

History of England

**МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ
РЕСПУБЛИКИ ТАТАРСТАН
КАЗАНСКИЙ ФЕДЕРАЛЬНЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ
ИНСТИТУТ ФИЛОЛОГИИ И МЕЖКУЛЬТУРНОЙ КОММУНИКАЦИИ
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HISTORY OF ENGLAND

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Цель данного пособия – оказать методическую помощь студентам в приобретении знаний по основам страноведения и истории Англии. Учебно-методические материалы включают в себя лекционные материалы, вопросы для самоконтроля и тестовые задания, а также список источников и литературы.

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ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Настоящее учебно-методическое пособие составлено в соответствии с программой дисциплины «История Англии» для бакалавров 2-го курса направления подготовки 45.03.01 «Филология», профиль «Зарубежная филология: Английский язык и литература, переводоведение». Пособие состоит из четырех разделов:

1. Britons and invaders up to 1066 – Британцы и завоеватели до 1066 г;
2. Medieval England (1066–1485) – Средневековая Англия (1066–1485);
3. Tudors and Stuarts (1485–1603) – История династий Тюдоров и Стюартов (1485–1603);
4. Rise of power (1688–1815) – Расцвет власти (1688–1815).

Каждая тема структурирована и подразделяется на параграфы. После теоретического раздела приводятся вопросы, направленные на понимание и закрепление пройденного материала. После лекций и вопросов следуют тестовые задания, которые обеспечивают дополнительный контроль знаний.

Учебно-методическое пособие составлено на английском языке с целью формирования способности анализировать основные этапы и закономерности исторического развития английского общества на основном изучаемом языке.

Данное пособие дает возможность получить представление об истории Англии со времен первых британцев, помогает усвоить материал об этническом формировании англичан, излагает основные этапы становления английской нации. Пособие готовит студентов к успешному освоению дисциплины «История английского языка», которая читается на 2 курсе у студентов профиля подготовки «Зарубежная филология: Английский язык и литература, переводоведение», способствуя дальнейшей структуризации знаний по истории Англии и английского языка.

Lecture 1

Britons and invaders up to 1066

The first inhabitants of the British Isles were Celtic tribes. The most numerous and powerful among them was the tribe of Britons, which is proved by the fact that ancient Romans called the island Britannia, the land of Britons.

1.1. The Roman Invasion

In 55 BC Caesar prepared to cross the channel with a small expeditionary force. To enter Britain, the island that lay impossibly far off, would have brought him immense prestige. This first attempt was unsuccessful, as a severe storm scattered his ships. On the 6th of July, 54 BC, Caesar set off for Britain once more. The Britons were so intimidated by the size of the force that they chose not to resist it. Caesar accepted British hostages and fixed a tribute to be paid and left.

Britain remained vacant until 43 CE, when Emperor Claudius finally invaded the Isle. Thereafter, it remained under Roman control for almost four centuries until 410 CE. By around 47 CE the Romans established a series of forts to cement their control.

During the 2nd and 3rd centuries CE, Roman Britain enjoyed a peaceful and largely prosperous period. Towns grew and a network of roads facilitated trade and communication. The most important Roman official was the governor, who was responsible to the emperor who held authority over the civil and military administration. Initially based at Colchester, the governor moved to London towards the end of the 1st century. He was normally of senatorial rank, drawn from the elite of the Roman society. The other chief official of Britannia was the procurator, who was in charge of financial affairs. The presence of the Roman army in the shape of three legions, amounting more than 16000 men, played a key role in the Romanization of Britain. The units shaped the local economy near the frontier as they needed grain and other supplies

for the troops. The army also helped native Britons gain citizenship, as soldiers automatically acquired that privilege after 25 years of military service. Those joining the army would also have to learn Latin, the language of command, which, as it was also used by the civilian administration, became firmly established in Britain.

The organization of an official Roman province of Britannia affected higher levels of the British society most. Some Britons became full Roman citizens and committed to a new way of life. For many people living outside the towns, however, life remained relatively unchanged after the Roman conquest.

