HISTORY OF ENGLAND UPTO 1688 A.D

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UNIT I

Roman conquest of Britain

Over 2000 years ago, Britain was home to lots of different tribes of people called the Celts. Although, they didn't call themselves that as the name was given to them centuries later! These tribes all had their own names like the Trinovantes, Silures, and Iceni (once ruled by the legendary Boudicca).

Causes of the Roman conquest of Britain:

The Celts

The Celts were advanced people who farmed the land and learnt how to make weapons from iron. They lived in small settlements of round huts made of straw, mud, and wood. They were also seeking natural resources, such as precious metals, slaves, and farmland. Britain had lots of materials including iron, lead, copper, silver, and gold that the Romans needed to support their growing empire and army.

Although the Celtic tribes fought fiercely, with revolts being led by leaders like Boudicca in 60 AD, they were no match for the Roman army. However, it wasn't all bad, as the Romans did a lot of good things for Britain such as building new towns and good roads to connect them. Here is a list of some of the things that the Romans brought to Britain:

- New towns
- New roads and structures (some Roman roads are still used today)
- New animals and plants
- Central government
- New farming methods
- Taxes
- New methods of counting/measuring
- Coinage
- Different religion
- Aquaducts
- Central heating
- Concrete

Some of the towns that the Romans built are still lived in today. Places like Bath, York, Canterbury, and even London were founded by the Romans. However, life was about to change for Celtic Britain as the Roman army had been steadily building an empire across Europe. Now it had its sights set on conquering Britain!

The first to try was Julius Caesar. He tried to invade Britain in 55 and 54 BC. Caesar wanted to stop the British tribes from supporting the Gauls with weapons and warriors. Caesar was forced to abandon both conquests before they were fully successful due to revolts in Gaul (modern-day France).

In late summer AD 43 the Emperor Claudius' invasion forces land under AulusPlautius. They successfully defeat the British opposition by October; they win a battle, cross the River Medway, then pursue the fleeing Britons north to the Thames. There they fight another battle, succeed in crossing the river Thames, and then fight all the way through to the capital of the Catuvellauni, who are leading the resistance at Camulodunum (modern Colchester). Somewhere between the Thames crossing and their arrival at Camulodunum, Claudius joins Plautius. They reach Camulodunum and the native Britons, led by the Catuvellauni, submit. With all the tribes fighting the Romans at that time surrendering, the province of Britannia is declared.

Interestingly, Claudius brings elephants and camels wit him to shock the native Britons and it succeeds. The deepening political divide in the U.S. and an apparent realignment of the world order through President Trump's foreign policy have prompted many comparisons to the fall of the Roman Empire. But can we really look back at ancient civilisations and draw parallels with those that exist today? And can the lessons of the past really help us to tackle the challenges of the present?

Campaigns of conquest

In AD 43, the province is probably only the southeast of Britain. However, the Romans knew they would have to conquer far more of Britain to make the invasion of this new province worth its huge monetary expense.

So, very quickly, the breakout campaigns begin. Vespasian, for example, conquers the southwest of Britain through to the late AD 40s, founding Exeter, Gloucester, and Cirencester on the way. So, in this campaign the Romans founded Lincoln as a legionary fortress, and later in the conquest of Britain they founded York. The province of Britannia starts expanding, and each governor comes over with a brief from the emperor to expand it further. Dan visits the remarkable Fishbourne Palace and sees first hand why it is one of the greatest Roman sites in Britain.

Agricola in Britain

This reaches its height with three warrior governors: Cerialis, Frontinus, and the great Agricola. Each one of those expands the frontiers of Britain further until Agricola in the late AD 70s and early AD 80s. It is Agricola who campaigns, ultimately, in the far north. It is Agricola who takes the fight of the Romans in their campaign of conquest into what we now call Scotland.

We can make the case that Agricola is the only of the Roman governors who can truly claim to have conquered the whole of the main island of Britain. Because he defeats the Caledonians he's fighting in Scotland at the Battle of Mons Graupius. Agricola also orders the Classis Britannica, which is the regional fleet in Britain, to circumnavigate the whole island of Britain. Domitian, the emperor at the time, orders a monumental arch to be built at the imperial gateway to Roman Britain, at Rich borough, on the east coast of Kent. This was place where the Claudian invasion had originally taken place in AD 43. So the Romans built this structure monumentalising the conquest of Britain. But, sadly, Domitian has a very short attention span and ultimately orders Agricola to evacuate the north and brings him back to Rome.

North and south

The border of Roman Britain, the northernmost frontier in the Roman Empire, settles down to the line of the Solway firth and is itself later monumentalised by Hadrian's Wall. This is why Britain becomes the wild west of the Roman Empire, because the far north is never conquered.

Since it is never conquered, the province of Britain has to have at least 12% of the Roman military establishment in only 4% of the geographic area of the Roman Empire, to maintain the northern border. The south and the east of the province is a full-fat functioning part of the province of Roman Britain, with all the money going into the imperial fiscus (treasury). The north and the west, however, while still being in the province of Britain, has its entire economy bent towards maintaining its military presence.

It's a very grim place, I would argue, to live in during the Roman period because everything is geared towards the presence of the Roman military. So Britain has a very bipolar nature in the Roman period. The ancient Greeks and Romans had many enemies. Yet one of their greatest, most enduring foes were the nomadic Scythians. Join Dan Snow at the British Museum, where he discusses the Scythians and their extraordinary way of life with St John Simpson.

Britain in the Empire

So Britain was different to anywhere else in the Roman Empire. It also obviously lay across Oceanus, the English Channel and the North Sea. It was the wild west of the Roman Empire.

If you're a Roman senator and you want to make your name as a young man and progress your career, you might go to the eastern frontier fighting the Parthians, and later the Sassanid Persians. Or you go to Britain because you can guarantee there's gonna be a punch-up in the North where you can make your name. So Britain, because of this long, never-fulfilled process of conquest is a very different place within the Roman Empire.

The Romans Leave Britain

Evidence of the Romans can still be found in what they left behind. The best example is Hadrian's Wall which was built by Emperor Hadrian in 122 AD. The wall was built to help keep out the northern tribes from the rest of England. It was guarded by 10,000 soldiers and was a great source of income for Rome by taxing any goods passing through the wall.

The Romans left Britain in 410 AD. A lot had changed since the first invasion of Britain and life as a Roman was no longer as good. The Romans left Britain to defend their homeland in Italy which was being attacked by the Germanic Goths and Vandal tribes. Soon after the Romans left Britain the western half of the Roman Empire collapsed in 476 AD.

1. Disruption of Trade Roads fell into disrepair Trade/travel became dangerous due to invasions Loss of common currency led to bartering

2. Downfall of Cities and Population Shifts People fled cities due to attacks Buildings,aqueducts, monuments fell into disrepair Population in the West shifted to rural areas Scholars and people of means moved to Constantinople

3. Decline of learning Lack of a Central Government/Chaos meant that schools closed People forgot how to read and write over generations

4. Loss of a common language People always spoke in local vernacular, but after Rome fell people lost the ability to read and write in Latin (with the exception of the church) This further divides people culturally.

Legacy

- The Roman conquest and occupation of Britain was a turning point in British history. It impacted how the very self-understanding and self-identity of the English later developed.
- Until the Roman conquest, Britain had been a remote off-shore island. It did have contact with the ancient Greek and Roman world through trade but it only after the conquest that it became part of the civilization of the Classic Age. It was the Romans who introduced Christianity thus for centuries it would be through the medium of Latin that learning was acquired.
- Right up until the time that the British established their own Empire, training in the classics of Greek and Roman history and philosophy and literature was a central plank of the education of a gentleman. It was these men, schooled in the classics, who ran the British Empire.
- Comparison and analogy between the British and the Roman Empire was commonplace. Having experienced what life was like as a colony

themselves, arguably, the British might have expressed more sympathy than they did with the aspirations for freedom of their own subject peoples.

- The British, however, consciously emulated many aspects of the Roman Empire. Like the Romans, they saw themselves as spreading civilization, law and order.
- Many of the Roman towns in Britain crumbled away as people went back to living in the countryside. But even after they were gone, the Romans left their mark all over the country. They gave us new towns, plants, animals, a new religion and ways of reading and counting. Even the word 'Britain' came from the Romans.
- Roman law had a significant influence over the modern-day laws of many countries. Legal ideas like trial by jury, civil rights, contracts, personal property, legal wills, and corporations all were influenced by Roman law and the Roman way of looking at things.
- The Romans introduced many fruits and vegetables previously unknown to the Britons, some of which are still part of the modern nation diet: to name a few, asparagus, turnips, peas, garlic, cabbages, celery, onions, leeks, cucumbers, globe artichokes, figs, medlars, sweet chestnuts, cherries and plums were all …
- The calendar we still use today.
- The census – the practice of counting a population.
- High-quality straight roads
- Central heating
- Aqueducts (water bridges)
- Indoor plumbing
- Towns
- Cabbages
- Peas
- Public libraries
- Public noticeboards
- Firemen
- Police
- Stinging nettles
- Cats

- Grapes
- Pears
- Paved streets
- Turnips
- Carrots
- Cement
- Bricks
- Heated baths
- Language (Latin)

This is far from an exhaustive list, but it should give you an idea of the range of different things and ideas brought to Britain by the Romans. When the Romans left Britain, some of the things they introduced continued to be used, and others were forgotten.

Origins

The Germanic peoples (also called Teutonic, Suebian, or Gothic in older literature) are an ethno-linguistic Indo-European group of northern European origin. They are identified by their use of Germanic languages, which diversified out of Proto-Germanic during the Pre-Roman Iron Age.

The term "Germanic" originated in classical times when groups of tribes living in Lower, Upper, and Greater Germania were referred to using this label by Roman scribes. These tribes generally lived to the north and east of the Gauls. They were chronicled by Rome 's historians as having had a critical impact on the course of European history during the Roman-Germanic wars, particularly at the historic Battle of the Teutoburg Forest, where the vanquishment of three Roman legions at the hands of Germanic tribal warriors precipitated the Roman Empire's strategic withdrawal from Magna Germania.

As a linguistic group, modern Germanic peoples include the Afrikaners, Austrians, Danes, Dutch, English, Flemish, Frisians, Germans, Icelanders, Lowland Scots, Norwegians, Swedes, and others (including diaspora populations, such as some groups of European Americans).

Northernmost Europe, in what now constitutes the European plains of Denmark and southern Scandinavia, is where the Germanic peoples most likely originated. This is a region that was "remarkably stable" as far back as the Neolithic Age, when humans first began controlling their environment through the use of agriculture and the domestication of animals. Archeological evidence gives the impression that the Germanic people were becoming more uniform in their culture as early as 750 BCE. As their population grew, the Germanic people migrated westwards into coastal floodplains due to the exhaustion of the soil in their original settlements.

Germanic Tribes

By approximately 250 BCE, additional expansion further southwards into central Europe took place, and five general groups of Germanic people emerged, each employing distinct linguistic dialects but sharing similar language innovations. These five dialects are distinguished as North Germanic in southern Scandinavia; North Sea Germanic in the regions along the North Sea and in the Jutland peninsula, which forms the mainland of Denmark together with the north German state of Schleswig-Holstein; Rhine-Weser Germanic along the middle Rhine and Weser river, which empties into the north Sea near Bremerhaven; Elbe Germanic directly along the middle Elbe river; and East Germanic between the middle of the Oder and Vistula rivers.

Some recognizable trends in the archaeological records exist, as it is known that, generally speaking, western Germanic people, while still migratory, were more geographically settled, whereas the eastern Germanics remained transitory for a longer period. Three settlement patterns and solutions come to the fore; the first being the establishment of an agricultural base in a region that allowed them to support larger populations; the second being that the Germanic peoples periodically cleared forests to extend the range of their pasturage; and the third (and the most frequent occurrence) being that they often emigrated to other areas as they exhausted the immediately available resources.

War and conquest followed as the Germanic people migrated, bringing them into direct conflict with the Celts who were forced to either Germanize or migrate elsewhere as a result. West Germanic people eventually settled in central Europe

and became more accustomed to agriculture, and it is the various western Germanic people that are described by Caesar and Tacitus. Meanwhile, the eastern Germanic people continued their migratory habits. Roman writers characteristically organized and classified people, and it may very well have been deliberate on their part to recognize the tribal distinctions of the various Germanic people so as to pick out known leaders and exploit these differences for their benefit. For the most part however, these early Germanic people shared a basic culture, operated similarly from an economic perspective, and were not nearly as differentiated as the Romans implied. In fact, the Germanic tribes are hard to distinguish from the Celts on many accounts simply based on archaeological records.

Migration Period

During the 5th century, as the Western Roman Empire lost military strength and political cohesion, numerous nomadic Germanic peoples, under pressure from population growth and invading Asian groups, began migrating en masse in various directions, taking them to Great Britain and far south through present-day Continental Europe to the Mediterranean and Northern Africa.

Over time this wandering meant intrusions into other tribal territories, and the ensuing wars for land escalated with the dwindling amount of unoccupied territory. Wandering tribes then began staking out permanent homes as a means of protection. This resulted in fixed settlements from which many tribes, under a powerful leader, expanded outwards.

Ostrogoths, Visigoths, and Lombards made their way into Italy; Vandals, Burgundians, Franks, and Visigoths conquered much of Gaul; Vandals and Visigoths also pushed into Spain, with the Vandals additionally making it into North Africa; and the Alamanni established a strong presence in the middle Rhine and Alps. In Denmark, the Jutes merged with the Danes; and in Sweden, the Geats and Gutes merged with the Swedes. In England, the Angles merged with the Saxons and other groups (notably the Jutes), and absorbed some natives, to form the Anglo-Saxons (later known as the English). Essentially, Roman civilization was overrun by these variants of Germanic peoples during the 5th century.

A map showing the extent of the Germanic Kingdoms and the East Roman Empire. The Germanic Kingdoms and the Eastern Roman Empire in 526 CE

Military

Germanic people were fierce in battle, creating a strong military. Their love of battle was linked to their religious practices and two of their most important gods, Wodan and his son, Thor, both believed to be gods of war. The Germanic idea of warfare was quite different from the pitched battles fought by Rome and Greece, and the Germanic tribes focused on raids to capture resources and secure prestige.

Warriors were strong in battle and had great fighting abilities, making the tribes almost unbeatable. Men began battle training at a young age and were given a shield and a spear upon manhood, illustrating the importance of combat in Germanic life. The loss of the shield or spear meant a loss of honor. The Germanic warrior's intense devotion to his tribe and his chieftain led to many important military victories.

Chieftains were the leaders of clans, and clans were divided into groups by family ties. The earlier Germans elected chieftains, but as time went on it became hereditary. One of the chieftain's jobs was to keep peace in the clans, and he did this by keeping the warriors together and united.

Military chieftains relied upon retinues, a body of followers "retained" by the chieftain. A chieftain's retinue might include, but was not limited to, close relatives. The followers depended on the retinue for military and other services, and in return provided for the retinue's needs and divided with them the spoils of battle. This relationship between a chieftain and his followers became the basis for the more complicated feudal system that developed in medieval Europe.

Major Historical Figures

Political and diplomatic leaders, such as Odoacer and Theoderic the Great, changed the course of history in the late 400s CE and paved the way for later kings and conquerors. Odoacer, a German general, took over the Western Roman Empire in his own name, becoming the first barbarian king of Italy. Theoderic the Great became a barbarian king of Italy after he killed Odoacer. He initiated three decades

of peace between the Ostrogoths and the Romans and united the two Germanic tribes. Theodoric the Great lived as a hostage at the court of Constantinople for many years and learned a great deal about Roman government and military tactics, which served him well when he became the Gothic ruler of a mixed but largely Romanized “barbarian people.”

TEUTONIC PEOPLES, a comprehensive term for those populations of Europe which speak one or other of the various Teutonic languages, viz., the English-speaking inhabitants of the British Isles, the German-speaking inhabitants of Germany, Austria-Hungary and Switzerland, the Flemish-speaking inhabitants of Belgium, the Scandinavian-speaking inhabitants of Sweden and Norway and practically all the inhabitants of Holland and Denmark. To these we have to add small German and Flemish-speaking communities in Italy and France and somewhat larger German and Swedish populations in Russia. Outside Europe we have to include also the very numerous populations in America, Africa, Australasia, &c., which have emigrated from the same countries. The statement that the Teutonic peoples are those which speak Teutonic languages requires a certain amount of qualification on one side. In the British Isles, especially Ireland, there is (in addition to the Celtic-speaking elements) a considerable population which claims Celtic nationality though it uses no language but English; and further all Teutonic communities contain to a greater or less degree certain immigrant (especially Semitic) elements which have adopted the languages of their neighbours

. On the other hand there does not appear to be any considerable population anywhere which claims Teutonic nationality without using a Teutonic language. We know indeed that France, Spain, Italy, &c., contained within historical times large populations which were Teutonic both by origin and by language, but these have now been completely absorbed. Similarly, there is no doubt that the inhabitants of England and of the German-speaking regions of the Continent are descended very largely from peoples which two thousand years ago spoke non Teutonic languages. Yet on the whole the definition given above may be accepted as generally true for the present.

It is to be observed that the term “ Teutonic “ is of scholastic and not of popular origin, and this is true also of the other terms (“ Germanic,” “ Gothic,”

&c.) which are or have been used in the same sense. There is no generic term now in popular use either for the languages or for the peoples, for the reason that their common origin has been forgotten. In Tacitus's time, however, when the area occupied by the Teutonic peoples was, of course, considerably less than now, a consciousness of their relationship to one another was fully retained. He cites native poems which declared that the Inguaeones, Hermiones and Istaeuones – the three main branches of the Germani (see below) – were sprung from three sons of a certain Mannus (perhaps " Man "), who was himself the son of the god Tuisto the son of Earth; and in a Frankish document at least four centuries later we hear again of three brothers named Erminus, Inguo and Istio, from whom many nations were descended. In English documents also we find eponymous national ancestors grouped together in genealogical trees, and there is reason to believe that the common origin of the various Teutonic peoples was remembered to a certain extent until comparatively late in the middle ages.

Spread of Christianity

In the late sixth century, a missionary from Rome was dispatched to England with the mission of bringing Christianity to the Anglo-Saxons. He would go on to become the first Archbishop of Canterbury, create one of the most important abbeys in medieval England, and serve as a catalyst for the country's conversion to Christianity in the process.

To preach Christianity to the Anglo-Saxons, a Roman official was dispatched to England in the late 6th century. He would go on to become the first Archbishop of Canterbury, create one of the most significant abbeys in medieval England, and serve as a catalyst in the country's conversion to Christianity in the process.

Christianity appear in Britain

In what is now England, the first trace of Christian practice dates back to the late second century AD. There may have been Christians in Britain prior to that time, but we are unable to confirm this. Britain at the time of the Romans was a cosmopolitan society.

Did the Romans bring Christianity to the Britain

Roman Britain was a Christian society from at least the third century to the collapse of the Roman imperial rule in the early fifth century, according to historical records. Following the Augustinian mission, the Anglo-Saxons were later converted to Christianity in the seventh century, and the institutional church was re-established.

Christianity evolve in Britain

It all started when Roman artists and dealers arrived in Britain and began spreading the narrative of Jesus, as well as the myths of their own pagan deities, among the local populace. British Christianity grew increasingly prominent throughout the 4th Century, but it had not yet won over the hearts and minds of the people who lived in the country.

Christianity to Rome

In 313 AD, the Emperor Constantine issued the Edict of Milan, which officially recognized Christianity as the official religion of the Roman Empire. Ten years later, Christianity had become the official religion of the Roman Empire.

Britain before Christianity

It was Celtic polytheism/paganism that predominated in Britain until the arrival of the Romans, who introduced Christianity to the country. Druidism was the religion associated with a priestly class known as the druids (who we have all heard so much about, but who we actually know very little about). In the year 315, Emperor Constantine I formally recognized the privileges of the Catholic Church.

Christianity in Roman Britain

The first evidence of Christianity in what is now England is from the late 2nd century AD. (There may have been Christians in Britain before then, we cannot be sure). Roman Britain was a cosmopolitan place. Merchants from all over the empire settled there and soldiers from many countries served there so we will never know who first introduced Christianity to Britain.

At that time the native people were Celts. They were polytheists (they worshiped many gods). The Romans too were polytheists and they were willing to allow the Celts to worship their old gods. However, the Romans were not tolerant of Christianity. At times waves of persecution crossed the empire. St Alban the first British Christian martyr was executed in a town called Verulamium in 304 AD. Much later an abbey was built there dedicated to St Alban and it gave its name to the town of St Albans.

In 313 Emperor Constantine granted Christians freedom of worship. So persecution ended and during the 4th century, Christianity became widespread in England. In 314 three British bishops attended a church council in Arles in France, Eborius bishop of York, Restitutus bishop of London, and Adelius bishop of Caerleon (Gwent). So by that time, there was a flourishing and organised church in England. In Hinton St Mary, Dorset a 4th century mosaic was found with the face of Jesus and the Greek letters chi rho, which stand for christos (Greek for Christ) showing Christianity was a popular religion in England.

England used to be pagan. So, when did Christianity come to England? The official and most common story is that Saint Augustine came in 597 AD on a Pope-sanctioned mission to convert the pagans. This is the date we most commonly associate with the arrival of Christianity in Britain and the eventual conversion of Anglo-Saxons. But the truth is twofold. One, Christianity arrived long before then. And two, there was never an organized attempt to convert the British in the first century AD.

In fact, Christianity came to the British Isles at least three centuries before St Augustine's Vatican-sponsored mission to Christianize the Kingdom of Kent in AD 597. For example, St. Patrick and St. David, the patron saints of Ireland and Wales, lived in the late 5th and early 6th century while St. Alban, the first-recorded British Christian martyr, was martyred for his beliefs in the third century.

So, exactly when did Christianity come to England? It began as a trickle of information when Roman artisans and traders came to Britain and simply told the story of Jesus along with stories of their Pagan deities.

At the time, Christianity wasn't the monolith it is today. It was just one cult among the many that co-existed in that melting pot of people. There was just one key difference between the demands of Christianity and that of other religions. Unlike the Old Religion and other cults, Christianity required the exclusive allegiance of its followers. Anyone who wanted to become a Christian had to forsake the other gods they believed in.

Constantine and Augustine

- The rise of Christianity from a persecuted sect to a global religion is a remarkable story of guts, faith, chance, politics and Providence.
- This article charts the course of Christianity in Britain from its first tentative steps to the final settlement of a Protestant faith.
- In the 1st Century AD, Britain had its own set of religious icons: Pagan gods of the earth and Roman gods of the sky. Into this superstitious and violent world came a modern, fashionable cult from the east: Christianity.
- We tend to associate the arrival of Christianity in Britain with the mission of Augustine in 597 AD. But in fact Christianity arrived long before then, and in the 1st Century AD, there wasn't an organised attempt to convert the British.
- It began when Roman artisans and traders arriving in Britain spread the story of Jesus along with stories of their Pagan deities.
- Christianity was just one cult amongst many, but unlike the cults of Rome, Christianity demanded exclusive allegiance from its followers. It was this intolerance of other gods, and its secrecy, which rattled the Roman authorities and led to repeated persecutions of Christians. Christians were forced to meet and worship in secret.
- But a single religion with a single God appealed to the Roman Emperor Constantine. He saw that Christianity could be harnessed to unite his Empire and achieve military success. From 313 AD onwards, Christian worship was tolerated within the Roman Empire.

- During the 4th Century, British Christianity became more visible but it had not yet won over the hearts and minds of the population. Pagan beliefs still abounded and Christianity was a minority faith.
- It looked as if Paganism might again get the better of Christianity when, after the departure of the Romans, new invaders arrived: Angles, Saxons and Jutes. Yet somehow Christianity survived on the Western edges of Britain, even during the Dark Ages. Missionary activity continued in Wales and Ireland, and in Western Scotland Saint Columba helped to bring a distinctly Irish brand of Christianity to mainland Britain.
- It could be argued that it was Augustine's famous mission in 597 AD from the Pope in Rome to King Aethelbert of Kent that really set up the future course of Christianity in Britain, creating a strong alliance between Christianity and Kingship. Certainly the Venerable Bede wanted to see it this way. For Bede, a Christian England was part of God's master plan. It was Providence that meant it was the destiny of the Anglo-Saxons to become Christians, united in a single Christian nation. But how would this come about?
- In the account of the Synod of Whitby in his Ecclesiastical History of the English People, Bede describes the showdown between the Irish Christianity epitomised by Saint Columba and the international Roman brand of Christianity which had been brought by Augustine.
- Bede ends his Ecclesiastical History bemoaning the laziness of the Anglo-Saxons who he saw as half-hearted Christians still holding onto Pagan practices. An organised and disciplined parish life which would regulate the beliefs and behaviour of the British people was still to mature.

Alfred and the Normans

- Christianity rose from a minor cult to demonstrate the potential to be a major national religion, but had yet to win the hearts and minds of the population.
- The faith had already proved that it was able to survive invasion and attack. But just as Christianity's rise looked to be unstoppable, the Viking invasion of Lindisfarne in 871 AD marked the start of a series of attacks which threatened to destroy the Christian church. Monasteries and churches were

plundered, and priests fled for their lives. It looked as if Paganism would again crush Christianity.

- Once Alfred had secured a victory over the Viking warrior Guthrum at the Battle of Eddington, he set about creating a new system of Christian learning that would reach the illiterate country people. It was Alfred's hope that this would enable Christianity to begin to capture the imagination of the ordinary people.
- In the 10th Century, lords began to provide small chapels on their land where local people could use the services of a priest. This sowed the seeds of the parish system, still in existence today.
- It was the Norman Conquest that really cemented the power of the church in England. William the Conqueror implemented a colossal building project at both monastic and parish level. In Winchester, for example, the old Saxon Minster made way for a new Norman building. These new stone churches continued to play a central role in community life: they acted as schools, market places and entertainment venues.
- The medieval period in Britain is really a story of how Christianity came to dominate the lives of the ordinary people, both at home and on the long and perilous journeys of pilgrimage.
- But it would be wrong to think of medieval Christians as devout church-goers who flocked to church every Sunday. Professor Ronald Hutton of Bristol University suggests that on average people would go to church just a few times a year, when there was a real spectacle to take part in.
- But even those who weren't regular churchgoers could not escape regulation by the Church. As Dr Sarah Foot of Sheffield University explains, you could argue that Christianity had an impact on "every single aspect of every member of the population's lives". Indeed "the Church regulated lives by controlling what people did during the day and what they did in bed".
- From the cradle to the grave, and every stage in between, the Church could be your ally or your foe, and ultimately your passport to heaven or hell.

Golden age of An Anglo- Saxon:

The history of the Anglo-Saxons is the history of a cultural identity. It developed from divergent groups in association with the people's adoption of Christianity, and was integral to the establishment of various kingdoms. Threatened by extended Danish invasions and occupation of eastern England, this identity persevered; it dominated until after the Norman Conquest.

Anglo-Saxon History

The early Anglo-Saxon period covers the period of medieval Britain that starts from the end of Roman rule. By the year 400, southern Britain—Britain below Hadrian's Wall—was a peripheral part of the Western Roman Empire, occasionally lost to rebellion or invasion, but until then always eventually recovered. Around 410, Britain slipped beyond direct imperial control into a phase which has generally been termed "sub-Roman."

In the second half of the 6th century, four structures contributed to the development of Anglo-Saxon society: the position and freedoms of the ceorl (peasants), the smaller tribal areas coalescing into larger kingdoms, the elite developing from warriors to kings, and Irish monasticism developing under Finnian.

In 565, Columba, a monk from Ireland who studied at the monastic school of Moville under Saint Finnian, reached Iona as a self-imposed exile. The influence of the monastery of Iona would grow into what Peter Brown has described as an "unusually extensive spiritual empire," which "stretched from western Scotland deep to the southwest into the heart of Ireland and, to the southeast, it reached down throughout northern Britain, through the influence of its sister monastery Lindisfarne." Michael Drout calls this period the "Golden Age," when learning flourished with a renaissance in classical knowledge.

