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SOCIAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND

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Prepared by
Dr. V. Sathish
Assistant Professor, Department of English,
St. John's College, Palayamkottai - 627 002

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SOCIAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND II

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UNIT – I

THE UNION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND

England and Scotland were united under one ruler when James VI of Scotland ascended to the English throne in 1603. From the start, it was a tense union that did not benefit either country. Furthermore, there were regular disputes among the border residents. It was vital to take constructive action so that the partners could enjoy the benefits. The Act of Union was passed on 1st May 1707 after careful deliberation. The two countries merged to form a single entity with a shared Parliament located in Westminster. Scotland would be represented by forty-five members in the House of Commons and sixteen peers in the House of Lords.

Before the Union, when England and Scotland were under a symbolic monarchy, there was minimal interaction between the people of the two kingdoms. Scots had greater interaction with European countries than with England. Presbyterian clergy and lawyers typically pursued their academic education at Dutch universities rather than at Oxford or Cambridge. Scottish abroad merchants conducted commerce with Holland and Scandinavia, but not with England or the English colonies.

The Union was initially unpopular in both England and Scotland. The estranged relationship persisted for at least one generation or more after 1707. The Old Pretender in 1715 and the Young Pretender in 1745 garnered significant support, particularly from the Highlands of Scotland. The union between England and Scotland did not occur due to immediate romantic attraction. It was a well planned coalition designed to unite both hearts and minds. Despite the initial challenges and miscommunications, over time, the partners developed a greater understanding and cooperation, which was mutually beneficial. Before the Union, agriculture in Scotland was outdated and poor, but after the Union, Scotland was able to adopt England's agricultural techniques. Scottish landlords hired English ploughmen and farmers from South Britain to instruct them in more advanced agricultural techniques. Scotland's agricultural trials were so impressive that by the time of the Napoleonic wars, the country was ready to impart new knowledge to England.

Initially, neither Scotland nor England were ardent supporters of the Union.The strained connection persisted for at least a generation after 1707, if not longer. For this reason, the Old Pretender in 1715 and the Young Pretender in 1745 were able to garner a sizable following, particularly in Scotland's Highlands. There was no love at first sight in the

union of England and Scotland. However, it was a well considered partnership meant to create a marriage of heads and hearts. Therefore, despite the early challenges and miscommunications, as time went on, the partners' understanding and cooperation improved, which was advantageous to both of them. For example, Scotland's agriculture had been backward and dismal prior to the Union, but she was able to mimic England's agricultural practices afterward. The Scottish landlords hired a few English ploughmen and farmers from South Britain to instruct them in improved farming techniques. Scotland's agricultural efforts were so impressive that, by the time of the Napoleonic Wars, she was ready to impart new knowledge to England.

After the Union, Scottish living standards rose. People in the past suffered from low pay, poor living circumstances, and starvation. The eighteenth century improved things. Poor Scottish people ate milk and porridge with potatoes, vegetables, cheese, and sometimes meat. Scottish housing also improved. Some locations replaced Scottish peasants' livestock hovels with solid stone farms and cottages with one or two rooms, glass windows, fireplaces, beds, furnishings, and outside privies. Robert Burns (1759–1796) perceived the hearty Scots of his day as distinct from their grandfathers, who had become gaunt and dull due to lack of warmth, food, and clothing.

Scotland's predominant religion was Presbyterianism, which is a church with equal-ranking elders and pastors. These elderly people frequently meddled in others' daily lives. They punished adultery with a punishment that was ridiculous and frustrating. For example, on the stool of repentance in the church, a fornicator or adulterer was exposed to the delight of everyone, especially the younger members of the congregation. In order to evade this unbearable shame, impoverished girls frequently turned to hiding and occasionally even killed children. With time, the elders' narrow-minded prejudice vanished, and they gradually grew more accepting and tolerant. Without a doubt, their interactions with the English led to this.

The Episcopalians were the opposition religion. The Lowland gentry was split roughly evenly between Presbyterian and Episcopal groups. Over the course of the century, the number of Episcopalians decreased and Presbyterianism emerged as Scotland's official religion. Prior to the Union, social contact between the two nations was appallingly low. It is true that Scottish cattle traders sold their livestock at North England fairs, but aside from this, there was so little trade between Scotland and England that the London mail-bag would

occasionally arrive in Edinburgh with only one letter. In a given year, perhaps no more than twelve English visitors would make leisure trips to Scotland.

This condition of affairs was not solely due to political animosity. The few English visitors to Scotland were always dissatisfied with the quality of lodging in the run-down inns. The tourists did not find the scenery to be sufficiently picturesque. The untamed moorland scenery, which the fiercely loyal Scots undoubtedly cherished in their hearts, was then unappealing to any Englishman. The Lowland countryside, with its sad wastes and poorly managed oat fields, was hated by the southerner. To English eyes, the Highlands appeared terrifying and horrifying. By century's end, enhanced farming practices had made the scenery so exquisite that Wordsworth, the greatest poet of nature, was inspired to pen some of his most well-known poems, including To the Highland Girl and The Solitary Reaper. This fresh perspective was also the result of the Union's expanded social ties. The cloud of national preconceptions that had kept the peoples of both countries from perceiving the positive aspects in one another was lifted by these meetings. In actuality, every great English writer made at least one trip to Scotland. Dr. Johnson, who harboured strong anti-Scottish sentiments, embarked on an expedition in 1773 with biographer and admirer James Boswell.

English literature benefited from the 1707 Union. Scottish literary giants Rober Burns, George Smollett, Sir Walter Scott, and Thomas Carlyle generously enriched it. The best English biography, Dr. Johnson's, was written by a Scot. Scottish intellectuals contributed equally to global ideas. Political Discourses, originally published in English and then in French, made Scottish philosopher David Hume renowned in England and France. In his masterpiece "An Enquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations", his friend and countryman Adam Smith transformed economic theory. William Robertson, a historian, and Dugald Stewart, a moral philosophy professor, also achieved international reputation.

Another benefit of the Union was seen. In the early seventeenth century, feudalism persisted in both Lowlands and Highlands, but the latter remained more basic. Their inactivity and unhappiness were caused by feudalism for ages. The tribal Highlanders were trapped in poverty and unable to better their finances. The Union with England allowed them to trade overseas and travel to Canada. By joining the British army, the Highlanders' fighting spirit allowed them to contribute to British conflicts abroad.

