart royal family's claim to the throne (Jacobitism), and virtually all Tories supported the established Church of England and the gentry. Later on, the Whigs drew support from the emerging industrial interests and wealthy merchants, while the Tories drew support from the landed interests and the royal family. The Whigs were also known as the "Country Party" (as opposed to the Tories, the "Court Party"). By the first half of the 19th century, however, the Whig political programme came to encompass not only the supremacy of parliament over the monarch and support for free trade, but Catholic emancipation, the abolition of slavery and expansion of the franchise.

Whispering gallery – is a gallery in which whispers can be heard clearly in other parts of the building. A whispering gallery is usually constructed in the form of an ellipsoid, with an accessible point at each focus. When a visitor stands at one focus and whispers, the line of sound emanating from this focus reflects directly to the dish/focus at the other end of the room, and to the other person. Circular whispering galleries may

provide “communication” from any part on the circumference to the diametrically-opposite point on the circumference.


The Whispering Gallery in St Paul’s Cathedral* runs around the interior of the Dome and is 99 feet (30.2 m) above the cathedral floor. It is reached by 259 steps from ground level. It gets its name because a whisper against its wall at any point is audible to a listener with an ear held to the wall at any other point around the gallery. This works only for whispered speech – normal voiced speech is not focused in this way.

White Ship – a twelfth-century vessel, sank in the English Channel near the Normandy coast off Barfleur, on 25 November 1120. Those drowned included William Adelin, the only legitimate son of King Henry I of England. William of Malmesbury wrote: “Here also perished with William, Richard, another of the King’s sons, whom a woman without rank had borne him, before his accession, a brave youth, and dear to his father from his obedience; Richard d’Avranches, second Earl of Chester, and his brother Otheur; Geoffrey Ridel; Walter of Everci; Geoffrey, archdeacon of Hereford; the Countess of Chester; the king’s niece Lucia-Mahaut of Blois; and many others ... No ship ever brought so much misery to England.” Only one of those aboard survived.

William of Orange (**William III**) (1650-1702) – was a Prince of Orange by birth. From 1672 onwards, he governed as Stadtholder William III of Orange over Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Guelders, and Overijssel of the Dutch Republic. In addition, from 1689 onwards, he reigned as King William III over England and Ireland, and as King William II over Scotland. A member of the House of Orange-Nassau, William won the English, Scottish and Irish crowns following the Glorious Revolution, in which his uncle and father-in-law, James II, was deposed. In England, Scotland and Ireland, William reigned

jointly with his wife, Mary II, until her death on 28 December 1694. Since his time the royal power was limited by Parliament according to the Bill of Rights, signed by him in 1688-1689. Thus a new political structure of the state constitutional monarchy was established. The kings in Great Britain only reign but not rule the country.

A Protestant, William participated in several wars against the powerful Catholic King Louis XIV of France in coalition with Protestant and Catholic powers in Europe. Many Protestants heralded him as a champion of their faith. William's victory over James II at the Battle of the Boyne in 1690 is commemorated by the Orange Institution in Northern Ireland to this day. His reign marked the beginning of the transition from the personal rule of the Stuarts to the more Parliament-centered rule of the House of Hanover.

William Wallace – was a Scottish knight and landowner who became one of the main leaders during the Wars of Scottish Independence.

Wallace defeated an English army at the Battle of Stirling Bridge in 1297, and was Guardian of Scotland, serving until his defeat at the Battle of Falkirk. In 1305, Wallace was captured in Robroyston near Glasgow and handed over to King Edward I of England, who had him hanged, drawn, and quartered for high treason.

Since his death, Wallace has obtained an iconic status far beyond his homeland.

The best known depiction of Wallace is in the Academy Award winning epic film Braveheart, which was directed by Mel Gibson and based upon a screenplay by Randall Wallace.

Glossary

A		
abdicate	[´æbdikeit]	*v* отрекаться; слагать полномочия; отказываться
abhor	[əb´hɔ:]	*v* питать отвращение; ненавидить
accession	[æk´səʃən]	*n* вступление на престол
alienate	[´eiljəneit]	*v* 1) отчуждать 2) отвращать
allied	[ə´laid]	*a* родственный, близкий; союзный; союзнический
applique	[æ´pli:kei]	*n фр.* аппликация
assize	[ə´saiz]	*n* судебное разбирательство
astute	[əs´tju:t]	*a* проницательный, хитрый
B		
bawl	[bɔ:l]	*n* крик; рёв; громкие рыдания *v* кричать, орать
beau	[bəu]	*n фр.* (*pl* beaux) 1) щеголь, франт 2) кавалер; поклонник
bequeath	[bi´kwi:ð]	*v* завещать (движимость); передавать потомству
blasphemer	[blæs´fi:mə]	*n* богохульник
blow	[bləu]	*n* удар; несчастье, удар (судьбы)
bodice	[´bɔdis]	*n* корсаж; лиф (платья)
bout	[baut]	*n* 1) раз, черёд; круг; кругооборот 2) припадок, приступ (болезни, кашля)
broom	[brum]	*n* метла, веник
burgess	[´bə: dʒ]	*n* 1) гражданин или житель города, имеющего самоуправление 2) *ист.* член парламента от города с самоуправлением или от университета
C		
careworn	[´kɛəwɔ:n]	*a* измученный заботами

Carthaginian	[ˌka:Θə´dʒiniən]	1. *a* карфагенский; пунический 2. *n* карфагенянин
chip	[tʃip]	*v* 1) стругать, обтесывать; откалывать 2) отбивать края (посуды и т.п.)
chisel	[´tʃizl]	*n mex.* резец; долото, стамеска, зубило; чекан
chivalry	[´ʃivəlri]	*n* рыцарство
circuit	[´sə:kit]	*n* 1) кругооборот 2) округ (судебный, церковный и т.п.); участок, район
clergy	[´klə:dʒi]	*n* духовенство, клир
cloak	[kləuk]	*n* 1) плащ; мантия 2) покров 3) предлог; маска, личина
cockfighting	[´kɔkˌfaitiŋ]	*n* петушиный бой
coercion	[kəu´ə:ʃən]	*n* принуждение, насилие *C. Act, C. Bill* закон о приостановке конституционных гарантий
comptroller	[kəm´trəulə]	*n* контролёр; ревизор; инспектор
condemned	[kən´demd]	*a* осужденный; приговорённый
consort	[´kɔnsɔ:t]	*n* супруг(а) (особ. о королевской семье); Prince C. Принц-консорт, супруг царствующей королевы (не являющийся сам королём)
countenance	[´kauntinəns]	*n* 1) выражение лица; лицо 2) спокойствие, самообладание 3) сочувственный взгляд; проявление сочувствия; моральная поддержка, поощрение
currency	[´kʌrənsi]	*n* 1) денежное обращение 2) валюта, деньги

cyning	[ˊkuniŋ]	*n* граф, король
	D	
dawn	[d ɔ:n]	*n* 1) рассвет, утренняя заря 2) зачатки, начало, проблески
decompose	[ˌdi:kəmˊpəuz]	*v* 1) разлагаться на составные части 2) разлагаться, гнить 3) растворять(ся) 4) анализировать (причины, мотивы и т.п.)
depose	[diˊpəuz]	*v* 1) смещать (с должности); свергать (с престола) 2) *юр.* свидетельствовать, давать показания под присягой
devout	[diˊvaut]	*a* 1) благоговейный; набожный, благочестивый 2) искренний; преданный
disband	[disˊbænd]	*v* 1) распускать 2) *воен.* расформировывать 3) разбегаться, рассеиваться
discerning	[diˊsə:niŋ]	*a* 1) умеющий различать, распознавать 2) проницательный
dissimulate	[diˊsimjuleit]	*v* 1) скрывать (чувства и т.п.) 2) симулировать; притворяться, лицемерить
dissolution	[ˌdisəˊlu:ʃən]	*n* 1) расторжение (договора, брака); отмена 2) роспуск, закрытие (парламента и т.п.)
dowager	[ˊdauədʒə]	*n* вдова (высокопоставленного лица)
	E	

earthenware	[ˊə: Θənwɛə]	*n* 1) глиняная посуда, гончарные изделия; керамика 2) глина 3) attr. глиняный
ecclesiastical	[iˌkli:ziˊæstikəl]	*a* духовный; церковный
eject	[i(:)ˊdʒekt]	*v* 1) изгонять; лишить должности 2) выселять 3) извергать, выбрасывать; выпускать (дым и т.п.)
elector	[iˊlektə]	*n* избиратель; выборщик
electress	[iˊlektris]	*n* 1) избирательница 2) женщина-выборщик 3) *ист*. жена курфюстра, курфюстрина
embodiment	[imˊbɔdimənt]	*n* 1) воплощение 2) объединение, слияние
enclosure	[inˊkləuʒə]	*n* 1) огороженное место 2) ограждение, ограда 3) отгораживание 4) вложение, приложение 5) *ист*. огораживание общинных земель (в Англии)
espouse	[isˊpauz]	*v* поддерживать (идею и т.п.); отдаваться (какому-л. делу)
evoke	[iˊvəuk]	*v* вызывать (воспоминание, восхищение и т.п.)
exacerbate	[eksˊæsə(:)beit]	*v* 1) обострять, усиливать 2) раздражать, ожесточать
excess	[ikˊses]	*n* 1) избыток, излишек; 2) (обыкн. pl) эксцесс; крайность 3) неумеренность
exert	[igˊzə:t]	*v* 1) напрягать (силы) 2) оказывать давление; влиять
exploit	[ˊeksplɔit]	*n* подвиг