By 660 the political map of Lowland Britain had developed, with smaller territories coalescing into kingdoms; from this time larger kingdoms started dominating the smaller kingdoms. The establishment of kingdoms, with a particular king being recognized as an overlord, developed out of an early loose structure. Simon Keynes suggests that the 8th century–9th century was period of

economic and social flourishing that created stability both below the Thames and above the Humber. However, between the Humber and Thames, one political entity, the kingdom of Mercia, grew in influence and power and attracted attention in the East.

Alfred the Great

Childhood

Alfred was born sometime between 847 and 849 at Wantage in the present-day ceremonial county of Oxfordshire (though historically speaking in the historic county of Berkshire). He was the fifth and youngest son of King Ethelwulf of Wessex, by his first wife, Osburga. King Alfred was the son of king Ethelwulf, who was the son of Egbert, who was the son of Elmund, was the son of Eafa, who was the son of Eoppa. The Life of King Alfred

At five years of age, Alfred is said to have been sent to Rome where, according to the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, he was confirmed by Pope Leo IV who "anointed him as king." Victorian writers interpreted this as an anticipatory coronation in preparation for his ultimate succession to the throne of Wessex. However, this coronation could not have been foreseen at the time, since Alfred had three living elder brothers. A letter of Leo IV shows that Alfred was made a 'consul' a misinterpretation of this investiture, deliberate or accidental, could explain later confusion. It may also be based on Alfred later having accompanied his father on a pilgrimage to Rome and spending some time at the court of Charles the Bald, King of the Franks, around 854– 855. In 858, Ethelwulf died and Wessex was ruled by three of Alfred's brothers in succession.

Asser tells the story about how as a child Alfred's mother offered a volume of Anglo Saxon poetry to the first of her children able to memorize it. This story may be true, or it may be a myth designed to illustrate the young Alfred's love of learning.

Royal prince and military commander

During the short reigns of his two eldest brothers, Ethelbald and Ethelbert, Alfred is not mentioned. However, with the accession of the third brother, Ethelred I, in 866, the public life of Alfred began. It is during this period that Asser applies

to him the unique title of ‘secundarius,’ which may indicate a position akin to that of the Celtic tanist, a recognized successor closely associated with the reigning monarch. It is possible that this arrangement was sanctioned by the Witenagemot, to guard against the danger of a disputed succession should Ethelred fall in battle. The arrangement of crowning a successor as diarch is well-known among Germanic tribes, such as the Swedes and Franks, with whom the Anglo-Saxons had close ties.

In 868, Alfred, fighting beside his brother Ethelred, unsuccessfully attempted to keep the invading Danes out of the adjoining kingdom of Mercia. For nearly two years, Wessex itself was spared attacks. However, at the end of 870, the Danes arrived in his home land. The year that followed has been called “Alfred’s year of battles”. Nine general engagements were fought with varying fortunes, though the place and date of two of the battles have not been recorded. In Berkshire, a successful skirmish at the Battle of Englefield, on 31 December 870, was followed by a severe defeat at the Siege and Battle of Reading, on 5 January 871, and then, four days later, a brilliant victory at the Battle of Ashdown on the Berkshire Downs, possibly near Compton or Aldworth. Alfred is particularly credited with the success of this latter conflict. However, later that month, on 22 January, the English were again defeated at Basing and, on the following 22 March at ‘Merton’ (perhaps Marden in Wiltshire or Martin in Dorset). Two unidentified battles may also have occurred in between.

King of war

In April 871, King Ethelred died, most probably from wounds received at the Battle of Merton. Alfred succeeded to the throne of Wessex and the burden of its defence, despite the fact that Ethelred left two young sons. Although contemporary turmoil meant the accession of Alfred — an adult with military experience and patronage resources — over his nephews went unchallenged, he remained obliged to secure their property rights. While he was busy with the burial ceremonies for his brother, the Danes defeated the English in his absence at an unnamed spot, and then again in his presence at Wilton in May. Following this, peace was made and, for the next five years, the Danes were occupied in other parts of England. However, in 876, under their new leader, Guthrum, the enemy slipped past the English army and attacked Wareham in Dorset. From there, early

in 877, and under the pretext of talks, they moved westwards and took Exeter in Devon. There, Alfred blockaded them and, a relieving fleet having been scattered by a storm, the Danes were forced to submit. They withdrew to Mercia, but, in January 878, made a sudden attack on Chippenham, a royal stronghold in which Alfred had been staying over Christmas, "and most of the people they reduced, except the King Alfred, and he with a little band made his way by wood and swamp, and after Easter he made a fort at Athelney, and from that fort kept fighting against the foe" (Anglo-Saxon Chronicle).

Statue of Alfred the Great at Winchester

A popular legend tells how, when he first fled to the Somerset Levels, Alfred was given shelter by a peasant woman who, unaware of his identity, left him to watch some cakes she had left cooking on the fire. Preoccupied with the problems of his kingdom, Alfred accidentally let the cakes burn and was taken to task by the woman upon her return. Upon realizing the king's identity, the woman apologised profusely, but Alfred insisted that he was the one who needed to apologise. From his fort at Athelney, a marshy island near North Petherton, Alfred was able to mount an effective resistance movement while rallying the local militia from Somerset, Wiltshire and Hampshire.

Another story relates how Alfred disguised himself as a minstrel in order to gain entry to Guthrum's camp and discover his plans. This supposedly led to the Battle of Edington, near Westbury in Wiltshire. The result was a decisive victory for Alfred. The Danes submitted and, according to Asser, Guthrum, and twenty-nine of his chief men, received baptism when they signed the Treaty of Wedmore. As a result, England became split in two: the south-western half kept by the Saxons and the north-eastern half including London, thence known as the Danelaw, by the Vikings. By the following year (879), not only Wessex, but also Mercia, west of Watling Street, was cleared of the invaders.

The tide had turned. For the next few years there was peace, the Danes being kept busy in Europe. A landing in Kent in 884 or 885 close to Plucks Gutter, though successfully repelled, encouraged the East Anglian Danes to rise up. The measures taken by Alfred to repress this uprising culminated in the taking of London in 885 or 886, and an agreement was reached between Alfred and

Guthrum, known as the Treaty of Alfred and Guthrum. Once more, for a time, there was a lull, but in the autumn of 892 or 893, the Danes attacked again. Finding their position in Europe somewhat precarious, they crossed to England in 330 ships in two divisions. They entrenched themselves, the larger body at Appledore, Kent, and the lesser, under Haesten, at Milton also in Kent. The invaders brought their wives and children with them, indicating a meaningful attempt at conquest and colonization. Alfred, in 893 or 894, took up a position from where he could observe both forces. While he was in talks with Haesten, the Danes at Appledore broke out and struck north-westwards. They were overtaken by Alfred's eldest son, Edward, and defeated in a general engagement at Farnham in Surrey. They were obliged to take refuge on an island in the Hertfordshire Colne, where they were blockaded and ultimately compelled to submit. The force fell back on Essex and, after suffering another defeat at Benfleet, coalesced with Haesten's force at Shoebury.

Alfred had been on his way to relieve his son at Thorney when he heard that the Northumbrian and East Anglian Danes were besieging Exeter and an unnamed stronghold on the North Devon shore. Alfred at once hurried westward and raised the Siege of Exeter. The fate of the other place is not recorded. Meanwhile the force under Haesten set out to march up the Thames Valley, possibly with the idea of assisting their friends in the west. But they were met by a large force under the three great ealdormen of Mercia, Wiltshire and Somerset, and made to head off to the north-west, being finally overtaken and blockaded at Buttington. Some identify this with ButtingtonTump at the mouth of the Wye River, others with Buttington near Welshpool. An attempt to break through the English lines was defeated. Those who escaped retreated to Shoebury.

Then after collecting reinforcements they made a sudden dash across England and occupied the ruined Roman walls of Chester. The English did not attempt a winter blockade, but contented themselves with destroying all the supplies in the neighbourhood. Early in 894 (or 895), want of food obliged the Danes to retire once more to Essex. At the end of this year and early in 895 (or 896), the Danes drew their ships up the Thames and Lea and fortified themselves twenty miles above London. A direct attack on the Danish lines failed, but later in the year, Alfred saw a means of obstructing the river so as to prevent the egress of the Danish ships. The Danes realised that they were out-manoeuvred. They struck

off north-westwards and wintered at Bridgenorth. The next year, 896 (or 897), they gave up the struggle. Some retired to Northumbria, some to East Anglia. Those who had no connections in England withdrew to the Continent. The long campaign was over.'..

Reorganization

After the dispersal of the Danish invaders, Alfred turned his attention to the increase of the royal navy, partly to repress the ravages of the Northumbrian and East Anglian Danes on the coasts of Wessex, partly to prevent the landing of fresh invaders. This is not, as often asserted, the beginning of the English navy. There had been earlier naval operations under Alfred. One naval engagement was certainly fought under Aethelwulf in 851, and earlier ones, possibly in 833 and 840. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, however, does credit Alfred with the construction of a new type of ship, built according to the king's own designs, "swifter, steadier and also higher/more responsive (hierran) than the others". However, these new ships do not seem to have been a great success, as we hear of them grounding in action and foundering in a storm. Nevertheless both the Royal Navy and the United States Navy claim Alfred as the founder of their traditions. The first vessel ever commissioned into the Continental Navy, precursor to the United States Navy, was named the Alfred.

Alfred's main fighting force, the fyrd, was separated into two, "so that there was always half at home and half out" (Anglo-Saxon Chronicle). The level of organisation required to mobilise his large army in two shifts, of which one was feeding the other, must have been considerable. The complexity which Alfred's administration had attained by 892 is demonstrated by a reasonably reliable charter whose witness list includes a thesaurius, cellararius and pincerna—treasurer, food-keeper and butler. Despite the irritation which Alfred must have felt in 893, when one division, which had "completed their call-up (stemn)", gave up the siege of a Danish army just as Alfred was moving to relieve them, this system seems to have worked remarkably well on the whole.

One of the weaknesses of pre-Alfrediandefences had been that, in the absence of a standing army, fortresses were largely left unoccupied, making it very possible for a Viking force to quickly secure a strong strategic position. Alfred

substantially upgraded the state of the defences of Wessex, by erecting fortified burhs (or boroughs) throughout the kingdom. During the systematic excavation of at least four of these (at Wareham, Cricklade, Lydford and Wallingford]) it has been demonstrated that "in every case the rampart associated by the excavators with the borough of the Alfredian period was the primary defence on the site" (Brooks). The obligations for the upkeep and defence of these and many other sites, with permanent garrisons, are further documented in surviving transcripts of the administrative manuscript known as the BurghalHidage. Dating from, at least, within 20 years of Alfred's death, if not actually from his reign, it almost certainly reflects Alfredian policy. Comparison of town plans for Wallingford and Wareham with that of Winchester, shows "that they were laid out in the same scheme" (Wormald). Thus supporting the proposition that these newly established burhs were also planned as centres of habitation and trade as well as a place of safety in moments of immediate danger. Thereafter, the English population and its wealth was drawn into such towns where it was not only safer from Viking soldiers, but also taxable by the King.

Alfred is thus credited with a significant degree of civil reorganization, especially in the districts ravaged by the Danes. Even if one rejects the thesis crediting the 'BurghalHidage' to Alfred, what is undeniable is that, in the parts of Mercia acquired by Alfred from the Vikings, the shire system seems now to have been introduced for the first time. This is probably what prompted the legend that Alfred was the inventor of shires, hundreds and tithings. Alfred's care for the administration of justice is testified both by history and legend; and he has gained the popular title 'protector of the poor'. Of the actions of the Witangemot, we do not hear very much under Alfred. He was certainly anxious to respect its rights, but both the circumstances of the time and the character of the king would have tended to throw more power into his hands. The legislation of Alfred probably belongs to the later part of the reign, after the pressure of the Danes had relaxed. He also paid attention to the country's finances, though details are lacking.

Foreign relations

Asser speaks grandiosely of Alfred's relations with foreign powers, but little definite information is available. His interest in foreign countries is shown by the insertions which he made in his translation of Orosius. He certainly corresponded

with Elias III, the Patriarch of Jerusalem, and possibly sent a mission to India. Contact was also made with the Caliph in Baghdad. Embassies to Rome conveying the English alms to the Pope were fairly frequent. Around 890, Wulfstan of Haithabu undertook a journey from Haithabu on Jutland along the Baltic Sea to the Prussian trading town of Truso. Alfred ensured he reported to him details of his trip.

Alfred's relations to the Celtic princes in the western half of Britain are clearer. Comparatively early in his reign, according to Asser, the southern Welsh princes, owing to the pressure on them of North Wales and Mercia, commended themselves to Alfred. Later in the reign the North Welsh followed their example, and the latter co-operated with the English in the campaign of 893 (or 894). That Alfred sent alms to Irish as well as to European monasteries may be taken on Asser's authority. The visit of the three pilgrim 'Scots' (i.e., Irish) to Alfred in 891 is undoubtedly authentic. The story that he himself in his childhood was sent to Ireland to be healed by Saint Modwenna, though mythical, may show Alfred's interest in that island.

Law: Code of Alfred, Doom book

Alfred the Great's most enduring work was his legal Code, reconciling the long established laws of the Christian kingdoms of Kent, Mercia and Wessex. These formed Alfred's ''Deemings'' or Book of ''Dooms'' (Book of Laws). See: Doom book or the Code of Alfred. Sir Winston Churchill observed that Alfred blended these with the Mosaic Code, the Christian principles of Celto-Brythonic Law and old Germanic customs. Lee, F. N. traced the parallels between Alfred's Code and the Mosaic Code. Churchill stated that Alfred's Code was amplified by his successors and grew into the body of Customary Law administered by the Shire and The Hundred Courts. This led to the Charter of Liberties, Henry AD 1000. The Norman kings then undertook to respect this body of law under that title the "Laws of Edward the Confessor". Out of this emerged the Common Law which was re-confirmed in the Magna Carta of AD 1215.

Religion and culture

The history of the Church under Alfred is most obscure. The Danish inroads had tolled heavily upon it. The monasteries had been especial points of attack and,

though Alfred founded two or three monasteries and brought foreign monks to England, there was no general revival of monasticism under him. To the ruin of learning and education wrought by the Danes, and the practical extinction of the knowledge of Latin even among the clergy, the preface to Alfred's translation into Old English of Pope Gregory's Pastoral Care bears eloquent if not impartial witness. It was to remedy these evils that he established a court school, after the example of Charlemagne; for this he imported scholars like Grimbald and John the Saxon from Europe and Asser from South Wales; for this, above all, he put himself to school, and made the series of translations for the instruction of his clergy and people, most of which yet survive. These belong unquestionably to the later part of his reign, likely to the last four years, during which the chronicles are almost silent.

Apart from the lost Handboc or Encheiridion, which seems to have been merely a commonplace book kept by the king, the earliest work to be translated was the Dialogues of Gregory, a book greatly popular in the middle Ages. In this case the translation was made by Alfred's great friend Werferth, Bishop of Worcester, the king merely furnishing a foreword. The next work to be undertaken was Gregory's Pastoral Care, especially for the good of the parish clergy. In this Alfred keeps very close to his original; but the introduction which he prefixed to it is one of the most interesting documents of the reign, or indeed of English history. The next two works taken in hand were historical, the Universal History of Orosius and Bede's Ecclesiastical History of the English People. The priority should likely be given to the Orosius, but the point has been much debated. In the Orosius, by omissions and additions, Alfred so remodels his original as to produce an almost new work; in the Bede the author's text is closely stuck to, no additions being made, though most of the documents and some other less interesting matters are omitted. Of late years doubts have been raised as to Alfred's authorship of the Bede translation. But the sceptics cannot be regarded as having proved their point.

The last of Alfred's works is one to which he gave the name Blostman, i.e., "Blooms" or Anthology. The first half is based mainly on the Soliloquies of St Augustine of Hippo, the remainder is drawn from various sources, and contains much that is Alfred's own and highly characteristic of him. The last words of it may be quoted; they form a fitting epitaph for the noblest of English kings. "Therefore he seems to me a very foolish man, and truly wretched, who will not

increase his understanding while he is in the world, and ever wish and long to reach that endless life where all shall be made clear."

Beside these works of Alfred's, the Saxon Chronicle almost certainly, and a Saxon Martyrology, of which fragments only exist, probably owe their inspiration to him. A prose version of the first fifty Psalms has been attributed to him; and the attribution, though not proved, is perfectly possible. Additionally, Alfred appears as a character in The Owl and the Nightingale, where his wisdom and skill with proverbs is attested. Additionally, The Proverbs of Alfred, which exists for us in a 13th century manuscript, contains sayings that very likely have their origins partly with the king.

` The Alfred jewel, discovered in Somerset in 1693, has long been associated with King Alfred because of its Old English inscription "AELFRED MEC HEHT GEWYRCAN" (Alfred Ordered Me To Be Made). This relic, of unknown use, certainly dates from Alfred's reign but it is possibly just one of several that once existed. The inscription does little to clarify the identity of the central figure which has long been believed to depict God or Christ.

Family

In 868, Alfred married Ealhswith, daughter of AethelredMucill, who is called Ealdorman of the Gaini, the people from the Gainsborough region of Lincolnshire. She appears to have been the maternal granddaughter of a King of Mercia. They had five or six children together, including Edward the Elder, who succeeded his father as King of Wessex; Ethelfleda, who would become Queen of Mercia in her own right, and Aelfthryth (alias Elfrida) who married Baldwin II, Count of Flanders.

Every monarch of England and subsequently every monarch of Great Britain and the United Kingdom, with the exception of Canute, Harold Harefoot, Harthacanute, William the Conqueror (who married Alfred's great-granddaughter Matilda) and his adversary Harold II, down to and including Queen Elizabeth II (and her own descendants) is directly descended from Alfred.

Death and burial

Alfred died on 26 October 899. The actual year is not certain, but it was not necessarily 901 as stated in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. How he died is unknown. He was originally buried temporarily in the Old Minster in Winchester, and then moved to the New Minster (perhaps built especially to receive his body). When the New Minster moved to Hyde, a little north of the city, in 1110, the monks transferred to Hyde Abbey along with Alfred's body. His grave was apparently excavated during the building of a new prison in 1788 and the bones scattered. However, bones found on a similar site in the 1860s were also declared to be Alfred's and later buried in Hyde churchyard. Extensive excavations in 1999, revealed his grave-cut but no bodily remains.

English on the eve of Norman invasion:

Edward the Confessor

The last but one of the Anglo-Saxon kings of England, Edward was known for his religious faith (he is known as 'the Confessor' because of his life was characterised by piety and religious belief). Although England was quiet and relatively prosperous during his reign, his failure to leave an heir led to the Norman invasion of England in 1066.

About Edward:

- Edward was the son of King Ethelred the Unready and his wife Queen Emma. He had a brother, Alfred, and a sister, Godgifu, and many half-brothers.
- In 1013 the Danes invaded England and Edward and his family escaped to Normandy. His mother, Emma, was a Norman and daughter of the Duke of Normandy.
- Edward spent almost twenty-five years in Normandy and when he became King many of his closest advisors were Normans.
- Although Edward was the King of England, much of the power rested in the hands of three Saxon Earls: Leofric of Mercia, Siward of Northumbria and Godwin of Wessex. Edward's favouritism towards his Norman companions upset the Anglo-Saxon Earls.
- Edward disliked the most powerful of the Earls, Earl Godwin, because of the role Godwin had played in the death of Edward's brother Alfred.

- In 1051 there was a fight between a group of Edward's Norman friends and the people of Dover. Edward asked Earl Godwin to punish the local people. Godwin refused and had to go into exile. Support for the Godwin family was high and when he returned to England a year later there was little Edward could do.
- Edward was married to Earl Godwin's daughter Edith but did not wish to have children with her.
- The English throne was not hereditary and the power to appoint new kings lay with the witan, a group of royal advisors. Edward had no right to promise the throne to anyone.
- Edward is said to have promised Duke William of Normandy the throne but then, on his deathbed, may have signaled that he accepted Harold Godwinson's claim.
- Edward was known for his religious faith and people believed that he could cure the sick simply by touching them. This form of healing is called the king's touch. After his death the Catholic Church made Edward a saint.

The establishment of Norman rule over England:

King William I's greatest concern immediately after his decisive victory at Hastings was to ensure he could consolidate power over all of England. The young Edgar Atheling, who was briefly crowned king after King Harold II's death, surrendered to William along with the Archbishop of Canterbury Stigand. This meant that the south of England was secure, but William was faced with the problem of asserting his authority over a foreign population.

William assert his authority

We all know something about the 1066 battle of Hastings, but the man who probably should have been king is almost forgotten to history. Edward 'the Confessor', the saintly English king, had died childless in 1066, leaving the English ruling council of leading nobles and spiritual leaders (the Witan) with a big problem. They knew that Edward's cousin Duke William of Normandy had a powerful claim to the throne, which he would certainly back with armed force. William was a ruthless and skilled soldier, but the young man who had the best claim to the English throne, Edgar the 'Aetheling' (meaning 'of noble or royal'

status), was only 14 and had no experience of fighting or commanding an army. Edgar was the grandson of Edmund Ironside, a famous English hero, but this would not be enough in these dangerous times.

So Edgar was passed over, and Harold Godwinson, the most famous English soldier of the day, was chosen instead, even though he was not, strictly speaking, 'royal'. He had gained essential military experience fighting in Wales, however. At first, it seemed as if the Witan had made a sound choice: Harold raised a powerful army and fleet and stood guard in the south all summer long, but then a new threat came in the north.

A huge Viking army landed and destroyed an English army outside York. Harold skilfully marched his army all the way from the south to Stamford Bridge in Yorkshire in a mere five days. He annihilated the Vikings, but a few days later William's Normans landed in the south. Harold lost no time in marching his army all the way back to meet them in battle, at a ridge of high ground just outside… Hastings. William let the Anglo-Saxon Earls of Mercia and Northumbria, Edwin and Morcar, keep their lands because they had not fought against William at Hastings. The only condition was that they accepted William's authority as king and as their feudal lord.

William transferred land ownership from the nobles who hadn't supported him to Norman barons who had. These were men he could trust and rely on. The greatest change introduced after the conquest of 1066 was the introduction of the feudal system. Norman feudalism was different from the Anglo-Saxon system in one important way – King William owned all of the land. William could now decide who to lease the land to.

The feudal system

The system of giving land in exchange for duties had existed before the Norman Conquest but William confiscated land from Anglo-Saxons, which created a whole new power structure. Norman feudalism was based on royal strength.

- The power structure of a king, a baron and a villein
- The king owned all the land but gave some to the barons.

- The barons had to fight for the king and train knights for him. The knights then received some land from the barons.
- The villeins worked on the land for the knights and barons. They paid them taxes and gave them some of their crops, as well as fines if they broke the law.

UNIT II

William I

The policies of William the Conqueror, king of England from 1066 until his death in 1087, may be largely responsible for eventually making Britain the most powerful nation in Europe.

At the age of eight, William the Conqueror became duke of Normandy and later King of England. Violence plagued his early reign, but with the help of King Henry I of France, William managed to survive the early years. After the Battle of Hastings, in 1066, he was crowned king of England. He never spoke English and was illiterate, but he had more influence on the evolution of the English language then anyone before or since. William ruled England until his death, on September 9, 1087, in Rouen, France.

Early Life

Born circa 1028 in Falaise, Normandy, France, William the Conqueror was an illegitimate child of Robert I, duke of Normandy, who died in 1035 while returning from a pilgrimage to Jerusalem.

At only eight years of age, William became the new duke of Normandy. Violence and corruption-plagued his early reign, as the feudal barons fought for control of his fragile dukedom. A few of William's guards died and his teacher was murdered during a period of severe anarchy. With the help of King Henry I of France, William managed to survive the early years.

Battle for the Throne

King Henry I of France knighted William, still in his teens, in 1042. Taking a new stand on political events, William finally gained firm control of his duchy (although his enemies commonly referred to him as "The Bastard" due to his illegitimate birth). By 1064 he had conquered and won two neighboring provinces Brittany and Maine. In the meantime, the childless king of England — Edward the Confessor, whose mother was a sister of William's grandfather — promised William succession to the English throne.

Harold Godwin

However, when Edward died in 1066, his brother-in-law and most powerful of the English lords, Harold Godwin, claimed the throne of England for himself (despite an oath he made to William to support his claim). The Witan, a council of English lords that commonly took part in deciding succession, supported Harold. William, angered by the betrayal, decided to invade England and enforce his claim.

William assembled a fleet and an army on the French coast, but due to unrelenting north winds, their advance was delayed for several weeks. In the meantime, the Norwegian army invaded England from the North Sea. Harold, who had been preparing for William's invasion from the south, rapidly moved his army north to defend England from Norway. After defeating the Norwegians, Harold unwisely marched his troops back down to meet William, without a rest.

Battle of Hastings

On October 14, 1066, the two armies met in the famous Battle of Hastings. King Harold and his two brothers were killed in the battle, and since no one of stature remained to raise a new army, William's path to the throne was clear. He was crowned king of England on Christmas Day.

Land Grab for the Normans

There were several revolts in the next five years, which William used as an excuse to confiscate English land and declare it his personal property. He then distributed the land to his Norman followers, who imposed their unique feudal system. Eventually, Normans replaced the entire Anglo-Saxon aristocracy. William, however, retained most of England's institutions and was intensely interested in learning about his new property. He ordered a detailed census to be made of the population and property of England — which was compiled in The Domesday Book (now an invaluable source of historical information and still in the Public Record Office in London).

Death and Legacy

William died on September 9, 1087, in Rouen, France. Although he never spoke English and was illiterate, he had more influence on the evolution of the English language than anyone before or since — adding a slew of French and Latin words to the English dictionary. The introduction of skilled Norman administrators may be largely responsible for eventually making England the most powerful government in Europe. William the Conqueror had four sons and five daughters, and every monarch of England since has been his direct descendant.

The Consequences of the Norman Conquest:

One of the most influential monarchies in the history of England began in 1066 C.E. with the Norman Conquest led by William, the Duke of Normandy. England would forever be changed politically, economically, and socially as a result.

The success of William of Normandy (1028–1087)'s Norman Conquest of 1066, when he seized the crown from Harold II (1022–1066), was once credited with bringing in a host of new legal, political and social changes to England, effectively marking 1066 as the start of a new age in English history. Historians now believe the reality is more nuanced, with more inherited from the Anglo-Saxons, and more developed as a reaction to what was happening in England, rather than the Normans simply recreating Normandy in their new land. Nevertheless, the Norman Conquest still bought many changes. The following is a list of the major effects.

Changes Impacting the Elites

Anglo-Saxon elites, the largest landholders in England, were replaced by Franco-Normans. Those Anglo-Saxons nobles who had survived the battles of 1066 had the chance to serve William and retain power and land, but many rebelled over contentious issues, and soon William had turned away from compromise to importing loyal men from the continent. By William's death, the Anglo-Saxon aristocracy was all but replaced. In the Domesday book of 1086, there are only four large English landowners. However, there may only have been around 25,000 Franco-Normans out of a population of two million when William

died. There was not a massive importation of a new Norman population, just the people at the top.

The idea that a landowner held two types of land—his "patrimony," the family land which he had inherited, and his extended lands which he had conquered—and the idea that these lands could go to different heirs, came into England with the Normans. Familial relationships of heirs to parents, changed as a result.

The power of the earls was reduced after Anglo-Saxon rebellions. Earls had their lands stripped from them, with correspondingly reduced wealth and influence.

Higher taxes: most monarchs are criticized for heavy taxes, and William I was no exception. But he had to raise funds for the occupation and pacification of England.

Changes to the Church

Like the landowning elites, many of the upper reaches of church government was replaced. By 1087, eleven of fifteen bishops were Norman, and only one of the other four was English. The church had power over people and land, and now William had power over them.

Far more English land was given to continental monasteries, to hold as 'alien priories', then before the Norman Conquest. Indeed, more monasteries were founded in England.