At the heart of Roman Britain lay its towns. Colchester, Lincoln, Gloucester, and York fell into the category of the towns, established for legionary veterans who had full rights of citizenship. The presence in most towns of typical Roman buildings, such as baths, basilicas, and amphitheatres, shows the spread of Roman culture within Britain.

Although Britain became integrated into the larger economy of the Roman Empire, it didn't provide gold and silver that had been hoped for. Apart from tin, lead, and iron, mining of which provided some income, Britain's main exports were leather and textiles. In return, Britain imported luxury goods, such as glass vessels, fine pottery, and garum, the fish sauce much beloved of Roman cooks.

Wales and Scotland remained unromanized, as Roman troops met strong resistance in these regions and were forced to stop the invasion at their borders. No Roman army crossed the Irish sea and the relations of Ireland with Roman Britain were largely confined to trade.

There are signs that Britain was entering a period of economic decline by the mid-3d century CE. Industrial activity in towns slackened and high-quality imported pottery disappeared. The steady decrease in the numbers of Roman soldiers reduced security and further damaged the economy. Supplies, which had been needed to support the army, were no longer required and the coin to pay its wages stopped being imported. After about 407, bronze coins, which were the only ones really useful for

day-to-day transactions, were no longer in circulation in Britain, an indication that the monetary economy had, in effect, collapsed.

407 is the last year that Roman coins found in Britain were made. 367 is the number of years of Roman occupation in Britain. The end of Roman rule came with surprisingly rapidly. In September 406, a horde of barbarians – Alamanns, Vandals, and Burgundians – crossed over the Rhein and penetrated deep into Gaul. The Roman troops in Britain crossed into Gaul with most of the remaining Roman garrison. The leader of the army, Constantine III, was eventually trapped and executed; his troops never returned to Britain. Britannia was left without the Roman protection.

The last mention of contact between Britain and central Roman authority comes in about 446 when the British leaders addressed a plea to Rome to hear the groans of the Britons and send them assistance against the increasingly predatory Saxon raiders.

1.2. Anglo-Saxon rulers

Writing in the 8th century, the monk Bede dated the arrival of the Saxon invaders in England to 449. The British king Vortigern is said to have invited their leaders Hengist and Horsa to bring a troop to protect his kingdom against other barbarians from the North of the island, the Scots. But the Anglo-Saxons chose not to help, as the island was a tempting target they needed themselves. The Anglo-Saxons made rapid territorial gains in the century after their arrival in England. There was a pause in around 500 CE when the Britons won a great victory, led by a war leader whom later tradition identified with King Arthur. By 550, however, the Anglo-Saxon advance had resumed.

With the beginning of Anglo-Saxon settlement, the culture and language of the Britons fragmented and much of their territory was taken over by the Anglo-Saxons. During this period some Britons migrated to mainland Europe and established significant settlements in Brittany (now part of France) as well as Britonia in modern Galicia, Spain. By the 11th

century, remaining Brittonic Celtic-speaking populations had split into distinct groups: the Welsh in Wales, the Cornish in Cornwall, the Bretons in Brittany, and the people in southern Scotland and northern England. Common Brittonic developed into the distinct Brittonic languages: Welsh, Cumbric, Cornish and Breton.

Gradually the tribal war-bands coalesced into a series of kingdoms, with the seven principal among them being collectively termed the Heptarchy: Kent, Sussex, Essex, East Anglia, Wessex, Mercia, and Northumbria.

Anglo-Saxon kingship had its roots in North European Germanic custom. The king was a source of patronage and wealth, who gave feasts in his hall attended by a retinue of warriors. He was predominantly a war-leader, and the portrait painted of kings by the epic of Beowulf, one of the most important surviving pieces of OE literature, probably reflects the reality reasonably closely.

Bede, writing in the 8th century, refers to the title of Bretwalda, a ruler who wielded power over a far greater area than his own kingdom and sometimes over the whole Britain.

1.3. Christian England

Missionaries sent by Pope Gregory I converted the first Anglo-Saxon kingdom at the end of the 6th century. Despite early setbacks, within just over a century all the rest had become Christian, and England had become the home of Christian culture, largely based in monasteries.