Education also changed drastically. Scottish education suffered in the century before Union. Due to thrift and patriotism, sending a Scottish gentleman's kid to an English public

school or university was unimaginable. Similarly, Scottish schools lacked a stimulating intellectual atmosphere. Glasgow was a market and university town with 12,500 residents at the time of the Union. By 1800, the population reached 80000 and living conditions improved greatly. Adam Smith, the economist, made the University prominent in Europe. Edinburgh was Scotland's legal, fashionable, and intellectual centre after the Union, even if it wasn't the capital. Europeans knew the city for its philosophers, lawyers, and academics. The Union allowed Scottish missionaries to work in many parts of the British Empire, including South India. They founded a network of educational institutions that shaped some of the country's greatest leaders in addition to missionary activity. Scotland's golden age was the late 18th century.

THE AGRARIAN REVOLUTION

The "Agrarian Revolution" refers to England's major agricultural transformations in the second half of the seventeenth century and the first half of the eighteenth. This Revolution eliminated open fields, rotated crops, and used "scientific procedures in agriculture. Large farms superseded small holdings.

Many factors sparked the revolution. First, the traditional open field method wasted land because one of the three fields was to be unused each year. Second, the old land allocation system wasted time. A farmer had to trek far to reach his remoter land because his properties were spread. Third, following village customs prevented agricultural experiments. There were additional causes. More food was needed in the 18th century due to population growth. The existing cultivation system could not increase yield, thus it had to be replaced. Due to food shortages, prices rose. Old-fashioned farmers believed they could earn more by producing more. This inspired them to improve their farming.

Several Enclosure Acts were passed under George II and George III to concentrate estates into enclosed blocks. A commissioner was assigned to visit the village and reallocate land after an Enclosure Act was passed. Many poor peasants were unhappy with the reallocation. These people sold their tiny properties to affluent city businesspeople who wanted land. This trend led to the extinction of yeomen. The enclosure system allowed many entrepreneurs to explore. Jethro Tull of Berkshire pioneered agricultural innovation. He invented a seed drill. He conducted critical experiments on seed depth and quantity per acre. He also stressed the importance of seed selection for optimum yields. Norfolk's Charles

Townshend, Walpole's brother-in-law, pioneered. He followed Tull's methods on his Rainham estate and focused on crop rotation. He started the Norfolk rotation of turnips, barley, cloves, rye-grass, and wheat. These tactics prevented unproductive fallow and allowed him to carry more stock on his holdings, which meant more manure, better crops, and more animals. His innovations made Norfolk a premier agricultural nation, raising farm rentals from 180 pounds to 800 pounds in 30 years.

Thomas Coke of Holkham, Norfolk, continued Townhend's work. Following Tull's advice, he added bone and dung to the soil. Indeed, he was one of the first farmers to employ bones as manure. His wheat yields were exceptional in nine years, while cloves and other roots allowed him to raise three times as many sheep and cattle. He pioneered oil-cake and cattle fattening for London markets. He hosted annual farmer gatherings at his house when farming concerns were discussed and advice was provided. He planted trees on his acreage to transform the countryside. According to estimates, his estate rental climbed from 2,200 pounds in 1776 to 20,000 pounds in 1816. While Norfolk landlords improved arable farming, Leicestershire farmer Robert Bakewell revolutionised English stock breeding. Before this, sheep were mostly valued for their wool, not their mutton. Bakewell was the first to see meat production as stock breeders' principal concern. He created a fast-fattening, heavy-weighting sheep breed through painstaking choice and experimentation. Many saw his success. Farmers from far and wide visited his Dishley farm and adopted his methods. George Culley, Charles Colling, and John Ellman pioneered this field.

Revolutionising agriculture received royal support. Farmer George, as his followers called him, built a model farm at Windsor. Arthur Young, the most prominent agricultural writer, helped the movement succeed. A Board of Agriculture was created in 1793. Young became secretary. He vigorously advocated enclosures, huge farms, and longer leases, writing about the new ways. The enclosure system expanded the English banking system since even wealthy landlords could not afford fence and other upgrades. So they borrowed from banks. The enclosure system forced many small farmers to sell their land. They became paid labourers or moved to cities to find work. However, their disappointment added to the army of the poor and unemployed. Even the Commons were surrounded by the system. This measure benefited national production but hurt poor peasants. The system prevented him from grazing his animals and cutting Commons fuel.

UNIT II

THE METHODIST MOVEMENT

English social history saw various humanitarian initiatives in the 18th century. Some Oxford students started a religious revival that fueled eighteenth-century humanitarianism. The Lincolnshire clergyman's sons, John and Charles Wesley, were brothers. George Whitefield, a Gloucester innkeeper's son, was another notable member. By their exemplary lifestyle, this tiny group of young men became known as Methodists. They lived a strict Bible-based existence and taught others piety and decency. They wanted to save their souls and help each other to serve God properly. They also visited prisoners, preached to the needy at Oxford, and taught the town's poor and ignorant youngsters. They wanted to prove Christianity could be practiced as well as professed. They taught people about sin and repentance. Most of them became clergymen of the Church of England, and the organising ability of John Wesley made him the leader of the movement which started in 1729.

Among them, George Whitefield (1714–1770) was the best preacher. He addressed the glaringly irreligious colliers of Kingswood, near Bristol, with a series of sermons. In response to his plea, they developed into sincere religious men. There were between ten and twenty thousand people there for his sermons. His passionate eloquence affected different people in different ways. Some burst out laughing or sobbed uncontrollably, while others collapsed to the ground in a fit of regret. In the fifty years that Wesley spent as a missionary, he not only became a well-known preacher but also travelled thousands of miles, almost entirely on horseback, and delivered forty thousand sermons. During his eighty-eight-year life (1703–1791), Wesley led a penitent lifestyle and generously donated his resources to the underprivileged. He was able to live on £28 when his annual income was £30, donating the remaining £2 to the underprivileged. Even with his income of £120, he managed to live on just £28 and donated the rest to worthy causes.

Wesley established numerous new groups, each with a weekly meeting and feast, demonstrating his organising skills. The use of laypeople as preachers and class leaders was another noteworthy aspect of their movement. Among these lay preachers were some highly distinguished persons. All of the movement's leaders suffered severe attacks from the crowd in its early years, and some of their narrow escapes from violent deaths appeared nearly miraculous. The miners and other labourers in the densely populated industrial zones were the ones who brought them the most success. The populace that was involved in agriculture

was left with the least impression. Although some members of the nobility converted to them, the majority of their converts were from the middle and lower classes.