Changes to the Built Environment

Continental architecture was imported en mass. Every major Anglo-Saxon cathedral or abbey, apart from Westminster, was rebuilt bigger and more fashionably. Parish churches were also widely rebuilt in stone. Anglo-Saxons did not, in general, build castles, and the Normans started a huge building program in Norman castles in order to help secure their power. The most common early type was wooden, but stone followed. The castle building habits of the Normans has left a mark on England still visible to the eye (and the tourist industry is thankful for it.) Royal forests, with their own laws, were created.

Changes for Commoners

The importance of receiving land from a lord in return for loyalty and service grew enormously under the Normans, who created a system of land tenure unmatched in Europe. Quite how homogeneous this system was (probably not very), and whether it can be called feudal (probably not) are still being discussed. Before the conquest, Anglo-Saxons owed an amount of service based on regularized units of land holding; afterward, they owed service based entirely on the settlement they had achieved with their overlord or the king. There was a large decline in the numbers of free peasants, who were lower class workers who could quit their land in search of new landlords.

Changes in Justice System

A new court, known as the Lords, honorial or seigniorial, was created. They were held, as the name suggests, by lords for their tenants, and have been called a key part of the "feudal" system. Murdrum fines: if a Norman was killed, and the killer not identified, the entire English community could be fined. That this law was needed perhaps reflects on the problems faced by the Norman raiders. Trial by battle was introduced.

International Changes

The links between Scandinavia and England were deeply severed. Instead, England was brought closer to events in France and this region of the continent, leading to the Angevin Empire and then the Hundred Years War. Before 1066 England had seemed destined to stay in the orbit of Scandinavian, whose conquerors had taken hold of large chunks of the British Isles. After 1066 England looked south. Increased use of writing in government. While the Anglo-Saxons had written some things down, Anglo-Norman government vastly increased it. After 1070, Latin replaced English as the language of government.

The results of the Norman Conquest linked England to France in the years that followed. In addition to the introduction of French words to the English language, the French influence was also felt in politics, as William and his noblemen retained an interest in the affairs of France and the European continent.

William II

William II (c. 1056 — 2 August 1100), the second surviving son of William I the Conqueror, was King of England from 1087 until 1100, with powers also over Normandy, and influence in Scotland. He was less successful in extending his control in Wales . William was commonly called "Rufus", perhaps because of his red-faced appearance.

Although William was an effective soldier, he was a ruthless ruler and was little liked by those he governed; according to the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, he was "hated by almost all his people." The chroniclers of his time took a dim view of Rufus because many literate men of the day were men of the Church, against which Rufus fought hard and long; and in Norman tradition, William Rufus scorned the Anglo-Saxons and their culture.

William himself seems to have been a flamboyant character, and his reign was marked by his bellicose temperament. He never married or had illegitimate children; William's favourite was RanulfFlambard, whom he appointed Bishop of Durham in 1099, an appointment based on political requirements, for a see that was at the same time a great feudal fief. William was roundly denounced in his time and after his death for his numerous homosexual liasons.

Early years

William's exact date of birth is unknown, but it was sometime between the years 1056 and 1060. He was the third of four sons, born in his father's duchy of Normandy, which would be inherited in due course by his elder brother, Robert Curthose. During his youth, he was educated under the eye of Lanfranc and seemingly destined to be a great lord but not a king, until the death of the Conqueror's second son put him in the line of succession. His father's favourite son, William succeeded to the throne of England on his father's death, but there was always hostility between him and his eldest brother — though they became reconciled after an attempted coup in 1091 by their youngest brother, Henry.

Relations between the three brothers had never been excellent; OrdericVitalis relates an incident that took place at Laigle, in 1077 or 1078: William and Henry, having grown bored with casting dice, decided to make

mischief by pouring stinking water on their brother Robert from an upper gallery, thus infuriating and shaming him. A brawl broke out, and their father King William was forced to intercede and restore order.

According to William of Malmesbury, William Rufus was "thickset and muscular with a protruding belly; a dandy dressed in the height of fashion, however outrageous, he wore his blond hair long, parted in the centre and off the face so that his forehead was bare; and in his red, choleric face were eyes of changeable colour, speckled with flecks of light" (Barlow).

England and France

The division of William the Conqueror's lands into two parts presented a dilemma for those nobles who held land on both sides of the Channel. Since the younger William and Robert were natural rivals, these nobles worried that they could not hope to please both of their lords, and thus ran the risk of losing the favour of one ruler or the other (or both of them). The only solution, as they saw it, was to unite England and Normandy once more under one ruler. The pursuit of this aim led them to revolt against William in favour of Robert in the Rebellion of 1088, under the leadership of the powerful Bishop Odo of Bayeux, who was a half-brother of William the Conqueror. Robert failed to appear in England to rally his supporters, and William won the support of the English with silver and promises of better government, and defeated the rebellion, thus securing his authority. In 1090 he invaded Normandy, crushing Robert's forces and forcing him to cede a portion of his lands. The two made up their differences and William agreed to help Robert recover lands lost to France, notably Maine.

Thus William Rufus was secure in the most powerful kingdom in Europe (with the contemporary eclipse of the Salian Emperors) and, within England, the least trammelled by feudal obligations. As in Normandy, his bishops and abbots were bound to him by feudal obligations; and his right of investiture in the Norman tradition was unquestioned within the kingdom, during the age of the Investiture Controversy that brought excommunication upon the Salian Emperor Henry IV. Anglo-Norman royal institutions reached an efficiency unknown in medieval Europe, and the king's personal power through an effective and loyal chancery penetrated to the local level to an extent unmatched in France. Without the

Capetians' ideological trappings of an anointed monarchy forever entangled with the hierarchy of the Church, the King's administration and the King's law unified the kingdom, rendering the English King relatively impervious to papal condemnation, as the reign of William Rufus demonstrated.

Power struggles

William Rufus inherited the Anglo-Norman settlement whose details are reflected in Domesday Book (1086), a survey that could not have been undertaken anywhere else in Europe at that time and a signal of the control of the monarchy; but he did not inherit William's charisma or political skills. Within a few years he lost William's advisor and confidante, the Italian-Norman Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury, who died in 1089.

William and church

Much of William's reign was spent feuding with the church; after the death of Archbishop Lanfranc, he delayed appointing a new archbishop while he appropriated ecclesiastical revenues in the interim, which was protracted, and for this he was much criticised. Finally, in a time of panic during William's serious illness in 1093, another Norman-Italian, Anselm of Bec – considered the greatest theologian of his generation – was named as archbishop, and this led to a long period of animosity between church and state. Anselm was a stronger supporter of the Gregorian reforms in the Church than Lanfranc had been. William and Anselm disagreed on a range of ecclesiastical issues, and the English clergy, beholden to the king for their preferments and livings, were unable to support Anselm publicly. William called a council at Rockingham in 1095 to bring Anselm to heel, but the churchman appealed to Rome. In October 1097, Anselm went into exile, taking his case to the Pope. The new pope was the diplomatic and flexible Urban II who was not in a position to make further royal enemies. The Emperor of Germany supported an antipope, and Urban came to a concordat with William Rufus: William recognized Urban as pope, and Urban gave sanction to the Anglo-Norman ecclesiastical status quo. William was able to claim the revenues of the archbishopric of Canterbury as long as Anselm remained in exile, and Anselm remained in exile until the reign of William's successor, Henry I.

William Rufus was less capable than his father at channelling the Norman lords' propensity for indiscipline and violence. In 1095, Robert de Mowbray, the earl of Northumbria, would not come to William's Curia Regis the thrice-annual court where decisions were made and delivered to the great lords, and William subsequently led an army against him and defeated him; the earl was dispossessed and imprisoned. Another noble, William of Eu, was also accused of treachery and blinded and castrated. That same year, William II also made an unsuccessful foray into Wales. He tried again in 1097 with an equal lack of success. He returned to Normandy in 1097 and from then until 1099 campaigned in France, securing and holding northern Maine, but failing to seize the French-controlled part of the Vexin region. At the time of his death, he was planning to occupy Aquitaine in south-western France.

Quarrel with Scottish king

William also quarreled with the Scottish king, Malcolm III, forcing him to pay homage in 1091, and seizing the border city of Carlisle and Cumbria in 1092. At the Battle of Alnwick, 13 November 1093 Malcolm and his son Edward were slain and Malcolm III's brother Donald seized the throne. William supported Malcolm's son Duncan, who held power for a short time, and then Edgar, who conquered Lothian in 1094 and finally removed Donald in 1097 with William's aid in a campaign led by Edgar Ætheling. Edgar recognised William's authority over Lothian and attended William's court.

In 1096, William's brother Robert Curthose joined the First Crusade. He needed money to fund this venture, and pledged his duchy to William in return for a payment of 10,000 marks — a sum equalling about one-fourth of William's annual revenue. In a display of the effectiveness of Norman taxation inaugurated by the Conqueror, William raised the money by levying a special, heavy, and much-resented tax upon the whole of England. William then ruled Normandy as regent in Robert's absence—Robert did not return until September 1100, one month after William's death.

The court of William II

William Rufus had a notorious disregard for the church, which he despoiled by leaving benefices unfilled, while he garnered their income for the royal coffers;

his most passionate detractors are found among clergymen. Eadmer relates two incidents in which William Rufus either convinced converted Jews to return to Judaism, or attempted to do so. During his quarrels with Anselm of Canterbury, the king declared that "he hated him much yesterday, that he hated him much today, and that he would hate him more and more tomorrow and every other day."

William of Malmesbury decries William Rufus' court, which he describes as being filled by "effeminate" young men in extravagant clothes mincing about in "shoes with curved points". OrdericVitalis makes mention of the "fornicators and sodomites" who held favour during William Rufus' reign, and remarks approvingly that when Henry became king, one of his first acts was to have his courtiers shorn of their long hair.

The unusual death of William II

Perhaps the most memorable event in the life of William Rufus was his death, which occurred while William was hunting in the New Forest. He was killed by an arrow through the lung, but the circumstances remain unclear.

Fictional treatments

William Rufus is a major character in Valerie Anand's historical novel, King of the Wood (1989). He is also a major character in Parke Godwin's Robin and the King (1993), the second volume in Godwin's reinterpretation of the Robin Hood legend. William II is indirectly the subject of two historical novels by George Shipway, called The Paladin and The Wolf Time. The main character of the novels is Walter Tirel (or Tyrell) the supposed assassin of King William, and the main thrust of the plot of the novels is that the assassination was engineered by Henry. The death of William Rufus is portrayed in Edward Rutherford's fictionalized history of the New Forest, called The Forest (2001). In Rutherford's version of events, the King's death takes place nowhere near the Rufus Stone, and Walter Tyrrell is framed for it by the powerful Clare family. Also, Purkiss is a clever story teller who manages (much later) to convince Charles II that one of his ancestors had been involved.

Henry I

Henry I (circa 1068 – 1 December 1135) was the fourth son of William the Conqueror and the first born in England after the Norman Conquest of 1066. He succeeded his elder brother William II as King of England in 1100 and defeated his eldest brother, Robert Curthose, to become Duke of Normandy in 1106. He was called Beauclerc for his scholarly interests and Lion of Justice for refinements which he brought about in the rudimentary administrative and legislative machinery of the time.

Henry's reign is noted for its political opportunism. His succession was wrought while his brother Robert was away on the First Crusade and the beginning of his reign was occupied by wars with Robert for control of England and Normandy. He successfully reunited the two realms for the first time since his father's death in 1087. Upon his succession he granted the baronage a Charter of Liberties, which formed a basis for subsequent challenges to rights of kings and presaged the Magna Carta, which subjected the King to law.

The rest of Henry's reign was filled with judicial and financial reforms. He established the biannual Exchequer to reform the treasury. He used itinerant officials to curb abuses of power at the local and regional level, garnering the praise of the people. The differences between the Anglo-Saxon and Norman populations began to break down during his reign and he himself married a daughter of the old Saxon royal house. He made peace with the church after the disputes of his brother's reign, but he could not smooth out his succession after the disastrous loss of his eldest son William in the wreck of the White Ship. His will was to be succeeded by his daughter, the Empress Matilda, but his stern rule was followed by civil war known as the Anarchy.

Early life

Henry was born between May 1068 and May 1069, probably in Selby, Yorkshire in the north east of England. His mother, Queen Matilda of Flanders, was descended from the Saxon King Alfred the Great (but not through the main West Saxon Royal line). Queen Matilda named the infant Prince Henry after her uncle, King Henry I of France. As the youngest son of the family, he was almost certainly expected to become a Bishop and was given rather more extensive

schooling than was usual for a young nobleman of that time. The Chronicler William of Malmesbury asserts that Henry once remarked that an illiterate King was a crowned ass. He was certainly the first Norman ruler to be fluent in the English language. William I's third son Richard had pre-deceased his father by being killed in an hunting accident in the New Forest so, upon his death in 1087, William bequeathed his dominions to his three surviving sons in the following manner:

Robert received the Duchy of Normandy and became Duke Robert III

William Rufus received the Kingdom of England and became King William II

Henry Beauclerc received 5,000 pounds of silver

The Chronicler OrdericVitalis reports that the old King had declared to Henry: "You in your own time will have all the dominions I have acquired and be greater than both your brothers in wealth and power."

Henry tried to play his brothers off against each other but eventually, wary of his devious manoeuvring, they acted together and signed an Accession Treaty which sought to bar Prince Henry from both Thrones by stipulating that if either King William or Duke Robert died without an heir, the two dominions of their father would be reunited under the surviving brother.

Seizing the throne of England

When, on 2 August 1100, William II was killed by an arrow in yet another hunting accident in the New Forest, Duke Robert was not yet returned from the First Crusade and his absence, along with his poor reputation among the Norman nobles, allowed Prince Henry to seize the Royal Treasury at Winchester, Hampshire – where he buried his dead brother. He was accepted as King by the leading Barons and was crowned three days later on 5 August at Westminster Abbey. He secured his position among the nobles by an act of political appeasement: he issued a Charter of Liberties which is considered a forerunner of the Magna Carta.

First marriage

On 11 November 1100 Henry married Edith, daughter of King Malcolm III. Since Edith was also the niece of Edgar Atheling and the great-granddaughter of Edward the Confessor's paternal half-brother Edmund Ironside, the marriage united the Norman line with the old English line of Kings. The marriage greatly displeased the Norman Barons, however, and as a concession to their sensibilities Edith changed her name to Matilda upon becoming Queen. The other side of this coin, however, was that Henry, by dint of his marriage, became far more acceptable to the Anglo-Saxon populace.

The Chronicler William of Malmesbury described Henry thus: "He was of middle stature, greater than the small, but exceeded by the very tall; his hair was black and set back upon the forehead; his eyes mildly bright; his chest brawny; his body fleshy."

Conquest of Normandy

In the following year, 1101, Robert Curthose attempted to seize the crown by invading England. In the Treaty of Alton, Robert agreed to recognise his brother Henry as King of England and return peacefully to Normandy, upon receipt of an annual sum of 2000 marks, which Henry proceeded to pay. In 1105, to eliminate the continuing threat from Robert Curthose and to obviate the drain on his fiscal resources, Henry led an expeditionary force across the English Channel.

Battle of Tinchebray

On the morning of the 28 September 1106, exactly 40 years after William had landed in England, the decisive battle between his two sons, Robert Curthose and Henry Beauclerc took place in the small village of Tinchebray. This combat was totally unexpected and unprepared. Henry and his army were marching south from Barfleur on their way to Domfront and Robert was marching with his army from Falaise on their way to Mortain. They met at the crossroads at Tinchebray and the running battle which ensued was spread out over several kilometres. The site where most of the fighting took place is the village playing field today. Towards evening Robert tried to retreat but was captured by Henry's men at a place three kilometres (just under two miles) North of Tinchebray where a farm

named "Prise" (taken) stands today on the D22 road. The tombstones of three knights are nearby on the same road.

King of England and Duke of Normandy

After Henry had defeated his brother's Norman army at Tinchebray he imprisoned Robert, initially in the Tower of London, subsequently at Devizes Castle and later at Cardiff. One day whilst out riding Robert attempted to escape from Cardiff but his horse was bogged down in a swamp and he was recaptured. To prevent further escapes Henry had Robert's eyes burnt out. Henry appropriated the Duchy of Normandy as a possession of the Kingdom of England and reunited his father's dominions.

He attempted to reduce difficulties in Normandy by marrying his eldest son, William Adelin, to the daughter of Fulk of Jerusalem (also known as Fulk V), Count of Anjou, then a serious enemy. Eight years later, after William's untimely death, a much more momentous union was made between Henry's daughter, the Empress Matilda and Fulk's son Geoffrey Plantagenet, which eventually resulted in the union of the two Realms under the Plantagenet Kings.

Activities as a King

Henry I depicted in Cassell's History of England (1902)

Henry I depicted in Cassell's History of England (1902)

Henry's need for finance to consolidate his position led to an increase in the activities of centralized government. As King, Henry carried out social and judicial reforms, including:

Issuing the Charter of Liberties

Restoring the laws of King Edward the Confessor. Henry was also known for some brutal acts. He once threw a traitorous burgher named Conan Pilatus from the tower of Rouen; the tower was known from then on as "Conan's Leap". In another instance that took place in 1119, Henry's son-in-law, Eustace de Pacy, and Ralph Harnec, the constable of Ivry, exchanged their children as hostages. When Eustace blinded Harnec's son, Harnec demanded vengeance. King Henry allowed Harnec to blind and mutilate Eustace's two daughters, who were also Henry's own

grandchildren. Eustace and his wife, Juliane, were outraged and threatened to rebel. Henry arranged to meet his daughter at a parley at Breteuil, only for Juliane to draw a crossbow and attempt to assassinate her father. She was captured and confined to the castle, but escaped by leaping from a window into the moat below. Some years later Henry was reconciled with his daughter and son-in-law.

Legitimate children

He had two children by Matilda (Edith), who died in 1118: Matilda, born February 1102, and William Adelin, born November 1103. Disaster struck when William, his only legitimate son, perished in the wreck of the White Ship on 25 November 1120 off the coast of Normandy. Also among the dead were two of Henry's illegitimate children, as well as a niece, Lucia-Mahaut de Blois. Henry's grieving was intense, and the succession was in crisis.

Second marriage

On 29 January 1121, he married Adeliza, daughter of Godfrey I of Leuven, Duke of Lower Lotharingia and Landgrave of Brabant, but there were no children from this marriage. Left without male heirs, Henry took the unprecedented step of making his barons swear to accept his daughter Empress Matilda, widow of Henry V, the Holy Roman Emperor, as his heir.

Death and legacy

Henry visited Normandy in 1135 to see his young grandsons, the children of Matilda and Geoffrey. He took great delight in his grandchildren, but soon quarrelled with his daughter and son-in-law and these disputes led him to tarry in Normandy far longer than he originally planned.

Henry died on 1 December 1135 of food poisoning from eating "a surfeit of lampreys" (of which he was excessively fond) at Saint-Denis-en-Lyons (now Lyons-la-Forêt) in Normandy.

Stephen

Stephen (c. 1096 – 25 October 1154), the only King of England from the House of Blois and also Count of Boulogne by marriage, reigned from 1135 to 1154, when he was succeeded by his cousin Henry II, the first of the Angevin or Plantagenet Kings.

Early life

Stephen was born at Blois in France, the son of Stephen, Count of Blois, and Adela (daughter of William the Conqueror). His brothers were Count Theobald II of Champagne and Henry of Blois, bishop of Winchester.

Stephen was sent to be reared at the English court of his uncle, King Henry I, in 1106. He became Count of Mortain in about 1115, and married Matilda, daughter of the Count of Boulogne, in about 1125, who shortly after became Countess of Boulogne. Stephen became joint ruler in 1128. In 1150 he ceased to co-rule, and in 1151, the County was given to his son, Eustace IV. When Eustace died childless, Stephen's next living son, William inherited the territory.

Seizes throne of England

Before the death of King Henry I of England in 1135, the majority of the barons of England swore to support Henry's daughter (Empress Matilda, granddaughter of William the Conqueror), and her claim to the throne. However, Stephen (also a grandchild of The Conqueror through his mother and who had been raised at Henry's court) laid claim to the throne. He also claimed his uncle, King Henry, had changed his mind on his deathbed, and named Stephen as his heir. Once Stephen was crowned, he gained the support of the majority of the barons as well as Pope Innocent II. The first few years of his reign were peaceful, but by 1139 he was seen as weak and indecisive, setting the country up for a civil war, commonly called The Anarchy.

Stephen had many traits that made him seem superficially fit for kingship: his high birth, his descent from the Conqueror, his handsomeness, his bravery and his good nature. But he possessed none of the ruthlessness necessary for the ruthless times he lived in. An unfavourable thumbnail sketch of him is given by Walter Map (who wrote during the reign of Matilda's son Henry II): "A man of a

certain age, remarkably hard-working but otherwise a nonentity [idiota] or perhaps rather inclined to evil."

The reign of Stephen was indeed a turbulent period, to some degree an overflow of struggles for supremacy amongst barons in Normandy. But he retained the support of the majority of English barons throughout his reign and, importantly, the citizens of London. Contemporary records are slight, being mainly in the form of charters which are often difficult to date precisely, and, more significantly, chronicles whose authors were, in most cases, directly or indirectly at the behest of Robert of Gloucester, the principal rebel. It was these who presented Bishop Henry of Winchester as an opponent of his brother Stephen; but since the kingship of Stephen was supported by Innocent II, and Henry was Papal Legate, some scepticism is appropriate. A reassessment of the reign is due but far from easy.

War with Matilda

Stephen faced the forces of Empress Matilda at several locations including the Battle of Lincoln and the Battle of Beverston Castle. Bad omens haunted him before the Battle of Lincoln (2 February 1141). Stephen was facing his rebellious barons Robert, 1st Earl of Gloucester (the Empress' illegitimate half-brother) and Ranulph, the Earl of Chester. He fought so bravely in the battle that his battle-axe shattered. He drew a sword and continued fighting until it broke as well, as he was captured by a knight named William de Cahaignes (a relative of Ranulph, ancestor of the Keynes family including John Maynard Keynes, the well known economist). Stephen was defeated and he was brought before his cousin, the Empress Matilda.

Stephen was imprisoned at Bristol, but his wife, the Countess Matilda, kept faith, and the Empress was soon forced out of London. With the capture of her most able lieutenant, the Earl of Gloucester, Matilda was eventually obliged to release Stephen from captivity, and he was restored to the throne in November of the same year. In December 1142, the Empress was besieged at Oxford, but she managed to escape across the snow to Wallingford Castle, held by her supporter Brien FitzCount.

In 1147, Empress Matilda's adolescent son, Henry (the eventual King Henry II), decided to assist in the war effort by raising a small army of mercenaries and invading England. Rumours of this army's size terrified Stephen's retainers, although in truth the force was very small. Having been defeated twice in battle, and with no money to pay his mercenaries, the young Henry appealed to his uncle Robert for aid but was turned away. Desperately, and in secret, the boy then asked Stephen for help. According to the GestaStephani, "On receiving the message, the king…hearkened to the young man…" and bestowed upon him money and other support.

Recognizes Henry as his heir and dies

Stephen maintained his precarious hold on the throne for the remainder of his lifetime. However, after a military standoff at Wallingford with Henry, and following the death of his son and heir, Eustace, in 1153, he was persuaded to reach a compromise with Empress Matilda (known as the Treaty of Wallingford or Winchester), whereby her son would succeed Stephen on the English throne as King Henry II. Stephen died in Dover, at Dover Priory, and was buried in Faversham Abbey, which he had founded with Countess Matilda in 1147. Henry II of England (5 March 1133 – 6 July 1189) ruled as Count of Anjou, Duke of Normandy, and as King of England (1154– 1189) and, at various times, controlled parts of Wales, Scotland, eastern Ireland, and western France. His sobriquets include "Curt Mantle" (because of the practical short cloaks he wore), "Fitz Empress", and sometimes "The Lion of Justice", which had also applied to his grandfather Henry I. He ranks as the first of the Plantagenet or Angevin Kings. Following the disputed reign of King Stephen, Henry's reign saw efficient consolidation. Henry II has acquired a reputation as one of England's greatest medieval kings.

Biography

Territorial holdings and gains: foreign enemies, allies and correspondents Prior to coming to the throne he already controlled Normandy and Anjou on the continent; his marriage to Eleanor of Aquitaine on 18 May 1152 added her holdings to his, including Touraine, Aquitaine, and Gascony. He thus effectively became more powerful than the king of France — with an empire (the Angevin

Empire) that stretched from the Solway Firth almost to the Mediterranean and from the Somme to the Pyrenees. As king, he would make Ireland a part of his vast domain. He also maintained lively communication with the Emperor of Byzantium Manuel I Comnenus.

Life before accession

He was born on 5 March 1133 at Le Mans to the Empress Matilda and her second husband, Geoffrey the Fair, Count of Anjou. Brought up in Anjou, he visited England in 1149 to help his mother in her disputed claim to the English throne.

He married Eleanor of Aquitaine on 18 May 1152, but from May to August he was occupied in fighting Eleanor's ex-husband Louis VII of France and his allies. In August Henry rushed back to her, and they spent several months together. Around the end of November 1152 they parted: Henry went to spend some weeks with his mother and then sailed for England, arriving on 6 January 1153. Some historians believe that the couple's first child, William, Count of Poitiers, was born in 1153. Henry's succession was established by the Treaty of Wallingford in 1153, after he had challenged Stephen's forces at Wallingford Castle. It was agreed that Henry would become king on Stephen's death.

Civil and legal reform: struggle with the barons

During Stephen's reign the barons had subverted the state of affairs to undermine the monarch's grip on the realm; Henry II saw it as his first task to reverse this shift in power. For example, Henry had castles torn down which the barons had built without authorization during Stephen's reign, and by 1159, scutage, a fee paid by vassals in lieu of military service, had become a central feature of the king's military system. Record keeping improved dramatically in order to streamline this taxation.

Henry II established courts in various parts of England and first instituted the royal practice of granting magistrates the power to render legal decisions on a wide range of civil matters in the name of the Crown. His reign saw the production of the first written legal textbook, providing the basis of today's " Common Law".

By the Assize of Clarendon (1166), trial by jury became the norm. Since the Norman Conquest, jury trials had been largely replaced by trial by ordeal and " wager of battel" (which English law did not abolish until 1819). Provision of justice and landed security was further toughened in 1176 with the Assize of Northampton, built on the earlier agreements at Clarendon. This reform proved one of Henry's major contributions to the social history of England.

Dealings with Ireland

Shortly after his coronation, Henry sent an embassy to the newly elected Pope Adrian IV. Led by Bishop Arnold of Lisieux, the group of clerics requested from Adrian a privilege authorising Henry to invade Ireland. Most historians agree that this was the papal bull Laudabiliter. W.L. Warren asserts that Henry acted under the influence of a "Canterbury plot;" Archbishop Theobald of Bec, John of Salisbury, and other Canterbury clergy wished to assert their hierarchical supremacy over the newly created Irish diocesan structure. Other historians have argued instead that Henry intended to secure Ireland as a lordship for his younger brother William.

Shortly thereafter, Henry's continental affairs distracted him. William died, and the English ignored Ireland. It was not until 1166 that it came to the surface again. In that year, Dermot MacMurrough, having been driven from his kingdom in Leinster, followed Henry to Aquitaine. He asked the English king to help him reassert control; Henry agreed to allow Dermot to gather supporters from among his Norman vassals. The most prominent of these was a Welsh Norman, Richard de Clare, 2nd Earl of Pembroke, nicknamed "Strongbow." In exchange for his loyalty, Dermot offered Earl Richard his daughter Aoife (Eve) in marriage and made him heir to the kingdom.

The Normans quickly restored Dermot to his traditional holdings, and he even toyed with the idea of challenging for the title of ArdRi, or High King. However, in 1171, Henry arrived from France to assert his overlordship. All of the Normans, along with many Irish princes, took oaths of homage to Henry, and he left after six months. He never returned, but he later named his young son, the future King John of England, Lord of Ireland.