	F	
feeble	[´fi:bl]	*a* 1) слабый 2) немощный, хилый 3) ничтожный
ferry	[´feri]	*n* 1) перевоз, переправа 2) паром 3) регулярная (военная) авиатранспортная служба *v* 1) перевозить (на лодке, пароме) 20 доставлять по воздуху
fidelity	[fi´deliti]	*n* верность, преданность
foil	[fɔil]	*v* расстраивать планы; срывать (что-л.)
	G	
gag	[gæg]	*v* 1) вставлять кляп, затыкать рот 2) заставить замолчать; не давать говорить
galliard	[´gæljəd]	*n* старинный итальянский и французский танец
garner	[´ga:nə]	*v* ссыпать зерно в амбар; складывать в амбар, запасать
garter	[´ga:tə]	*n* подвязка
gentry	[´dʒəntri]	*n* джентри, нетитулованное мелкопоместное дворянство
girder	[´gə:də]	*n* балка; брус; перекладина
	H	
haddock	[´hædək]	*n* пикша (рыба)
halibut	[´hælibət]	*n* зоол. белокорый палтус
harbor	[´ha:bə]	*n* 1) гавань, порт 2) убежище, прибежище
haul	[hɔ:l]	*n* 1) тяга, волочение 2) перевозка; ездка 3) улов 4) трофей
haunt	[hɔ:nt]	*n* 1) часто посещаемое, любимое место 2) убежище, логовище
helmet	[´helmit]	*n* шлем, каска

herald	[ˊherəld]	*v* 1) возвещать, объявлять 2) предвещать
hereditary	[hiˊreditəri]	*a* 1) наследственный 2) традиционный (в данной семье)
Highlander	[ˊhailəndə]	*n* 1) шотландский горец 2) солдат шотландского полка
homilist	[ˊhɔmilist]	*n* 1) проповедник 2) составитель проповедей
		
illuminate	[iˊlju:mineit]	*v* 1) освещать, озарять 2) устраивать иллюминацию 3) украшать рукопись цветными рисунками; раскрашивать 4) просвещать 5) проливать свет, разъяснять
impartial	[imˊpa:ʃəl]	*a* беспристрастный, справедливый; непредвзятый
inconclusive	[inˊklu:siv]	*a* включающий в себя, содержащий
intervene	[ˌintə(:)ˊvi:n]	*v* 1) вмешиваться; вступаться (in) 2) происходить, иметь место 3) явиться помехой, помешать
		
jeopardy	[ˊdʒepədi]	*n* опасность, риск
Jewry	[ˊdʒuəri]	*n* 1) евреи 2) еврейство
joust	[dʒaust]	*v* биться на поединке или турнире
		
lamprey	[ˊlæmpri]	*n* минога

laud	[lɔ:d]	*v* хвалить, прославлять, превозносить
launch	[lɔ:ntʃ]	*v* 1) бросать, метать 2) спускать судно на воду 3) начинать, пускать в ход, предпринимать
lavish	[ˊlæviʃ]	*a* 1) щедрый; расточительный 2) обильный; чрезмерный
layman	[ˊleimən]	*n* 1) мирянин 2) непрофессионал; неспециалист
legitimist	[liˊdʒitimist]	*n* легитимист
lime	[laim]	I *n* известь II *n* бот. лайм настоящий III *n* липа
limelight	[ˊlaimlait]	*n* 1) друммондов свет (применяется для освещения сцены); свет рампы 2) часть сцены у рампы to be in the ~ быть в центре внимания; быть на виду
locale	[ləuˊka:l]	*n* место действия
longshanks	[ˊlɔŋʃæks]	*n* Эдуард Длинноногий (прозвище Эдуарда I)
loot	[lu:t]	*n* 1) добыча; награбленное 2) ограбление
low-key	[ˌləuˊki:]	*a* сдержанный; неброский
lush	[lʌʃ]	*a* сочный, буйный, пышный (о растительности)
	M	
mackerel	[ˊmækr(ə)l]	*n* зоол. скумбрия, макрель
martial	[ˊma:ʃəl]	*a* 1) военный 2) воинственный
meticulous	[miˊtikjuləs]	*a* 1) мелочный; дотошный; тщательный 2) щепетильный
misentreat	[misˊinˊtri:t]	*v* не умолять, вымаливать, упрашивать

O		
oarsman	[ˊɔ:zmən]	*n* гребец
overindulge	[ˊouv(ə)rinˊdʌldʒ]	*v* 1) чрезмерно баловать 2) чрезмерно увлекаться; злоупотреблять
P		
pandemic	[pænˊdemik]	*n мед.* пандемия
paramount	[ˊpærəmaunt]	*a* 1) верховный; высший 2) первостепенный
pauper	[ˊpɔ:pə]	*n* 1) бедняк, нищий 2) живущий на пособие по бедности
pedigreed	[ˊpedigri:d]	*a* породистый
penance	[ˊpenəns]	*n* наказание, кара
Phoenician	[fiˊniʃən]	*n* финикиянин; финикиянка
pious	[ˊpaiəs]	*a* 1) набожный, благочестивый; религиозный 2) ханжеский
plunge	[plʌndʒ]	*v* 1) нырять 2) окунать(ся); погружать(ся) 3) бросаться, врываться 4) ввергать
porphyria	[ˊpɔ:fi(ə)riə]	*n* мед. порфирия; порфииновая болезнь
portly	[ˊpɔ:tli]	*a* 1) полный, дородный, тучный 2) представительный; осанистый
prevalent	[ˊprevələnt]	*a* 1) (широко) распространенный 2) *редк.* преобладающий; превалирующий
probity	[ˊprəubiti]	*n* честность; неподкупность
prow	[prau]	*n* 1) нос (судна, корабля) 2) поэт. корабль, чёлн
punitive	[ˊpju:nitiv]	*a* карательный
R		
racy	[ˊreisi]	*a* 1) яркий, живой, колоритный, сочный (о речи, стиле) 2) характерный, специфический

		3) острый, пикантный
rank-and-file	[ˊræŋkəndˊfail]	*n* рядовой и сержантский состав армии; рядовые члены (партии и т.п.); обыкновенные люди, масса
ravage	[ˊrævidʒ]	*v* опустошать
realignment	[ˌri:əˊlainmənt]	*n* перестройка
regicide	[ˊredʒisaid]	*n* 1) цареубийство 2) цареубийца
redoubt	[riˊdaut]	*n воен.* редут
regent	[ˊri: dʒənt]	*n* регент
regnant	[ˊregnənt]	*a* 1) царствующий 2) преобладающий; широко распространенный
rekindle	[riˊkindl]	*v* разжечь (*тж. перен.*)
repeal	[riˊpi:l]	*v* аннулировать, отменять (закон)
resume	[riˊzju:m]	*v* 1) возобновлять, продолжать 2) получать, брать обратно 3) подводить итог
reticent	[ˊretisənt]	*a* 1) сдержанный 2) скрытый 3) умалчивающий (о чем-л.)
revere	[riˊviə]	*v* уважать; почиатать, чтить; благоговеть
rower	[ˊrəuə]	*n* гребец
rump	[ˊrʌmp]	*n* 1) крестец; огузок 2) (the R.) ист. «охвостье», остатки Долгого Парламента
	S	
sanctuary	[ˊsæŋktjuəri]	*n* 1. святилище 2. убежище
self-reliance	[ˊselfriˊlaiəns]	*n* уверенность в своих силах
sentile	[ˊsentl]	*a* слабоумный
sepulcher	[ˊsepəlkə]	*n* могила, гробница; склеп
sever	[ˊsevə]	*v* разъединять, отделять, разлучать

shire	[´ʃaiə]	*n уст*. графство
shrine	[ʃrain]	*n* 1. ра́ка; гробница, усыпальница 2. место поклонения, святыня *v* 1. заключать в ра́ку 2. благоговейно хранить
slide (slid)	[slaid]	*v* 1) скользить 2) незаметно проходить мимо; красться 3) незаметно переходить из одного состояния в другое
sober	[´soubə]	*a* умеренный, рассудительный, здравомыслящий
sole	[soul]	*n зоол* 1) морской язык 2) камбала; палтус
sprig	[sprig]	*n* 1) веточка, побег 2) узор в виде веточки 3) молодой человек, юноша *v* украшать узором в виде веточек
squabble	[´skwɔbl]	*v* вздорить, пререкаться из-за пустяков
stained	[steind]	*a* 1) испачканный, в пятнах 2) запятнанный, опозоренный 3) окрашенный, подкрашенный
stamp	[stæmp]	*v* 1) запечатлевать(ся); отражать(ся) 2) характеризовать 3) топать ногой
stanza	[´stænzə]	*n прос*. строфа, станс
stile	[stail]	*n* 1) ступеньки для перехлда через забор или стену; перелаз 2) турникет
subservient	[səb´ sə:vjənt]	*a* 1) подчиненный 2) раболепный
surge	[´sə: dʒ]	*n* большая волна
sustained	[səs´teind]	*a* длительный, непрерывный