When Whitefield became a Calvinist, it caused disagreements among the leaders and split the movement into two groups. The one that came after Wesley was the more important one. The Methodist movement started to take on its own shape and government while he was in charge. Even though he personally spoke out against any break with the Church of England until the end. In many ways, the field preachers' actions were not right. They were clergymen who were not following the instructions of their spiritual leaders and were often working directly against them. In this way, the Methodists had no choice but to split from the Church of England. The Wesleyan Methodists became their own group in 1795, four years after their founder died.

This great religious revival had a huge impact on the Church, on writing, and on giving to others. The Evangelical movement came into the Church and gave its people a new way to worship God. Many church members changed the way they felt about their parishioners. It had a lot of religious and sincere guys who spread its teachings and watched how it was done. There were a lot of people from Cambridge University among these, which was a stronghold of the Evangelical movement. The movement mostly showed up in literature through the writing of a number of great songs. People developed a new sense of kindness and mercy as the Methodist movement grew. This led to the rise of many well-known acts of charity. Because there were so many Sunday schools, poor kids could learn how to read the Bible. A lot of kind people, like Hannah More of Bristol, went to the homes of poor farmers in the west of England and worked for them. They also wrote and begged for them, which helped. Also, societies were set up to teach the poor about religion and how to behave properly.

OTHER HUMANITARIAN MOVEMENTS

Introduction:

In England, the Industrial Revolution raised issues with cleanliness and health. Industrial towns with a high risk of disease, such as Sheffield, Birmingham, Manchester, and Leeds, are densely inhabited and have a large number of enterprises. There are now many different types of diseases. Smallpox was thought to be the deadliest of them all. It destroyed life and beauty. Lady Mary Wortley Montagu established an immunisation hospital in London

as well as vaccinations from Turkey. Jenner: the vaccine was discovered. There are now hospitals where patients can remain in a foetal position until they recover. A minimum of 154 hospitals were constructed after 1700.

Children's Hospital: The sight of abandoned babies in the streets was too much for Captain Coram to bear. He made efforts to build a hospital for these kids. Hogarth and Handel helped him. A hospital finally opened in 1745 after several years.

Prison and Prisoners: The scandal of debtor's prisons was brought to the public's attention by General Oglethorpe. He persuaded the Parliament to look into the atrocities that were occurring to the captives in Marshalsea and Fleet Street in 1729. Along with Elizabethan Fry, John Howard was another humanitarian who pushed for the betterment of captives. Still, it remained the national embarrassment.

Legal System: The law in England was in disarray. Numerous infractions carried death sentences. There were around two hundred executions. Theft of horses, coining, shoplifting, and even stealing five shillings were punishable by death. To preserve law and order, Robert Peele established the nation's police system in 1829.

Anti-Slavery Propaganda: Since the American colonies were established in the 1700s, England has been a part of the slave trade. As early as 1771, 50,000 slaves were brought by 53 ships from London, 23 ships from Bristol, and 107 ships from Liverpool. Slaves were exchanged for goods. This occurred near Lancashire's textile industry. Since the masters brought English cotton to clothe their slaves, it sold well. (This trade continued for years without anybody questioning it) Dr Johnson was the first to raise a moral objection to the slave trade. Horace Walpole was against this cruel practice. William Wilberforce popularised the anti-slavery system. In 1807, after much work, it was outlawed. Slavery was to be outlawed throughout the British colonies. Thus, the propaganda against slavery persisted. That came about in 1833. William Wilber force's death year.

Labourers and Paupers: Working System was introduced to address the locales. This states that no relief will be available to anyone who leaves the workhouses. This arrangement didn't work. There were fewer job prospects due to the population's rapid expansion. The cost of basic goods was high and earnings were low. In 1795, the Speedhamland Act was enacted to improve the circumstances. A commission was established in 1833 to research the bad legislation and submit a report to the legislature. It was revealed that the Poor Law

administration had engaged in corrupt practices. In 1834 the Poor Law Amendment was passed with the aim of improving the lot of labourers and poor people. Although this new method was a huge success, it had flaws. In 1905, a commission was set up once more with the same objectives. The group issued a report in 1909. The causes of poverty were identified as illness, intoxication, premature and careless marriages, casual labour, etc. Children were consequently taken out of workhouses. An independent facility was set up for the elderly impoverished. The State Insurance Plan and the Labour Exchange were suggested as ways to lower unemployment.

The Salvation Army: William Booth founded the Salvation Army in 1856. He went by the moniker General Booth. He attracted people's attention to the underprivileged members of society, such as the homeless, the hungry, the intoxicated, the criminal, and the harlot. He underlined the need of providing for the impoverished material needs.

Total Abstinence: This campaign assisted in the abolition of alcohol consumption since it was detrimental to families, men, society, and was the root of many crimes. Famous caricaturists from history, Hogarth and George Cruikshank, contributed numerous drawings to the campaign. As a teetotaler himself, George Cruikshank created a series of graphic drawings that depicted the development of alcoholism from birth to death. This was followed by a planned propaganda campaign by The Blue Ribbon Army to outlaw alcohol consumption among all social classes. Those who made pledges wore blue ribbon close to their breasts. This initiative attracted a lot of volunteers, which greatly influenced the public.

Factory Acts: Laissez-faire was the prevailing policy during the Industrial Revolution. Accordingly, employers and employees are free to manage their own affairs with little help from the government. The impoverished labourers were unable to negotiate with their wealthy employers. Production rose in response to the rising demand for English items. Consequently, women and children were expected to labour past their intellectual and physical capabilities, and day labour became necessary. They were prohibited from voicing their complaints and creating unions. The authorities were made aware of this through the efforts of religious leaders and philanthropist Sir William Ashley Cooper. As a result, a variety of working-class associations emerged and several Factory Acts were enacted.

UNIT III

THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE

Men who genuinely desired a life free from oppression and hardship founded the thirteen British colonies in North America. The Governor was appointed by the King of England, and each of these islands had its own administration. By the middle of the eighteenth century, the American colonies were tired of having foreigners obstruct their trade. The British mindset remained unchanged as they swiftly formed this idea.

According to the Navigation Act, English ships were required to transport all cargo to and from the colonies. This infuriated the colonists. It was forbidden to import commodities into the colonies without first landing in England, and it was also forbidden to export products from the colonies to other nations without first landing in England. To make matters worse, the colonies were prohibited from producing items like wool, iron, or hats that could rival those produced by the English.