In around 560 CE, King Aethelbert of Kent married Bertha, the daughter of the Merovingian ruler of a Frankish Kingdom based around Paris. Like her father Bertha was a Christian and in her entourage came a bishop, who was allowed to establish a church in Kent. In 597, Aethelbert accepted Christianity. Whether he truly understood the significance of the new religion or utterly rejected the pagan beliefs of his forefathers is unclear, but he probably saw that the support of a powerful Church would provide him with a strong additional underpinning of his

royal authority. Aethelbert was active in the propagation of his new religion and effected the conversion of the King of Essex. East Anglia, too, also fell rapidly into the Christian fold. The first archbishopric in England came to be established in Canterbury, the Kentish royal capital.

The cause of Christianity in England suffered a rapid setback on the death of Aethelbert in 616, for his successor reverted to paganism. Essex and Kent relapsed into paganism for several years.

To revive the English Church, in 669 Pope Vitalian appointed a new archbishop. The later 7th century was a period when the English Church, now on a former footing, began to produce exceptional churchmen and flourished spiritually and culturally. Bede, a monk, in his Ecclesiastical History (completed in 731), chronicled the early history of the Anglo-Saxon Church. Bede's narrative was intended to portray the triumph of the church.

By the late 8th century, the English Church was well established and confident. The foundation of the cathedral school at York and the gifting of large tracts of land to churches and monasteries demonstrate this.

1.4. Viking raiders and settlers

The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle of 793 CE speaks of “fiery dragons seen flying on the air” that appeared over Northumbria. These seemed to be statues of the dragons set on the prows of the Viking longships that raided the monasteries of Northumbria. There was some uncertainty regarding the raiders' origins: they were alternately described as Danes and *nordmanni* (“northmen”) in contemporary accounts, regardless of which part of Scandinavia they came from. The term “Viking” itself was rarely used in the early stages of the raids. Its origin is much debated; it may derive from the Viken, a part of the Oslo Fjord in Norway.

After 793, the Vikings started establishing bases in France. The frequency of the raids rose rapidly in the 9th century, when Wessex was attacked. As long as the Vikings returned to Scandinavia (or bases in France) each winter, the threat from them could be contained. However, in

850 a Viking army overwintered for the first time in England, on the Isle of Thanet. The following year they stormed Canterbury and London. The raids then intensified over the next decade. Yet, worse was to come, for in 865 a new Viking host, called the “Great Army” by the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, landed in East Anglia. It stayed for 13 years, extinguishing the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms.

1.5. Alfred the Great (849–899)

Alfred, who became one of the most renowned kings of Wessex, spent most of his life under the shadow of the Viking threat. Wessex had not been directly threatened by the Viking Great Army, but in 870 the Viking host crossed into Wessex, rapidly taking the important royal centre of Reading. After Alfred was defeated in 871, he paid off the enemy, buying nearly five years of peace in which there is little evidence of his making any further provision for the defence of his realm. Another Viking force surged into Wessex in 876. Alfred was only saved by the destruction of the fleet intended to reinforce the invaders in a storm. In 878, he was not so lucky. Caught unawares at the end of the Christmas celebration, Alfred was forced to flee and took refuge at the Marshes. It was the making of the king, and of his legend. The legend has it that he took refuge in a peasant woman’s house and asked by her to look after the loaves in her oven, he neglectfully allowed them to burn. After the act of enlightenment, Alfred began the resistance and gathered his supporters. He managed to retain Wessex and took western Mercia. After getting the royal throne, one of Alfred’s first acts following the peace settlement with Vikings was the building of a sea fleet. The naval victory of 882, in which the Wessex fleet captured two Viking ships, was a sign that Scandinavians would not in future be able to raid the English coastline unmolested.

In the early 880s, Alfred ordered the construction of a series of new fortified towns or burhs (“boroughs” in modern English), each around 32 km apart. These proved a network of strongpoints which would hinder any subsequent Viking invasion and whose inhabitants were obliged to

provide a certain amount of military service. Alfred also reorganized the army, so that the peasants did not have to serve all at once, but were divided into two, so that one half could remain on their farms while the other half were fighting.