swagger	[ˊswægə]	*n* 1) чванливая и самодовольная манера держаться 2) развязность *v* 1) важничать; чваниться *a разг.* щегольский, нарядный, шикарный
swashbuckler	[ˊswɔʃˌbʌklə]	*n* 1) головорез; хулиган 2) хвастун
sway	[swei]	*v* 1) качать(ся), колебать(ся) 2) иметь влияние (на кого-л., что-л.); склонять (кого-л. к чему-л.)
swayed	[sweid]	*a* поддающийся влиянию
swelly	[ˊsweli]	*n* бурлящее опасное место
tabloid	[ˊtæblɔ:d]	*n* 1) малоформатная газета со сжатым текстом 2) бульварная газета 3) резюме, конспект, краткий обзор
thatched	[Θætʃd]	*a* соломенный, тростниковый
thrive	[ˊΘraiv]	*v* 1) процветать, преуспевать 2) буйно, пышно расти, разрастаться
torment	[tɔ:ˊment]	*v* 1) мучить; причинять боль 2) досаждать, изводить, раздражать
treason	[ˊtri:zn]	*n* 1) измена, предательство 2) государственная измена
trident	[ˊtraidənt]	*n* трезубец
tulle	[tju:l]	*n* тюль
tumultuous	[tju(:)ˊmʌltjuəs]	*a* 1) беспорядочный 2) шумный, буйный 3) недисциплинированный 4) возбужденный
turf	[tə:f]	*n* дёрн
unrest	[ˊʌnˊrest]	*n* 1) беспокойство, волнение

		2) беспорядки, волнения
usurp	[ju:ˊzə:p]	*v* узурпировать, незаконно захватывать
vault	[vɔlt]	*n* 1) свод 2) подвал, погреб, склеп (со сводом)
venerable	[ˊvenərəbl]	*a* 1) почтенный 2) церк. преподобный (как титул) 3) древний, освященный веками
vendor	[ˊvendɔ:]	*n* продавец; торговец, продающий товар вразнос
vest	[vest]	*v* 1) облекать 2) переходить (об имуществе, наследстве и т.п.) 3) наделять (имуществом и т.п.)
vested	[ˊvested]	*a* 1) облачённый 2) законный, принадлежащий по праву
virulence	[ˊviruləns]	*n* ядовитость, опасность, злобность
wag	[wæg]	*n* 1) шутник 2) *разг.* прогульщик; бездельник, лентяй
wretch	[retʃ]	*n* несчастный
wretched	[ˊretʃid]	*a* 1) несчастный, жалкий 2) никуда не годный, никудышный, плохой

QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED

1. In what age did the life on the British Isles begin?
2. What did the Iberian tribes bring with them?
3. What is the most famous prehistoric monument?
4. In what period did the large stone circles of Stonehenge appear? What was the use of them?
5. How did Celts change the life of the Iberians?
6. Who are the Beaker Folk? Where did they come from? When? What is their contribution to the development of Britain?
7. Who were the further settlers?
8. What was the succession of invasions on the British Isles?
9. What traces of each invasion may be found nowadays? How did each invasion change Britain?
10. When was the beginning of the Roman invasion? Was it successful?
11. When was the second Roman invasion? What was the result of it?
12. When did Julius Caesar raid the country?
13. What was after Caesar's departure?
14. When did the real Roman invasion take place?
15. How much time did it take the Romans to conquer Britain?
16. Did the Romans succeed in conquering Wales, Scotland and Ireland?
17. What did the Romans build to protect their land?
18. What can you say about Hadrian's Wall?
19. When did Rome withdraw its last legion from the British Isles?
20. What were the consequences of the Roman invasion?
21. What were the words of Latin origin?
22. Who were the third invaders? Where did they come from? When?
23. What was the positive influence of these pagan tribes?
24. Did the Anglo-Saxons have the written language?
25. What were the words of Anglo-Saxon origin?
26. When and how was Christianity introduced on the British Isles?
27. Who was the first Christian king in Britain?
28. Who was the first archbishop of Canterbury?
29. Where did the Danes come from? Under what names were they known in other countries?

30. When did the Danes come to settle down in the land?
31. What was Alfred the Great famous for?
32. What was the main source of information about Anglo-Saxon England?
33. When was the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle begun? What was the purpose of it?
34. What words of German origin do you know?
35. Where was Danelaw situated? When and why did the Danegeld appear?
36. When did the Danish king Canute (Cnute) become the ruler of the country? Who ruled the country after him?
37. When did the line of Danish kings come to an end?
38. What words of Scandinavian origin do you know?
39. Who became the ruler of Britain in 1042?
40. What events followed the death of Edward the Confessor?
41. What were the results of the Battle of Hastings?
42. Who were the last invaders of Britain?
43. Who was the king of England from 1066 to 1087?
44. What was William the Conqueror famous for?
45. What was the Doomsday Book?
46. Who got the English throne after the death of William the Conqueror? What was the succession of kings after William I, the Conqueror, till 1154? What were they famous for?
47. When did Crusades begin?
48. What were the words of French origin?
49. What dynasty began to rule in 1154?
50. What new legal system appeared?
51. Who ruled England from 1189 to 1199?
52. Did Richard the Lion Heart care much about the domestic affairs of Britain?
53. How did he spend all his life?
54. When was Magna Carta designed? What did it mean? What did it include?
55. What was actually the first Parliament of England? What names is it connected with? Who defeated Simon de Montfort in 1265?
56. When did Edward I succeed to the throne?
57. What were the causes, main battles and the results of the Hundred Years' War?
58. What were the causes, events and results of the peasants' uprising of Wat Tyler?
59. What were the causes, events and results of the War of the Roses? When and by whom was the name "the War of the Roses" introduced?

60. What was the succession of kings after the House of Plantagenet?
61. What events of historical value happened during the Tudors' reign?
62. What events happened during the Reformation? Why were the monasteries dissolved?
63. What do you know about British Renaissance?
64. What were the consequences of the dissolution of the monasteries?
65. Describe English colonial expansion in the 16th century. What were the causes of the Anglo-Spanish conflict?
66. What was the historical background in England at the beginning of the 17n century on the eve of the bourgeois revolution?
67. What dynasty came to the throne after Elizabeth's death?
68. What were the main problems between James I, Charles I and Parliament?
69. What were the events that culminated in the period of the Long and Short Parliaments? What did they lead to?
70. Give the account of the Civil War.
71. Describe the Commonwealth and Protectorate Governments.
72. What were the main events, which led to the Restoration of monarchy?
73. What were the main developments in the Restoration period, which led to the gradual establishment of the constitutional monarchy?
74. What events are known as the Glorious Revolution?
75. What were the main three parliamentary Acts?
76. What are the main sources of the British Constitution?
77. Who were the Tories and the Whigs? Give the origin of their names.
78. What did the Act of 1688-89 change in Great Britain?
79. How was the Act of Union with Scotland established? (1707) What were the results of this Act?
80. When did Hanover Dynasty come to the throne
81. What were the origin, nature and phases of the Industrial Revolution? What were the consequences of it?
82. What were the causes, chief events and the results of the War of Independences?
83. Describe Britain's participation in the wars against France.
84. What colonial gains did England make as a result of the Congress of Vienna?
85. What are the six points of the Petition of1837which became known as the Charter?
86. What period of the British history is known as the Victorian Age?
87. What were the ruling dynasties in the 20th century?
88. What were the most important reforms in the beginning of the 20th century?
89. What was the role of Britain in the World War I?

90. When was the Labour Party formed?
91. When was the first Labour government formed?
92. How did the royal family act during the war?
93. What were the consequences of WWII for Britain?
94. What were the policies of the Thatcher government?
95. Name the prime-ministers from 1973 up to now?
96. What party is in power at present?
97. Who is the present Queen? What are her official titles?
98. Can you name the members of the present day Royal Family?