In part, the colonies' interests were the reason for England and France's Seven Years War (1756–1763). The British government believed that the colonists deserved to shoulder some of the financial burden. Thus, in 1765, Prime Minister George Greenville succeeded in having the Stamp Act approved by Parliament. This Act mandated that stamps be applied to all documents, licences, and wills in order for them to be legally binding. A few men in England recognised the gravity of the situation and persuaded Parliament to revoke the Stamp Act. One such man was William Pitt. 1766 saw the revocation of the Act.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer, Charles Townshend, imposed additional customs duties on paper, paints, glass, and tea in 1767. Once more, there were disturbances, gatherings in public, leaflets, and publications with thought-provoking editorials. Five people were slain when the army opened fire on the protesting crowd on a wintry day in 1770. It was referred to as the "Boston Massacre" in American newspapers. Most of the tea drunk in the colonies was smuggled Dutch tea. Massive amounts of tea were imported to Great Britain in 1773 by the East India Company, which was the primary supplier of tea to the country. The Company was granted authorization by Lord North to sell tea in the US. The Americans perceived this tea as interfering with their trade, despite the fact that it was less expensive than tea that was being smuggled. So when the Company's tea arrived in Boston, local men garbed as Red Indians boarded the ships and threw the tea into the sea. This event was known as the Boston Tea Party.

Restrictions were imposed immediately by the British government. The Massachusetts Charter was withdrawn and trade in Boston Harbour was suspended. The colonists felt that fighting for their independence simultaneously was essential. Delegates from every colony—apart from Georgia—met in Philadelphia in 1774 for the first time in American history. The colonists were gathering armaments at Concord, about twenty miles northwest, according to General Gauge, the newly appointed Governor of Boston. He ordered his soldiers to take the weapons, but they had disappeared by the time they reached Concord.

At initially, the colonists faced insurmountable odds. The biggest drawback for America was the lack of a regular army. For this reason, the Second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia in 1775 and raised an army, with George Washington presiding over it. George III, the dictator, hired twenty thousand German soldiers to crush the rebellion. This infuriated the Congress, which met again in Philadelphia on July 4, 1776, and adopted the unified Declaration of Independence that same day. A few days later the same year, the American army led by Washington crushed the English force in Trenton and Princeton. One year later, in October 1777, Burgoyne's English army was forced to surrender at Saratoga. There was not much fighting in 1778, despite France siding with the Americans. In 1780, the British began to gain ground in the South, surpassing South Carolina in their victories. Still, 1781 was a bad year for the British.

The British government's incapacity to oversee its operations from 3,000 miles away was the main factor in their failure. Secondly, the British armed forces lacked previous experience fighting in colonial environments, and the battlefield was enormous. The British defeat was also influenced by Lord North, the then-prime minister of England, who was unable to manage the crisis. Above all, the colonists discovered in George Washington one of the finest statesmen of the modern era. In the peace treaty concluded in 1783 at the Palace of Versailles in France, George III recognised the independence of the American colonies. In many respects, the American Revolution ranks among the most important historical events of the modern age. During the American Revolution, French soldiers acting as God's earthly representatives brought the idea of representative governance to the continent.

Six more years later, the leaders of the French Revolution drew inspiration from the American model. The American Revolution also had an impact on British politics. The avarice of the dictatorial king and the aristocratic politicians prevented them from ruling alone. People's eyes were opened by the manner they handled the American situation. It was

evident that the aristocracy's only concern was retaining their position of power and that they had no regard for the wellbeing of the common folk. People thought that the only way they could improve their lot in life was to actively participate in the government of their country. Thus, they started advocating for parliamentary reform.

ENGLAND AND IRELAND

Ireland was a part of the United Kingdom from 1801 until 1922. For almost all of this period, the island was governed by the UK Parliament in London via its Dublin Castle administration in Ireland. The Great Famine of the 1840s, which precipitated a population decline that lasted for more than a century, was the most significant of Ireland's many difficulties during the 1800s. In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, there was a lot of activity surrounding the Irish Home Rule movement. Irish unionists, particularly those in Ulster, aggressively and violently opposed Irish Home Rule even if laws allowing it were eventually established. The proclamation was suspended for a while with the outbreak of World War I. By 1918, however, moderate Irish nationalism had been replaced by militant republican secession. 1919 saw a conflict between the republican separatists and the troops of the British Government. Only the six northeastern counties remained a part of the UK after the Anglo-Irish Treaty, which was signed by Sinn Fein, the principal Irish party, and the UK government following additional negotiations, caused five-sixths of the island to secede from the UK and become the Irish Free State (now the Republic of Ireland).

At the beginning of the 19th century, Ireland was still dealing with the fallout from the Irish Rebellion of 1798. Both the violence in County Wicklow and the deportation of inmates to Australia continued. In 1803, Robert Emmet led another unsuccessful insurrection. In an attempt to address some of the causes of the 1798 rebellion and prevent it from further destabilising Britain or acting as a springboard for foreign invasion, the Acts of Union, which formally incorporated Ireland into the British state, can be understood. An Act of Union passed by the Irish and British Parliaments in 1800 disbanded the Irish legislature and united the Kingdom of Ireland and the Kingdom of Great Britain to become the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland on January 1, 1801.

After one unsuccessful effort, the act was eventually passed by the Irish parliament; however, similar to the 1707 Acts of Union that brought Scotland and England together, this was accomplished through widespread bribing of members of both houses, who were then

granted British peerages and other forms of "encouragement." The central British government appointed officials to manage Ireland's affairs during this period. These were the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, who represented the King, and the Chief Secretary for Ireland, who was proposed by the British Prime Minister. Almost as important was the Under Secretary for Ireland, who was in charge of the Irish civil service. As the century went on, the UK Parliament and Cabinet—the legislative and executive branches, respectively—replaced the monarch as head of state. As a result, the Chief Secretary took over the role of the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, which diminished somewhat. After the Irish Parliament was dissolved, Irish MPs were elected to the Westminster House of Commons in the United Kingdom.

EFFECTS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

Long-lasting despots like Louis XIV dominated France. The rulers ran the country as they saw fit, disregarding the welfare of the common people. The nation as a whole experienced tremendous famine and misery as a result of the autocratic kings' disregard for human rights. Following the overthrow of the monarchy due to popular rebellion against the rulers' persecution, the French Republic came into being. This momentous political event with far-reaching consequences is known as the French Revolution. The French Revolution started on July 14, 1789, when the state prison, known as the "Bastille," was breached. The terror that had followed the execution of King Louis XVI and his Queen would not end until Napoleon took the throne in May 1804. England was forced to declare war on the French Revolution in 1793 because its leaders had pledged to back any nation that attempted to imitate France and overthrow its monarchy. The war continued until 1815, when Lord Wellington soundly defeated Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo.