The struggle with the church and Thomas Becket

As a consequence of the improvements in the legal system, the power of church courts waned. The church naturally opposed this and found its most vehement spokesman in Thomas Becket, the Archbishop of Canterbury, formerly a close friend of Henry's and his Chancellor.

The conflict with Becket effectively began with a dispute over whether the secular courts could try clergy who had committed a secular offence. Henry attempted to subdue Becket and his fellow churchmen by making them swear to obey the "customs of the realm", but controversy ensued over what constituted these customs, and the church proved reluctant to submit. Following a heated exchange at Henry's court, Becket left England in 1164 for France to solicit in person the support of Pope Alexander III, who was in exile in France due to dissension in the college of Cardinals, and of King Louis VII of France. Due to his own precarious position, Alexander remained neutral in the debate, although Becket remained in exile loosely under the protection of Louis and Pope Alexander until 1170. After reconciliation between Henry and Thomas in Normandy in 1170, Becket returned to England. Becket again confronted Henry, this time over the coronation of Prince Henry (see below). The much-quoted, although probably apocryphal, words of Henry II echo down the centuries: "Will no one rid me of this meddlesome priest?" Although Henry's violent rants against Becket over the years were well documented, this time four of his knights took their king literally (as he may have intended for them to do, although he later denied it) and travelled immediately to England, where they assassinated Becket in Canterbury Cathedral on 29 December 1170.

For this act Henry was excommunicated but obtained his rehabilitation thanks to the efforts of Robert de Torigny, abbot of Mont St Michel. As part of his penance for the death of Becket, Henry made a pilgrimage in sackcloth to his tomb (see also St. Dunstan's, Canterbury), and agreed to send money to the Crusader states in Palestine, which the Knights Hospitaller and the Knights Templar would guard until Henry arrived to make use of it on pilgrimage or crusade. Afterwards, on the 21 May 1172, he was flogged in public, naked, before the door of the

cathedral at Avranches, which was his capital city in Normandy. Henry delayed his crusade for many years and in the end never went at all, despite a visit to him by Patriarch Heraclius of Jerusalem in 1184 and being offered the crown of the Kingdom of Jerusalem. In 1188 he levied the Saladin tithe to pay for a new crusade; the cleric and courtier Gerald of Wales suggested his death was a divine punishment for the tithe, imposed to raise money for an abortive crusade to recapture Jerusalem, which had fallen to Saladin in 1187.

Legitimate

Henry's first son, William, Count of Poitiers, had died in infancy. In 1170, Henry and Eleanor's fifteen-year-old son, Henry, was crowned king (another reason for rupture with Thomas Becket, whose other bishops acquiesced to this during Becket's exile), but he never actually ruled and does not figure in the list of the monarchs of England; he became known as Henry the Young King to distinguish him from his nephew Henry III of England.

Henry and his wife, Eleanor of Aquitaine, had five sons and three daughters: William, Henry, Richard, Geoffrey, John, Matilda, Eleanor, and Joan. Henry's attempts to wrest control of her lands from Eleanor (and from her heir Richard) led to confrontations between Henry on the one side and his wife and legitimate sons on the other.

Illegitimate

Henry's notorious liaison with Rosamund Clifford, the "fair Rosamund" of legend, probably began in 1165 during one of his Welsh campaigns and continued until her death in 1176. However, it was not until 1174, at around the time of his break with Eleanor, that Henry acknowledged Rosamund as his mistress. Almost simultaneously he began negotiating the annulment of his marriage in order to marry Alys, daughter of King Louis VII of France and already betrothed to Henry's son Richard. Henry's affair with Alys continued for some years, and, unlike Rosamund Clifford, Alys allegedly gave birth to one of Henry's illegitimate children.

Henry also had a number of illegitimate children by various women, and Eleanor had several of those children reared in the royal nursery with her own

children; some remained members of the household in adulthood. Among them were William de Longespee, 3rd Earl of Salisbury, whose mother was Ida, Countess of Norfolk; Geoffrey, Archbishop of York, son of a woman named Ykenai; Morgan, Bishop of Durham; and Matilda, Abbess of Barking.

Succession crisis

Henry II's attempt to divide his titles amongst his sons but keep the power associated with them provoked them into trying to take control of the lands assigned to them (see Revolt of 1173-1174), which amounted to treason, at least in Henry's eyes. Gerald of Wales reports that when King Henry gave the kiss of peace to his son Richard, he said softly, "May the Lord never permit me to die until I have taken due vengeance upon you."

Death and legitimate

When Henry's legitimate sons rebelled against him, they often had the help of King Louis VII of France. Henry the Young King died in 1183. After Henry the Young King died, there was a power struggle between the three sons that were left. Henry had wanted John to be the next king, but Eleanor favoured Richard. Henry had always loved John more than any of the other sons. Geoffrey tried to overcome both John and Richard, but he was unsuccessful. A horse trampled to death another son, Geoffrey II, Duke of Brittany (1158–1186). Henry's third son, Richard the Lionheart (1157–1199), with the assistance of Philip II Augustus of France, attacked and defeated Henry on July 4, 1189; Henry died at the Chateau Chinon on July 6, 1189, and lies entombed in Fontevraud Abbey, near Chinon and Saumur in the Anjou Region of present-day France. Henry's illegitimate son Geoffrey, Archbishop of York also stood by him the whole time and alone among his sons attended on Henry's deathbed. His last words, according to Gerald of Wales, were "Shame, shame on a conquered king". Another version of the King's last words alludes to the fact that the only son to attend his deathbed was his illegitimate son: "My other sons are the real bastards".Richard the Lionheart then became King of England. This was unfortunate to Henry because he had always wanted John, his youngest son, to succeed him. John succeeded to the throne upon Richard's death in 1199, laying aside the claims of Geoffrey's children Arthur of Brittany and Eleanor

Richard I

King Richard I was first referred to as “the Lion” in 1187 but became known as “Lionheart” following his deeds during the Third Crusade. Richard successfully captured the city of Acre but failed to recapture Jerusalem from Saladin.

Richard was born in Oxford, England on September 8, 1157. He was the third son of Henry II and Eleanor of Aquitaine. The couple’s eldest son, William, died during childhood. Richard’s older brother, Henry, was the heir apparent to the throne of England.

Henry II owned several titles, including King of England, Duke of Normandy, and Duke of Aquitaine through his marriage to Eleanor. Henry declared his intention to divide his titles between his sons, granting them important positions but also breaking apart what had become a vast kingdom. His sons initiated a rebellion against him in 1173, with Richard joining his elder brother, who became known as Henry the Young King. The revolt was ultimately unsuccessful but concerns about the future of the English crown remained.

Henry the Young King died in 1183, elevating Richard to become the heir to the English crown. Still, Henry II persisted in his desire to grant important titles to each of his sons, particularly in wanting to give the Duchy of Aquitane to Prince John.

Richard refused to see what he considered his rightful inheritance given to his younger brother. In 1189, he rebelled again, this time with the support of King Phillip II of France. Richard was an excellent commander and accomplished what his brother had failed to do by defeating their father. Henry II died in July 1189, ending any question of whether or not Richard was the rightful king.

Third Crusade

When Richard was crowned, he had already pledged to fight in the Third Crusade. The Muslim forces of Saladin had captured Jerusalem in 1187 and Catholic leaders were determined to take it back. In 1190, King Richard I sailed for the Holy Land. Part of his fleet was wrecked off the coast of Cyprus. Richard left

some of his people on the island to recover but was displeased when he learned that they had been imprisoned by Isaac, the Emperor of Cyprus.

Richard responded to Isaac's actions by returning to the island and conquering it, becoming the King of Cyprus in addition to his existing titles. While in Cyprus, he married Berengaria, a daughter of the King of Navarre, who he had previously rejected. When Richard eventually arrived in the Holy Land in June 1191, he set his sights on Acre, one of the most strategically important cities in the region due to its coastal location. Richard captured the city, marking one of the first meaningful victories of the crusade.

Further victories against Saladin's forces followed but the true objective of the Third Crusade was recapturing Jerusalem. As the crusade dragged on, the difficulty of that task became more apparent. The crusade's leaders, including Richard and his counterparts from France and Germany, became increasingly hostile to each other.

Post Crusade

To avoid further unnecessary bloodshed in an unwinnable war, Richard negotiated a temporary truce with Saladin and set sail for his home. His troubles were not over; on the way home, he ran aground near Venice. Richard tried to remain incognito but was soon imprisoned by Duke Leopold of Austria. Richard was forced to pay an enormous ransom of 150,000 marks, which he accomplished by enforcing harsher taxation on his people. He was eventually released in February 1194 and returned home as a hero of the crusades. Richard had been referred to as the "Lion" since displaying his military skill during his rebellions against his father. It was his deeds in the Middle East that solidified him as the "Lionheart" in the eyes of his people.

A month after his return, Richard sailed for Normandy to protect his holdings on the European mainland. He warred with his former ally, Philip II, and was struck in the shoulder by an arrow while besieging Châlus castle. The wound became infected and Richard the Lionheart died on April 6, 1199. The English crown passed to John, his younger brother, with one of England's least popular kings succeeding one of its most popular.

King John

King John was a king of England and become most famous for signing the Magna Carta document. He was born close to Christmas in 1166, in Oxford. He was the youngest, and favourite son, of King Henry II. When King Henry II died, in 1189, his eldest son Richard became King. John received lots of land and titles from his newly crowned brother, but this was not enough. He wanted to be king. He did not have to wait long: his brother died in 1199 and without an heir, John was named king.

The start of John's reign was marred by a renewed war with France and rebellions in England.

Norman Kings

King John was a member of the House of Normandy of France and ruled as a Norman. There had been seven Norman kings before King John, starting with William The Conqueror. King William established his power in England after defeating the Anglo-Saxon army at Hastings. He set up the feudal system in England, in which common people were classed as peasants in service to a landlord or baron. The king gave the barons land and power in return for their trust and service.

King John as a popular

By the time King John took the throne, the barons had already grown restless. They wanted more and more power and control over their lands and subjects. Unfortunately for King John, he did not make allies well and preferred to keep his barons in line through blackmail and fines.

King John did not have a good image among the barons and the nobility at the time. They felt he was 'cowardly' due to his losses in the war with France. He was also known for being very cruel and enjoyed threatening or attacking barons that would not listen to his commands.

Life in England after the Norman Conquest

Under the reign of King John, feudalism was the main system of work and life. This system was based on the King having all the land, titles and power and

giving some to selected barons or nobility. In return, the barons had to fight for the king in wars and train knights who would also fight for the king. Peasants worked on the land for the knights and barons, they paid taxes and rent to their landlord in return.

Barons tended to collect taxes from their wealthy tenants and would use that tax money to either impress the king or to build large manor houses and host hunting parties. Many barons became so wealthy and powerful that they started to rebel against the king, such as on the Isle of Wight. Though, these rebellions were often squashed quickly by the king to stop others from forming.

The life of a peasant was connected to the land and the seasons. Men worked in the fields to harvest crops and grain. Women were responsible for looking after the animals and preparing food. Though, during harvest, everyone was expected to work in the field to harvest as much food as possible for the baron.

The kings and the Barons

The relationship between the Normal kings and the Barons was very important to the feudal system. A king would only give titles and land to the barons that pleased him and would help him during a war or battle. Barons, on the other hand, were very keen to keep gaining more power than the other members of the nobility and would sometimes gather enough knights and subjects to attack the crown. The barons rebel against King John. During the reign of King John, his popularity lowered and lowered with the other members of the nobility.

Defeat in France

In 1206, John went to war in France and lost many lands that had been a part of the English kingdom since William the Conqueror. He lost Normandy, Anjou, Maine and parts of Poitoi. These losses were considered a great failure to the other members of nobility in England. King John knew he had damaged his reputation and he had lost a lot of money during the war. In return, he started to increase taxes and exploited his rights over the barons.

Barons rebel and capture London

The barons became increasingly concerned with King John and his cruel ways. Barons began to meet and discuss their discontent. In 1214 a series of negotiations between King John and his barons took place – no conclusion was reached. The barons refused to pay the increased taxes and fines, and King John refused to give back what the barons called their 'Ancient Freedoms'.

In May 1215, 'civil war' broke out when a group of 40 barons, with their knights and peasant soldiers rebelled against the crown, renounced their allegiance and seized London. King John was forced to continue negotiations with the barons and on 19th June 1215 at Runnymede on the River Themes, he accepted the barons' terms and signed the Magna Carta.

The Magna Carta

The Magna Carta (meaning 'Great Treaty' in Latin) was a contract, it was a handwritten document containing 63 promises about what the king could and couldn't do. It also set up a Council of 25 barons who would work to make sure King John, and any king or queen that followed him, kept their promises.

Benefits of Magna Carta

The Magna Carta was designed to make sure the barons kept as much power and rights as they could. It directly benefitted them and allowed them to continue ruling over their own lands. Very few of the promises benefited the other classes of feudal society.

The Magna Carta Consequences

The signing of this document led to several consequences for King John, his kingdom and for the country of Britain for centuries to come.

The first of the Magna Carta consequences appeared days after King John signed the document. He appealed to the Pope for permission to ignore the document – on the grounds that he had been forced to sign it by the barons. The Pope ignored King John's plea for help and after a second rebellion, the French invaded England and King John was forced to retreat.

The second of the Magna Carta consequences was because of the French invasion. King John lost all of his supplies, treasures and supports and his health declined. In October 2016, King John died in exile.

After King John's death, his son, Henry III renewed the Magna Carta and used it to increase support between the royal family and the barons. Within 50 years of first signing the Magna Carta, England had developed a parliament to represent the wishes of the barons to the king and no monarch was ever able to rule 'unrestricted' again.

The third of the Magna Carta consequences is that, the laws and rules set out in the document became a part of British life, some of them are still enforced today. The most well known of these is the 'right to a fair trial'. It was set out in the Magna Carta that no-one was allowed to be seized or imprisoned without a judgement by a jury.

Henry III:

Henry III (1 October 1207 – 16 November 1272) was the son and successor of John Lackland as King of England, reigning for fifty six years from 1216 to his death. Medieval English monarchs did not use numbers after their names, and his contemporaries knew him as Henry of Winchester. He was the first child king in England since the Norman Conquest. Despite his long reign, his personal accomplishments were slim and he was a political and military failure. England, however, prospered during his century and his greatest monument is Westminster, which he made the seat of his government and where he expanded the abbey as a shrine to Edward the Confessor.

He assumed the crown under the regency of the popular William Marshal, but the England he inherited had undergone several drastic changes in the reign of his father. He spent much of his reign fighting the barons over the Magna Carta and the royal rights, and was eventually forced to call the first " parliament" in 1264. He was also unsuccessful on the Continent, where he endeavoured to re-establish English control over Normandy, Anjou, and Aquitaine.

Succession

Henry III was born in 1207 at Winchester Castle. He was the son of King John and Isabella of Angoulême.

After his father John's death in 1216, Henry, who was nine at the time, was hastily crowned in Gloucester Cathedral; he was the first child monarch since the Norman invasion of England in 1066. Under John's rule, the barons were supporting an invasion by Prince Louis of France because they disliked the way that John had ruled the country. However, they quickly saw that the young prince was a safer option. Henry's regents immediately declared their intention to rule by Magna Carta, which they proceeded to do during Henry's minority. Magna Carta was reissued in 1217 as a sign of goodwill to the barons and the country was ruled by regents until 1227.

Attitudes and beliefs during his reign

As Henry reached maturity he was keen to restore royal authority, looking towards the autocratic model of the French monarchy. Henry married Eleanor of Provence and he promoted many of his French relatives higher positions of power and wealth. For instance, one Poitevin, Peter des Riveaux, held the offices of Treasurer of the Household, Keeper of the King's Wardrobe, Lord Privy Seal, and the sheriffdoms of twenty-one English counties simultaneously. Henry's tendency to govern for long periods with no publicly-appointed ministers who could be held accountable for their actions and decisions did not make matters any easier. Many English barons came to see his method of governing as foreign.

Henry was much taken with the cult of the Anglo-Saxon saint king Edward the Confessor who had been canonised in 1161. Told that St Edward dressed austerely, Henry took to doing the same and wearing only the simplest of robes. He had a mural of the saint painted in his bedchamber for inspiration before and after sleep and even named his eldest son Edward. Henry designated Westminster, where St Edward had founded the abbey, as the fixed seat of power in England and Westminster Hall duly became the greatest ceremonial space of the kingdom, where the council of nobles also met. Henry appointed French architects from Rheims to the renovation of Westminster Abbey in Gothic style. Work began, at great expense, in 1245. The centrepiece of Henry's renovated Westminster Abbey was to be a shrine to the confessor king, Edward. Henry's shrine to Edward the Confessor was finished in 1269 and the saint's relics were installed.

Henry was extremely pious and his journeys were often delayed by his insistence on hearing Mass several times a day. He took so long to arrive on a visit to the French court that his brother-in-law, King Louis IX of France, banned priests from Henry's route. On one occasion, as related by Roger of Wendover, when King Henry met with papal prelates, he said, "If (the prelates) knew how much I, in my reverence of God, am afraid of them and how unwilling I am to offend them, they would trample on me as on an old and worn-out shoe."

Criticisms

Henry's advancement of foreign favourites, notably his wife's Savoyard uncles and his own Lusignan half-siblings, was unpopular with his subjects and barons. He was also extravagant and avaricious; when his first child, Prince Edward, was born, Henry demanded that Londoners bring him rich gifts to celebrate. He even sent back gifts that did not please him. Matthew Paris reports that some said, "God gave us this child, but the king sells him to us."

Wars and rebellions

Henry's reign came to be marked by civil strife as the English barons, led by de Montfort, demanded more say in the running of the kingdom. French-born Simon de Montfort had originally been one of the foreign upstarts so loathed by many as Henry's foreign councillors; after he married Henry's sister Eleanor, without consulting Henry, a feud developed between the two. Their relationship reached a crisis in the 1250s when de Montfort was brought up on spurious charges for actions he took as lieutenant of Gascony, the last remaining Plantagenet land across the English Channel. He was acquitted by the Peers of the realm, much to the King's displeasure.

Henry also became embroiled in funding a war in Sicily on behalf of the Pope in return for a title for his second son Edmund, a state of affairs that made many barons fearful that Henry was following in the footsteps of his father, King John, and needed to be kept in check, too. De Montfort became leader of those who wanted to reassert Magna Carta and force the king to surrender more power to the baronial council. In 1258, seven leading barons forced Henry to agree to the Provisions of Oxford, which effectively abolished the absolutist Anglo-Norman monarchy, giving power to a council of fifteen barons to deal with the business of government and providing for a three-yearly meeting of parliament to monitor their performance. Henry was forced to take part in the swearing of a collective oath to the Provisions of Oxford.

In the following years, those supporting de Montfort and those supporting the king grew more and more polarised. Henry obtained a papal bull in 1262 exempting him from his oath and both sides began to raise armies. The Royalists

were led by Prince Edward, Henry's eldest son. Civil war, known as the Second Barons' War, followed.

The charismatic de Montfort and his forces had captured most of southeastern England by 1263, and at the Battle of Lewes on 14 May 1264, Henry was defeated and taken prisoner by de Montfort's army. While Henry was reduced to being a figurehead king, de Montfort broadened representation to include each county of England and many important towns—that is, to groups beyond the nobility. Henry and Edward continued under house arrest. The short period that followed was the closest England was to come to complete abolition of the monarchy until the Commonwealth period of 1649–1660 and many of the barons who had initially supported de Montfort began to suspect that he had gone too far with his reforming zeal. The tomb of King Henry III in Westminster Abbey, London

But only fifteen months later Prince Edward had escaped captivity (having been freed by his cousin Roger Mortimer) to lead the royalists into battle again and he turned the tables on de Montfort at the Battle of Evesham in 1265. Following this victory savage retribution was exacted on the rebels.

Death

Henry's reign ended when he died in 1272, after which he was succeeded by his son, Edward I. His body was laid, temporarily, in the tomb of Edward the Confessor while his own sarcophagus was constructed in Westminster Abbey.

Appearance

According to Nicholas Trevet, Henry was a thickset man of medium height with a narrow forehead and a drooping left eyelid (inherited by his son, Edward I).

Marriage and children

Married on 14 January 1236, Canterbury Cathedral, Canterbury, Kent, to Eleanor of Provence, with at least five children born: Edward I (1239–1307),Margaret (1240–1275), married King Alexander III of Scotland, Beatrice of England(1242–1275), married to John II, Duke of Brittany ,Edmund Crouchback (1245–1296),Katharine (1253–1257).

The Provisions of Oxford – 1258:

The Provisions of Oxford was a document outlining reforms to English Common Law. The reforms reinforced and refined many of the principles laid down in the Magna Carta, paving the way for greater rights and freedoms for free men under the laws of the realm. Under the Provisions, royal authority was curtailed, foreign advisors expelled, corrupt officials exposed, and a system of advisors set in place to 'assist' the king in governing the realm.

To understand the Provisions of Oxford and the events that followed it, one must look back to the origins of Norman England. When William the Conqueror vanquished the Saxons at the Battle of Hastings in 1066, he parcelled out much of the Saxon lands to his followers. Many of these followers thus held lands on both sides of the Channel, in what would become the nations of England and France. For many long years, the barons of England maintained this split identity, as lords over territory in both countries.

Over the course of many years, much of the lands in France were gradually lost, with the result that many of the most powerful lords in England began to regard themselves less as transplanted Normans, and more as powerful Englishmen. When the policies of King John led to the loss of most English territory in France, the die was cast.

The English nobility began to turn their attentions inward, to England. They became less and less willing to fight on the continent, and much more resistant to the Crown policy that encouraged foreign influence in their English affairs. The monarchy, however, in the person of the Plantagenet kings, held onto the dream of a trans-Channel empire.

Henry III refined the political structure of England, and put into place structures of central government that were to last for hundreds of years. But in so doing, he trod on the influential toes of the baronage. The great lords of the realm preferred to control local government themselves; they were like petty kings in their own shire fiefdoms, and they wanted no crown interference in their rights and

privileges. The barons wanted crown officers to be publicly accountable, which the king was loathe to accept.

At its most basic, the barons and the king were wrestling for control of local government. Each side, however, took the high moral and religious ground in the disagreement. The king saw himself as God's vicar, with the responsibility to minister to the welfare of his people, while the barons cast themselves as representatives of the 'community of the realm'.

There things might have remained but for Henry III's disastrous foreign policy. Henry accepted the invitation from Pope Innocent IV that Henry's son Edward becomes King of Sicily. In exchange for the kingship, Henry promised to support the papacy in its struggle against the Hohenstaufen dynasty.

That support came in the form of huge grants of money, which strained the English treasury to the breaking point. The barons, under the leadership of Simon of Montfort, were livid with anger at Henry's actions. The 'Mad Parliament' of 1258 called vociferously for Henry to be accountable for his actions. The document laying out the grievances, and suggestions for redress, were the Provisions of Oxford.

The Provisions called for sweeping reform of government, in particular, the establishment of a number of advisory councils and committees to oversee political administration. It is too easy, perhaps, to think of these councils as a step towards democracy; the members of the councils were drawn from a very few powerful families, and they were uninterested in applying the same principles of government reform and accountability to the administration of their own estates and governance of the shires.

Henry agreed to the Provisions of Oxford, he had little choice but to do so, and confirmed his adherence to them on numerous occasions, but it is doubtful whether he ever had any intention of observing them. Ultimately, the struggle for control of the government polarized the nobility into those who supported the king and those who supported Simon de Montfort. The struggle ultimately led to the outbreak of the Baron's War.

Edward I

Edward I of England reigned as king from 1272 to 1307 CE. Edward succeeded his father Henry III of England (r. 1216-1272 CE) and was known as 'Longshanks' for his impressive height and as 'the Hammer of the Scots' for his repeated attacks on Scotland. In an eventful and often brutal reign, he fought in a crusade, subdued Wales, had a good go at conquering Scotland, and built many fine castles which still survive today, particularly in North Wales. He was succeeded by his son Edward II of England (r. 1307-1327 CE) and then his grandson Edward III of England (r. 1327-1377 CE).

Second Baron's War & Succession

Prince Edward was born on 17 or 18 June 1239 CE, the eldest son of Henry III of England and Eleanor of Provence (1223-1291 CE). Known for his fiery temper and self-confidence, Edward was nicknamed 'Longshanks' because of his height – 1.9 meters (6 ft. 2 inches), an unusually impressive stature for medieval times. He was strong, athletic, and as good a horseman as he was a swordsman. Edward was a staunch supporter of the medieval tournament, an event he often took part in personally, once famously unseating the Count of Chalon in a tournament held in Chalon. Destined to be king, the young prince would still have to battle hard to ensure his father's and his own throne remained secure from usurpers.

Henry III had successfully put an end to the Barons' War which had been fuelled by discontent over his father King John of England's rule (r. 1199-1216 CE) and his failure to honour the Magna Carta charter of liberties. Henry and his regent Sir William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke (c. 1146-1219 CE), considered the greatest of all medieval knights, defeated the rebel barons in battle at Lincoln on 20 May 1217 CE. Unfortunately, Henry did not grasp the lesson and his ineffective military campaigns, high taxes to pay for them, and excessive patronage of his French relatives only resulted in a second Barons' War.

The barons wanted a limit on royal power and stipulated in the 1258 CE Provisions of Oxford that taxes should go to the Treasury and not be available for the king's whims, and that a ruling council of 15 barons should advise the king. Another body, a parlement, was established as a place for discussion of policy to

which knights of the counties and burgesses of certain boroughs were invited to participate. Henry repudiated the Provisions in 1262 CE and so a civil war broke out.

Simon de Montfort

On 14 May 1264 CE, after the Battle of Lewes, the king and Prince Edward were both captured by the rebel leader Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester (l. c. 1208-1265 CE) who then made himself king in 1264 CE. Fortunately for Henry, his son Edward managed to escape confinement in May 1265 CE and so could help restore the rightful monarch to the throne.

Edward, who had already gained valuable military experience from his father's campaigns in Wales, raised an army of loyalists and those barons already upset by de Montfort's self-seeking policies and defeated the rebels at the Battle of Evesham in Worcestershire on 4 August 1265 CE. De Montfort was killed, and Henry was restored but spent much of his later years away from politics and improving the country's architectural monuments such as Westminster Abbey and Lincoln Cathedral.As Edward was away on what is sometimes called the Ninth Crusade (1271-2 CE), the actual coronation did not take place until 19 August 1274 CE, as usual at Westminster Abbey. Edward would reign until 1307 CE.

Personal Life

Edward married Eleanor of Castile (b. c. 1242 CE) in October 1254 CE when she was 12 and he was just 15 years old but the match worked out well. Eleanor even accompanied her husband on his crusade and when she died in 1290 CE, Edward suffered her loss greatly. The passage of her coffin from Lincoln to London was commemorated by the setting up of 12 monumental crosses, and one of these, the last on the route, would give London's Charing Cross its name. Edward, already with a family of 11 daughters and four sons, did marry again, on 10 September 1299 CE, to Margaret (c. 1282-1318 CE), the daughter of Philip III of France (r. 1270-1285 CE). Margaret was more than 40 years younger than Edward, but the marriage was another success

Subjugation of Wales

Henry III's string of military defeats in Wales (1228, 1231, and 1232 CE) had led to Henry conferring on LlywelynapGruffudd (c. 1223-1282 CE) the title of Prince of Wales. The Welshman's independence was further asserted when he refused to attend Edward's coronation in 1274 CE. The new king was rather better at warfare than his father had been, though, and Edward was intent on taking revenge for the slight. Organising a massive army in 1276 CE, the English king marched into Wales and stripped Llywelyn of his lands, although he did permit him to keep his now-meaningless royal title. Nevertheless, the Welsh still had ambitions of freedom from English rule and Llywelyn's brother Dafydd stirred up yet another rebellion. The rebels were defeated and Llywelyn was killed in 1282 CE, his head presented to the English king in triumph and then displayed at the Tower of London. Dafydd was eventually captured, and he was executed, too, using the brutal method reserved for traitors: hanging, drawing, and quartering the victim.