APPENDIX

HISTORICAL TIME EXPRESSIONS

Years

1666 = sixteen sixty-six
1705 = seventeen-oh-five
1800 = eighteen hundred
1914 = nineteen fourteen
2000 = the year two thousand
2006 = two thousand and six

Note: We don't say twenty-oh-six for 2006

Decades

the 1790s = the seventeen-nineties
the 1910s = the nineteen-tens
the '90s = the nineties
For someone living today,
the '90s or 'the nineties' = the 1990s

Note: We don't use an apostrophe before the final 's' with decades

Early Dates

700 BC = seven hundred BC (before the Birth of Jesus Christ)
400 AD = four hundred AD (after Jesus died)

Note: AD is short for Anno Domini in Latin. It means 'In the Year of Our Lord'

Centuries

1500-1599 = the sixteenth century
1700s = the seventeen hundreds
the 20th century = the twentieth century
the 21st century = the twenty-first century
With centuries, we always look forward from a date to the next hundred:
1607 = the start of the seventeenth century
1350 = the middle of the fourteenth century
the 1280s = the end of the thirteenth century

Kings' and Queens' Names

For rulers we use Roman numbers:

Elizabeth I = Elizabeth the First
Elizabeth II = Elizabeth the Second
George III = George the Third
George IV = George the Fourth
George V = George the Fifth
Edward VI = Edward the Sixth
Edward VII = Edward the Seventh
Edward VIII = Edward the Eighth

TIMELINE OF BRITISH HISTORY

2000 – 600 BC: The Iberians, Stonehenge
600 BC – 43 AD: The Iron Age, the Celts, pagans, druids
55 BC: Londinium, Julius Caesar's expeditions to Britain
43 AD: Roman emperor Claudius invades Britain
50 AD: the Romans found Londinium in Britain
80 AD: the Romans invade Caledonia (Scotland)
122: Hadrian's Wall is built along the northern frontier to protect from the Barbarians
314 AD: British bishops are summoned to the council of Arles
350: the missionary Ninian establishes the church Candida Casa at Whithorn in Galloway, Scotland
410 AD: the Romans withdraw from Britain, and Britain disintegrates in clans of Celts (Britons, Angles, Picts, Scots) as well as Germanic people (Angles, Saxons, Jutes, etc)
450: Saxons invade England, while the rest is split among Welsh kingdoms of Rheged, Gododdin and Strathclyde
450: the Saxon invasion prompts Roman-British inhabitants of Britain to migrate to northern France (Brittany)
455: the Saxon leader Hengist takes over the kingdom of Kent and founds their capital at Canterbury
476: the Saxon leader Aelle founds the kingdom of Sussex (South Saxons)
503: most Scots leave Ireland and build the kingdom of Dalriada in Argyll on the west coast of Scotland
532: the Saxon Cerdic founds the kingdom of Wessex (West Saxons)
540: the monk Gildas writes the "De Excidio Britanniae"
544: Ciaran founds the monastery of Clonmacnoise in Ireland
550: the Saxon kingdoms of East Saxons (Essex) and Middle Saxons (Middlesex) are established
563: the Irish monk Columbanus founds the monastery of Iona off the coast of Scotland, soon to become the main center of the Columban school
590: England is divided among several kingdoms (Kent, Northumbria, Mercia, Wessex, etc)
597: Pope Gregory I dispatches Augustine to England with forty monks
600: Taliesin and Aneirin write poems in old Welsh in Strathclyde
601: Augustine converts king Ethelbert of Kent and establishes the see of Canterbury with himself as its first archbishop
601: king Aethelbert of Kent promulgates the first English code of law
627: Pope Gregory I sends the Italian monk Paulinus to found the see of York and convert king Edwin of Northumbria
633: during the reign of the Saxon king Oswald conversion of Northumbria is completed
635: Cynegils, king of Wessex, converts to Christianity
635: Iona bishop Aidan founds a monastic community in the island of Lindisfarne off the coast of Scotland
664: the synod of Whitby brings the Celtic (English) church into conformity with Rome
664: Iona monk Wilfrid is appointed bishop of York
668: the monk Theodore of Tarsus is appointed archbishop of Canterbury
670: the Anglosaxons convert to Christianity
674: Benedict Biscop founds the monastery of Wearmouth in Northumbria

681: Benedict Biscop, a native Anglosaxon, founds the monastery of Jarrow in Northumbria
685: king Ine of Wessex conquers Sussex, Devon and Cornwall
685: the defeat of king Ecgfrid ends the domination of Northumbria over England
687: the Vikings (Danes) destroy the monastery of Whitbey in England
690: English missionary Willibrord evangelizes in Holland and Denmark
731: Bede of Jarrow (Northumbria) writes the "Ecclesiastical History of the English People"
757: the kingdom of Mercia dominates England under king Offa
793: Vikings (Danes) raid the monastery of Lindisfarne and destroy the monastery of Jarrow
825: the Saxon king Egbert III of Wessex conquers Kent and Mercia, thus reigning over all of England
830: "Historia Brittonum" by Nennius
831: Vikings (Norse) invade Ireland and found Dublin
834: Vikings (Danes) raid England
843: Kenneth MacAlpin unites the Scots and Picts in Scotland
865: the Vikings (Danes) invade East Anglia
867: the Vikings (Danes) under Ivarr the Boneless establish a kingdom in York, Northumbria
871: Alfred becomes king of Wessex
878: Wessex king Alfred defeats the Vikings (Danes)
896: Alfred occupies London and pushes the Danes outside Wessex and Mercia to the north of England
899: Alfred's son Edward becomes king of Wessex
900: The "Beowulf" is written
910: Alfred's son Edward defeats the Danes and annexes to Wessex every town south of the river Humber
924: Edward's son Aethelstan becomes king of Wessex
927: Wessex king Aethelstan conquers most of England, except the five boroughs of Leicester, Lincoln, Nottingham, Derby and Stamford
937: Aethelstan defeats the Danes at the battle of Brunanburgh and establishes the kindgom of England
959: Edgar the Peaceful becomes the first king of a united England
968: Brian Boru expels the Vikings from Ireland
1000: 7 million people live in France, 7 million in Iberia, 5 million in Italy, 4 million in Germany, 2 million in Britain
1005: Malcolm II kills Kenneth III and becomes King of Scotlant
1013: the Danish chieftain Svend Forkbeard (Svend I) invades England
1016: the Danish king Canute (Knut) II defeats the Wessex king Edmund at the battle of Alney and annexes Mercia
1017: Edmund of Wessex dies and Canute annexes Wessex
1017: Canute converts to christianity
1028: Canute, already king of England and Denmark, conquers Norway
1034: king Duncan of Strathclyde conquers most of Scotland
1035: Canute dies, leaving Denmark and England to Hardacnut and Norway to Swein
1040: MacBeth kills Duncan and becomes King of Scotlant
1042: Hardacnut dies suddenly and Edward the Confessor, heir to both Wessex and Mercia, regains the throne of England to the Anglosaxons
1065: Westminster Abbey is inaugurated

1066: Edward the Confessor dies, leaving no Saxon heir, the Norwigian Harald III Harraade invades northern England and is defeated and killed at the battle of Stamford Bridge by Harold Godwinson of England, who is in turn defeated at the battle of Hastings by William of Normandy (the Conqueror), who thus ends the Anglo-Saxon rule of England and unites England and Normandy
1070: Lanfranc, an Italian lawyer, becomes Archbishop of Canterbury, establishing the primacy of the see of Canterbury over York
1072: William I the Conqueror invades Scotland
1078: William I orders the construction of the Tower of London
1086: the "Domesday Book" is compiled for taxation purposes
1087: William I the Conqueror dies and is succeeded as king of England by his son William II Rufus, while his other son Robert becomes duke of Normandy
1100: William Rufus is assassinated and is succeeded by Henry I, son of William the Conqueror, who fights with Pope Pasquale II on the issue of lay investiture (the king elects the bishops)
1107: the Concordat of London finds a compromise between Henry I and Pope Pasquale II on the issue of lay investiture (the king elects the bishops)
1106: Henry I defeats and captures his brother Robert, duke of Normandy
1113: the order of St John is founded
1114: Matilda, daughter of king Henry I of England, marries emperor Heinrich V
1124: David becomes King of Scotland and extends his reign
1129: emperor Heinrich V dies and empress Matilda marries Geoffrey the Handsome, Count of Anjou
1130: Geoffrey of Monmouth creates the myth of Arthur
1139: Matilda claims the throne of England
1141: Matilda is briefly queen of England before being usurped of the throne
1153: Henry of Anjou, son of Matilda and husband of Eleanor of Aquitaine, invades England,
1154: Henry II Plantagenet is crowned king of England, establishing the Plantagenet dynasty over England, Burgundy and Aquitaine
1154: an Englishman is elected Pope Adrian IV
1164: Henry II's constituion of Clarendon limits the authority of the Pope over English matters
1176: Henry II establishes the "common law" of England
1189: Richard I "Coeur de Lion", son of Henry II, becomes king of England and continues the rule of the Plantagenets
1189: the third Crusade is led by king Richard of England, king Philippe Auguste II of France, and emperor Friedrich Barbarossa
1194: King Richard the Lion-Hearted of England, taken prisoner upon the return from the Crusades, ackowledges hiself king Philippe Auguste II's vassal, thus losing all French possessions of the Plantagenets
1199: John Lackland, son of Henry II, becomes king of England
1200: the Jews are expelled from England
1203: Philippe Auguste II of France conquers Normandy and expels the English
1209: Cambridge University is founded
1214: pope Innocent III, the claimant Friedrich II and French king Philippe Auguste defeat German emperor Otto IV and English king John at the battle of Bouvines, and Friedrich II ascends to the throne of Germany
1215: king John I Lackland is forced by the English barons to sign the "Magna Carta", a constitution that grants rights to the nobility, the clergy and the townspeople