Thus, Wessex was safely secured from the Viking raiders. Alfred had saved Wessex, but it was not only for this he is remembered as “the Great” (the only English king to receive such an accolade). From the 880s, the King sponsored a revival of learning in Wessex. By the time of his death in 899, Alfred had restored the cultural life of Wessex, reformed its administration, and seen off the Viking threat.

1.6. Triumph of the Danes

After 954 CE, England experienced over 30 years free of significant Viking raiding. However, Aethelred the Unready proved incapable of resisting a new wave of Viking raiders from 990 CE. By 1016, these raids had turned into an invasion and the Danish king, Sweyn, seized the English throne. His son Canute and his grandsons had over a quarter century of Danish rule in England.

England was now part of a vast realm that spanned the North Sea and included Denmark, Norway, and part of Sweden. The lack of any credible Anglo-Saxon pretender made Canute’s rule secure, and his rapid marriage to Emma, Aethelred’s widow, cemented his position in England.

Canute established his main court in England, at Winchester, which became the capital of his huge northern Empire. At the time of his death in 1053 it seemed that the triumph of the Danes was complete.

Quite unexpectedly, the death of Canute and his sons brought an end to Danish rule in England.

1.7. Edward the Confessor. The end of the Anglo-Saxon reigning dynasty

Edward was the son of King Aethelred and Queen Emma. His kingship was unexpected, as he had older brothers in line to the throne before him, both of whom died.

The accession of Edward the Confessor in 1042 saw the end of Danish rule in England. However, his reign was marred by growing tensions between the pro-Norman court and the Anglo-Saxon earls, with Earl Godwin, his brother-in-law, the most influential among them. Being not a born leader, Edward devoted his life to the foundation of Westminster Abbey, rating the interests of the Church higher than political interests.

Normandy was the area in the west of France, just over the Strait of Dover. Normans were by origin a Scandinavian tribe, who settled down on the territory of France unforbidden. With the time, they adopted the French language and culture, giving rise to so-called the Norman-French dialect of French.

Anglo-Saxon society evolved into its final form during Edward's reign. At the top of social-political hierarchy were the great earls of Wessex, East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumbria, four kingdoms remaining after the end of Heptarchy. Their power was, in theory, exceeded only by that of the king. Next came the royal thegns. They were granted lands for the provision of military service, the repairing of fortresses, work on bridges, and many other services the King might require.

Royal officials also played an important role, with sheriffs administering justice at a local level. The lowest classes consisted of the main body of peasants and laymen, who were liable to pay taxes and serve in the army.

King Edward died in 1065, a week after the consecration of his new abbey church at Westminster, leaving no heir. His wife's brother, Earl Godwin, who was the last Anglo-Saxon to become the King of England, succeeded him.

Questions:

1. What tribe was the most numerous and powerful among Celtic tribes?
2. Why was the first attempt of Caesar to enter Britain unsuccessful?
3. What did the Romans do in Britain to cement their control?
4. What was the procurator in charge of in Britain?

5. How many legions of the Roman army were present in Britain?
6. Why did the Roman army help native Britons gain citizenship?
7. Why did Latin become firmly established in Britain?
8. What were the first Roman Britain's towns?
9. What did Britannia mainly provide the Roman Empire with?
10. Why did Wales and Scotland remain unromanized?
11. What were the signs that Britain was entering a period of economic decline by the mid-3d century CE?
12. What can be considered an indication that Britannia's monetary economy collapsed after about 407 CE?
13. What happened in 406 CE?
14. Why was Britannia left without the Roman protection?
15. What can be considered the last mention of contact between Britain and central Roman authority?
16. Why were the Anglo-Saxons invited to Britain?
17. Why did some Britons migrate to mainland Europe with the beginning of the Anglo-Saxon settlement?
18. What distinct groups had the remaining Brittonic Celtic-speaking population split into by the 11th century?
19. How can you characterize the typical king in Anglo-Saxon kingship?
20. Why was the first Anglo-Saxon kingdom converted to Christianity within a century?
21. What Anglo-Saxon king first accepted Christianity?
22. What town was the first place of archbishopric power in Britain?
23. Who reverted to paganism after King Aethelbert's death?
24. What did Pope Vitalian do in 669 to revive the English Church?
25. Who was the early history of the Anglo-Saxon Church chronicled by?
26. What fact was demonstrated by the foundation of the cathedral school at York and gifting of large tracts of land to churches and monasteries?
27. What is the origin of the term "Viking"?
28. When did the frequency of the Viking raids rise rapidly?
29. When did the Viking army overwinter for the first time in England?
30. How many years did the "Great Army" stay in England, extinguishing the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms?