Edward now became determined to thoroughly impose his domination of the region, particularly in North Wales where the rebels had had their headquarters, by building a series of mighty castles. From 1283 CE onwards such imposing fortresses as Caernarfon Castle, Conwy Castle, and Harlech Castle were built. The king made sure his castles were often built on sites of cultural and historical importance to the Welsh to send a clear message that a new order had begun in the region. He even went so far as to ensure his son Edward was born in Caernarfon Castle – the heart of the English administration in Wales – on 25 April 1284 CE and then bestowed upon him the title of Prince of Wales (formally conferred in 1301 CE). Thereafter, it became customary for an English monarch to give this title to their eldest son.

Despite the castles and the royal propaganda, the Welsh were not quite subdued and another major rebellion broke out, this time led by MadogapLlywelyn, in 1294 CE. Edward, despite being forced to winter in Conwy Castle, managed to regain control of Caernarfon Castle by 1295 CE. Madog was then defeated by an army led by the Earl of Warwick at MaesMoydog in March 1295 CE, and Wales was henceforth administered as if it were a part of England, the region already having been divided up into shires in the 1284 CE Statute of

Rhuddlan in order to break up the old traditional kingdoms. A new series of castles was then erected to ensure continued obedience, which included Beaumaris Castle, perhaps the finest surviving example of a concentric medieval castle.

Administration in England

Edward attempted to avoid the errors of his predecessors by ensuring his home base of England was secure. The king made sure that the barons and their rights were protected, and that local administration was improved through a land survey (1274-5 CE) and better record-keeping (the Hundred Rolls). The 1275 CE the Statute of Westminster encoded 51 new laws, many based on the Magna Carta. Trial by jury was made mandatory (previously the accused had to consent to it) and Justices of the Peace were appointed.

The Model Parliament

The Model Parliament met for the first time in 1295 CE which had members from the clergy and knights as well as large estate owners, including two representatives from every shire and town (or borough). Membership of the parliament was still only given to those with wealth, but it was wider than ever before as Edward sought the best possible means to secure support for his greater revenue demands. The parliament also approved Edward's proposed military campaign in Scotland. The king might not have had any interest in limiting his own power or increasing that of the elite but his regular calling of parliament for the purposes of raising taxes nevertheless did kickstart the body as an ever-present institution in English government which acquired a character and precedence of its own. The inclusion of wealthy but untitled members was the beginning of what would become the House of Commons.

Attack on the kingdom's Jewish

Another consequence of the need for funds was the attack on the kingdom's Jewish community. In 1287 CE Edward happily began to expel all Jews from his kingdom, confiscating their property to boost his war coffers and appease the Church who regarded the moneylenders as a threat. By 1290 CE, the policy resulted in almost all 2,000 Jews in the kingdom leaving, one way or another, and Edward was so pleased with his policy that he repeated it in Gascony.

Attacks on Scotland

Edward was not content with ruling England and Wales but also set his sights on Scotland. The English king had hoped to gain control of Scotland via peaceful means when he arranged for his son to marry Margaret, the Maid of Norway who was the granddaughter and heir of King Alexander III of Scotland (r. 1249-1286 CE). Unfortunately, these plans came to nothing when Margaret died of illness on Orkney in September 1290 CE. Edward was then required to adjudicate who would be Alexander's successor (an event often termed the Great Cause): the powerful nobleman John Balliol (b. c. 1249 CE) or Robert Bruce (b. 1210 CE and grandfather of his more famous namesake). In 1292 CE Edward plumbed for Balliol, perhaps because he was the weaker of the two and so could be more easily manipulated. As it turned out, the Scots themselves grew tired of Balliol's ineffective responses to Edward's domination and open rebellion was in the air.

Death & Successor

Edward died of illness, probably dysentery, aged 68 on 7 July 1307 CE at Burgh by Sands, near Carlisle when about to engage in yet another campaign against the Scots. He was buried at Westminster Abbey and, at his own command, his tomb was inscribed with the following legend: 'Edward I, Hammer of the Scots. Keep the Faith'. He was succeeded by his son Edward II of England whose reign until 1327 CE was blighted by military incompetence, excessive patronage of his friends, anarchy at home amongst his own barons and, the cherry on a far-from-splendid royal cake, a resounding defeat by the Scots at Bannockburn in June 1314 CE. Another Edward would succeed him, Edward III of England, the grandson of Edward I and final part of the trio that completed the 'Edwardian' period of medieval England (1272-1377 CE).

The Hundred Years' War

The Hundred Years' war was a series of wars lasting for a little over a hundred years. The war itself was between two royal houses, House of Valois and Plantagenet, who were fighting over the French throne. At the time it had been vacant due to the demise of the Capetian line of French Kings. It all originally started because the House of Valois tried to claim the title of the King of France of course the Plantagenet from England also thought they had some stake in the throne as well. The Plantagenet were kings from the 12th century. Where it gets a little tricky is the fact that they had ancestry in the French region of Anjou and Normandy. This gave rise to a war that lasted 116 years

Throughout the 116 years that the war took place there were certain moments of peace. But for the most part this war waged on for well over one hundred years. Some would not even call it a war but out of the books I looked at it was more of a series of "conflicts." The conflicts themselves were broken down in to **four** phases.

The Edwardian War

The first of these phases was the Edwardian War from 1337-1360. This was spawned by the Treaty of Bretigny. This war was mostly marked with English victories. At one point in the war, France had reached a state of almost complete anarchy and civil war within themselves. The result of this phase was a peace treaty that according to author Desmond Seward, 'humiliated" France. The peace however did not even last ten years and gave rise to the Caroline War.

The Caroline War

The Caroline War was coined after the Charles V of France. It was the conflict that lasted from 1369-1389. The French wanted to resume the war after being forced to sign the treaty of Bretigny. The war itself stemmed from the Black Prince refusing to come to France. He felt as though it was an illegal summons. Charles wanted the prince to meet him in Paris and of course when he did not he declared war. Ending the nine years of peace that they had. This time however the French were actually successful. They were able to take back territories that were once lost in the treaty. At this point the French and English were able to come together in "peace."

The Lancastrian War

This peace was able to go on until the year 1415. That is when the Lancastrian War began. It was named after the fact that it was thought up by Henry IV. Who at the time it was the first House of Lancaster to sit at the throne of England. But at this point Henry V of England invaded Normandy. The English were successfully dominating this war until the arrival of Joan of Arc in 1429. Which at this point through a series of failed attempts the English had to retreat once again. But only for a short while, the end of this war saw the most power that England had up to this point. There was an English King crowned in Paris.

Arrival of Joan of Arc

The war however started to decline after the arrival of Joan of Arc in 1429. Britain's fortune began to dwindle due to the high costs of the war. There were a series of conflicts that spawned from this. They were the Breton War of Succession, Castilian Civil War, The War of Two Peters and finally the 1383-1385 Crisis.

The battles were not always just fought on empty fields. This was a war of power which could mean starving out cities and forcing Kings out of their kingdoms. The fact that these were both well rooted countries.

The Black Death

The English fared equally as good by the end of the war. Though they did not have to deal with as much physical damage. There was financial burdens that were left from the ongoing struggle. One of the biggest changes though was that the war helped shape England's political stances. After the war England enthusiasm for war seemed to decrease. With the financial strain from the war they stopped partaking in conflicts that did not fully benefit them as a country. England was a much stronger country after the war than before. Sadly as mentioned above they both felt a massive loss due to the outbreak of the black death.

The Hundred Years' War was a war fought for power. It was not for any sort of social movement or the betterment of the people. It was simply a dynastic based conflict. It was fought by weak leaders and marked by tragedy of the people. But in

the end the war was deemed necessary for French to expel the English from their country and to regain the throne that was rightfully theirs to begin with.

Edward III

Edward, the Prince

Few names in the history of fourteenth-century England have been better known than that of Edward, the Prince. Born at Woodstock on June 15th, 1330, to Philippa, daughter of William, count of Hainault, and her husband, the young Edward III of England, the boy was created Earl of Chester in May 1333 and, some four years later, Duke of Cornwall, the first time that the ducal title had been conferred in England. In May 1343 he became the second Prince of Wales. He now held the three titles that came to be associated with the King's eldest son and heir.

Edward III and the Battle of Crecy

The Genoese crossbowmen halted at the foot of the slope. It had been a long hot day, marching to encounter the English army, which at last was in sight. Giovanni could see a group of men on the hill and to his surprise they were all dismounted. He had expected a mounted army, small perhaps, but very like the French troops coming up behind him, with their splendid steeds and banners. Instead there were rows of men, whose armour did not show whether they were knights or not and whose shields he could not make out at a distance. On either side of the group there were carts, as so often on a battlefield, and he assumed these were simply parked as a rough barrier to prevent an attack from the flank. An easy job, he thought, and it should soon be over, with some booty to take home, particularly as the English had been in the field for weeks and were said to be short of supplies.

Edward III: The Flower of Kings Past

There is a sporadic but ongoing debate about who might be England's greatest king. Some favour Alfred the Great, even though he was not king of England but only of Wessex; some opt for William the Conqueror. The other

candidates regularly cited are Henry VIII and his daughter Elizabeth I. As any serious commentator is aware, the process is something of a parlour game – a harmless bit of fun that may prove of some value if it provokes some interest in an aspect of the past. But, like lists of 'the best album of all time', repeated critical attention means the same few candidates are cited again and again; and tested against the lowest common denominator of general historical knowledge with the result that the tediously repetitive shortlist has more to say about Victorian ideals and current historical assumptions than the actual impact of the individuals

Political crises, 1371–1377

The initial stages of the new war were paid for from the profits of the royal ransoms and the income from indirect taxation and clerical subsidies, and it was not until 1371 that the crown approached parliament for direct taxes. After a decade of freedom from such impositions the Commons proposed an experimental levy, designed to raise £50,000, to be collected by setting a standard charge on every parish in the land and allowing assessors to raise or lower the amount according to local circumstance. Edward had to pay a high political price for this tax, being required to dismiss the chancellor, Bishop Wykeham, the treasurer, Thomas Brantingham, bishop of Exeter, and the keeper of the privy seal, Peter Lacy, and to replace them with laymen. Parliament—and particularly the parliamentary Commons—was thus pursuing very much the same line that the king had adopted during the earlier crisis of 1340–41; its ability to dictate the course of government is demonstrated by the fact that ecclesiastics were not appointed to the chancellorship and treasurership again until January 1377.

By 1376 the taxes authorized in the parliaments of 1371 and 1373 had all been spent and the government was desperately short of money. Despite the renewal of the truce of Bruges for a further year in 1376, the crown's finances were in so parlous a state that parliament had to be called and asked for further supplies. The Good Parliament, as contemporaries subsequently referred to it, met in April 1376. It refused to the last to authorize direct taxes, though, as in the years of peace during the 1360s, it did agree to the extension of the wool subsidy. Before it did so, however, it had carried out the most dramatic and damaging attack on royal government yet witnessed in a medieval parliament.

Edward III was too ill to attend the Good Parliament and his eldest son was to die in the course of the session, so the assembly was presided over by John of Gaunt. It may be that the king's absence made the Lords and, more specifically, the Commons less reticent about their grievances against the crown. The Commons, meeting in the chapter house of Westminster Abbey, selected Sir Peter de la Mare as their spokesman. After some delay, they secured the appointment of a new council, including the earl of March and Bishop Wykeham, both of whom had personal grievances against members of the court. Then, on 12 May, de la Mare appeared before Gaunt and, on behalf of the Commons, laid certain accusations against William Latimer, the king's chamberlain, John Neville of Raby, the steward of the household, Richard Lyons, a London merchant, and a number of other financiers. Latimer and Lyons, the principal targets of the Commons' wrath, were accused of profiting from controversial financial schemes designed to raise money for the king's coffers. Also accused was Alice Perrers (d. 1400/01), the king's mistress, who had replaced Queen Philippa in Edward's bed and affections during the mid-1360s, and with whom the king had at least three Illegitimate children. Her alleged greed, resulting from her influence at court, made her a controversial figure. The Commons' charges were heard before the Lords (thus establishing the procedure for parliamentary impeachment), and the government had no choice but to dismiss Latimer and Neville, to imprison Lyons, and to banish Alice Perrers from the king's company. By the time the session was concluded on 10 July the court was in complete disarray.

Good Parliament

The political victory of the Good Parliament was, however, short-lived. By October 1376 the displaced courtiers had been pardoned and restored to their titles, if not to their offices. The parliament that assembled at Westminster in January 1377 proved extraordinarily amenable to Gaunt's will, accepting the reversal of the earlier impeachments and authorizing further direct taxation in the novel form of a poll tax fixed at the rate of 4d. per head on all those over the age of fourteen. As in 1341 parliament was apparently forced to accept that the crown had the right to renege on political concessions made against its will. More immediately it had to face the imminent renewal of war and the rumor of a French invasion. During this crisis it also became clear that the one element of stability in the regime—the king himself—was about to be removed.

Edward III's Round Table

When Channel Four's 'Time Team' obtained permission to dig simultaneously at Buckingham Palace, Windsor Castle and Holyrood House on the bank holiday weekend of 2006, to mark the Queen's 80th birthday, there were high hopes that these sites, largely unexplored by archaeologists, might produce valuable new information about the royal palaces. On the advice of Oxford Archaeology, Time Team chose one of Windsor's most mysterious structures, for their investigation. It was a building that was probably never completed, and was generally believed to have been abandoned when it was only partly built, because it was hopelessly over-ambitious. No trace of it remained, and there had been various theories as to where it had been sited.

War and the English Gentry Under Edward III

In September 1586, officials of the Court of Chivalry visited John de Rithre esquire at his home in Scarborough. He was a sixty-six year old war veteran and they had come to gather evidence relating to the dispute between Sir Richard Scrope and Sir Robert Grosvenor over possession of the arms azure a bend or. Rithre's deposition, in support of Scrope's claim, offers a fascinating catalogue of campaigning memories, focusing essentially on his recollections of the military exploits of the Scrope family, but at the same time serving to outline the main events of his own long and colourful military career.

Last period of Henry III

Edward III was skillful in politics and war, winning victories against Scotland at Halidon Hill (1333) and Neville's Cross (1346). His claim to the French crown initiated the Hundred Years War in which his reputation was made by spectacular successes at the battles of Sluys, Crecy, Calais and Poitiers. His later years were marked by financial difficulties and decline. Edward's reign also witnessed the outbreak of the Black Death.

Richard III

Born in October 1452 at Fotheringhay Castle, he was the eleventh child of Richard, Duke of York, and his wife, Cecily Neville. As a child he fell under the influence of his cousin, the Earl of Warwick who would guide and tutor him in his training as a knight. The earl would later become known as "the Kingmaker" for his involvement in the power struggles emerging out of the War of the Roses. Meanwhile, his father and his elder brother, Edmund had been killed at the Battle of Wakefield in December 1460, leaving Richard and his other brother George to be sent away to the continent.

As the War of the Roses initiated changing fortunes for both the Houses of York and Lancaster, Richard found himself returning to his homeland after a Yorkist victory was secured at the Battle of Towton. With his father killed in battle, his older brother Edward assumed the crown and Richard attended his coronation on the 28th June 1461, witnessing his brother become King Edward IV of England, whilst Richard was given the title Duke of Gloucester.

With Edward now in power, the Earl of Warwick began to strategize, arranging for his daughters advantageous marriages. In time however, the relationship between Edward IV and Warwick the Kingmaker soured, leading George, who had married Warwick's daughter Isabel, to side with his new father-in-law whilst Richard favoured his brother, the king, Edward IV. Now the family divisions between brothers became clear: following Warwick's allegiance to Margaret of Anjou, the queen of the House of Lancaster, Richard and Edward were forced to flee to the continent in October 1470.

They were welcomed to a safe haven in Burgundy by their sister, Margaret, who was married to the Duke of Burgundy. Only a year later, Edward would return and reclaim his crown after the victories fought at Barnet and Tewkesbury. Young Richard would prove instrumental despite being only eighteen years of age. Whilst not as robust as his brothers, his training as a knight held him in good stead and he became a strong fighting force.

He engaged in conflict at both Barnet and Tewkesbury, witnessing the downfall of Warwick the Kingmaker and his brother, and finally enacting defeat on the Lancastrian forces and restoring Edward to the throne. With his brother restored as King Edward IV, Richard married Anne Neville, who also happened to be the youngest daughter of the Earl of Warwick. This was to be her second marriage, her first having ended at the Battle of Barnet as her husband, Edward of Westminster, a Lancastrian, had been killed in battle.

Richard III and his wife Anne Neville

Now married to Richard, this betrothal would secure Richard's position as one of the greatest landowners in the country, controlling large swathes of the north of England. With such substantial financial gain came great responsibility. Richard once again rose to the occasion, handling the administration of the region as an intelligent tactician.

This was enhanced by his positive and fruitful Scottish campaign in 1482, proving himself as a leader and military figure. Whilst carrying no official title from the region, his service as "Lord of the North" proved highly successful, demonstrating his ability to handle responsibilities separate from his monarchical brother who had a growing reputation for immorality.

Edward IV at this point was suffering from an increasingly poor reputation, with many seeing his court as dissolute and corrupt. As king he had many mistresses and had even had his brother, George, Duke of Clarence charged with treason and murdered in 1478. Richard meanwhile was keen to distance himself from his brother's unfavourable reputation whilst still remaining increasingly suspicious of Edward's wife, Elizabeth Woodville and her extended relations. Richard believed that Elizabeth held great sway over the king's decisions, even suspecting her influence in the murder of his brother, George, Duke of Clarence. In 1483, such a context of mistrust and suspicion reared its head when Edward IV

unexpectedly died, leaving two sons and five daughters. His eldest son was the heir to the throne and was destined to become Edward V.

Edward had already made arrangements, entrusting his son's welfare with Richard who was appointed as "Lord Protector". This would mark the beginning of a power struggle between Richard and the Woodvilles over Edward V and his ascendancy to the throne. The Woodvilles, including Earl Rivers, young Edward V's uncle, had a strong influence on his upbringing and were keen to overturn Richard's role as Protector and instead set up a Regency Council making Edward V king immediately, whilst the power remained with them.

For Richard, such influence from Elizabeth Woodville and her extended family was unacceptable and thus he hatched a plan that would secure the fate of the Yorkist throne with himself, whilst young Edward V who was only twelve years old, would become collateral damage. In the coming weeks, in the lead up to Edward V's coronation, Richard intercepted the royal party, forcing them to disperse and issuing the arrest of Earl Rivers and Edward's eldest half-brother. Both ended up being executed.

With the help of the intervention of Richard, parliament announced that Edward and his younger siblings were illegitimate, leaving Richard as the new rightful heir to the throne.

Edward V, despite all protestations, was accompanied by Richard personally to the Tower of London, only to be later joined by his younger brother. The two boys, who became known as the "Princes in the Tower" were never seen again, presumed murdered. Richard had successfully usurped his nephew to become King of England in 1483.

Richard was crowned, alongside his wife Anne, on 6th July 1483, marking the beginning of a turbulent two year reign. After only a year on the throne, his only son Edward died in July 1483, leaving Richard with no natural heirs and thus, opening up speculation and attempts to claim the throne. Meanwhile, embroiled in the grief for her son, Queen Anne also passed away at the Palace of Westminster at only twenty-eight years of age. Richard, having lost his son and heir, chose to

nominate John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln as his successor. Such a nomination led the Lancastrian forces to choose their own representative for the succession: Henry Tudor.

In his two years as reigning monarch, Richard would have to face threats and challenges to his position as king, with Henry Tudor posing the most effective opposition, keen to bring an end to Richard's reign and the House of York. Another leading figure in revolt also included one of his former allies, Henry Stafford, 2nd Duke of Buckingham. Only two months after his coronation, Richard faced a revolt by the Duke of Buckingham which, fortunately for the king, was easily suppressed.

Two years later however, Henry Tudor looked to pose a more serious threat, when he and his uncle Jasper Tudor arrived in south Wales with a large force made up of French troops. This newly gathered army marched through the area, increasing momentum and gaining new recruits as they went. Finally, the confrontation with Richard was set to play out on Bosworth Field in August 1485. This epic battle would finally bring an end to the ongoing dynastic battle which had defined this period of English history. Richard was prepared to fight and hastily brought together a large army which intercepted Henry Tudor's army near Market Bosworth.

The Battle of Bosworth

Another important figure in this battle was Henry's stepfather, Lord Thomas Stanley who held the crucial power of deciding which side he would support. In the end he defected his support from Richard and changed his allegiance to Henry Tudor, taking with him around 7,000 fighters.

Richard's army still outnumbered Henry's men and he chose to lead his forces under the command of the Duke of Norfolk and the Earl of Northumberland whilst Henry Tudor chose the experienced Earl of Oxford who subsequently forced Norfolk's men back across the battlefield.

Northumberland would prove ineffectual as well, and sensing that action needed to be taken Richard charged with his men across the battlefield with the aim of killing his contender and declaring victory. Such a plan however sadly did

not materialize for Richard who found himself surrounded by Lord Stanley and his men, resulting in his death on the battlefield. Richard's death marked the end of the House of York. Significantly he was also the last English king to die in battle.

UNIT III

The Lancastrian kings and the Tudors

Henry IV "Bolingbroke" (Reign 1399-1413)

When cousins Richard and Henry Bolingbroke were ten and eleven years old, they were admitted into the Order of the Garter. Both children swore an oath that they would not attack each other. Twenty years later Henry usurped the crown from his cousin Richard.

Henry IV asked Isabella of Valois, the young second wife of Richard, and now a widow if she would marry his son, also named Henry. Little Isabella rejected this offer, eventually returning to France, where her father, Charles VI, suffered from mental illness.

Battle of Shrewsbury

Map of the Battle of Shrewsbury between Henry IV and Henry "Hotspur" Percy. The Royalists are those who support King Henry IV.

Henry's reign was plagued with rebellion and attacks. The powerful Percy family from the north of England, once an ally of Henry IV, teamed up with the Welsh leader Owen Glendowr, who proclaimed himself Prince of Wales. On July 21, 1403, Henry IV, with his son Henry of Monmouth, defeated Henry "Hotspur" Percy and the Welsh at Shrewsbury. "Hotspur" was killed in battle. Henry IV suffered from a skin disease in his later reign, he died in March of 1413.

Henry V "Monmouth" (Reign: 1413-1422)

Henry V was born in Monmouth Castle in 1386. Henry fought with his father during the many rebellions against the royal family of Lancaster. At the Battle of Shrewsbury, at age 16, Henry was shot in the face with an arrow. Only through the help of a very good surgeon, was Henry saved from possible death.

Henry V was an ambitious king, he revived the Hundred Years War with France, sailing from Southampton across the English Channel to attack the French port city of Harfleur. Before he set sail, a plot to have the King assassinated was revealed. Henry V had his relative, Richard, Earl of Cambridge, along with others plotting against him, executed before he left for France.

Henry spent a great effort to take the city of Harfleur. Low on resources and with many of his men sick, Henry could not continue his attack on France. Henry marched his army through the north of France from Harfleur to the English-controlled city of Calais. While on this march the English army encountered a much larger French army cutting off its march to Calais near the village of Agincourt.

The Battle of Agincourt, October 25, 1415

Agincourt was one of the greatest battles of the Middle Ages. At Agincourt, Henry V and his small force of tired and sick soldiers defeated a much larger – possibly out-numbering the English 6 to 1 – fresh army of the French. Though outnumbered, the English had the benefit of having their king at the battlefield, while the French King, Charles VI, was not capable of leading his knights. The over-confident French were once again, like at Crecy years before, defeated by the hailstorm of arrows released into the sky by the Welsh longbowmen of the English army. To make matters worse for the French, the battlefield was a muddy, unplowed field from the rain the night before. Horses lost their footing and French knights were spilled to the ground.

Henry V at Agincourt

Shortly after the Battle of Agincourt, the French decided to make a peace treaty with the English. The Treaty of Troyes, signed in 1420, was an attempt to end the Hundred Years War. Charles VI of France was allowed to keep his title until he died. Henry V was to marry Catherine Valois, the king's daughter and the younger sister of Isabella, one-time queen of Richard II. Henry, or any sons from his marriage to Catherine, would inherit the French throne. The dauphin Charles, the French King's son, was disinherited by this treaty.

Henry V did not get the chance to become king of France, he died unexpectedly in 1422 of dysentery, two years after the signing of the Treaty of Troyes at the age of 35. Henry and Catherine had one child, Prince Henry, who became King of England at age 9 months. One of Henry V's brothers, John acted as regent for the child-king. A few months after the death of Henry V, Charles VI of France also died in 1422. Now little Henry VI was also the King of France by way of the Treaty of Troyes.

Henry V was one of England's most respected kings. Later William Shakespeare, the famous English playwright, immortalized Henry V in his play by the same name. The most famous lines from that play comes just before the Battle of Agincourt, when Henry gives his troops an inspirational speech before the battle and talks about all of the soldiers, rich and poor, noble and commoners, coming together for this great battle, "We, few, we happy few, we band of brothers."

Sources

The Wars of the Roses were a series of bloody civil wars for the throne of England between two competing royal families: the House of York and the House of Lancaster, both members of the age-old royal Plantagenet family. Waged between 1455 and 1485, the Wars of the Roses earned its flowery name because the white rose was the badge of the Yorks, and the red rose was the badge of the Lancastrians. After 30 years of political manipulation, horrific carnage and brief periods of peace, the wars ended and a new royal dynasty emerged.

Henry VI and the War of Rose's

In 1422, Henry VI succeeded his father Henry V and became King of England—at just nine months old. Thanks to his father's military conquests, Henry VI also became the disputed King of France. In 1445, Henry VI married Margaret of Anjou, a noble and strong-willed Frenchwoman whose ambition and political savvy overshadowed her husband's.

All was not well in King Henry's court. He had little interest in politics and was a weak ruler. This incited rampant lawlessness throughout his realm and opened the door for power-hungry nobles and kingmakers to plot behind his back.

Richard of York

Henry's lack of leadership led him to lose almost all his holdings in France. This and the corruption and mismanagement of power in England, not to mention heavy taxation, caused frustrated property owners and peasants from Kent to revolt in 1450. Led by Jack Cade, they marched on London and presented Henry with a list of demands known as the "Complaint of the Poor Commons of Kent."

Henry never officially agreed to Cade's demands, one of which was to recall Richard, Duke of York, from Ireland back to England. Richard of York—as great-grandson of King Edward III—had a strong competing claim on the English throne. After a series of skirmishes, Henry squashed Cade's rebellion and pardoned the rebels—except for Jack Cade himself, who would later die from a mortal wound during his arrest. Henry believed Richard of York was behind Cade's rebellion (though there's scant evidence that the Duke of York was involved). This rivalry set the stage for 30 years of battles for power involving three generations of Yorks and Lancasters.

The Madness of King Henry VI

By 1452, Richard of York had returned to England and decided his mission in life was to rid Henry of his corrupt advisors, particularly Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset. He raised an army and marched on London declaring fealty to Henry while also compelling him to remove Somerset from his post. But Somerset held on until Henry succumbed to his first bout of madness in 1454, leaving him virtually catatonic and unable to reign.

During Henry's illness, Richard became Lord Protector of England and imprisoned Somerset in the Tower of London. It was a bitter victory, however: Queen Margaret had given birth to Henry's only son, Edward of Lancaster, in 1453, which weakened Richard's claim to the throne. In February 1455, Henry

recovered from his spell of insanity almost as suddenly as he'd yielded to it. Richard and his ministers were sent away and Somerset reinstated.

St. Albans

On May 22, 1455, Richard of York, aligned with Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, marched against Henry at St. Albans. After failed negotiations, the brief yet vicious battle raged through the town's streets and left Somerset dead and Henry wounded. The Yorks took Henry prisoner and Richard became Lord Protector again. Queen Margaret and her young son, fearful for their lives, went into exile.