1216: Henry III becomes king of England
1265: Simon de Montfort, leader of the barons, summons popular representatives to Parliament
1272: Edward I becomes king of England
1283: the first mechanical clock in the world is installed in an English monastery (Dunstable)
1284: Edward I annexes Wales
1290: Edward I expells all Jews from England
1295: Edward I inaugurates the first representative parliament, the "Model Parliament", which features bishops, abbots, peers, knights and town representatives
1296: Edward I of England annexes Scotland
1306: Scottish king Robert Bruce rebels to the English
1307: Edward II becomes king of England
1314: Robert Bruce defeats Edward II at the battle of Bannockburn and regains Scotland's independence
1327: Edward II is deposed by the parliament and replaced with his son Edward III
1328: Charles IV, the last Capetian king of France dies, his daughter Jeanne is disqualified from occupying the French throne, and Edward III of England claims the French throne, whereas the French nobility chooses Philip of Valois
1333: Edward III invades Scotland
1334: the first gunpowder is manufactured in England
1337: Philippe VI of France and Edward III of England go to war over France ("Hundred Years' War")
1340: English knights and burgesses join in the House of Commons
1346: superior weaponry and strategy allows Edward III's much smaller English army of 16,000 to defeat Philip VI's larger French army of 80,000 at the Battle of Crecy in northern France during the "Hundred Years' War", thus accelerating the shift from knights on horseback to fire power
1348: the plague ("Black Death") reaches England (1.5 people will die, out of a population of 4 million)
1356: England captures the French king and one third of France at the battle of Poitiers
1364: Charles V liberates France from England
1371: Robert II, grandson of Robert Bruce, establishes the Stuart line on the Scottish throne
1381: the Oxford theologian John Wyclif denies that the substance of bread and wine are miraculously changed during the Eucharist
1381: Popular riots erupt against a new tax (the "Great Revolt")
1394: Richard II invades Ireland
1399: Henry Bollingbroke, the son of the richest man (John of Gaunt) overthrows Richard II and becomes king Henry IV
1401: Henry IV issues a statute legalizing the persecution of "heretics" (mainly Lollards)
1413: Henry V succeeds his father to the throne of England
1415: Henry V of England allies with Burgundy, defeats the French at the battle of Agincourt, takes prisoner the duke of Orleans and proceeds to reconquer Normandy from France
1420: England seizes northern France
1422: Henry VI becomes king of England
1429: the French army, led by Jeanne d'Arc, triumphs at Orleans
1431: the English burn Jeanne d'Arc at the stakes

1431: Henry VI of England is crowned king of France in Paris
1450: Jack Cade's popular rebellion of peasants and workers against taxes and oppression
1452: Henry VI of England goes mad
1453: France expels the English (end of the "Hundred Years' War" with English defeat)
1455: The royal houses of York and Lancaster fight a civil war ("War of the Roses") to succeed the mad Henry VI
1461: Edward IV of York deposes Henry VI Lancaster and lets Richard Neville run the country on his behalf
1471: Edward IV defeats Margaret of Anjou while both the renegade Richard Neville and Henry VI are murdered by his men
1483: Edward IV dies and his brother Richard becomes regent for the infant princes, but then crowns himself as Richard III and murdering both of Edward IV's children
1485: Henry VII Tudor of Lancaster, supported by Charles VIII of France, defeats and kills Richard III of York, ending the Yorkist dynasty and inaugurating the Tudor dynasty on the throne of England
1486: Henry VII marries Elizabeth of York, thus uniting houses of York and Lancaster
1496: the Italian explorer John Cabot sails from England to Canada (thinking he has reached Asia) on behalf of the king of England
1497: John Cabot discovers Newfoundland
1497: Henry VII defeats the last pretender to the throne and restores peace to the kingdom
1509: Henry VIII becomes king of England
1518: Thomas More publishes "Utopia"
1529: Henry VIII accepts the Protestant Reformation
1533: Henry VIII marries Anne Boleyn and is excommunicated by Pope Clement VII
1534: Henry VIII declares himself supreme head of the Church of England
1535: Thomas More is beheaded in Tower of London for refusing to submit to Henry VIII
1536: Henry VIII directs the dissolution of the English monasteries under the direction of Thomas Cromwell
1540: Thomas Cromwell is executed
1544: Henry VIII and emperor Karl V invade France
1553: Mary I, daughter of Henry VIII and Catherine of Aragon, becomes queen of England and returns England to Catholicism, while hundreds of Protestants are burned at the stakes
1558: Elizabeth I, daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn, becomes queen of England and England becomes Protestant again and Catholics are persecuted
1563: The Anglican Church is officially founded (on predestination and thr redeeming power of faith alone)
1567: Mary Stuart of Scotland is deposed and her son James VI becomes king of Scotland
1576: the first British theater opens in London
1580: Francis Drake sails around the world
1586: Francis Drake sails to the West Indies
1587: England executes Mary Stuart, former queen of Scotland and heir to the English throne, the for conspiring against queen Elizabeth I
1587: Francis Drake destroys the Spanish fleet at Cadiz
1588: Philip II of Spain declares war against Elizabeth I of England to protect Spanish possessions in America from English buccaneers, but the Spanish Armada is defeated

by the English fleet of Francis Drake
1592: the British Parliament defines the statute mile as 8 furlongs, 80 chains, 320 rods, 1760 yards or 5280 feet
1599: the East India Company is established
1601: James Lancaster leads the first British cargo to the East Indies (the trip takes 14 months one way) and establishes a British factory at Bantam
1603: James VI of Scotland becomes king James I of England
1607: John Smith founds the colony of Virginia
1609: England conquers the Bermudas in America
1614: the Scottish mathematician John Napier coins the word "logarithm" and publishes the first logarithmic table
1618: after the "Defenestration of Prague", England enters the "Thirty Years' War" against the Habsburg empire
1620: English pilgrims aboard the "Mayflower" land at Plymouth Rock on Cape Cod, Massachusetts
1620: Francis Bacon publishes the "Novum Organon" to argue that truth should be found via empirical observation
1621: Thomas Archer publishes the first periodical pamphlet (predecessor of the newspaper)
1625: Charles I, King of England (to 1649); Charles I marries Henrietta Maria, sister of Louis XIII of France; dissolves Parliament which fails to vote him money
1628: John Felton assassinates George Villiers, the duke of Buckingham
1630: England signs peace treaties with France and Spain and abandons the "Thirty Years' War"
1642: a civil war opposes king Charles I and the Parliament
1645: Oliver Cromwell's New Model Army defeats king Charles I
1648: the "Peace of Westphalia" ends the Thirty Years' War
1649: Cromwell crushes a Catholic uprising in Ireland
1649: the Diggers promulgate a vision of a society free from private property and commerce
1649: Charles I is executed and Cromwell declares the Commonwealth (the monarchy is suspended)
1651: Cromwell defeats Scotland
1651: Thomas Hobbes publishes the "Leviathan"
1653: When the parliament fails to approve reforms by one vote, Cromwell aboliushes parliament and has himself nominated Lord Protector of England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland
1655: Britain conquers Jamaica from Spain
1658: Oliver Cromwell dies
1659: England and France defeat Spain
1660: Charles II resumes the monarchy (end of the Commonwealth)
1662: Founding of the Royal Society of Science
1664: England seizes New Amsterdam from the Dutch and changes its name to New York
1665: the plague reaches London
1666: the fire of London burns the oldest part of the city, including St Paul's cathedral
1666: Isaac Newton develops calculus
1668: England, Netherlands and Sweden form the "Triple Alliance" against France
1670: Hudson's Bay Company is founded
1675: the Royal Observatory opens at Greenwich