This twenty-year struggle had long-lasting effects on England. The biggest and most obvious result was the enormous national debt. The estimated total cost of the conflict, from beginning to end, was over £1,000,000,000. The nation, which was home to nineteen million people, had to pay a significant annual interest payment. In 1815, taxes alone had to bring in £74,000,000 for the country. Following the fight, there was a decline in the prices of coal and iron. Many of the guys employed in that industry lost their jobs. The result was a significant worsening of the unemployment problem. The price of maize increased throughout the 20-year struggle because no European imports were allowed into England. However, this benefited the lords who owned the land. Consequently, adversity led to the founding of the

Anti-Corn Law League, which in turn persuaded Robert Peel, the prime minister at the time, to abolish the Corn Law in 1846.

Many problems, such as low earnings, high costs for maize, and unemployment, made the poor generally dissatisfied. There were violent riots in several places, which the government's soldiers tried to put down with an iron grip. Eleven persons lost their lives and six hundred were injured. Agitators humiliated the government by taking advantage of what is commonly referred to as the Battle of Peterloo or the Manchester Massacre. A further effect of the French Revolution was the acknowledgment of the Army and Navy as national institutions. Lord Nelson's victory at the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805, during the Revolutionary War, proved the strength of the English Navy. The French Revolution served as an inspiration for many English writers, resulting in some of their best-known works. It was from this that Edmund Burke drew inspiration for his classic work "Reflections on the French Revolution." In this beautifully written article, he argues that the problematic institutions of the previous government should have been modified rather than eliminated. Thomas Paine wrote the two volumes of "Rights of Man" in response to this. In the first part of the book, he defends the idea that a country's Constitution is an act of the people establishing an oppressive government.

Paine therefore goes to considerable pains to explain the circumstances that led to the National Assembly's Declaration of Human Rights and to defend the French Revolution. The second part of the book makes recommendations for improving the conditions in England and throughout Europe. Even though these ideas were regarded too radical at the time, democratic governments all over the world took them seriously and eventually implemented them. Some of the most notable suggestions are as follows: a large reduction in taxes and administrative expenses; provisions for the aged poverty; family allowances; educational allowances for the poorest; grants for funerals and pregnancy; a graduated income tax; and armaments control based on treaties. Dickens' "A Tale of Two Cities" is another book that accurately depicts Paris and London during the French Revolution. The French Revolution ushered in a new chapter in English literary history. The Romantic movement, or romanticism, got its start in 1798 with the release of Wordsworth and Coleridge's Lyrical Ballads. Wordsworth gave up on the fake style and showed, via experience, that great poetry could be written with common language and subjects. The movement was completed by younger poets such as Byron, Shelley, and Keats.

UNIT IV

THE REFORM BILLS

Any British Parliamentary proposal, referred to as a "Reform Bill," that aimed to rationalise the representation of the House of Commons and expand its electorate was enacted into law in 1832, 1867, and 1884–1885. The primary goal of the first Reform Bill was to transfer voting privileges from heavily industrialised towns to smaller boroughs under the control of nobles and aristocrats. The two bills that followed provided more democratic representation by granting voting rights to wider and less affluent populations, as opposed to just the wealthiest property owners.

The fundamental impetus for the first Reform Bill's necessity was the glaring differences in representation between historically enfranchised rural towns and the rapidly growing metropolis of emerging industrial England. For example, parliamentary representatives were still being returned from a variety of so-called "rotten boroughs," which were essentially abandoned rural areas, and "pocket boroughs," where a powerful landowner or peer could virtually control the entire electoral process. Large industrial hubs like Birmingham and Manchester, for example, were left out of representation. Compared to 44 from the sparserly populated county of Cornwall, only 4 members from the City of London, which has a population of over 100,000, were returned.

Drafted by the then-prime minister Charles Grey, 2nd Earl Grey, the first Reform Bill was introduced by John Russell in the House of Commons in March 1831. Although it was defeated by the House of Lords, it was accepted by a single vote. An amended Reform law comfortably passed the Commons the following October, but it was again lost in the House of Lords, despite a public outcry in favour of the law. Grey proposed in May 1832 that King William IV grant him the authority to create 50 or more Liberal peers, which would be sufficient to pass the bill through the obstinate House of Lords, in a desperate attempt to save a third Reform Bill that had passed the Commons but been rejected by the Lords due to an amendment.

Grey vowed to resign as prime minister, therefore the monarch called for the Duke of Wellington to try to form a new government when William refused. Wellington's failed attempt was followed by the monarch's surrender to Grey, who pledged to give him power to choose new peers. The threat was enough. The House of Lords passed the bill on June 4, 1832, with the opposition abstaining.

Under Britain's antiquated electoral system, the First Reform Act rearranged seats and altered the conditions of the franchise. A total of 217,000 more people were registered to vote, 42 new English boroughs were created, and fifty-six English boroughs lost all of their representation. Cornwall was reduced to thirteen representatives. To facilitate the casting of first ballots by a significant number of smaller property owners, electoral requirements were also streamlined. Even though the measure deprived the working class and a sizable portion of the lower middle class the ability to vote, it lessened political agitation by providing the new middle classes a voice in responsible administration.

But the Act of 1832 was really a conservative measure designed to balance the interests of the middle and upper classes with the preservation of traditional landed authority. Following the Second Reform Act of 1867, which was largely the result of Tory Benjamin Disraeli's efforts, 938,000 additional people gained the right to vote, including many workingmen in towns and cities. With 50,000 votes per constituency, the Third Reform Act of 1885 guaranteed equal representation for all single-member parliamentary seats. When these two laws were coupled, they expanded the electorate and made it possible for men to vote everywhere.

THE VICTORIAN AGE

The Lord Chamberlain and the Archbishop of Canterbury woke the eighteen-year-old Princess Victoria from her slumber in Kensington Palace early on June 20, 1837, to tell her that she was now the Queen of England. Taking up that honourable role at such a young age, Queen Victoria became the most beloved British monarch ever, and she lived long enough to be called "grand-mamma" by the millions of people who called her home across the Empire. Many inventions were made during her sixty-four-year reign, such as the telephone, telegraph, and penny post. The franchise was also made available to a larger group of people. In the end, the world mourned her loss when, on January 22, 1901, she died at the advanced age of 83.