31. Why did Alfred have to pay off the Vikings after 871?
32. What is the legend about Alfred taking refuge at the Marshes?
33. What was one of Alfred's first acts after getting the royal throne?
34. What could be considered a sign that the Scandinavians would not in future be able to raid the English coastline unmolested?
35. Why was a series of new fortified towns or burhs constructed?
36. In what way did Alfred reorganize the army?
37. Why is Alfred remembered as "the Great"?
38. When was the Viking threat seen off in Wessex due to Alfred's activity?
39. When did the Viking raids turn into an invasion?
40. Who seized the English throne at the beginning of the 11th century?
41. What factor made Canute's rule secure?
42. Where did Canute establish his main court in England?
43. What brought an end to the Danish rule in England quite unexpectedly?
44. Whose son was Edward the Confessor?
45. Why was his kingship unexpected?
46. What was Edward the Confessor's reign marred by?
47. Who was the most influential earl among the Anglo-Saxon earls?
48. What did Edward the Confessor devote his life to?
49. What language did Normans speak?
50. How many kingdoms remained after the end of Heptarchy in the Anglo-Saxon society?
51. Who were the most influential people in the Anglo-Saxon society during the reign of Edward the Confessor?
52. What were the royal thegns responsible for during the reign of Edward the Confessor?
53. Who administered justice at a local level?
54. Who were liable to pay taxes and serve in the army during the reign of Edward the Confessor?
55. Who was the last Anglo-Saxon to become the King of England?

Lecture 2

Medieval England (1066–1485)

2.1. The Norman Invasion

The Norman Invasion of 1066 overthrew six centuries of Anglo-Saxon rule in England. William the Conqueror, the Norman Duke, faced early rebellions, but once he had overcome them, he radically reshaped England, replacing its old ruling class with an Anglo-Norman aristocracy and bringing the feudal system of landholding prevalent in Normandy to England.

William based his claim on being Edward the Confessor's brother, as Emma, Edward the Confessor's mother, was the daughter of Duke Richard I of Normandy, who was William's great-grandfather.

After the victory at the Battle of Hastings on 14 October 1066, in which Earl Harold Godwin was defeated, William the Conqueror was crowned King of England in Westminster Abbey.

The Norman Conquest brought a set of landholding practices to England, which together have been termed feudalism by later generations. The King, in theory, held all land, and tenants held parts of it from him as fiefs. In return, they were obliged to provide military service when the King needed it. These tenants, in turn, had their own tenants who had a similar set of obligations right down to the peasants at the bottom of the hierarchy, who owed labour instead of military service to their lord. As a sign of their loyalty, feudal landholders would swear an oath, known as fealty, to their overlord.

Henry I (1100–1135), the fourth son of William the Conqueror, was the first Norman King to be born in England. Under his rule, Normandy and England were united.

2.2. Beginning of the dynasty of the Plantagenets

Henry II, the first Norman King from the dynasty of the Plantagenets, was the son of Matilda, daughter of Henry I, and Geoffrey Plantagenet, heir to the Count of Anjou.

Henry II was one of the most powerful rulers in Europe. He expanded his possessions further in Ireland and made important reforms to the English legal system. He was crowned the King of England in 1154 in Westminster Abbey. A key component in his program to restore royal authority was the strengthening of the system of justice. Henry replaced a system whereby sheriffs might hear cases in the absence of royal justices. The local sheriff could assemble a jury to hear the case at the judicial session without applying to the Crown. Justice became faster, more effective.

In 1171, Henry II led a royal force to Ireland and claimed the island for the English Crown. The claim was successful and, in 1183, Henry II had his son Prince John crowned as King of Ireland. With the English in possession of the east and north of Ireland at the beginning, colonization from England over the next few centuries changed the character. The English-controlled area gradually expanded, royal control strengthened. By 1300, the remaining Irish kings were the feudal tenants of the English barons.