The Battle of Blore Heath

As Richard maintained a shaky hold on England, Margaret worked behind the scenes to restore Henry to the throne, and uphold her son's place as his rightful heir. Fearing his days were numbered, Richard formed an army commanded by Lord Salisbury. Salisbury's army met Margaret's large and well-equipped army, commanded by Lord Audley, at Blore Heath on September 23, 1459 in Staffordshire. Though outnumbered two to one, the Yorks soundly defeated the Lancastrians.

The Battles of Ludford Bridge and Northampton

The Battle of Ludford Bridge was not waged with ammunition, but was a battle of wills and courage. By autumn of 1459, Henry and his queen had once again mustered a significant army, which now included many York deserters. Richard of York, Salisbury, Warwick and their forces withdrew to Ludlow Bridge near Ludford, Shropshire to stand against Henry and his men. On the night of October 12, many Yorks defected and their leaders fled; Richard himself fled back to Ireland.

Richard and his supporters weren't finished harassing Henry and Margaret. In June of 1460, Richard's ally Warwick entered London with thousands of men. As they advanced on Henry's army in Northampton, victory seemed unlikely. But unbeknownst to Henry, one of his Lancastrian commanders was a turncoat and

allowed Warwick's men access to Henry's camp. The Yorks easily won the battle and captured King Henry as Margaret fled once again.

The Battle of Wakefield

With Henry under his control, Richard again proclaimed himself and his heirs Henry's successors. Henry agreed so long as he'd retain the crown until his death. Their agreement was passed by the English Parliament and called the Act of Accord. The ambitious Queen Margaret, however, would have none of this compromise, and raised another army to rise against the Yorks. Richard set out with his forces to defeat Margaret's army and settle the matter of succession once and for all. The armies clashed at Wakefield Green near Sandal Castle. But things didn't work out as Richard had planned. He was killed; his severed head was put on display wearing a paper crown.

Battle of Towton

Richard's son Edward, Earl of March, succeeded his father. He also took over where Richard left off against the Lancastrians. In the middle of winter 1461, his York forces defeated the Lancastrians at the Battle of Mortimer's Cross. Weeks later, they were crushed by the Lancastrians at the Second Battle of St. Albans. It was here King Henry was rescued and reunited with his queen, but Edward wouldn't give up. In March of 1461, Edward confronted the Lancastrian army in a snowstorm in the middle of a field near Towton, North Yorkshire. It's believed over 50,000 men engaged in brutal fighting and around 28,000 died.

The Battle of Towton was the bloodiest one-day battle in England's history. The Yorks emerged victorious and Henry, Margaret and their son fled to Scotland leaving Edward King of England.

Power Changes Hands Again and Again

Edward IV may have gained the throne, but he'd underestimated the deposed Queen Margaret's stealth and ambition. With the help of her compatriots in France, she ousted Edward and restored her husband to the throne in October 1470. Edward went into hiding but wasn't idle. He mustered an army and won York victories at the Battle of Barnett and the Battle of Tewksbury. At Tewskbury, Henry and Margaret's only son was killed and the royal couple were captured and

held in the Tower of London; the throne of England reverted back to Edward. On May 21, 1471, deposed King Henry VI died, supposedly of sadness, although some historians believe Edward had him murdered. Queen Margaret was eventually released and made her way back to Anjou in France, where she died in 1482.

Princes in the Tower

King Edward IV died in 1483 and was succeeded by his young son Edward V. Richard III, the ambitious brother of Edward IV, became his nephew Edward's Lord Protector—but he plotted to have Edward V and his younger brother declared illegitimate.

To eliminate any threats to his throne, Richard III had his young nephews held in the Tower of London, supposedly for their protection. When both boys—now famous as the Princes in the Tower—vanished and Richard was accused of ordering them murdered, the king quickly lost favor with his people.

The Tudors

As Richard's right to the throne became tenuous, the Lancastrian Henry Tudor—with the help of France and many nobles—staked his claim to the crown. He met Richard on the battlefield at Bosworth on August 22, 1485. After fighting valiantly, Richard III was killed. Legend has it his crown was placed on Henry's head at the very spot where Richard fell. Henry was declared King Henry VII. After his official coronation, Henry married Elizabeth of York to reconcile the long-feuding Lancaster and York houses. This union ended the Wars of the Roses and gave rise to the Tudor Dynasty.

United Kingdom

Lancaster and York

Recent scholarship has done much to transform the view that the 15th century was a period dominated by a factious nobility, when constructive achievements were few. In particular, the character of the nobility has been reconceived, and the century has emerged in a more positive light. It appears that even in politics and administration much was done that anticipated the

achievements of the Tudors, while in the economy the foundations for future growth and prosperity were laid.

Henry IV (1399–1413)

Henry of Lancaster gave promise of being able to develop a better rapport with his people than his predecessor, Richard II. He was a warrior of great renown who had traveled to Jerusalem and had fought in Prussia against infidels. He also had a reputation for affability and for statesmanlike self-control, and he had won his crown with the support of "the estates of the realm." It did not matter much whether that meant Parliament or something more vague and symbolic. Henry, however, intended to rule as a true king, with the prerogatives of the crown unimpaired, whereas his Parliaments, from the first, expected him to govern with the advice and consent of his council, and to listen to Parliament regarding requests for money. Thus although Archbishop Arundel stressed in 1399 that Henry wished to be properly advised and that he intended to be governed by common advice and counsel, some argument and conflict was inevitable.

The rebellions

Henry's immediate task after his accession was to put down a rebellion threatening to restore Richard. The earls of Rutland, Kent, and Huntingdon, supported by the bishop of Carlisle, conspired against the king. The rising was unexpected, but Henry won support in London and defeated the rebels near Cirencester. More significant was the revolt of Owain Glyn Dwr that broke out in 1399 and became serious in 1402. Glyn Dwr sought a French alliance and captured Edmund Mortimer, uncle of the Earl of March, Richard II's legitimate heir. Mortimer was persuaded to join the rebellion, which now aimed to make March king. In 1403 the Welsh rebels joined the Percys of Northumberland in a powerful coalition. The younger Percy, "Hotspur," was killed at Shrewsbury in 1403. The elder was pardoned, only to rebel once more in 1405, again in conjunction with Glyn Dwr. Henry broke the alliance with a victory at Shipton Moor. Percy was finally killed in 1408, but Glyn Dwr, driven into the mountains of North Wales, was never captured.

Henry IV and Parliament

Henry's relations with his Parliaments were uneasy. The main problem, of course, was money. Henry, as Duke of Lancaster, was a wealthy man, but as king he had forfeited some of his income by repudiating Richard II's tactics, though he also avoided Richard's extravagance. His needs were still great, threatened as he was by rebellion in England and war in France. A central issue was Parliament's demand, as in 1404, that the king take back all royal land that had been granted and leased out since 1366. This was so that he might "live of his own." The kIng could hardly adopt a measure that would cause much upheaval. Arguments in 1406 were so protracted that the Parliament met for 159 days, becoming the longest Parliament of the medieval period. On several occasions the Commons insisted on taxes being spent in the way that they wished, primarily on the defense of the realm.

The later Parliaments of Henry's reign brought no new problems, but the king became less active in government as he was more and more incapacitated by illness. From 1408 to 1411 the government was dominated first by Archbishop Arundel and then by the king's son Henry, who, with the support of the Beaufort brothers, sons of John of Gaunt by Katherine Swynford, attempted to win control over the council. There was much argument over the best political strategy to adopt in France, where civil war was raging; young Henry wanted to resume the war in France, but the king favoured peace. In 1411 the king recovered his authority, and the Prince of Wales was dismissed from the council. Uneasy relations between the prince and his father lasted until Henry IV's death in 1413.

Henry VII (r. 1485-1509)

Henry VII was the founder of the Tudor dynasty, unifying the warring factions in the Wars of the Roses. Although supported by Lancastrians and Yorkists alienated by Richard III's deposition of his nephew, Edward V, Henry VII's first task was to secure his position. In 1486 he married Elizabeth of York, eldest daughter of Edward IV, thus uniting the Houses of York and Lancaster but making sure that the evidence adduced in 1483 for the illegitimacy of Edward IV's children was suppressed.

Making Alliances

Several significant alliances helped Henry Tudor secure his path to the throne. First, he promised the Yorkists who did not support Richard III that if he, Henry Tudor, were crowned king, he would marry Elizabeth of York as a way to reunify the houses of York and Lancaster. Elizabeth of York was the daughter of the late Edward IV, the sister of the princes in the tower, and the niece of Richard III. This was a powerful promise that garnered a lot of support from members of the House of York who disapproved of Richard III's reign.

Henry Tudor also had the support of the House of Lancaster, who recognized his claim to the throne despite how tenuous it was. He was the best surviving option for the Lancastrians if they had any hope of regaining the throne. In addition to support from the Lancastrians and many Yorkists, Henry Tudor forged alliances with the French, who were under threat from Richard III. Having spent many years in exile in France, he was able to gain support with offers of peace between the nations.

Winning the Throne

Henry Tudor arrived in England in 1485 and took part in the Battle of Bosworth Field. This was the final important battle in the War of the Roses. During the battle, Richard III was killed and Henry Tudor became Henry VII. Henry VII was the last English monarch to claim the throne as a result of a

battlefield victory and his claim was generally met with popular support. He followed through on his promise to marry Elizabeth of York, ending the War of the Roses and uniting the houses of York and Lancaster. During the war, each house had been represented symbolically with images of roses: York had a white rose and Lancaster a red rose. Henry VII's new coat of arms featured a single rose with both red and white elements, symbolizing the peaceful union of the houses.

Henry's reign (1485-1509) was troubled by revolts, sometimes involving pretenders (such as Perkin Warbeck and Lambert Simnel) who impersonated Edward V or his brother. With this in mind, in 1485, Henry formed a personal bodyguard from his followers known as the 'Yeomen of the Guard' (the oldest military corps in existence today). Henry strengthened the power of the monarchy by using traditional methods of government to tighten royal administration and increase revenues (reportedly including a daily examination of accounts).

Royal income rose from an annual average of £52,000 to £142,000 by the end of Henry's reign. Little co-operation between King and Parliament was required; during Henry's reign of 24 years, seven Parliaments sat for some ten and a half months.

Henry used dynastic royal marriages to establish his dynasty in England and help maintain peace. One daughter, Margaret, was married to James IV of Scotland (from whom Mary, Queen of Scots and her son, James VI of Scotland and James I of England, were descended); the other daughter married Louis IX of France. Henry spent money shrewdly and left a full treasury on his death in 1509, he was succeeded by his son, Henry VIII

Henry VIII

Early life

Born at the Palace of Placentia at Greenwich, Henry was the third child of Henry VII and Elizabeth of York. Only three of Henry's six siblings, Arthur, Prince of Wales, Margaret Tudor, and Mary Tudor (queen consort of France), survived infancy. His father had become King through conquest, but solidified his hold by marrying Elizabeth, the sister of Edward V of England. In 1493, the young Henry, just two years old, was appointed Constable of Dover Castle and Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports. Dover was the main route for travel across the channel to Europe, and a source of tax-revenue on imports. In 1494, he was created Duke of York. He was subsequently appointed Earl Marshal of England and Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, though still a child.

Major act

Henry granted his assent to the Acts of Union 1536-1543, which formally annexed Wales, uniting England and Wales into one nation. The Act provided for the sole use of English in official proceedings in Wales, inconveniencing the numerous speakers of the Welsh language.

Henry continued with his persecution of his religious opponents. In 1536, an uprising known as the Pilgrimage of Grace broke out in Northern England. To appease the rebellious Roman Catholics, Henry agreed to allow Parliament to address their concerns.

The King's Great Matter

Henry VIII's accession was the first peaceful one England had witnessed in many years; however, the new Tudor dynasty's legitimacy could yet be tested. The English people seemed distrustful of female rulers, and Henry felt that only a male heir could secure the throne. Although Queen Catherine had been pregnant at least seven times (for the last time in 1518), only one child, the Princess Mary, had survived beyond infancy. Henry had previously been happy with mistresses,

including Mary Boleyn and Elizabeth Blount, with whom he had had a bastard son, Henry Fitzroy, 1st Duke of Richmond and Somerset. In 1526, when it became clear that Queen Catherine could have no further children, he began to pursue Mary Boleyn's sister, Anne Boleyn. Although it was almost certainly Henry's desire for a male heir that made him determined to divorce Catherine, he was very infatuated with Anne, despite her childbearing inexperience and famously plain looks. Henry's long and arduous attempt to end his marriage to Queen Catherine became known as 'The King's Great Matter.'

Break from the Roman Catholic Church

The prayers in these late-medieval sacred books and scrolls were often in Latin to signify that all Western Christians were part of the Roman Catholic Church. However, Henry formally broke with the Pope and the Roman Church after Pope Clement VII refused to grant him an annulment of his marriage to Katherine of Aragon so that he could wed Anne. His appeal for an annulment was on the grounds that their union contravened the scriptures, citing Leviticus 20. 21, which prohibits a man from marrying his brother's widow.

In 1533 the English Parliament passed the Act in Restraint of Appeals, which denied papal jurisdiction in England and ended appeals of court cases to Rome. The 1534 Act of Supremacy then recognised the king as the Supreme Head of the Church in England with 'full power and authority' to 'reform' the institution and 'amend' all errors and heresies. Henry and his newly-appointed 'Vice Gerent in Spiritual Affairs', Thomas Cromwell, immediately embarked upon a programme of reform. Cromwell's Injunctions of 1536, and 1538 attacked idolatry, pilgrimages and other 'superstitions'. The lesser monasteries were closed in 1536 and the remaining monasteries were dissolved over the next few years. Those men and women who resisted the closures were imprisoned or hanged.

Although Henry rejected Martin Luther's theology of justification by faith alone, he did accept the German reformer's insistence upon the supremacy of Scripture. After all, the 'Word of God' (Leviticus 20.21) had justified the annulment of his first marriage. Consequently, encouraged by Cromwell and Archbishop Thomas Cranmer of Canterbury, Henry authorised an English Bible that could be read by the laity as well as the clergy. At this time the best printed

translation of the New Testament in English was by William Tyndale, who was a Lutheran burned in Antwerp in 1536. However, the king and his more conservative bishops refused to entertain the thought of publishing any work of the convicted heretic. Instead, two other Bibles received a royal licence.

Bible translation

The first was a translation of the complete Bible by Miles Coverdale – the first of its kind – which had originally been printed abroad in 1535. In the 1538 edition (the one authorised by the king), Hans Holbein's title page shows Henry, flanked by King David and St Paul, handing the Bible to a bishop. The second translation was also printed abroad. The man responsible was supposedly one 'Thomas Matthew', and so the text became known as the 'Matthew Bible'. In fact, 'Thomas Matthew' was a pseudonym taken from the names of two of Jesus's disciples. This Bible was actually produced by one of Tyndale's associates, John Rogers. After his friend's death, Rogers had compiled a new text based on Tyndale's printed New Testament and manuscripts of the Old Testament; Coverdale's translation was used to fill the gaps.

Results of His Religious Policy:

The religious policy of Henry VIII brought for him and for England consequences of far-ranging importance.

First, the ecclesiastical independence of England was secured when Henry VIII disregarded the authority of the Pope. The king and not the Pope became the head of the church in his reign.

Secondly, his religious policy raised the power and position of crown to a height unparallel before or after in English history. The king, seizing for him all the Papal powers and enormous church properties, could command enough of influence in Europe.

Thirdly, many saintly bishops, great scholars, avowed monks who refuted to accept the Act of supremacy were hanged r or left to die in chains.

Fourthly, the dissolution of smaller monasteries aroused wide spread discontent in Northern England. In 1536 under the leadership of Robert Aske, the people started an agitation.

It was known as the pilgrimage of Grace. Their motto was "One God, One Faith is One King." The rebellion was ruthlessly suppressed; the leaders including Aske were hunted down. By the middle of 1537, the pilgrimage of Grace was no more than a memory. The failure of the agitation led to the dissolution of the greater monasteries.

But the effect of the dissolution on economic life was disastrous. All the monasteries were not corrupt. Many of them used to give charitable relief to the poor and the destitutes. And now they were deprived of their maintenance. Many persons, including monks, were turned out on the roads to beg, steal or die Henery by suppressing the monasteries wanted to cut a cancer bat in doing so he destroyed many living cells. On the other hand, the wealth Henry received from the monasteries was spent on education, building, defence and strengthening the royal navy. Lastly, an important step was taken in the translation of the Bible. The old copes of Tyndale's version of the Bible were destroyed and new translation made by Miles coverdale was followed.

Death

Henry died at the age of 55 years and seven months. He had ruled England and Wales with a mailed fist for 37 years and 281 days. The Tudor dynasty would continue, through the succession was fragile, with no insurance of a spare male heir (as Henry VIII himself had been). Nonetheless, after two wives divorced, two more executed, another dying after childbirth, and a terrible litany of stillbirths, miscarriages, and postnatal deaths of his progeny, it was something of a miracle that the Tudor line lived on.

Edward VI (1547-1553)

Edward VI became king at the age of nine upon the death of his father, Henry VIII, and Regency was created. Although he was intellectually precocious (fluent in Greek and Latin, he kept a full journal of his reign), he was not, however, physically robust. His short reign was dominated by nobles using the Regency to strengthen their own positions. The King's Council, previously dominated by Henry, succumbed to existing factionalism. On Henry's death, Edward Seymour, Earl of Hertford and soon to be Duke of Somerset, the new King's eldest uncle, became Protector.

Seymour

Seymour was an able soldier; he led a punitive expedition against the Scots, for their failure to fulfil their promise to betroth Mary, Queen of Scots to Edward, which led to Seymour's victory at the Battle of Pinkie Cleugh in 1547 – although he failed to follow this up with satisfactory peace terms.

Church of England

During Edward's reign, the Church of England became more explicitly Protestant – Edward himself was fiercely so. The Book of Common Prayer was introduced in 1549, aspects of Roman Catholic practices (including statues and stained glass) were eradicated and the marriage of clergy allowed. The imposition of the Prayer Book (which replaced Latin services with English) led to rebellions in Cornwall and Devon.

Despite his military ability, Seymour was too liberal to deal effectively with Kett's rebellion against land enclosures in Norfolk. Seymour was left isolated in the Council and the Duke of Northumberland subsequently overthrew him in 1551. Seymour was executed in 1552, an event which was only briefly mentioned by Edward in his diary: 'Today, the Duke of Somerset had his head cut off on Tower Hill.'

Northumberland took greater trouble to charm and influence Edward; his powerful position as Lord President of the Council was based on his personal ascendancy over the King. However, the young king was ailing. Northumberland hurriedly married his son Lord Guilford Dudley to Lady Jane Grey, one of Henry VIII's great-nieces and a claimant to the throne. Edward accepted Jane as his heir and, on his death from tuberculosis in 1553, Jane assumed the throne.

Mary Tudor:

Mary Tudor was the first queen regnant of England, reigning from 1553 until her death in 1558. She is best known for her religious persecutions of Protestants and the executions of over 300 subjects.

Bloody Mary

Mary Tudor was the only child of King Henry VIII and Catherine of Aragon to survive into adulthood. Mary took the throne in 1553, reigning as the first queen regnant of England and Ireland. Seeking to return England to the Catholic Church, she persecuted hundreds of Protestants and earned the moniker "Bloody Mary." She died at St. James Palace in London on November 17, 1558.

Early Life

Mary Tudor was born on February 18, 1516, at the Palace of Placentia in Greenwich, England. She was the only child of King Henry VIII and his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, to survive through childhood. She was baptized as a Catholic shortly after her birth. Tutored by her mother and scholars, she excelled in music and language. In 1525, Henry named her Princess of Wales and sent his daughter to live on the Welsh border, while he continuously tried to negotiate a marriage for her.

Frustrated by the lack of a male heir, in 1533 Henry declared his marriage to Catherine null claiming that because he had married his deceased brother's wife, the marriage was incestuous. He broke relations with the Catholic Church, established the Church of England, and married one of Catherine's maids of honor, Anne Boleyn. After Boleyn gave birth to Elizabeth, she feared Mary would pose a challenge to the succession to the throne and successfully pressed for an act of Parliament to declare Mary illegitimate. This placed the princess outside the succession to the throne and forced her to be the lady-in-waiting to her half-sister, Elizabeth.

Mary's faith grows stronger

Henry had the scheming Boleyn beheaded in 1536 for treason and married his third wife, Jane Seymour, who finally gave him a son, Edward. Seymour insisted that the king make amends with his daughters, but he would only do so if Mary acknowledged him as head of the Church of England and admit the illegality of his marriage to her mother, Catherine. Under duress, she agreed and although Mary did re-enter the royal court, her religious beliefs made her a lightning rod for conflict. This tension continued through the short reign of Mary's half-brother, Edward VI, who died in 1553 at the age of 15.

Accession and Reign

After Edward's death, Mary challenged and successfully deposed the new queen, Lady Jane Grey, the granddaughter of Henry's younger sister, who was placed on the throne in a secret agreement by Edward and his advisors. Mary took the throne as the first queen regnant and reinstated her parents' marriage. At first, she acknowledged the religious dualism of her country, but she desperately wanted to convert England back to Catholicism.

Spanish Marriage and Death

Mary was 37 at the time of her accession. She knew that if she remained childless, the throne would pass to her Protestant half-sister, Elizabeth. She needed a Catholic heir to avoid the reversal of her reforms. To accomplish this goal, she arranged to marry Philip II of Spain.

Mary died on 17 November 1558, possibly from cancer, leaving the crown to her half-sister Elizabeth. Mary is buried beneath Elizabeth I in Westminster Abbey. King James I arranged for Elizabeth I to be dug up from elsewhere in the abbey three years after her death and moved into Mary's grave.

Elizabeth I

Elizabeth I was Queen of England and Ireland from 17th November 1558 to 24th March 1603. She's regarded as one of the greatest monarchs of England. Born 7th September 1533, Elizabeth was the daughter of Henry VIII and his second wife, Anne Boleyn. Henry already had a daughter, Mary – Elizabeth's half-sister – with his first wife Catherine of Aragon.

Different from others

Elizabeth proved to be a very different ruler to her older half-sister, Mary, who had dealt out harsh punishments to those who disagreed with her attempts to restore England to Catholicism (the Roman Catholic faith) – earning her the nickname 'Bloody Mary'.

During Elizabeth's reign, she sought to return the country from Catholicism to Protestantism (another form of the Christian religion), like her father had done before her. But thankfully, Elizabeth proved to be a more tolerant ruler than Mary and tried to make England a fairer place for everyone.

Elizabeth was a very clever, quick-witted ruler and is famed for her great skills of persuasion. She rarely failed to get her own way, and surrounded herself with carefully-chosen ministers who would help her rule. But Elizabeth also had a reputation for leaving important decisions to the very last minute – much to the annoyance of her ministers!

Many people in the 16th century believed that a woman wasn't fit to rule, but Elizabeth was quick to prove them wrong! She could be as cunning and ruthless a leader as any king who came before her, and she was a strong, formidable leader. Elizabeth did, however, have a weakness for flattery and she could be extremely vain – every portrait was carefully inspected to make sure she looked her absolute best!

Why did Elizabeth never marry?

Over the years of Elizabeth's rule, she was often encouraged to marry. Her advisors thought she needed a husband to support her and an heir to succeed her. In 1566, Parliament even tried to force Elizabeth's hand by refusing to give her any more money until she married. Elizabeth refused to back down, saying, "I am already bound unto a husband which is the Kingdom of England". The issue was never raised again!

The Queen felt strongly about her reasons not to marry. If she married a foreign prince to create a link with another European country, it may have benefitted the other country more than England and made her less powerful. If she married an Englishman, it may have caused conflict between her ministers and advisors. Despite her feelings, she was not short of offers! Many men proposed but Elizabeth always kept them waiting. This meant she could get the support she needed from them and keep them loyal, too!

Elizabeth I and Mary, Queen of Scots

Mary and Elizabeth, first cousins and Queens of their respective countries, had a rocky relationship that dominated English-Scottish politics for 20 years. Mary was the granddaughter of Margaret, the older sister of Henry VIII. She was the Queen of Scotland from 1543 until 1567, when she became very unpopular and was forced to abdicate (give up the throne). The next year she came to England, hoping to be welcomed by Elizabeth. But instead, she received a rather frosty reception, to say the least…

Mary was a Catholic, and many Catholics thought she should be Queen of England. Elizabeth, aware that she could be a threat to her throne, kept Mary prisoner for 19 years. Many advisors encouraged Elizabeth to execute Mary, Queen of Scots, to prevent any uprisings and rebellions from people who wanted Mary on the English throne. Elizabeth refused for many years. Not only was Mary family but she was a fellow queen, and the last thing Elizabeth wanted was to encourage the execution of monarchs!

However, things changed when Francis Walsingham – one of Elizabeth's most important ministers – uncovered a plot to overthrow Elizabeth in 1686. Walsingham's spies discovered that Mary was sending messages to Catholic plotters. Using some clever tactics, they intercepted one of the letters and faked

Mary's handwriting at the end of it, asking for the identities of the plotters. Sneaky!

Elizabeth could no longer put off Mary's execution. She was found guilty of treason and beheaded in 1587. Elizabeth I was Queen of England and Ireland from 17th November 1558 to 24th March 1603. She's regarded as one of the greatest monarchs of England. Born 7th September 1533, Elizabeth was the daughter of Henry VIII and his second wife, Anne Boleyn. Henry already had a daughter, Mary – Elizabeth's half-sister – with his first wife Catherine of Aragon.

Elizabeth had a pretty tough upbringing. When she was just two years old, her father had her mother beheaded – yikes! – and Elizabeth removed from the line of succession (her right to inherit the throne). She also had her title downgraded from 'Princess' to 'Lady'. Aww, poor little thing… Following her mother's execution, Elizabeth was neglected by her father. Why? Henry was desperate for a male heir to succeed him.

It wasn't until Henry married his sixth wife, Catherine Parr, that Elizabeth was welcomed back into the family. Catherine felt it was important for father and daughter to be reunited, and insured that Elizabeth received a good education, including learning the art of public speaking – a skill that would prove very useful to her in future!

Finally, it was Elizabeth's turn. The third of Henry's children to inherit the throne, she was to reign for much longer than her half-brother and half-sister. Her coronation on 15th January 1559 was an impressive, expensive celebration. Elizabeth gladly received flowers and congratulations from ordinary people in the street – just like our queen does today. A carpet was laid down for Elizabeth to walk on to Westminster Abbey, and people cut out pieces as mementos of the day.

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needed from them and keep them loyal, too! The 'Babington Plot' sought to overthrow Queen Elizabeth and place Mary, Queen of Scots on the throne.

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The Spanish Armada

The Armada Portrait, which Elizabeth I had painted after her victory over the Spanish. The wrecked Spanish fleet can be seen in the window behind her. Mary's execution angered Catholics in Europe. The Pope encouraged King Philip II of Spain to invade England, remove Elizabeth and make the country Catholic again.

In 1588, Philip sent a fleet of 130 ships, known as the Spanish Armada, to England. The English fleet met the Armada in the English Channel, and sent

burning ships into the midst of the Spanish ships, forcing them to split up and scatter. The Spanish retreated, intending to sail around the British Isles and back to Spain. But a terrible storm wrecked many of the ships off Scotland and Ireland – a storm that King Philip II would later refer to as the 'Protestant wind'.

This was a great triumph for Elizabeth – she even commissioned a portrait of her celebrating the victory (above). The English believed that this showed that God approved of the Queen. However, the war against Spain was far from over, and would last for another 19 years.

Golden age

Elizabeth's reign is looked back on as a 'Golden Age' in British history. It was a time of great exploration by men such as Sir Francis Drake and Sir Walter Raleigh, who discovered new lands and set up new colonies overseas. Poetry, music and literature flourished, and London opened its first theatres. Playwrights such as William Shakespeare were hugely popular, especially with the Queen, who attended the first performance of Shakespeare's 'A Midsummer Night's Dream'.