In the early years of her reign, she had challenges. One of the things that broke the quiet of the time was the Chartist movement, also called Chartism. This movement was essentially one of extending people's rights. After organising other associations across the country, he wrote a charter that became known as the People's Charter. It contained six demands: universal suffrage, equal electoral districts, yearly parliaments, ballot voting,

member compensation, and the abolition of the property requirement for members of Parliament. When the Charter was presented to Parliament on July 12, 1839, shaped like a four-foot-diameter cylinder, Whigs and Tories were so offended by it that it was unanimously rejected.

The rise of the Anti-Corn Law alliance and its activities presented several difficulties for England's authorities in the early nineteenth century. The Corn Law, which was imposed in 1815 during the Napoleonic Wars, had a significant negative impact on the working classes, whose purchasing power was limited as a result of low pay. In an effort to put an end to these people's suffering, the first Anti-Corn Law League was founded in 1839. Its leader was the gentle Richard Cobden, a Sussex farmer's son. Concerned about humanitarian issues, Prime Minister Robert Peel repealed the Corn Laws in 1846.

The Great Exhibition of 1851, the first of its kind in history, offered clear evidence of what years of hard work and peace might achieve. It was held at the massive glass-covered iron structure known as the Crystal Palace, which spans 900,000 square feet. In just one place, people could view artistic works and raw materials that had been gathered from all over the Empire and the world. It is estimated that six million people saw this nine-month-long exhibit.

During the Victorian era, significant advancements were made in the medical and physical sciences. Henry Bessemer's method, which made it possible to produce steel in large quantities, and Michael Faraday's discovery of electrical power both contributed to the period's material prosperity. The invention of antiseptic surgery by Joseph Lister and the introduction of chloroform in medicine by Simpson in 1847 both significantly reduced human suffering. The publication of "The Origin of Species" by renowned scientist Charles Darwin took place in 1859. The very shocking theory that all living things, including humans, descended from a single common ancestor was born out of it.

Alongside these social and scientific advances was a religious movement similar to the Methodist movement, which was started by the Wesley brothers in the previous century. The Tractarian Movement, commonly known as the Oxford Movement, was started in 1833 by John Henry Newman and a few other Oxford undergraduates. Its main objective was to counterbalance the latitudinarianism and irreligiosity of the intellectuals of the day. Newman began researching church history and concluded that the church that had existed since the

sixth century was not the same as the Church of England, which was founded under the Thirty-nine Articles.

According to Newman, the only way to heal the spiritual illness was to return to the sacraments and practices of the early Church. He discussed his beliefs in several sermons and publications. Newman's quest for the truth didn't end until October 9, 1845, when he was received into the Roman Catholic Church. Those who failed to perceive his honesty referred to him as a betrayer and a deserter. Many began to convert to the Roman Catholic Church after Newman's conversion. The long-suppressed Catholic hierarchy was reconstituted on St. Michael's Day, September 29, 1850, led by Cardinal Wiseman, a Protestant convert with supervisory power over twelve other dioceses. This came about as a result of repeated requests to Rome. Westminster served as the headquarters of the revived hierarchy.

With the signing of the Treaty of Paris in 1856, the Crimean War came to a tragic end during the otherwise beautiful Victorian era. The inception of nursing as a respectable vocation can be attributed to Miss Florence Nightingale and her team of thirty-eight employees who provided care for wounded soldiers at the Scutari hospital. When Florence founded the Nightingale Training School for Nurses in 1860, she laid the foundation for the contemporary nursing profession.

Following the Crimean War, India experienced instability. For a variety of reasons, Indian soldiers rose up in Meerut in 1857, and the rebellion soon spread to Delhi. The British Government became aware of the rebellion, even though it was put down in a period of only one or two months. Twenty years later, on January 1st, 1877, Queen Victoria was declared Empress of India, and a proclamation to that effect was heard by an assembly in Delhi.

More literature was published during the Victorian era in England than at any other period. Poems, prose, novels, histories, paintings, and writings about art were produced in vast quantities. Alfred Tennyson, the greatest poet of his day, was named Poet Laureate in 1850. The century also produced some of the century's lesser poets, such as Matthew Arnold, Swinburne, Dante Gabriel Rossetti, his sister Christina Rossetti, Fitzgerald, William Morris, Arthur Clough, and Coventry Patmore.

Excellent prose writers included Carlyle, Macaulay, Ruskin, Newman, and many others. From the perspective of the narrative, it was an age of giants. Among the well-known

writers were Charlotte Bronte and her sister Emily Bronte, Wilkie Collins, Charles Kingsley, George Eliot, Anthony Trollope, politician-novelist Benjamin Disraeli, and Charles Dickens.

Throughout the second part of Queen Victoria's reign, several political and educational reforms were implemented. The Reforms Acts of 1867 and 1884 gave ever-larger portions of society the ability to vote. This in turn necessitated modifications to the country's educational framework. Gladstone removed some of the anomalies that had impeded the nation's progress through his educational reforms. Ireland's home rule was the one problem that Gladstone was unable to settle because of the House of Lords' obstructionism. All things considered, however, the Victorian era was a prosperous and peaceful period of life.

UNIT V

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION IN VICTORIAN ENGLAND

Before the eighteenth century, the people of England did not fully understand the importance of education. The lack of a unified system across the entire nation serves as evidence of this. Different groups of individuals adhered to various systems and norms, and it is clear that this hindered the nation's educational advancement.

England had a wide variety of schools during that time. The elite and middle classes may attend public schools, but they charged a significant price for an education. Under the direction of the Church of England, the National Society ran schools for the benefit of the underprivileged, charging students only nominal tuition. Apart from the Church schools, there were other private schools catering to all social groups. By statute or custom, the Roman Catholics and Dissenters were excluded from the Government schools. They had little choice but to manage their own institutions, some of which were expensive but skilfully run.

While some private schools were extremely inexpensive, their administration was scandalous. The majority of the private village schools fell well short of expectations. Regretfully, there was no national authority in place to oversee education in the nation. Generally speaking, England neglected primary education for the impoverished during the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries.

While the general public's education was neglected, the wealthy's secondary education saw significant advancements. In previous centuries, kings and municipal corporations created public schools, which were attended by children from the upper and middle classes. The ruling classes used these schools as their training grounds. Unfortunately, though, these schools gained a bad reputation for being unruly. But Dr. Arnold, the legendary Rugby headmaster and the poet Matthew Arnold's father, brought about a positive transformation.