In 1282, Edward I, the son of Henry III, took control of the whole of Wales. In 1301, Edward I's son, also Edward, was made Prince of Wales, a title that is used by members of the British royal family to this day.

Thus, the Plantagenets managed to widen the territory of Britain to the North and North-West, including the problem territories of Wales and Ireland.

2.3. England in the Crusades

As Christian monarchs, the kings of England were bound to take the papal calls to crusade seriously. Over two centuries, scores of English nobles, thousands of ordinary soldiers, and one reigning king took

the Cross and embarked for the Holy land to save it from the advance of Islam.

The First Crusade (1096–99) was a largely French affair.

The Second Crusade (1147–49) saw a large contingent of English crusaders. Some felt a genuine religious desire for the recovery of Jerusalem, others sought glory, while some found it a convenient means to escape their political enemies. The Crusade itself, whose aim had been the recovery of the strategic city of Edessa in Syria, seized by the Muslim Emir in 1144, was largely a failure. Its one lasting result came in October 1147, with the capture of Lisbon by a crusading force en route to the Holy Land, prominent among whom were the English Crusaders.

The third Crusade was headed by King Richard the Lionheart in 1191, and ended in a three-year truce with Saladin, the ruler of Egypt.

If the military prominence of English crusading was largely finished by 1192, its cultural effects were more long-standing. Many knights sold their lands to raise money for the long journey to Palestine and the Church benefited by greatly extending their landed properties when many failed to return. Those who did come back experienced a lifestyle with which Europe had long been unfamiliar. A taste for luxuries such as silk and spices helped promote an interest in trade with the area.

2.4. The life in Norman Britain

The 200 years following the Norman Conquest were troubled times politically, but a time of stability for the kingdom. The population grew, new land was taken into cultivation, trade increased, and urban life flourished.

The ruling class, the king, his family, the leaders of the Church, bishops and abbots, and the great landowners, were all Norman and French. French was their language.

The majority of people lived in the countryside, which was divided into thousands of landholdings called manors. A manor usually included a village and its surroundings, although some manors incorporated several

settlements. Fields were open, long, narrow strips of land. The peasants who worked the land paid part of their annual harvest to the lord of the manor as rent, another part went to the Church. Some peasants were free tenants, others were unfree (villeins), who worked the lord's own fields. The lord of the manor protected his tenants in times of war and acted as judge in disputes between neighbours. Some knights owned only one or two manors, but most had several, and managed them through an agent called a reeve.

During the Norman period, the population rose from around 2.250.000 in 1086 to an estimated 5.750.000 by 1220. Growing population and increased agricultural production went hand in hand with a rise in the number and size of towns. At the beginning of the Norman conquest 112 towns were identified. Approximately 150 years later, this number had grown to 240. The greatest of the towns were London, Lincoln, Norwich, York, and Winchester. From a population of 15.000 in the days of William I, London had grown to 80.000 inhabitants in 1300. All the major towns were religious centres, often cathedral cities, but they were also market towns and centres of manufacture.

The most common urban trades were those involved with the supply of food and drink – brewers, bakers and butchers. Every town had at least one tailor, ironsmith, carpenter, shoemaker, and weaver. Only the large centres would have had more specialized craftsmen.

Clergy of every rank and type lived in the towns, and schools for the education of boys were attached to cathedrals and monasteries. The universities of Oxford and Cambridge came into being. Education was always in Latin, the language of the Church. Books were still rare objects; texts were copied and illustrated by hand.

This period of prosperity, population growth, and increased economic activity came to an end at the beginning of the 14th century. In 1314, a bad harvest hit Britain, and for the next seven years, repeated violent winds and rainstorms destroyed crops and caused disease in livestock. There is evidence that villages began to be abandoned early in

the 14th century. In 1348, the Black Death, Plague, killed half the population.

2.5. Hundred Years' War begins

The Hundred Years' War between England and France broke out in 1337 over Edward III's attempts to seize the French throne. The fortunes of war ebbed and flowed between the two sides. In 1346 and 1356, the English seemed close to victory, but 25 years later they were left with just a few coastal areas in France.