In 1601, near the end of her reign, Elizabeth gave what is known as the 'Golden Speech'to her politicians. In it she expressed her love for her country and subjects, and said, "There is no jewel, be it of never so high a price, which I set before this jewel; I mean your love."

By the early 1600s, Elizabeth's health had been failing for some time. Frail and melancholy over the deaths of many of her close friends and advisors, she would stand for hours, refusing to rest. She was balding, had bad breath due to her rotting teeth – eww! – and spent a lot of her time expressing regret over decisions she'd made during her reign – especially the execution of Mary, Queen of Scots.

On 24th March 1603 Elizabeth I died, having reigned for 44 years as a very popular queen. As she had no children, and therefore no direct heir to the throne, she was the last Tudor monarch. Following her death, Mary, Queen of Scots' son – James VI of Scotland – was named King James I of England.

The cause of her death was never determined. But whilst no theory has been proven, many people think Elizabeth may have had blood poisoning from the

make-up she wore. Make-up in the Tudor era was full of toxic ingredients such as lead – and Elizabeth famously wore a lot of it!

UNIT IV

James I

Early life

James was the son of Mary Queen of Scots and her second husband Henry Stewart, Lord Darnley. He was descended through the Scottish kings from Robert the Bruce, and the English Tudors through his great grandmother Margaret Tudor sister of Henry VIII. His parent's marriage was short-lived and Darnley was found murdered 8 months after James was born in June 1566. His mother married again, but in 1567 was forced to renounce the throne of Scotland in favour of her infant son. James became King James VI of Scotland aged 13 months in July 1567, and was crowned at Stirling. Mary fled to England where she was eventually executed following Catholic plots against Elizabeth I in 1587.

Childhood life

His childhood and adolescence were unhappy, abnormal, and precarious; he had various guardians, whose treatment of him differed widely. His education, although thorough, was weighted with strong Presbyterian and Calvinist political doctrine, and his character – highly intelligent and sensitive, but also fundamentally shallow, vain, and exhibitionist – reacted violently to this. He also sought solace with extravagant and unsavoury male favourites who, in later years, were to have a damaging effect on his prestige and state affairs. A suitable Queen was found for him in Anne of Denmark and they were married in 1589. As King of Scotland, he curbed the power of the nobility, although his attempts to limit the authority of the Kirk (Church of Scotland) were less successful.

Ascended the throne

When Elizabeth I of England died in 1603 unmarried, James moved to London and was crowned King James I of England the first of the Stuart Kings of the combined crowns of England and Scotland. The English courtiers were wary of his Scottish favorites, affairs with male courtiers and uncouth ways. He was

however a supporter of literature and arts. William Shakespeare was among the 'Kings Men' troupe of actors who performed plays for their patron James. He commissioned the King James Authorized Version of the Bible, published in 1611, which remains one of the most important English translations of the Bible. He initially acted mainly upon the advice of Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, but on Salisbury's death all restraint vanished. His religious policy consisted of asserting the supreme authority and divine right of the crown and suppressing both Puritans and Catholics who objected. Guy Fawkes' attempt to blow up Parliament in 1605 produced an anti-Catholic reaction, which gave James a temporary popularity which soon dissipated.

Foreign policy

His foreign policy aimed primarily at achieving closer relations with Spain was not liked by Parliament who saw Spain as the Old Catholic enemy of the Armada and competitor for world trade. During his reign the East India Company expanded trade bringing spices from the East, and Jamestown was founded in Virginia. His willingness to compromise politically, even while continuing to talk in terms of absolutism, largely accounts for the superficial stability of his reign. However, the effects of many of his actions were long term, becoming fully obvious only after his death. James and Anne had 8 children only three of whom survived infancy. Their eldest son Henry died aged 18 of typhoid, and their 2nd son Charles became King Charles I. The marriage of their daughter Elizabeth to Frederic V, Elector Palatine and King of Bohemia, was to result in the eventual Hanoverian succession to the British throne.

James and his Parliament

At the start of the reign of James I, he received a tolerably good welcome from Parliament. James seemed to offer Parliament a fresh start after the unpredictable behavior of Elizabeth in her last few years. However, James was to quarrel with Parliament over a number of issues and this positive early relationship soon faltered. The major issues that caused James and Parliament to fall out were royal finances, royal favorites and the belief by James that he could never be wrong.

The first Parliament of Stuart England lasted from 1604 to 1611. The major issues it dealt with were royal finances – monopolies as an example – and the raising of money for James without the consent of Parliament.

In 1614 the Adled Parliament sat. This parliament dealt with religious issues (primarily the spread of Catholicism) and royal finances. However, it only sat for eight weeks before being dissolved by James as it wanted to discuss the whole thorny issue of the raising of money by the Crown without Parliamentary consent – a topic James was not prepared for them to discuss.

The next Parliament under James was in 1621. The Thirty Years War had started in 1618 – so foreign policy matters were of primary concern. Parliament also wanted the right to discuss its own powers and rights – something that James was not prepared to allow. As with the Adled Parliament, the life of this Parliament was cut short in December 1621. Parliament also sat in 1624. The two major issues it dealt with were raising money for war with Spain and the imprisonment of Lionel Cranfield, the finance minister for the Crown. A further Parliament, summoned in 1624, failed to resolve foreign policy questions. On James's death in 1625, the kingdom was on the edge of war with Spain. James was succeeded by his son, Charles I.

Charles I

Early Life

The second son of James VI, King of Scots and Anne of Denmark, Charles was born at Dunfermline Palace, Fife, on November 19, 1600. He was an underdeveloped child (he is listed in the Guinness Book of Records as the nation's shortest king) who was still unable to walk or talk at the age of three. When Elizabeth I died in March 1603 and James VI became King of England as James I, Charles was originally left in Scotland in the care of nurses and servants because it was feared that the journey would damage his fragile health. He did make the journey in July 1604 and was subsequently placed under the charge of Alletta (Hogenhove) Carey, the Dutch-born wife of courtier Sir Robert Carey, who taught him how to walk and talk and insisted that he wear boots made of Spanish leather and brass to help strengthen his weak ankles. As an adult Charles was 5 feet 4 inches (162 cm) tall.

Charles was not as well-regarded as his elder brother, Henry Frederick Stuart, Prince of Wales; Charles himself adored Henry and tried to emulate him. In 1605, as was then customary in the case of the Sovereign's second son, he was made Duke of York in England. Two years before, in 1603, he was made Duke of Albany in Scotland. When his elder brother died of typhoid in 1612, Charles became heir apparent and was subsequently made the Prince of Wales and Earl of Chester in November 1616. His sister Elizabeth married in 1613 to Frederick V, Elector Palatine and moved to Heidelberg.

The new Prince of Wales was greatly influenced by his father's favorite courtier, George Villiers, First Duke of Buckingham, who took him on an expedition to Spain in 1623 to look for a suitable bride, and settled on the daughter of the Spanish King Philip III, Infanta Maria Anna of Spain. No marriage occurred, however, as the Spanish demanded the Prince of Wales's conversion to Roman Catholicism. Upon their return in October, both the Prince of Wales and the Duke of Buckingham demanded that James I declare war on Spain.

Early Reign

Charles ascended the throne on March 27, 1625 and on June 13 of that year was married to Henrietta Maria, nine years his junior, by proxy. His first Parliament, which he opened in May, was opposed to his marriage to Henrietta Maria, a Roman Catholic, because it feared that Charles would lift restrictions on Roman Catholics and undermine the official establishment of Protestantism. Although he agreed with Parliament that he would not relax restrictions relating to recusants, he promised to do exactly that in a secret marriage treaty with Louis XIII. The couple was married on June 13, 1625, in Canterbury. Charles was crowned on February 2, 1626 at Westminster Abbey, but without his wife at his side due to the controversy. They had nine children, with three sons and three daughters surviving infancy.

Charles's religious policies

Distrust of Charles's religious policies was increased by the controversy surrounding the ecclesiastic Richard Montagu. In a pamphlet, Montagu argued against the teachings of John Calvin, immediately bringing himself into disrepute amongst the Puritans. A Puritan member of the House of Commons, John Pym, attacked Montagu's pamphlet during debate, prompting Montagu to request the aid of Charles I in a pamphlet entitled Appello Caesarem (Latin "I appeal to Caesar," a reference to an appeal against Jewish persecution made by Saint Paul the Apostle). Charles I offered the cleric his protection, leading many Puritans to take a hostile view toward him.

Charles's primary concern during his early reign was foreign policy. Frederick V, Elector Palatine, his sister Elizabeth's husband, had lost his hereditary lands in the Electoral Palatinate to the Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand II, leading to the Thirty Years' War. Originally only a war to keep the Catholic Habsburgs hegemonic as the elected Kings of Bohemia, it spiraled out of control into a civil and confessional war between Protestants and Catholics in Europe. Charles was committed to help his brother-in-law regain the Palatinate by waging a war with

the Catholic Spanish King Philip IV, whom he hoped he could force to intercede with the Emperor on his behalf.

Parliament preferred an inexpensive naval attack on Spanish colonies in the New World, hoping that the capture of the Spanish treasure fleets could finance the war. Charles, however, preferred more aggressive (and more expensive) action on the Continent. Parliament only voted to grant a subsidy of £140,000; an insufficient sum for Charles. Moreover, the House of Commons agreed to allow the king to collect tonnage and poundage (two varieties of customs duties), but only for a period of one year, although previous Sovereigns since 1414 had been granted the right for life. In this manner, the House of Commons hoped to keep a check on Charles's power by forcing him to seek the renewal of the grant each year. Charles's allies in the House of Lords, led by the Duke of Buckingham, refused to pass the bill. Although no Parliamentary authority for the levy of tonnage and poundage could be obtained, Charles continued to collect the duties anyway.

Tyranny or Personal Rule

In January 1629 Charles opened the second session of the Parliament which had been prorogued in June 1628. Charles saw a conspiracy at work, due to the recent assassination of Buckingham, calling his commons "seditious." Members of the House of Commons began to voice their opposition in light of the Rolle case. Rolle was an MP who had his goods confiscated for not paying tonnage and poundage. This was seen by many MPs as a breach of the Petition of Right, who argued that the freedom from arrest privilege extended to goods. When he requested a parliamentary adjournment in March, members held the Speaker, John Finch, down in his chair while three resolutions against Charles were read aloud. The last of these resolutions declared that anyone who paid tonnage or poundage not authorized by Parliament would "be reputed a betrayer of the liberties of England, and an enemy to the same." Though the resolution was not formally passed, many members declared their approval. The fact that a number of MPs had to be detained in Parliament is relevant in understanding that there was no

universal opposition toward the king. Afterward, when the Commons passed further measures displeasing to Charles, he dissolved parliament.

Sir Anthony van Dyck, Charles I's court painter, created the famous Charles I, King of England, from Three Angles, commonly known as the Triple Portrait. This oil painting, done around 1636, was created so that the Italian sculptor, Bernini, could create a marble bust of Charles.

The Distraint of Knighthood

Even without Parliament Charles still had to acquire funds in order to maintain his treasury. Thus, relying on an all but forgotten feudal statute called "The Distraint of Knighthood" passed in 1278, requiring anyone who earned £40 or more each year to present himself at the King's coronation so that he may join the royal army as a knight, Charles fined all individuals who failed to attend his coronation in 1626. He also reintroduced the obsolete feudal tax known as ship money which was even more unpopular. A writ issued in 1634 ordered the collection of ship money in peacetime, notwithstanding statutes of Edward I and Edward III that had prohibited the levying of such a tax except during wars. This first writ of 1634, however, did not encourage much opposition on legal grounds, but a second writ of 1635 did.

Charles's third writ demanding ship money, issued in 1636, made it clear that the ancient prohibition on collecting ship money during peacetime had been swept away. Many attempted to resist payment, but Charles's judges, whose tenure depended on his "good pleasure," declared that the tax was within the king's prerogative. This action of demanding ship money to be raised in peacetime was a major cause of concern among the ruling class; however, it must be noted that it was the attempted enforcement of the Anglican and increasingly Arminian styled prayer book under Laud that precipitated the rebellion in Scotland, which ended Personal Rule in 1640.

Religious Conflicts

Charles wished to move the Church of England away from Calvinism in a more traditional and sacramental direction. This goal was shared by his main

political adviser, Archbishop William Laud. Laud was appointed by Charles as the Archbishop of Canterbury in 1633 and started a series of unpopular reforms in the Church to make it more ceremonial. Laud attempted to ensure religious uniformity by dismissing non-conformist clergymen and closing Puritan organizations. This was actively hostile to the Reformist tendencies of many of Charles's English and Scottish subjects. His policy was obnoxious to Calvinist theology, and insisted that the Church of England's liturgy be celebrated with all of the ceremony and vestments called for by the Book of Common Prayer. Laud was also an advocate of Arminian theology, a view in which emphasis on the ability to reject salvation was viewed as heretical and virtually "Catholic" by strict Calvinists.

The lawlessness of the Court of Star Chamber under Charles I far exceeded that under any of his predecessors. Under Charles's reign, defendants were regularly hauled before the court without indictment, due process of the law, or the right to confront witnesses, and their testimonies were routinely extracted by the king and his courtiers through extensive torture.

Personal Rule period

The first years of the Personal Rule were marked by peace in England, to some extent due to tighter central control. Several individuals opposed Charles's taxes and Laud's policies, but the overall trend of the early Personal Rule period is one of peace. When, however, Charles attempted to impose his religious policies in Scotland, he faced numerous difficulties. The king ordered the use of a new Prayer Book modeled on the English Book of Common Prayer, which, although supported by the Scottish Bishops, was resisted by many Presbyterian Scots, who saw the new Prayer Book as a vehicle for introducing Anglicanism to Scotland. When the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland abolished Episcopalian government (that is, governance of the Church by Bishops) in 1638, replacing it with Presbyterian government (that is, governance by Elders and Deacons), Charles sought to put down what he saw as a rebellion against his authority.

In 1639, when the First Bishops' War broke out, Charles sought to collect taxes from his subjects, who refused to yield any further. Charles's war ended in a humiliating truce in June of the same year. In the Pacification of Berwick, Charles agreed to grant his Scottish subjects civil and ecclesiastical freedoms.

Military

Charles's military failure in the First Bishops' War in turn caused a financial and military crisis for Charles, leading to the end of Personal Rule. Due to his financial weakness, Charles was forced to call Parliament into session by 1640 in an attempt to raise funds. While the ruling class grievances with the changes to government and finance during the Personal Rule period were a contributing factor in the Scottish Rebellion, it was mainly due to the key issue of religion that Charles was forced to confront the ruling class in Parliament for the first time in 11 years. In essence, it was Charles's and Laud's confrontational religious modifications that ended what the Whig historians refer to as "The Eleven Years of Tyranny."

Short Parliament

Disputes regarding the interpretation of the peace treaty between Charles and the Church of Scotland led to further conflict. To subdue the Scots, Charles needed more money; therefore, he took the fateful step of recalling Parliament in April 1640. Although Charles offered to repeal ship money, and the House of Commons agreed to allow Charles to raise the funds for war, an impasse was reached when Parliament demanded the discussion of various abuses of power during the Personal Rule. As both sides refused to give ground on this matter, Parliament was dissolved in May 1640, less than a month after it assembled. Thus, the Parliament became known as the "Short Parliament."

Long Parliament

In the meantime, Charles attempted to defeat the Scots, but failed miserably. The humiliating Treaty of Ripon, signed after the end of the Second Bishops' War in October 1640, required the king to pay the expenses of the Scottish army he had just fought. Charles took the unusual step of summoning the magnum concilium, the ancient council of all the Peers of the Realm, who were considered the king's hereditary counselors. The magnum concilium had not been summoned for centuries. On the advice of the peers, Charles summoned another Parliament, which, in contrast with its predecessor, became known as the "Long Parliament."

The Long Parliament assembled in November 1640 under the leadership of John Pym, and proved just as difficult for Charles as the Short Parliament. Although the members of the House of Commons thought of themselves as conservatives defending the king, Church, and Parliamentary government against innovations in religion and the tyranny of Charles's advisors, Charles viewed many of them as dangerous rebels trying to undermine his rule.

Act of Charles I

To prevent the king from dissolving it at will, Parliament passed the Triennial Act, to which the Royal Assent was granted in February 1641. The Act required that Parliament was to be summoned at least once every three years, and that if the king failed to issue proper summons, the members could assemble on their own. In May, he assented to an even more far-reaching act, which provided that Parliament could not be dissolved without its own consent. Charles was forced into one concession after another. He agreed to bills of attainder authorizing the executions of Thomas Wentworth and William Laud. Ship money, fines in destraint of knighthood and forced loans were declared unlawful, and the hated Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission were abolished. Although he made several important concessions, Charles improved his own military position by securing the favor of the Scots. He finally agreed to the official establishment of Presbyterianism; in return, he was able to enlist considerable anti-parliamentary support.

In November 1641 the House of Commons passed the Grand Remonstrance, denouncing all the abuses of power Charles had committed since the beginning of his reign. The tension was heightened when the Irish rebelled against Protestant English rule and rumors of Charles's complicity reached Parliament. An army was required to put down the rebellion but many members of the House of Commons feared that Charles might later use it against Parliament itself. The Militia Bill was intended to wrest control of the army from the king, but Charles refused to agree to it. However, Parliament decreed the Protestation as an attempt to lessen the conflict.

English Civil War

The English Civil War had not yet started, but both sides began to arm. After futile negotiations, Charles raised the royal standard (an anachronistic medieval gesture) in Nottingham on August 22, 1642. He then set up his court at Oxford, whence his government controlled roughly the north and west of England, with Parliament remaining in control of London and the south and east. Charles raised an army using the archaic method of the Commission of Array. The Civil War started on October 25, 1642 with the inconclusive Battle of Edgehill and continued indecisively through 1643 and 1644, until the Battle of Naseby tipped the military balance decisively in favor of Parliament. There followed a great number of defeats for the Royalists, and then the Siege of Oxford, from which Charles escaped in April 1646. He put himself into the hands of the Scottish Presbyterian army at Newark, England, and was taken to nearby Southwell, Nottinghamshire while his "hosts" decided what to do with him. The Presbyterians finally arrived at an agreement with Parliament and delivered Charles to them in 1647. He was imprisoned at Holdenby House in Northamptonshire, until cornet George Joyce took him by force to Newmarket in the name of the New Model Army. At this time, mutual suspicion had developed between the New Model Army and Parliament, and Charles was eager to exploit it.

From Carisbrooke, Charles continued to try to bargain with the various parties, eventually coming to terms with the Scottish Presbyterians that he would allow the establishment of Presbyterianism in England as well as Scotland for a trial period. The Royalists rose in July 1648 igniting the Second Civil War, and as agreed with Charles the Scots invaded England. Most of the uprisings in England were put down by forces loyal to Parliament after little more than skirmishes, but uprisings in Kent, Essex, and Cumberland, the rebellion in Wales, and the Scottish invasion involved the fighting of pitched battles and prolonged sieges. But with the defeat of the Scots at the Battle of preston (1648), the Royalists lost any chance of winning the war.

Trial and Execution

Charles was moved to Hurst Castle at the end of 1648, and thereafter to Windsor Castle. In January 1649 in response to Charles's defiance of Parliament even after defeat, and his encouraging the second Civil War while in captivity, the House of Commons passed an Act of Parliament creating a court for Charles's

trial. After the first Civil War, the Parliamentarians still accepted the premise that the king, although wrong, had been able to justify his fight, and that he would still be entitled to limited powers as king under a new constitutional settlement. It was now felt that by provoking the second Civil War even while defeated and in captivity, Charles showed himself incorrigible, dishonorable, and responsible for unjustifiable bloodshed.

The idea of trying a king was a novel one; previous monarchs had been deposed, but had never been brought to trial as monarchs. The High Court of Justice established by the act consisted of 135 Commissioners (all firm Parliamentarians). The prosecution was led by Solicitor General John Cook.

Charles's trial on charges of high treason and "other high crimes" began on January 20, 1649, but Charles refused to enter a plea, claiming that no court had jurisdiction over a monarch. He believed that his own authority to rule had been given to him by God when he was crowned and anointed, and that the power wielded by those trying him simply grew out of a barrel of gunpowder. The court, by contrast, proposed that no man is above the law. Over a period of a week, when Charles was asked to plead three times, he refused. It was then normal practice to take a refusal to plead as pro confesso: an admission of guilt, which meant that the prosecution could not call witnesses to its case. However, the trial did hear witnesses. On January 29, 1649 59 of the Commissioners signed Charles's death warrant. After the ruling, he was led from St. James's Palace, where he was confined, to the Palace of Whitehall, where an execution scaffold had been erected in front of the Banqueting House.

When Charles was beheaded on January 30, 1649, it is reputed that he wore a heavy cotton shirt as to prevent the cold January weather causing any noticeable shivers that the crowd could have been mistaken for fear or weakness. He put his head on the block after saying a prayer and signaled the executioner he was ready; he was then beheaded with one clean stroke.

Phillip Henry records that moments after the execution, a moan was heard from the assembled crowd, some of whom then dipped their handkerchiefs in his blood, thus starting the cult of the Martyr King. However, no other eyewitness

sources, including that of Samuel Pepys, record this. Henry's account was written during the Restoration, some 12 years after the event. Henry was 19 when the king was executed and he and his family were Royalist propaganda writers.[4]

There is some debate over the identity of the man who beheaded the king, for the executioner was masked at the scene. It is known that the Commissioners approached Richard Brandon, the common Hangman of London, but that he refused, and contemporary sources do not generally identify him as the king's headsman. Ellis's Historical Inquiries, however, names him as the executioner, contending that he stated so before dying. It is possible he relented and agreed to undertake the commission, but there are others who have been identified. An Irishman named Gunning is widely believed to have beheaded Charles, and a plaque naming him as the executioner is on show in Galway, Ireland. William Hewlett was convicted of regicide after the Restoration.[5] In 1661 two people identified as "Dayborne and Bickerstaffe" were arrested but then discharged. Henry Walker, a revolutionary journalist, or his brother William, were suspected but never charged. Various local legends around England name local worthies. An examination performed in 1813 at Windsor suggests that the execution was done by an experienced headsman.

It was common practice for the head of a traitor to be held up and exhibited to the crowd with the words "Behold the head of a traitor!" Although Charles's head was exhibited, the words were not used. In an unprecedented gesture, one of the revolutionary leaders, Oliver Cromwell, allowed the king's head to be sewn back on his body so the family could pay its respects. Charles was buried in private and at night on February 7, 1649, in the Henry VIII's vault inside St George's Chapel in Windsor Castle. The king's son, King Charles II, later planned an elaborate royal mausoleum, but it was never built.

Ten days after Charles's execution, a memoir purporting to be from Charles's hand appeared for sale. This book, the Eikon Basilike (Greek: the "Royal Portrait"), contained an apologia for royal policies, and proved an effective piece of Royalist propaganda. William Levett, Charles's groom of the bedchamber, who had accompanied Charles on the day of his execution, would later swear in a statement that he had witnessed the king writing the Eikon Basilike. John Cooke published the speech he would have delivered if Charles had entered a plea, while

Parliament commissioned John Milton to write a rejoinder, the Eikonoklastes ("The Iconoclast"), but the response made little headway against the pathos of the Royalist book.

Various prodigies were recorded in the contemporary popular press in relation to the execution—a beached whale at Dover died within an hour of the king, a falling star appeared that night over Whitehall, and a man who had said that the king deserved to die had his eyes pecked out by crows.

Legacy

Memorial to Charles I at Carisbrooke Castle, Isle of Wight. With the monarchy overthrown, power was assumed by a Council of State, which included Oliver Cromwell, then Lord General of the Parliamentary Army. The Long Parliament (known by then as the Rump Parliament) which had been called by Charles I in 1640 continued to exist until Cromwell forcibly disbanded it in 1653. Cromwell then became Lord Protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland; a monarch in all but name: he was even "invested" on the royal coronation chair. Upon his death in 1658, Cromwell was briefly succeeded by his son, Richard Cromwell. Richard Cromwell was an ineffective ruler, and the Long Parliament was reinstated in 1659. The Long Parliament dissolved itself in 1660, and the first elections in 20 years led to the election of a Convention Parliament which restored Charles I's eldest son to the monarchy as Charles II.

Upon the Restoration, Charles II added a commemoration of his father—to be observed on January 30, the date of his execution—to the Book of Common Prayer. In the time of Queen Victoria this was however removed due to popular discontent with the commemorating of a dead monarch with a major feast day of the Church; now, January 30 is only listed as a "Lesser Festival." There are several Anglican/Episcopal churches dedicated to Charles I as "King and Martyr" in England, Canada, Australia, and the United States. The Society of King Charles the Martyr was established in 1894 by Mrs. Greville-Negent, assisted by Fr. James Fish, rector of St. Margaret Pattens, London. The objectives of the SKCM include prayer for the Church of England and the Anglican Communion, promoting a wider observance of January 30 in commemoration of Charles's "martyrdom," and the reinstatement of his feast day in the Book of Common Prayer. King Charles is

regarded as a martyr by some Anglicans for his notion of ”Christian Kingship,” and as a “defender of the Anglican faith."

The Colony of Carolina in North America was named for Charles I. Carolina later separated into North Carolina and South Carolina, which eventually declared independence from England during the formation of the United States. To the north in the Virginia Colony, Cape Charles, the Charles River, Charles River Shire, and Charles City Shire were named for him. Charles City Shire survives almost four hundred years later as Charles City County, Virginia. The Virginia Colony is now the Commonwealth of Virginia (one of the four U.S. states that are called commonwealths), and retains its official nickname of “The Old Dominion” bestowed by Charles II because it had remained loyal to Charles I during the English Civil War.

Style and Arms

The official style of Charles I was “Charles, by the Grace of God, King of England, Scotland, France and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, etc.” (The claim to France was only nominal, and was asserted by every English King since Edward III, regardless of the amount of French territory actually controlled.) The authors of his death warrant, however, did not wish to use the religious portions of his title. It only referred to him as “Charles Stuart, King of England.”

A huge crowd had gathered in the bitter weather. But they were held so far away that the King’s final short speech was lost in the freezing air. Erected against the Banqueting House in Whitehall, the scaffold was hung round with black cloth.

In the centre of the blackened and sanded floor stood the axe and a lower quartering block of a kind used to dismember traitors. Two men, heavily disguised with masks, stood ready to perform the act.

The Death of A King

The King, his hair now bound in a white nightcap, took off his cloak and laid down. He told the executioner that he would say a short prayer, and then give a signal that he was ready After a little pause, the King stretched out his hand, and the axe fell, the executioner severing his head in one clean blow.

The Commonwealth of England

The Commonwealth was the period when England, later along with Ireland and Scotland, was ruled as a republic following the end of the Second English Civil War and the trial and execution of Charles I (1649). The republic's existence was declared by the Rump Parliament on May 19, 1649. Power in the early Commonwealth was vested primarily in the Parliament and a Council of State. During this period, fighting continued, particularly in Ireland and Scotland, between the parliamentary forces and those opposed to them, as part of what is now referred to as the Third English Civil

Rump Parliament

In 1653, after the forcible dissolution of the Rump Parliament, Oliver Cromwell was declared Lord Protector of a united Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland under the terms of the Instrument of Government, inaugurating the period now usually known as the Protectorate. The term "Commonwealth" is sometimes used for the whole of 1649 to 1660—a period referred to by monarchists as the Interregnum—although for other historians, the use of the term is limited to the years prior to Cromwell's formal assumption of power in 1653.

The Protectorate

The Protectorate was the period during the Commonwealth when England (which at that time included Wales), Ireland, and Scotland were governed by a Lord Protector. The Protectorate began in 1653 when, following the dissolution of the Rump Parliament and then Barebone's Parliament, Oliver Cromwell was appointed Lord Protector of the Commonwealth under the terms of the Instrument of Government.