The renowned educator oversaw Rugby's operations for a full fourteen years, from 1828 to 1842. In order to ensure student discipline, he instituted the monitorial system and placed a strong emphasis on religious studies. The introduction of organised games was another excellent thing he accomplished. In fact, games were given so much weight that it allowed detractors to claim that "they toil at games and play with books." This educational approach, which aimed to foster students' whole personality development, was widely

adopted by other public schools and subsequently by government-established institutions of higher learning.

The Second Reform Bill, which was passed in 1867, was one of the factors that assisted the government in coming up with a standardised primary education programme for England. A sizable portion of the working class was granted the right to vote under the Act. Every rational person was persuaded that popular education was essential to the success of democracy. Gladstone's 1870 Education Act was the result of this conviction. Every district was required by the Act to create a School Board. The Board was responsible for providing education to kids in the five to twelve age range.

Although this education was inexpensive, it wasn't free; three quarters of the costs would come from grants from the government, another third from local taxes that each school board was able to collect, and the final third from school fees. Thus, a national education system was launched for the first time in England's history.

Numerous additional Acts that brought about significant advances in university education also followed the Education Act of 1870. It used to be customary for anyone hoping to work as an academic at Oxford or Cambridge to first clear a religious examination. This practice was outlawed by the Test Act of 1871, which had the consequence of making the majority of the faculty members at the two universities laymen during the final three decades of the nineteenth century.

To promote the study of professional subjects, new universities were established in the industrial centres. As a result, in 1836 the University of London was founded, and thereafter came the Universities of Manchester, Liverpool, Newcastle, and Cardiff. The development of scientific and technical education that marked the mid-1800s led to the establishment of all these institutions. For scientific education, there existed a distinct college that evolved into the Royal College of Science in 1890.

In the meantime, women's education received enough attention. Following the founding of Queen's College for Women in 1848, other prestigious private institutions such as Bedford College and Cheltenham College swiftly followed. Both boys and girls could take part in some of the Oxford and Cambridge exams. Men and women were able to enrol in classes at the newly established universities. In 1879, women were granted degrees by London University for the first time.

During the Victorian era, education saw development due to one additional change. Gladstone instituted a competitive test as the prerequisite for entering the civil service and outlawed favouritism in all public jobs. Having a trained intellect was now a young man's greatest advantage, not social standing or fashionable friends. An important turning point in England's educational history occurred in the year 1870. Since then, elementary education has advanced remarkably. From 1870 to 1890, the average number of students attending school increased from 1.5 million to 4.5 million.

A Royal Commission was established to examine the nation's educational system. When compared to the highly centralised and effective German system, the Commission concluded in 1895 that the English system was flawed in several areas. The Board of Education was founded in 1899 to address the situation. Three years later, then-prime minister Arthur James Balfour took a more decisive action.

Indeed, the foundations for education in Britain during the 20th century were set by his education Act of 1902. The authority to offer primary and secondary education was transferred from the School Boards to the elected County Councils and certain sizable Borough Councils. In order to qualify for government funding, private organisations have to raise the efficiency level of their schools to a particular point. Thus, a significant advancement in the creation of a unified national education system was made.

MEANS OF TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATION

During the nineteenth century, England's social life saw a notable improvement. During this time, social visits, visits to friends and family both locally and abroad, vacation or health resort visits, and most importantly, letter-based communication with family members became commonplace in English social life. All of this was made possible by the amazing advancements in communication and transportation technologies.

During the Victorian era, the railway was the primary mode of transportation. It was the result of trials carried out to determine the most effective way of transporting coal from the mines to locations where it was needed. "The railways were England's gift to the world," as Trevelyan puts it. On September 27, 1825, the first railway line between Stockton and Darlington was built. George Stephenson created the first railway engine, which he dubbed "Active." He created a more potent engine a few years later, enabling the train to be pulled at thirty miles per hour. The engine was dubbed "Rocket" back then because of its incredible

speed.The train was pulled by the new engine along the railway that connected Manchester and Liverpool and was inaugurated on September 15, 1830. William Huskisson, a former cabinet minister, was killed during the railway's opening. As a result, it ended up being the first railway accident as well as the introduction of the rapid train. Ten years later, longer railways were constructed. In 1838, a railway link was established between London and Birmingham, Brighton, and Manchester.

The Railway age was the thirty-five-year gap between the first two Reform Bills. During this time, significant advancements were made in this sector. Better compartments and other amenities were added, and fast-moving engines were created. Many railway firms were founded, the most significant of which was founded by George Hudson, also referred to as the "Railway King." Within fifty years, a railway network spanned the entirety of England. In 1843, there were roughly 2,000 miles of railway in Great Britain; but, in just five more years, that number shot up to 5,000. The mileage increased from slightly over 10,000 miles in 1860 to around 20,000 miles in 1890. In the meantime, the government implemented a number of policies to guarantee the department was run effectively. A Railway Commission with the authority to set rates for the carrying of goods and commerce was attached to the Board of Trade in 1873. The Cheap Trains Act of 1844 required the railway companies to operate at least one train per day in each direction at a fair fare of one cent per mile. Other successful actions have also been done in the years that followed.

The demise of roads and canals was heralded by the railway's popularity. The hefty "family coach" and the public postal coach vanished from the highways. On the other hand, they persisted on the side roads that connected the towns and train stations. Only once motor cars were put into use did the roads become more significant. The bicycle's resurgence in favour was one factor in the roads' long-lost significance. Naturally, when Queen Vitoria passed away in 1901, the motor car and motorbike had not yet become widely used.

The rise of English shipping coincided with the railway's fast growth. Sails were replaced by steam and iron in favour of wood when building ships. English steamships were few and modest as early as 1847, but males commanded large ocean-going ships throughout the 1850s and 1860s. They were powered mostly by steam and were constructed of iron, then steel. A third of all seagoing vessels were registered in Britain in 1855.