1677: William III, king of the Netherlands, marries Mary, heir to the English throne
1679: petitioners ("Whigs") call for a new Parliament while royalists ("Tories") side with king Charles II
1685: Charles II dies and his Catholic brother James II becomes king of England and of Scotland
1687: James II issues the "Declaration of Liberty of Conscience" but favors Catholicism and insists on the divine rights of the royalty
1687: Isaac Newton publishes the "Philosophiae Naturalis Principia Mathematica"
1688: England (mainly the Protestants) rise up against James II the Catholic king and drive him into exile ("English revolution"), while William III of Orange is invited to replace him with a constitutional monarchy and the king subject to the laws of the Parliament ("Glorious Revolution")
1689: The Parliament issues the "Bill of Rights", thus establishing a constitutional monarchy under William III
1689: France invades Germany's League of Augsburg and starts the Eight-year War (England, Netherlands, Austria, Spain and Savoy ally with Germany), the beginning of a century of war between France and Britain
1690: the philosopher John Locke publishes "Two Treatises of Government" and founds "liberalism" (people have rights, government has the duty to protect their rights, three branches of government for "checks and balances", separation of church and state, rule of the majority)
1690: the British found Calcutta in India
1694: the Bank of England is founded
1695: the "Liberty of Unlicensed Printing" removes government control from the press (freedom of the press)
1697: the treaty of Ryswick ends the Eight-year war (no winner)
1702: king William III forms an alliance between England, the Netherlands and Austria against Spain and France ("War of the Spanish Succession") to defend the archduke Karl of Austria's claim of the Spanish throne against king Philip II of Spain
1702: William III dies and is succeeded by his sister-in-law Anne Stuart
1704: England captures Gibraltar from Spain
1707: the kingdoms of England and Scotland are formally united in Great Britain (Queen Anne Stuart becomes the first ruler of Great Britain)
1709: the Copyright Act shifts ownership from printers to authors
1711: Joseph Addison and Richard Steele found the "Spectator", the first magazine
1713: Britain and France sign a peace treaty ("Treaty of Utrecht") that hands most of Canada to Britain and leaves Britain as the dominant in force in north America, while Spain surrenders the Spanish Netherlands (Belgium) and southern Italy to Austria and Gibraltar to Britain
1714: Queen Anne Stuart dies and is succeeded by George I, first king of the Hannover house
1721: Robert Walpole is Britain's first prime minister
1737: an English carpenter, John Harrison, invents the marine chronometer to measure longitude and latitude
1738: John and Charles Wesley found the Methodist movement
1739: Britain and Spain go to war, but Britain fails to occupy Panama, Chile and Colombia
1741: Lewis Paul opens the first cotton mill
1751: by capturing the town of Arcot from the French, Britain becomes the leading colonial power in India

1752: Britain adopts the Gregorian calendar
1756: Britain and Prussia declare war against France, Austria and Russia ("Seven Years' War")
1757: at the battle of Plassey the East India company defeats France and gains access to Bengal
1757: James Watt makes the steam engine practical
1758: Britain attacks French Canada, its first large-scale war of conquest outside Europe
1759: Britain seizes Quebec from France
1759: the British Museum is inaugurated
1763: the treaty of Paris ends the Seven Years' War, with Britain annexing the French possessions of Canada and India
1766: James Christie opens his London auction house, the world's first fine art auctioneer
1768: Philip Astley founds a traveling show of acrobats and jugglers, and launches the revival of the circus
1770: James Cook lands in Australia and claims it for Britain
1770: the Encyclopedia Britannica is published in Edinburgh
1773: American colonists stage an uprising against British rule ("Boston Tea Party")
1773: Warren Hastings, governor of Bengal (India), establishes a monopoly on the sale of opium
1774: Britain assigns Ohio to Quebec/Canada and recognizes Catholicism as the religion of Quebec/Canada
1776: the American colonies ratifies the Declaration of Independence
1776: Adam Smith publishes "The Wealth of the Nations", the manifesto of capitalism
1779: John Wilkinson builds the first cast-iron bridge, the first large cast-iron structure
1780: War erupts between Holland and Britain
1781: a seventh planet, Uranus, is discovered by William Hershel
1783: Britain recognises the independence of the United States of America
1784: The treaty of Paris grants Britain the rights to trade in Indonesia
1785: the "Daily Universal Register" (later "The Times") is founded
1786: William Jones discovers similarities between Sanskrit and Greek and Latin
1787: Robert Peel builds an integrated cotton spinning, weaving and printing factory
1790: at the height of the British slave trade, one slave vessel leaves England for Africa every other day
1791: Thomas Paine publishes "Rights of Man"
1792: Mary Wollstonecraft publishes "Vindication of the Rights of Women"
1793: the first British settlers arrive in Australia
1796: After France invades Holland, Holland surrenders Melaka/Malacca, Sri Lanka and the Cape of Good Hope to Britain
1796: Edward Jenner discovers the principle of vaccination and produces a smallpox vaccine
1798: Malthus publishes the "Essay on Population"
1798: admiral Horatio Nelson defeats the French navy at Aboukir Bay in Egypt
1800: Ireland is formally united to England
1801: Britain's population is 10.7 million and London's population is 959,000
1802: a steam-powered coach built by Richard Trevithick successfully completes the journey from Cornwall to London
1802: Britain and France sign the peace of Amiens, recognizing Britain's conquest of French, Dutch and Spanish colonies
1803: Britain declares war on Napoleon

1803: English chemist John Dalton proposes that matter is composed of atoms
1804: Richard Trevithick builds the first locomotive (it rode a track of 16kms in 4 hours, at the speed of 4 km/h)
1805: Horace Nelson is killed in combat but destroys the French and Spanish fleets at the Battle of Trafalgar
1805: Horace Nelson is the first commoner in the history of Britain to be given a state funeral
1807: Britain outlaws the slave trade
1812: the USA declares war on Britain
1813: American ships defeat British ships
1814: British troops storm Washington and burn the Capitol and the White House
1814: George Stephenson builds his first locomotive engine
1814: Britain purchases the Cape Colony in South Africa from Holland and rules over the Boers (descendants of the Dutch colonists)
1815: Andrew Jackson, helped by the French pirate Jean Lafitte, defeats the British army at the battle of New Orleans
1815: Napoleon is defeated at Waterloo
1815: Ceylon is occupied by the British, who ferry Tamil workers from India
1816: Nepal becomes a British protectorate
1819: The "Savannah" completes the first transatlantic crossing by a steamboat
1819: Stamford Raffles buys an island from the sultan of Johore and founds the British settlement of Singapore
1821: Sierra Leone, Gambia and the Gold Coast are combined to form British West Africa
1821: Britain adopts the gold standard
1821: Giovanni Belzoni organizes a display of Egyptian antiquities in London
1822: The first dinosaur fossil is found by Gideon Mantell, the Iguanodon
1823: rugby is invented at Rugby school
1824: Pierce Egan starts the first sporting journal
1824: William Buckland provides the first description of a dinosaur, the Megalosaurus
1825: Britain inaugurates the first public railway in the world (Stockton-Darlington railway)
1826: Malacca, Penang and Singapore join in a British colony
1827: France, Britain and Russia help the Greek uprising against the Ottomans, the fleet of the Ottomans and of Mehemet Ali is sunk at Navarino, and the expansion of Ali's Egyptian empire is halted
1829: George Stephenson builds the first steam locomotive train
1830: the railway Liverpool-Manchester opens using Stephenson's locomotive "Locomotion"
1830: the Whigs come to power
1831: Michael Faraday discovers electromagnetic induction and invents the transformer
Dec 1831: The ship "Beagle" begins a five-year trip to chart the waters of South America carrying biologist Charles Darwin as a guest
1832: the Great Reform Bill grants voting rights to the middle class (but only 1.8% of the adult population is allowed to vote)
1833: Slavery is abolished
1834: Britain abolishes slavery in the Cape colony (South Africa)
1835: Manchester, the most industrial city in the world, has a population of 300,000 and 100,000 people are workers
1836: South Australia becomes a province of the British Empire

1837: Victoria becomes queen of England
1838: the Boers leave the Cape colony, defeat the Zulus at the battle of Blood River and found the Natal colony (the "Great Trek")
1838: the ticket is introduced to ride trains
1838: British troops are defeated in Afghanistan
1839: A Chinese attempt at suppressing the illicit British trade in opium causes the Opium war
1839: the port of Aden in Arabia is occupied by the British
1839: Scottish blacksmith Kirkpatrick Macmillan invents the bicycle
1840: the first postal stamp is introduced (the "black penny")
1841: Russia, Britain, France, Austria and Prussia at the Straits Convention agree to ban all warships from the Ottoman straits, thus confining the southern Russian fleet to the Black Sea
1842: under the Treaty of Nanjing, China cedes the island of Hong Kong to Britain
1843: the first Christmas postcard is printed (in London)
1843: Britain annexes the Natal colony of the Boers in South Africa, and the Boers move again founding the Orange Free State in the interior and the Transvaal in the north
1845: Youstol Dispage Fromscaruffi dies
1845: British policies cause a famine in Ireland that will kill a million people
1845: an eight planet, Neptune, is discovered mathematically by John Adams
1851: gold is discovered in Australia
1851: the first Universal Exhibition is held in London
1851: London's population is 2,363,000
1851: 50% of the British population lives in the countryside
1852: the Royal Observatory introduces a uniform time standard for the whole of Britain
1853: In the Crimean war Britain, France and the Ottoman Empire fight Russia
1855: Joshua Stoddard introduces a steam-powered organ called the "calliope"
1855: Henry Bessemer invents the Bessemer converter for mass-producing steel
1857: Persia surrenders to Britain all rights over Afghanistan
1858: Power on the Indian colony is transferred to the British government
1858: a telegraph wire is laid at the bottom of the ocean between Ireland and Canada
1859: Charles Darwin publishes "The Origin Of Species"
1862: Bahadur Shah II dies, the Mogul dynasty ends and India becomes a British colony
1863: the Salvation Army is founded
1863: the sport of football is inaugurated
1863: the London subway opens
1864: James Clerk Maxwell unifies electricity and magnetism in his equations of the electromagnetic field
1864: all the major power agree at the Geneva convention on rules for the treatment of prisoners of war
1865: William Booth founds the East London Christian Mission (later renamed "Salvation Army")
1867: British North America becomes the Dominion of Canada, a federation of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick
1867: industrial workers are entitled to vote
1868: Benjamin Disraeli (a Jew converted to Christianity) becomes prime minister of Britain
1871: Arthur Sullivan and William Gilbert produce their first operetta
1872: the Ariel, the first high-wheel bicycle (or "ordinary"), is manufactured in Britian