Role of Cromwell

Cromwell had two key objectives as Lord Protector. The first was "healing and settling" the nation after the chaos of the civil wars and the regicide. The social

priorities did not, despite the revolutionary nature of the government, include any meaningful attempt to reform the social order. He was also careful in the way he approached overseas colonies. England's American colonies in this period consisted of the New England Confederation, the Providence Plantation, the Virginia Colony, and the Maryland Colony. Cromwell soon secured the submission of these, but largely left them to their own affairs. His second objective was spiritual and moral reform. As a very religious man (Independent Puritan), he aimed to restore liberty of conscience and promote both outward and inward godliness throughout England. The latter translated into rigid religious laws (e.g., compulsory church attendance).

First Protectorate parliament

The first Protectorate parliament met in September 1654, and after some initial gestures approving appointments previously made by Cromwell, began to work on a moderate program of constitutional reform. Rather than opposing Parliament's bill, Cromwell dissolved them in January 1655. After a royalist uprising led by Sir John Penruddock, Cromwell divided England into military districts ruled by Army Major-Generals who answered only to him. The fifteen major generals and deputy major generals—called "godly governors"—were central not only to national security, but also to Cromwell's moral crusade. However, the major-generals lasted less than a year. Cromwell's failure to support his men, by sacrificing them to his opponents, caused their demise. Their activities between November 1655 and September 1656 had, nonetheless, reopened the wounds of the 1640s and deepened antipathies to the regime.

First Anglo-Dutch War

During this period Cromwell also faced challenges in foreign policy. The First Anglo-Dutch War, which had broken out in 1652, against the Dutch Republic, was eventually won in 1654. Having negotiated peace with the Dutch, Cromwell proceeded to engage the Spanish in warfare. This involved secret preparations for an attack on the Spanish colonies in the Caribbean and resulted in the invasion of Jamaica, which then became an English colony. The Lord Protector also became aware of the contribution the Jewish community made to the economic success of Holland, then England's leading commercial rival. This led to his encouraging

Jews to return to England, 350 years after their banishment by Edward I, in the hope that they would help speed up the recovery of the country after the disruption of the English Civil War.

In 1657, Oliver Cromwell rejected the offer of the Crown presented to him by Parliament and was ceremonially re-installed as Lord Protector, this time with greater powers than had previously been granted him under this title. Most notably, however, the office of Lord Protector was still not to become hereditary, though Cromwell was now able to nominate his own successor. Cromwell's new rights and powers were laid out in the Humble Petition and Advice, a legislative instrument that replaced the Instrument of Government. Despite failing to restore the Crown, this new constitution did set up many of the vestiges of the ancient constitution, including a house of life peers (in place of the House of Lords). In the Humble Petition it was called the "Other House," as the Commons could not agree on a suitable name. Furthermore, Oliver Cromwell increasingly took on more of the trappings of monarchy. Cromwell's signature before becoming Lord Protector in 1653, and afterwards. "Oliver P," stands for Oliver Protector, similar in style to English monarchs who signed their names as, for example, "Elizabeth R," standing for Elizabeth Regina.

After Cromwell's Death

Cromwell died of natural causes in 1658, and his son Richard succeeded as Lord Protector. Richard sought to expand the basis for the Protectorate beyond the army to civilians. He summoned a Parliament in 1659. However, the republicans assessed his father's rule as "a period of tyranny and economic depression" and attacked the increasingly monarchy-like character of the Protectorate. Richard was unable to manage the Parliament and control the army. In May, a Committee of Safety was formed on the authority of the Rump Parliament, displacing the Protector's Council of State, and was in turn replaced by a new Council of State. A year later monarchy was restored.

Cromwell is one of the most controversial figures in the history of the British Isles, considered a regicidal dictator or a military dictator by some and a hero of liberty by others. His measures against Catholics in Scotland and Ireland

have been characterized as genocide or near-genocide, and in Ireland his record is harshly criticized. Following the Irish Rebellion of 1641, most of Ireland came under the control of the Irish Catholic Confederation. In early 1649, the Confederates allied with the English Royalists, who had been defeated by the Parliamentarians in the English Civil War. By May 1652, Cromwell's Parliamentarian army had defeated the Confederate and Royalist coalition in Ireland and occupied the country—bringing an end to the Irish Confederate Wars (or Eleven Years' War). However, guerrilla warfare continued for another year. Cromwell passed a series of Penal Laws against Roman Catholics (the vast majority of the population) and confiscated large amounts of their land. The extent to which Cromwell, who was in direct command for the first year of the campaign, was responsible for brutal atrocities in Ireland is debated to this day.

UNIT V

Charles II

In 1660, Charles II ascends the English throne and the Restoration begins; a portrait of Charles II is shown. In 1681, William Penn founds Pennsylvania Colony; a portrait of William Penn is shown. In 1688–1689, the Glorious Revolution overthrows King James II; a portrait of King James II is shown. In 1689, the Bill of Rights establishes constitutional monarchy in England; the Bill of Rights is shown. In 1733, James Oglethorpe founds Georgia for the "worthy poor"; a portrait of James Oglethorpe is shown. In 1739, slaves revolt in the Stono Rebellion. In 1741, suspicious fires lead to the New York Conspiracy Trials. In 1754, the French and Indian War (Seven Years' War) begins. In 1763, the Treaty of Paris eliminates New France.

When Charles II ascended the throne in 1660, English subjects on both sides of the Atlantic celebrated the restoration of the English monarchy after a decade of living without a king as a result of the English Civil Wars. Charles II lost little time in strengthening England's global power. From the 1660s to the 1680s, Charles II added more possessions to England's North American holdings by establishing the Restoration colonies of New York and New Jersey (taking these areas from the Dutch) as well as Pennsylvania and the Carolinas. In order to reap the greatest economic benefit from England's overseas possessions, Charles II enacted the mercantilist Navigation Acts, although many colonial merchants ignored them because enforcement remained lax.

CHARLES and his Reign

The chronicle of Charles II begins with his father, Charles I. Charles I ascended the English throne in 1625 and soon married a French Catholic princess, Henrietta Maria, who was not well liked by English Protestants because she openly practiced Catholicism during her husband's reign. The most outspoken Protestants, the Puritans, had a strong voice in Parliament in the 1620s, and they strongly opposed the king's marriage and his ties to Catholicism. When Parliament tried to contest his edicts, including the king's efforts to impose taxes without Parliament's

consent, Charles I suspended Parliament in 1629 and ruled without one for the next eleven years.

The English Civil War

The ensuing struggle between the king and Parliament led to the outbreak of war. The English Civil War lasted from 1642 to 1649 and pitted the king and his Royalist supporters against Oliver Cromwell and his Parliamentary forces. After years of fighting, the Parliamentary forces gained the upper hand, and in 1649, they charged Charles I with treason and beheaded him. The monarchy was dissolved, and England became a republic: a state without a king. Oliver Cromwell headed the new English Commonwealth, and the period known as the English interregnum, or the time between kings, began.

Cromwell

Though Cromwell enjoyed widespread popularity at first, over time he appeared to many in England to be taking on the powers of a military dictator. Dissatisfaction with Cromwell grew. When he died in 1658 and control passed to his son Richard, who lacked the political skills of his father, a majority of the English people feared an alternate hereditary monarchy in the making. They had had enough and asked Charles II to be king. In 1660, they welcomed the son of the executed king Charles I back to the throne to resume the English monarchy and bring the interregnum to an end ([link]). The return of Charles II is known as the Restoration.

The monarchy and Parliament fought for control of England during the seventeenth century. Though Oliver Cromwell (a), shown here in a 1656 portrait by Samuel Cooper, appeared to offer England a better mode of government, he assumed broad powers for himself and disregarded cherished English liberties established under Magna Carta in 1215. As a result, the English people welcomed Charles II (b) back to the throne in 1660. This portrait by John Michael Wright was painted ca. 1660–1665, soon after the new king gained the throne.

Charles II was committed to expanding England’s overseas possessions. His policies in the 1660s through the 1680s established and supported the Restoration

colonies: the Carolinas, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. All the Restoration colonies started as proprietary colonies, that is, the king gave each colony to a trusted individual, family, or group.

THE CAROLINAS

Charles II hoped to establish English control of the area between Virginia and Spanish Florida. To that end, he issued a royal charter in 1663 to eight trusted and loyal supporters, each of whom was to be a feudal-style proprietor of a region of the province of Carolina.

These proprietors did not relocate to the colonies, however. Instead, English plantation owners from the tiny Caribbean island of Barbados, already a well-established English sugar colony fueled by slave labor, migrated to the southern part of Carolina to settle there. In 1670, they established Charles Town (later Charleston), named in honor of Charles II, at the junction of the Ashley and Cooper Rivers ([link]). As the settlement around Charles Town grew, it began to produce livestock for export to the West Indies. In the northern part of Carolina, settlers turned sap from pine trees into turpentine used to waterproof wooden ships. Political disagreements between settlers in the northern and Southern parts of Carolina escalated in the 1710s through the 1720s and led to the creation, in 1729, of two colonies, North and South Carolina. The southern part of Carolina had been producing rice and indigo (a plant that yields a dark blue dye used by English royalty) since the 1700s, and South Carolina continued to depend on these main crops. North Carolina continued to produce items for ships, especially turpentine and tar, and its population increased as Virginians moved there to expand their tobacco holdings. Tobacco was the primary export of both Virginia and North Carolina, which also traded in deerskins and slaves from Africa.

The port of colonial Charles Towne, depicted here on a 1733 map of North America, was the largest in the South and played a significant role in the Atlantic slave trade.

A colonial map shows the port of Charles Towne. Labels indicate the Cooper River, the Ashley River, and other features such as “Smith’s Quay” and “Watch house.”

Slavery developed quickly in the Carolinas, largely because so many of the early migrants came from Barbados, where slavery was well established. By the end of the 1600s, a very wealthy class of rice planters who relied on slaves had attained dominance in the southern part of the Carolinas, especially around Charles Town. By 1715, South Carolina had a black majority because of the number of slaves in the colony. The legal basis for slavery was established in the early 1700s as the Carolinas began to pass slave laws based on the Barbados slave codes of the late 1600s. These laws reduced Africans to the status of property to be bought and sold as other commodities.

As in other areas of English settlement, native peoples in the Carolinas suffered tremendously from the introduction of European diseases. Despite the effects of disease, Indians in the area endured and, following the pattern elsewhere in the colonies, grew dependent on European goods. Local Yamasee and Creek tribes built up a trade deficit with the English, trading deerskins and captive slaves for European guns. English settlers exacerbated tensions with local Indian tribes, especially the Yamasee, by expanding their rice and tobacco fields into Indian lands. Worse still, English traders took native women captive as payment for debts.

The outrages committed by traders, combined with the seemingly unstoppable expansion of English settlement onto native land, led to the outbreak of the Yamasee War (1715–1718), an effort by a coalition of local tribes to drive away the European invaders. This native effort to force the newcomers back across the Atlantic nearly succeeded in annihilating the Carolina colonies. Only when the Cherokee allied themselves with the English did the coalition’s goal of eliminating the English from the region falter. The Yamasee War demonstrates the key role native peoples played in shaping the outcome of colonial struggles and, perhaps most important, the disunity that existed between different native groups.

NEW YORK AND NEW JERSEY

Charles II also set his sights on the Dutch colony of New Netherland. The English takeover of New Netherland originated in the imperial rivalry between the

Dutch and the English. During the Anglo-Dutch wars of the 1650s and 1660s, the two powers attempted to gain commercial advantages in the Atlantic World. During the Second Anglo-Dutch War (1664–1667), English forces gained control of the Dutch fur trading colony of New Netherland, and in 1664, Charles II gave this colony (including present-day New Jersey) to his brother James, Duke of York (later James II). The colony and city were renamed New York in his honor. The Dutch in New York chafed under English rule. In 1673, during the Third Anglo-Dutch War (1672–1674), the Dutch recaptured the colony. However, at the end of the conflict, the English had regained control. "View of New Amsterdam" (ca. 1665), a watercolor by Johannes Vingboons, was painted during the Anglo-Dutch wars of the 1660s and 1670s. New Amsterdam was officially reincorporated as New York City in 1664, but alternated under Dutch and English rule until 1674.

Charter of Liberties

The Duke of York had no desire to govern locally or listen to the wishes of local colonists. It wasn't until 1683, therefore, almost 20 years after the English took control of the colony, that colonists were able to convene a local representative legislature. The assembly's 1683 Charter of Liberties and Privileges set out the traditional rights of Englishmen, like the right to trial by jury and the right to representative government.

The English continued the Dutch patroonship system, granting large estates to a favored few families. The largest of these estates, at 160,000 acres, was given to Robert Livingston in 1686. The Livingstons and the other manorial families who controlled the Hudson River Valley formed a formidable political and economic force. Eighteenth-century New York City, meanwhile, contained a variety of people and religions—as well as Dutch and English people, it held French Protestants (Huguenots), Jews, Puritans, Quakers, Anglicans, and a large population of slaves. As they did in other zones of colonization, native peoples played a key role in shaping the history of colonial New York. After decades of war in the 1600s, the powerful Five Nations of the Iroquois, composed of the Mohawk, Oneida, Onondaga, Cayuga, and Seneca, successfully pursued a policy of neutrality with both the English and, to the north, the French in Canada during the first half of the 1700s. This native policy meant that the Iroquois continued to

live in their own villages under their own government while enjoying the benefits of trade with both the French and the English.

PENNSYLVANIA

The Restoration colonies also included Pennsylvania, which became the geographic center of British colonial America. Pennsylvania (which means "Penn's Woods" in Latin) was created in 1681, when Charles II bestowed the largest proprietary colony in the Americas on William Penn ([link]) to settle the large debt he owed the Penn family. William Penn's father, Admiral William Penn, had served the English crown by helping take Jamaica from the Spanish in 1655. The king personally owed the Admiral money as well.

Charles II granted William Penn the land that eventually became the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania in order to settle a debt the English crown owed to Penn's father.

Like early settlers of the New England colonies, Pennsylvania's first colonists migrated mostly for religious reasons. William Penn himself was a Quaker, a member of a new Protestant denomination called the Society of Friends. George Fox had founded the Society of Friends in England in the late 1640s, having grown dissatisfied with Puritanism and the idea of predestination. Rather, Fox and his followers stressed that everyone had an "inner light" inside him or her, a spark of divinity. They gained the name Quakers because they were said to quake when the inner light moved them. Quakers rejected the idea of worldly rank, believing instead in a new and radical form of social equality. Their speech reflected this belief in that they addressed all others as equals, using "thee" and "thou" rather than terms like "your lordship" or "my lady" that were customary for privileged individuals of the hereditary elite.

The English crown persecuted Quakers in England, and colonial governments were equally harsh; Massachusetts even executed several early Quakers who had gone to proselytize there. To avoid such persecution, Quakers and their families at first created a community on the sugar island of Barbados. Soon after its founding, however, Pennsylvania became the destination of choice. Quakers flocked to Pennsylvania as well as New Jersey, where they could preach and practice their religion in peace. Unlike New England, whose official religion

was Puritanism, Pennsylvania did not establish an official church. Indeed, the colony allowed a degree of religious tolerance found nowhere else in English America. To help encourage immigration to his colony, Penn promised fifty acres of land to people who agreed to come to Pennsylvania and completed their term of service. Not surprisingly, those seeking a better life came in large numbers, so much so that Pennsylvania relied on indentured servants more than any other colony.

One of the primary tenets of Quakerism is pacifism, leading William Penn to establish friendly relationships with local native peoples. He formed a covenant of friendship with the Lenni Lenape (Delaware) tribe, buying their land for a fair price instead of taking it by force. In 1701, he also signed a treaty with the Susquehannocks to avoid war. Unlike other colonies, Pennsylvania did not experience war on the frontier with native peoples during its early history.

As an important port city, Philadelphia grew rapidly. Quaker merchants there established contacts throughout the Atlantic world and participated in the thriving African slave trade. Some Quakers, who were deeply troubled by the contradiction between their belief in the "inner light" and the practice of slavery, rejected the practice and engaged in efforts to abolish it altogether. Philadelphia also acted as a magnet for immigrants, who came not only from England, but from all over Europe by the hundreds of thousands. The city, and indeed all of Pennsylvania, appeared to be the best country for poor men and women, many of whom arrived as servants and dreamed of owning land. A very few, like the fortunate Benjamin Franklin, a runaway from Puritan Boston, did extraordinarily well. Other immigrant groups in the colony, most notably Germans and Scotch-Irish (families from Scotland and England who had first lived in Ireland before moving to British America), greatly improved their lot in Pennsylvania. Of course, Africans imported into the colony to labor for white masters fared far worse.

John Wilson Offers Reward for Escaped Prisoners

The American Weekly Mercury, published by William Bradford, was Philadelphia's first newspaper. This advertisement from "John Wilson, Goaler"

(jailer) offers a reward for anyone capturing several men who escaped from the jail.

John Palmer, also Plumly, alias Paine, Servant to Joseph Jones, run away and was lately taken up at New-York. He is fully described in the American Mercury, Novem. 23, 1721. He has a Cinnamon coloured Coat on, a middle sized fresh coloured Man. His Master will give a Pistole Reward to any who Shall Secure him, besides what is here offered.

Daniel Oughtopay, A Dutchman, aged about 24 Years, Servant to Dr. Johnston in Amboy. He is a thin Spare man, grey Drugget Waistcoat and Breeches and a light-coloured Coat on. Ebenezor Mallary, a New-England, aged about 24 Years, is a middle-sized thin Man, having on a Snuff colour'd Coat, and ordinary Ticking Waistcoat and Breeches. He has dark brown strait Hair. Matthew Dulany, an Irish Man, down-look'd Swarthy Complexion, and has on an Olive-coloured Cloth Coat and Waistcoat with Cloth Buttons.

John Flemming, an Irish Lad, aged about 18, belonging to Mr. Miranda, Merchant in this City. He has no Coat, a grey Drugget Waistcoat, and a narrow brim'd Hat on. John Corbet, a Shropshire Man, a Runaway Servant from Alexander Faulkner of Maryland, broke out on the 12th Instant. He has got a double-breasted Sailor's Jacket on lined with red Bays, pretends to be a Sailor, and once taught School at Josephs Collings's in the Jerseys.

THE NAVIGATION ACTS

Creating wealth for the Empire remained a primary goal, and in the second half of the seventeenth century, especially during the Restoration, England attempted to gain better control of trade with the American colonies. The mercantilist policies by which it tried to achieve this control are known as the Navigation Acts.

The 1651 Navigation Ordnance, a product of Cromwell's England, required that only English ships carry goods between England and the colonies, and that the captain and three-fourths of the crew had to be English. The ordnance further listed "enumerated articles" that could be transported only to England or to English

colonies, including the most lucrative commodities like sugar and tobacco as well as indigo, rice, molasses, and naval stores such as turpentine. All were valuable goods not produced in England or in demand by the British navy. After ascending the throne, Charles II approved the 1660 Navigation Act, which restated the 1651 act to ensure a monopoly on imports from the colonies.

Other Navigation Acts included the 1663 Staple Act and the 1673 Plantation Duties Act. The Staple Act barred colonists from importing goods that had not been made in England, creating a profitable monopoly for English exporters and manufacturers. The Plantation Duties Act taxed enumerated articles exported from one colony to another, a measure aimed principally at New Englanders, who transported great quantities of molasses from the West Indies, including smuggled molasses from French-held islands, to make into rum.

Traden and customs

In 1675, Charles II organized the Lords of Trade and Plantation, commonly known as the Lords of Trade, an administrative body intended to create stronger ties between the colonial governments and the crown. However, the 1696 Navigation Act created the Board of Trade, replacing the Lords of Trade. This act, meant to strengthen enforcement of customs laws, also established vice-admiralty courts where the crown could prosecute customs violators without a jury. Under this act, customs officials were empowered with warrants known as "writs of assistance" to board and search vessels suspected of containing smuggled goods.

Despite the Navigation Acts, however, Great Britain exercised lax control over the English colonies during most of the eighteenth century because of the policies of Prime Minister Robert Walpole. During his long term (1721–1742), Walpole governed according to his belief that commerce flourished best when it was not encumbered with restrictions. Historians have described this lack of strict enforcement of the Navigation Acts as salutary neglect. In addition, nothing prevented colonists from building their own fleet of ships to engage in trade. New England especially benefited from both salutary neglect and a vibrant maritime culture made possible by the scores of trading vessels built in the northern colonies. The case of the 1733 Molasses Act illustrates the weaknesses of British mercantilist policy. The 1733 act placed a sixpence-per-gallon duty on raw sugar,

rum, and molasses from Britain's competitors, the French and the Dutch, in order to give an advantage to British West Indian producers. Because the British did not enforce the 1733 law, however, New England mariners routinely smuggled these items from the French and Dutch West Indies more cheaply than they could buy them on English islands.

Different ministries of Charles II

Privy Council

In 1660, when the monarchy was restored by King Charles II who ruled over the Kingdoms of England, Scotland and Ireland, the Royal Privy Council was also re-established and made up by a small group of advisers. In 1707, under the rule of Queen Anne and the Act of Union between Scotland and England, the individual Privy Council's of both countries united to become the Privy Council of the United Kingdom.

However, the high position enjoyed by the Council before the Civil War was never fully recovered, and in the following years, long policy debates shifted to Parliament, with important executive decision being made between committees.

The rise of the Cabal Ministry

The rise of the Cabal Ministry was initiated by George Villiers, 2nd Duke of Buckingham, in 1667 following the dismissal of Edward Hyde, who was 1st Earl of Clarendon, Lord Chancellor and Chief Minister during the early years of Charles II's reign. The reign of Charles II, also referred to as the Restoration period, succeeded the English Commonwealth that ruled from 1649 to 1660.

Last days of Charles II

On his death bed, Charles finally went through with his promise to convert to Catholicism, angering many of his subjects. He passed away in London's Whitehall Palace on February 6, 1685.

James II

King James II

The last Catholic monarch, King James II's reign was very brief. Unable to overcome the continued source of religious tension and constitutional crisis in the country, his short three years as king would culminate in the Glorious Revolution.

James was born on 14 October 1633 to Charles I and his French wife, Henrietta Maria and was named after his grandfather, James I and VI. During the English Civil War he was captured but fled to exile on the continent. He distinguished himself a soldier, returning to England at the Restoration of his brother, Charles II, in 1660. He commanded the Royal Navy from1660 to1673. In 1660, James married Anne Hyde, daughter of Charles II's chief minister and they had two surviving children, Mary and Anne. In 1669, James converted to Catholicism and took a stand against a number of anti-Catholic moves, including the Test Act of 1673. This did not impede his succession to the throne on Charles' death in 1685.

Monmouth

Later that year James faced rebellion, led by Charles II's illegitimate son the Duke of Monmouth. The rebellion was easily crushed after the battle of Sedgemoor in 1685, and savage punishments were imposed by the infamous lord chief justice, Judge Jeffreys, at the 'Bloody Assizes'. Monmouth himself was messily beheaded.

This, together with James's attempts to give civic equality to Roman Catholic and Protestant dissenters, led to conflict with parliament. In 1685, James prorogued it and ruled alone. He attempted to promote Catholicism by appointing Catholics to military, political and academic posts. In 1687, he issued a Declaration of Indulgence aiming at complete religious toleration and instructed Anglican clergy to read it from their pulpits.

In June 1688, James's second wife Mary of Modena, gave birth to a son, James Francis Edward. Fearing that a Catholic succession was now assured, a group of Protestant nobles appealed to William of Orange, husband of James's older, and Protestant, daughter Mary. In November, William landed with an army

in Devon. Deserted by an army and navy who he had completely alienated, James completely lost his nerve and fled abroad. In February 1689, parliament declared that James's flight constituted an abdication and William and Mary were crowned joint monarchs.

The Glorious Revolution, also called "The Revolution of 1688" and "The Bloodless Revolution," took place from 1688 to 1689 in England. It involved the overthrow of the Catholic king James II, who was replaced by his Protestant daughter Mary and her Dutch husband, William of Orange. Motives for the revolution were complex and included both political and religious concerns. The event ultimately changed how England was governed, giving Parliament more power over the monarchy and planting seeds for the beginnings of a political democracy.

King James II

King James II took the throne in England in 1685, during a time when relations between Catholics and Protestants were tense. There was also considerable friction between the monarchy and the British Parliament. James, who was Catholic, supported the freedom of worship for Catholics and appointed Catholic officers to the army. He also had close ties with France—a relationship that concerned many of the English people.

In 1687, King James II issued a Declaration of Indulgence, which suspended penal laws against Catholics and granted acceptance of some Protestant dissenters. Later that year, the king formally dissolved his Parliament and attempted to create a new Parliament that would support him unconditionally.

James's daughter Mary, a Protestant, was the rightful heir to the throne until 1688 when James had a son, James Francis Edward Stuart, whom he announced would be raised Catholic. The birth of James's son changed the line of succession, and many feared a Catholic dynasty in England was imminent. The Whigs, the main group that opposed Catholic succession, were especially outraged. The king's elevation of Catholicism, his close relationship with France, his conflict with Parliament and uncertainty over who would succeed James on the English throne led to whispers of a revolt—and ultimately the fall of James II.

William of Orange

In 1688, seven of King James's peers wrote to the Dutch leader, William of Orange, pledging their allegiance to the prince if he invaded England. William was already in the process of taking military action against England, and the letter served as an additional propaganda motive. William of Orange assembled an impressive armada for the invasion and landed in Torbay, Devon, in November 1688.

King James, however, had prepared for military attacks and left London to bring his forces to meet the invading army. But several of James's own men, including his family members, deserted him and defected to William's side. In addition to this setback, James's health was deteriorating. James decided to retreat back to London on November 23. He soon announced that he was willing to agree to a "free" Parliament but was making plans to flee the country due to concerns for his own safety. In December 1688, King James made an attempt to escape but was captured. Later that month, he made another attempt and successfully fled to France, where his Catholic cousin Louis XIV held the throne and where James eventually died in exile in 1701.

Bill of Rights

In January 1689, the now-famous Convention Parliament met. After significant pressure from William, Parliament agreed to a joint monarchy, with William as king and James's daughter, Mary, as queen. The two new rulers accepted more restrictions from Parliament than any previous monarchs, causing an unprecedented shift in the distribution of power throughout the British realm.

The king and queen both signed the Declaration of Rights, which became known as the Bill of Rights. This document acknowledged several constitutional principles, including the right for regular Parliaments, free elections and freedom of speech in Parliament. Additionally, it forbade the monarchy from being Catholic. Many historians believe the Bill of Rights was the first step toward a constitutional monarchy.

Bloodless Revolution

The Glorious Revolution is sometimes dubbed the Bloodless Revolution, although this description isn't entirely accurate. While there was little bloodshed and violence in England, the revolution led to significant loss of life in Ireland and Scotland.

Catholic historians typically refer to the Glorious Revolution as the "Revolution of 1688," while Whig historians prefer the phrase "Bloodless Revolution." The term "Glorious Revolution" was first coined by John Hampden in 1689.

Legacy of the Glorious Revolution

Many historians believe the Glorious Revolution was one of the most important events leading to Britain's transformation from an absolute monarchy to a constitutional monarchy. After this event, the monarchy in England would never hold absolute power again.

With the Bill of Rights, the regent's power was defined, written down and limited for the first time. Parliament's function and influence changed dramatically in the years following the revolution. The event also had an impact on the 13 colonies in North America. The colonists were temporarily freed of strict, anti-Puritan laws after King James was overthrown.

When news of the revolution reached the Americans, several uprisings followed, including the Boston Revolt, Leisler's Rebellion in New York and the Protestant Revolution in Maryland. Since the Glorious Revolution, Parliament's power in Britain has continued to increase, while the monarchy's influence has waned. There's no doubt this important event helped set the stage for the United Kingdom's present-day political system and government.

In March 1689, James landed in Ireland where, with French support, he raised an army. He was defeated by William at the Battle of the Boyne in July 1690. James died in exile in Saint-Germain in France on 16 September 1701.