It was the death of Charles IV of France in 1328 that finally provoked conflict between the two countries. Charles had no son and there was no clear precedent as to who should succeed him. Edward III of England, as distant relative of Charles IV, had a strong claim. However, the French turned to the French pretender, Philippe of Valois, and on 19 May, he was anointed king as Philippe VI at Rheims Cathedral.

Edward refused to agree. A few skirmishes occurred in 1337–38, marking the start of the Hundred Years' War, and finally, in July 1338, Edward set sail for Antwerp, but Philippe resolutely refused to give battle, remaining in safety behind the walls of Amiens.

Within months, Edward returned with a fleet of 250 ships, and Philippe VI's fleet was decimated. Thus, by 1345, Edward was the master of Brittany and obtained ports there. Both sides began to prepare for inevitable conflict.

In 1346, the French were crushed near Crecy. Even victorious, Edward lacked the numbers to attack Paris. In 1350, Philippe VI died and was replaced by Jean le Bel, who agreed to sign the Treaty between England and France in 1354. By this, Edward obtained Aquitaine, Anjou, Maine, Normandy without giving homage to the French crown. The English had everything they wanted except the French throne itself. The next year, Jean repudiated the treaty and war broke out again. By 1359, the English had almost half of the French kingdom. However, just in 10 years, in 1369, Charles VI of France confiscated Aquitaine and

occupied most of the English territory. In 1381, the English remained with just a few towns in Brittany. But the war continued for more than 70 years. In 1450, the French cannon fire cut through the English defences and destroyed the last English field army in France. English fortunes looked as though they might revive when a new English army landed in 1452. However, in 1453, this force was torn to pieces by the French cannon. This year marked the final of the War. Calais resisted as a solitary outpost until its loss to the French in 1558 and the English territorial involvement in France, which had begun in 1066, was over.

2.6. Change of Dynasty

King Richard II took the reins of power in 1382. His reign was marred by a series of crises. First of all, an opposition party began to form, as Richard had a lot of enemies at the court, he had to struggle with them to retain power. At the same time, the population was suffering from taxes, revolts were breaking out one after another. In one of such, Richard's army was defenseless before the rebels, he had to surrender to them in 1399. Richard was transported to London as a prisoner and a parliamentary commission was set up to decide what to do next. Richard was induced to abdicate, and Parliament accepted his abdication and acknowledged the son of the Duke of Lancaster, one of Richard's uncles, as king. King Henry IV addressed Parliament in English, not Norman French, to inaugurate the start of the new, Lancastrian dynasty.

Henry IV faced a number of revolts early in his reign, initially by supporters of Richard II. After a plot to assassinate Henry at Windsor Castle in 1399, Richard mysteriously died at Pontefract castle, where he was being held prisoner. The rebellions were over and Henry V succeeded the throne without opposition. With England largely in peace, Henry V devoted himself to a renewal of the war with France from 1415 to 1420. His early death, and the accession of his baby son, left England facing a long royal minority. Numerous claims to the throne set the scene for the outbreak of a new civil war and the Wars of the Roses.

2.7. The Wars of the Roses

Henry VI succeeded to the throne of England before he was a year old. The first three decades of his long reign were marked by military defeat in France, whose armies won back most of the French lands that his father, Henry V, had conquered.

Henry VI suffered mental breakdown in 1453, Richard, Duke of York, was appointed Lord Protector of England until the King regained his wits. Richard was bitterly opposed by the Lancastrian fraction at court and particularly by Henry's wife, Margaret of Anjou. Once the King's health returned, Richard was dismissed. Supported by much of the nobility, he raised the army and defeated the Lancastrians in 1455. Henry was captured, but Queen Margaret managed to escape to Scotland.

Richard's triumph was brief. Margaret rallied Lancastrian forces in the North of England, defeating and killing Richard at the battle of Wakefield. She freed the captive King Henry. London, though, remained Yorkist, and Richard's son was crowned there as Edward IV, the first Yorkist king.