1874: Disreali becomes prime minister
1875: The British government purchases shares in the Suez Canal, borrowing money from the Rothschilds
1876: Disraeli makes queen Victoria empress
1877: Britain occupies South Africa
1877: A tennis tournament is held at Wimbledon for the first time
1879: Zulu warriors armed with spears massacre the British army at the battle of Isandhlwana
1880: Borneo becomes a British protectorate
1882: Britain occupies Egypt
1884: an international "meridian" conference decides to divide the Earth in 24 time zones, starting with Greenwich's meridian
1884: under a new reform 12.1% of the adult population is allowed to vote
1884: agricultural laborers are entitled to vote
1885: Burma becomes a province of British India
1885: the Canadian Pacific railway is completed
1891: 28% of the British population lives in the countryside
1892: Britain tonnage and seatrade exceeds the rest of the world together
1893: New Zealand is the first country to grant women the right to vote
1894: Uganda becomes a protectorate
1895: Lord Kelvin declares that "heavier-than-air flying machines are impossible"
1895: Britain controls two thirds of Chinese foreign trade
1895: "The Empire of India Exhibition" opens in London
1896: the electron is discovered
1897: Joseph-John Thompson discovers that electricity is due to the flow of invisible negatively charged particles called electrons
1897: Marcus Samuel founds the Shell Transport and Trading Company
1898: at the Battle of Omdurman (Sudan) British troops massacre thousands of Sudanese tribesmen
1898: Britain occupies Sudan
1899: Britain invades the republics of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State in South Africa, founded by the Boers (the "Boer war")
1899: general Kitchener creates "concentration camps" in South Africa for the families of the Boer rebels (26,000 prisoners die), while the Boers engage in guerrilla warfare, and defend trenches with long-distance rifles
1900: Arthur Evans discovers the ruins of Knossos, Crete
1901: Queen Victoria dies
1901: Britain's population is 37.1 million
1901: the British colonies of Australia become the Federated Commonwealth of Australia
1901: Nigeria becomes a British protectorate
1902: Japan signs the London treaty with Britain that recognizes Japan's rights in Korea and Britain's rights in China
Mar 1902: Richard Pearse in New Zealand flies his home-made airplane for 91 meters
1903: the suffragette movement (Women's Social and Political Union) is founded
1904: British troops occupy Tibet
1905: Britain apologizes to the Boers of South Africa for the war and grants independence to the Transvaal and the Orange Free State
1906: the Liberal party, representing financiers and entrepreneurs, comes into power
1907: New Zealand becomes a self-governing dominion of the British empire

1907: Britain and Russia negotiate the status of Persia, Tibet and Afghanistan
1908: Britain and Germany engage in a “naval race”
1908: Margaret Murray performs autopsy on an Egyptian mummy
1909: Lloyd George’s reforms tax land to pay for sickness, invalidity and unemployment insurance
1910: Transvaal, Orage Free State, Natal and Cape unite in the Union of South Africa
1911: the New Zealand scientist Ernest Rutherford discovers that the atom is made of a nucleus and orbiting electrons
1911: Britains holds a conference on imperial defense
1911: universal health care is introduced
1911: a Parliament Act weakens the House of Lords
1912: a minimum wage is introduced
1912: The “Titanic” sinks in the Atlantic ocean
1912: Britain and France sign a naval treaty to fend off the threat of the German navy
1914: World War I breaks out in the Balkans, pitting Britain, France, Italy, Russia, Serbia, USA and Japan against Austria, Germany and Turkey
1914: The British government purchases part of Anglo-Persian Oil, only the second time the British government has purchased a private company
1914: Cyprus is annexed by Britain after four centuries of Ottoman rule
1914: end of the British gold standard
1914: Egypt becomes and British protectorate
1914: Britain occupies the German colonies of West Africa
1916: The Lucknow Pact unites the Congress and the League in their fight for independence from Britain
1916: Britain introduces daylight saving time to save energy
1916: Britain and France agree to partition the Middle East
1917: the “Balfour Declaration” by the British government promises a Jewish homeland in Palestine
1917: Edwin-Samuel Montagu is appointed secretary of state for India and champions India's independence
1917: Britain conquers Iraq
1918: Civil war erupts between the Red Army of the Bolsheviks and the Mensheviks (helped by Britain and the USA)
1918: universal male suffrage
1918: Britain conquers Syria and Palestine from the Ottomans
1918: the first world war ends: 2 million Russians, 1.8 million Germans, 1.3 million French, 1.1 million Austro-Hungarians, 0.9 million Britons, 0.6 million Turks and 0.5 million Italians are dead.
1918: At the end of the war the British army has 8.5 people, of which 5.7 are from Britain, 1.4 from India, 630,000 from Canada, 420,000 from Australia, 136,000 from South Africa and 129,000 from New Zealand plus about 300,000 Egyptian, black African and Chinese laborers
1919: the IRA is formed in Ireland to fight British rule
1919: Race riots in Liverpool and Cardiff
1919: British troops massacre 379 peaceful demonstrators in Amritsar (Punjab), the beginning of large-scale riots in India
Nov 1919: Ross Smith flies from England to Australia via Egypt, India and Singapore
1919: Afghanistan gains independence from Britain
1920: Palestine becomes a British protectorate
1920: The airline Qantas is founded to link the settlements of Australia

1920: European countries control almost 90% of the Earth's surface
1920: Arthur Eddington suggests that nuclear fusion fuels the sun
1921: Abdullah, son of Sharif Hussein, establishes the principality of Transjordan under British protectorate
1921: Unemployment reaches 17% in Britain
1921: The indenture system is abolished
1921: 156,000 British citizens rule over 306 million Indian subjects
1921: Ireland becomes independent except for northern Ireland that remains British
1922: Gandhi is imprisoned following terrorist acts against the British
1922: the "British Broadcasting Company" (BBC) begins broadcasting
1922: Egypt declares its independence
1922: Faysal, son of Sharif Hussein, establishes the kingdom of Iraq under British protectorate
1923: Britain recognises Nepal's independence
1924: first Labour government
1924: The British Empire Exhibition is held at Wembley
1925: Edwin Hubble discovers the first galaxy outside the Milky Way (Andromeda), 2 million years away from the Earth
1927: oil fields are discovered near Karkuk in Iraq and king Faysal grants oil rights to the British
1928: universal female suffrage
1928: Scottish biologist Alexander Fleming discovers penicillin, the first antibiotic
1929: the world's stock markets crash
1929: Edwin Hubble discovers that galaxies recede from one another and that the universe is expanding in all directions
1930: Gandhi unleashes "civil disobedience" against the British
1930: Britain, Japan, France, Italy and the USA sign the London Naval Treaty, an agreement to reduce naval warfare
1931: South Africa becomes independent
1931: Canada declares its independence
1931: EMI opens the largest recording studio in the world at Abbey Road in London
1932: Iraq becomes independent under the rule of King Faisal
1932: A regular flight is inaugurated between London and Cape Town (with five stops en route)
1933: King George V broadcasts a speech on the radio to the entire British Empire
1934: whites introduce "apartheid" in South Africa
1934: the Penguin publishing company is founded
1935: Robert Watson-Watt builds the first radar
1936: John Maynard Keynes' "The General Theory of Employment, Interest, and Money" claims that government spending is required to end economic recessions
1936: the "Queen Mary" transatlantic linear travels from Southampton to New York in four days
1938: the IRA carries out the first bombings in Britain
1938: Britain debuts the "Empire Flying Boat", a plane that can carry 18 passengers
1939: England declares war to Hitler's Germany
1940: Germany bombs England and Churchill becomes prime minister
1941: during World War II, Britain and the Soviet Union invade Iran and Reza is forced to abdicate in favor of his son Reza Pahlavi II
1945: Germany surrenders
1945: At the Yalta conference the Soviet Union, Britain and the USA partition Europe