The invention of the penny post in 1840 was a notable advancement in communication methods. It was the outcome of Sir Rowland Hill's selfless and relentless

efforts; he was a teacher by trade. Before the penny post was introduced, letter-writing was an expensive endeavour that the impoverished could not afford. The government's earnings were also meagre. Rowland Hill's suggestions were predicated on the ideas that all mail should be prepaid, all postage rates should be the same regardless of distance, and a lower postage rate would enhance state revenue through increased mail traffic. He proposed a tool that became known as the postal stamp in relation to the last point. He encountered strong resistance in implementing his programme from the oblivious statesmen and ignorant public servants. In a letter to his mother, Carlyle voiced concern that letter writing might become less of an art form. Nevertheless, many benefited from the system. For the first time in human history, technology made it possible for the impoverished to connect with the loved ones they were separated from. Every civilised nation on the planet adopted the new postal system when it demonstrated to be successful in England.

That same decade saw the introduction of Samuel Morse's innovation, the electric telegraph. He overcame numerous early obstacles to construct the nation's first telegraph line, which ran from Baltimore to Washington, in 1843. "What bath God wrought" was the subject of his first message, which he sent the next year. The inventor received substantial compensation from numerous European governments as telegraph lines expanded. The new train system was the inspiration behind the invention of the electric telegraph. Over 1,800 miles of railroads had telegraph cables installed by roughly 1848. By 1854, the London-based Electric Telegraph Company, founded in 1846, had seventeen offices. The first effective cable was installed in 1866, and Stearns and Edison created techniques for simultaneously sending several messages over the wire in the 1870s.

The most widely used and convenient form of communication is the telephone, which was created by American naturalised citizen Alexander Graham Bell. He presented an equipment in 1856 that embodied the findings of his research on the electrical transmission of sound; this invention, with some adjustments, became the modern telephone. Graham Bell showed Queen Victoria his device when he visited England two years later. In 1879, the first telephone exchange was established in London with seven or eight subscribers, in part due to her patronage. In the ensuing years, numerous telephone companies were established in Great Britain. As the benefits of telephone communication became apparent, the government progressively assumed control of the service. These days, it's among the simplest ways to communicate.

WORLD WAR I & II

Everywhere, but particularly in England, significant advancements were made during the first half of the 20th century. The advancement of science and technology has greatly contributed to the ease and comfort of human existence. But catastrophes of the greatest scale matched this advancement. The First World War, which resulted in the genocide of countless lives and paralysed everyday life for people everywhere, was waged in the first quarter of the century for the first time in human history. The League of Nations was founded following World War I, which ended in 1918, largely due to the efforts of Woodrow Wilson, the American president at the time. It was thought that having such a global organisation would contribute to keeping wars from breaking out again. However, the events that transpired contradicted humanity's optimism. A more intense conflict sprang out within twenty years, which may be a long time in a person's life but an incredibly short time in world history, and it devastated the planet for more than six years.

In 1945, the war came to an end. The United Nations Organisation, a more extensive and potent global organisation, was then founded. Its purpose was to mediate disputes between belligerent states. All the United Nations is is an ambition for a global government. It cannot be regarded as a government in the strict sense since it lacks the ability to punish a disobedient member through coercion. Nevertheless, it has frequently been a major factor in averting major wars.

It's common to refer to the Second World War as a war of freedom. This is mostly accurate because it ended centuries of colonial rule and made it possible for other countries to achieve independence and full sovereignty. As a result, the long-standing empire ended and a new era of democracy began. Significant changes were brought about by these two wars, both in England and outside. A consequence of World War I was the levelling of social strata. Class tensions had lessened after the war than they had before. This was partially caused by soldiers from various social classes coexisting in the same camp during the war. The state levied numerous taxes, such as the Death Duty, on the wealthy upper class, preventing them from enjoying all of their luxuries. They gradually lost the political and social leadership that they enjoyed for many years.

Mass clothing production also had a role in the social levelling process. The working man's wife was able to follow the styles of the ladies of rank because to the mass manufacture of clothing. The working man was also able to purchase ready-made suits thanks to increased

purchasing power. The societal objective of a classless society was effectively realised with the help of the educational institutions. The number of worker sons attending Oxford, Cambridge, London, and other universities as scholars and students increased in the years following World War II. After 1919, it was no longer true to say that admission to British universities was limited to the sons of the middle and upper classes.

There were radical shifts in clothing trends during the post-war era. The purpose of women's clothing was no longer to hide feminine attractions. Transparent undergarments replaced petticoats and dresses that hung down to the ankles. dresses that stopped at the knees. Clever young men wore Oxford bags, which were basically balloon-shaped trousers that encased the entire shoe.

One particularly noticeable shift in society was the difficulty in hiring domestic help. The primary reason for this was the shift in working-class women's roles from housewives to factory and office workers. Naturally, the spouses of physicians and attorneys were obliged to perform a higher proportion of household chores than they had previously been expected to before the war.

The Second World War altered not just the physical landscape of the planet but also the lifestyles and ideologies of its citizens. Following World War II, successive governments in England and Wales made a concerted effort to narrow the wealth disparity between the rich and the poor. The State abandoned the venerable laissez-faire doctrine and began an audacious and daring nationalisation programme. The Bank of England was seized from its 17,000 shareholders, who received their just compensation, and placed under the direction of a Board of Governors that the government had appointed. Similar measures were taken to place state control over coal, gas, wireless, and air transportation. The development of industries, the marketing of agricultural products, the construction of factories, and the procurement of raw materials were all under state supervision. The government took these risks because there was a widespread belief that the least fortunate members of society could not get better without government intervention. Only if it controlled the sources of money could the government take any action to improve the lot of the impoverished.

In 1945, just after the Second World War, the Labour Party, led by Prime Minister Clement Attlee, won a general election and took control of the government. To provide social security and welfare for the vast majority of the population, the Labour Government enacted many Acts. Families with two or more children of school age received an allowance under the

Family Allowance Act. The National Insurance Act, which was passed in 1946, increased employer and employee contributions. Additionally, the retirement pensions were raised. By taking these actions, the constant fear of an unclear future was lessened.

The National Health Service Act was another audacious move taken by the Labour Government. All patients, with the exception of a small number, were entitled to free medical care; nevertheless, patients had to pay a portion of the costs for dental and optical care. Millions of people benefited from this system, and it goes without saying that it also contributed to improvements in public health.

The National Assistance Act was the third charitable act enacted by the Attlee administration. It was decided to create a National Assistance Board whose job it was to augment the income of low-income families. More educational facilities were provided to the impoverished.

The Labour Ministry was overthrown in 1950. However, the Labour Government's approach was adopted by the succeeding Conservative governments. Thus, the Slum Clearance Scheme was established by the Conservative Ministry, led by Anthony Eden. After that, the Housing Corporation was established by the Macmillan Ministry. Thus, the path to England's transformation into a welfare state was set.