in spheres of influence
1946: Jewish terrorists, led by Menachem Begin, bomb and destroy the King David Hotel in Jerusalem, the British military and civilian headquarters
1946: Churchill delivers in the USA the "Iron Curtain" speech, virtually opening the "Cold War" against the Soviet Union
1946: Transjordan becomes independent
1946: Britain and the Soviet Union withdraw from Iran
1947: India and Pakistan become indepedent
1947: New Zealand becomes an independent country
1947: Dennis Gabor invents the hologram
1948: The Federation of Malaysia is born under British rule
1948: Ceylon becomes independent
1948: Burma becomes independent
1948: Israel becomes independent
1950: the first World Championship for drivers ("Formula One") is held, the first race being the British grand prix on the Silverstone circuit
1952: Elizabeth II becomes queen of Britain
Oct 1952: Britain explodes its first atomic bomb (Trimouille Island)
1953: Francis Crick and James Watson discover the double helix of the DNA
1953: New Zealand's Edmund Hillary and Nepal's Tenzing Norgay are the first explorers to reach the summit of Mount Everest
1954: Anglo-Persian Oil changes name in British Petroleum
1955: Greek Cypriots (EOKA) start fighting for unification with Greece
1955: Britain signs the anti-Soviet Baghdad Pact with Iran, Iraq, Pakistan and Turkey
1956: Britain grants Sudan full independence
Nov 1956: Britain, France and Israel attack Egypt, and the English pound collapses
1957: Malaysia becomes independent
1959: the British Motor Corporation introduces the "Mini"
1960: Cyprus becomes independent under president Makarios
1960: Nigeria becomes independent
1961: Kuwait becomes independent under the protection of Britain
1961: Amnesty International is founded by British lawyer Peter Benenson to promote human rights worldwide
1962: the Beatles debut
1962: Uganda becomes independent
1963: Kenya becomes independent
1963: The British government is rocked by the Profumo scandal
1964: Zambia becomes independent
1965: Rhodesia declares its independence
1965: Mary Quant launches the mini-skirt
1966: Botswana becomes independent
1967: Aden becomes independent
1967: Homosexuality and abortion are legalized
1967: The first "automatic teller machines" is deployed by Barclays Bank
1966: the British withdraw from Aden and marxists take over (South Yemen)
1968: the British withdraw from the Gulf and the United Arab Emirates are created
1969: the IRA begins a campaign of terrorism in Northern Ireland that will kill more than 2.000 people
1969: The "Monty Python's Flying Circus" comedy show debuts on tv
1969: Britain abolishes the death penalty

1971: the first Hard Rock Cafe opens in London
1971: serial killer Harold Shipman begins a killing spree that will kill hundreds of people
1972: The first video-cassette recorder (VCR) is introduced by Phillips
1973: Britain joins the European Union
1975: the first oil is piped ashore from the North Sea
1975: Six economic powers meet in Paris (USA, Japan, Germany, France, Britain and Italy) forming the G6
1976: punk-rock
1976: the supersonic airplane Concorde, built by France and Britain, begins service
Jul 1978: Louise Brown is the first baby born through human in vitro fertilization, a technique invented by Robert Edwards
1979: Margaret Thatcher of the Conservative Party becomes Britain's prime minister and begins a program of privatization
1981: Racial riots at Brixton, London
1981: Lady Diana Spencer marries Prince Charles, heir to the throne
1982: Britain defends the Falkland Islands from an Argentinian invasion
1984: Alec Jeffreys invents the DNA fingerprint that can identify an individual
1985: 39 Italian football fans are killed by British hooligans at the Liverpool stadium
1987: the Montreal Protocol limits the use of substances that damage the ozone layer
1988: Colin Pitchfork becomes the first man to be convicted of murder on the basis of DNA fingerprint evidence
1989: 96 football fans died at the Liverpool stadium
1990: Margaret Thatcher resigns
1990: Mary Robinson is elected the first female President of Ireland
1990: Tim Berners-Lee of CERN invents the Internet protocol HTTP and the hypertext language HTML (i.e., the World Wide Web)
1991: Britain fights alongside the USA against Iraq
1994: the “Chunnel” between Britain and France opens
1996: the “mad cow disease” spreads in Britain and millions of cows have to be slaughtered
1997: Britain cedes Hong Kong back to China
1997: Tony Blair of the Labour Party is elected prime minister, the youngest prime minister since Lord Liverpool in 1812
1997: Joanne Kathleen Rowling publishes the first Harry Potter book, destined to become a world-wide phenomenon
1997: British biologist Ian Wilmut clones a sheep, Dolly.
1997: Lady Diana dies in a mysterious car accident
1998: Britain and northern Ireland agree on a solution for autonomy
1999: Scotland inaugurates its own Parliament
1999: NATO bombs Serbia to stop repression against ethnic Albanians in Kosovo
2000: the serial killer Harold Shipman, a doctor, is sentenced to life in prison for murdering 15 patients while working at a hospital, but is suspected to have killed between 215 and 260 people over a 23-year period, mainly elderly women, by lethal injection.
2000: Youstol Dispage Fromscaruffi dies
2000: Eva Morris dies at 115, the oldest British person of all times
2000: British and American biologists decipher the entire human DNA
2001: Britain fights alongside the USA against Afghanistan
2003: British Airways retires the supersonic jet Concorde

2003: Tony Blair and George W Bush order the invasion of Iraq to depose Saddam Hussein
2003: Tony Blair admits that Saddam Hussein had no weapons of mass destruction (which was the reason to invade Iraq)
2004: manufacturing accounts for only 18% of the British economy
2004: There are 1.8 million Muslims in Britain
2004: the unemployment rate plunges to 4.7%, the lowest in 30 years
2005: the price of oil reaches an all-time record
2005: Tony Blair is reelected and becomes the first Labour politician to be prime minister for three terms
2005: Four Pakistani suicide bombers kill 55 people in London
2005: the IRA (Irish Republican Army) gives up its armed struggle for a united Ireland
2006: Royal Dutch Shell posts the largest profit of any company in British history
2007: explosives-rigged cars are found in London
Jan 2007: Australian hacker Julian Assange launches the website WikiLeaks
2007: Joanne Kathleen Rowling's "Harry Potter" books have sold over 300 million copies worldwide
2007: crash of the stock markets worldwide, triggered by the crisis of USA sub-prime mortgage lenders
2005: Tony Blair resigns and is succeeded by Gordon Brown
2007: Britain has plutonium for 17,000 nuclear bombs
2008: Indian car manufacturer Tata buys Jaguar
2008: The British economy goes into a recession after 16 years of growth
sep 2008: Crash of the stock markets worldwide, triggered by the collapse of USA banks
oct 2008: The British economy shrinks for the first time in 16 years and the pound has its biggest one-day drop against the dollar since 1971 on Oct 24
december 2008: The London stock market loses 31% in 2008, the worst loss in 24 years
december 2008: The population of Britain is 61.4 million, the biggest increase in population in almost 50 years
september 2009: The British stock market posts the best three months in 25 years
may 2010: The Conservatives win elections, ending 13 years of Labour rule, and David Cameron becomes Britain's new prime minister, the youngest since 1812
jun 2010: A gunman kills 12 people in England
nov 2010: Unable to pay its debt, Ireland applies for a loan from the European Union
april 2011: The wedding of Prince William, Duke of Cambridge, and Catherine Middleton

БИБЛИОГРАФИЧЕСКИЙ СПИСОК

1. Bowler B., Thompson L. Timesaver. British History Highlights. Mary Glasgow Magazines.
2. Guryeva Yu. F. Deep Are the Roots: A Concise History of Britain. Обнинск, 1995.
3. Illustrated Encyclopedia of Britain. London: Reader's Digest.
4. Phillips Ch. The illustrated encyclopedia of the kings and queens of Britain. London, 2006.
5. Shakespeare W. Richard II. John of Gaunt's dying speech.
6. Speak Out. Журнал для изучающих английский язык. Москва. – № 2,3, 1997.
7. The Wordsworth Dictionary of British History. Ed. Consultant: J.P. Kenyon. Market House Books Ltd., 1981.
8. The World Book Encyclopedia. Field Enterprises Educational Corporation. London, 1966.
9. Vaugham-Rees M., Byström P., Bateman S. In Britain. Chancerel, издательство «Титул», 1997
10. Александрова А.П.: Федерализм в США. – Орёл, 2009.
11. Александрова А.П., Котова Ю.П. География Великобритании.– Орёл, 2009.
12. Золотова З.Ю. Выпускная квалификационная работа. Лингвострановедческое учебно-справочное пособие по теме: Английские королевские династии с 802 по 2003гг. и их вклад в историческое и культурно-социальное развитие Великобритании.
13. http//: wikipedia.com
14. http//: www.bbc.co.uk
15. http//: www.encyclopedia/Britanica-online.com

СОДЕРЖАНИЕ

Юлия Петровна Котова
Анжелика Паруйровна Александрова

ВЗГЛЯД НА ИСТОРИЮ ВЕЛИКОБРИТАНИИ

Учебное пособие для аудиторной
и самостоятельной работы студентов