The Lancastrians and Yorkists met in a battle in 1461 and Edward won. Margaret and Henry fled to Scotland, but their remaining hopes were dashed at the battle of Hexham in 1464. Henry was again captured and imprisoned in the Tower of London the following year.

With the 23-year-old Edward secure on the throne and his Lancastrian rivals defeated or in exile, the future looked bright for a long and peaceful reign. Any such hopes were dashed, though, when it was revealed that the King had married a commoner, Elizabeth Woodville, in secret. Edward's former supporters joined his old enemy Margaret of Anjou, who had been raising a fresh Lancastrian army in France. When she crossed to England, the isolated Edward fled to Flanders. Henry VI, now aged 48, was reinstated on the throne.

However, Edward returned with the army and defeated Margaret's troops. Captured for a third time, King Henry was taken to the Tower of London, where he was murdered. His son and heir had also been killed

during the battle, leaving Edward almost unchallenged on the throne. The only remaining Lancastrian with credible aspirations to rule was Henry Tudor, a distant cousin of the King who was living in Brittany.

Once restored to power, Edward proved himself an able ruler, and the country enjoyed a period of peace and prosperity. Then, in 1483, aged just 41, King Edward died suddenly, leaving his 12-year-old son Edward V as his heir and his brother Richard of Gloucester as Lord Protector until the boy king reached adulthood. In fact, young Edward was to remain on the throne for only two months before Richard had him seized and placed in the Tower of London. It was then announced that the boy's father's marriage to Elizabeth Woodville had been illegal, invalidating the boy's right to rule. Richard had himself proclaimed king in Edward's place, being crowned in Westminster Abbey. Edward and his nine-year-old brother Richard were never seen again, seemingly having been killed on Richard's instructions.

Richard's seizure of the throne was badly received, and Henry Tudor was able to take advantage. In 1485, he landed with a small force in Wales, where he soon attracted further support. His army came face to face with Richard's troops, where Richard was defeated and killed. The victor took the throne as Henry VII, beginner of the Tudor dynasty. Five months later, he married Edward IV's daughter Elizabeth, thereby uniting the warring houses of Lancaster and York, and finally bringing the Wars of the Roses to an end.

Henry VII's defeat of the last Yorkist King, Richard III, ushered in the Tudor dynasty, which would rule England for the next 118 years. The accession of Henry Tudor marked the end of the Middle Ages in England and signalled a change in the relationship between the monarchy and nobility. Thirty years of sporadic fighting had severely weakened the might of barons, allowing the Tudor kings to gain far more power than their Plantagenet predecessors. They also set more securely on the throne: not one of the five Tudor monarchs would be murdered or deposed. Except during the short reign of the boy king Edward VI (1547–53), no aristocrat

was ever allowed to grow so strong as to threaten royal power, and Parliament was kept under firm control.

Tudor absolutism formed a backdrop for major social, economic and cultural change, most notably the flowering of a class of merchants and manufacturers, as well as Henry VIII's break with the Catholic Church. Culturally, the Tudor years would set the scene for the English Renaissance in architecture, literature, and the arts, exemplified above all by the works of Shakespeare, whose history plays would paint vivid portraits of the preceding Plantagenet kings.

Questions:

1. What did William the Conqueror base his claim on?
2. When and where was William the Conqueror crowned King of England?
3. What system of landholding did William the Conqueror bring to England?
4. Who held all land according to the new system of landholding practice?
5. What obligations did tenants in England have according to this new system of landholding practice?
6. Who was the first Norman King to be born in England?
7. Under whose rule were Normandy and England united?
8. Who was the first Norman King from the dynasty of Plantagenets?
9. Why is Henry II considered one of the most powerful rulers in Europe?
10. What was the key component in Henry II program to restore royal authority?
11. In what way did Henry II replace the system of justice?
12. Who took control of the whole of Wales?
13. How did the Plantagenets manage to widen the territory of Britain to the North and North-East?
14. Who took the Cross and embarked for the Holy land to save it from the advance of Islam?
15. Why did a lot of English crusaders take part in the Second Crusade?
16. What was the main aim of the Second Crusade?

17. What was the lasting result of the Second Crusade?
18. What did the Third Crusade end in?
19. What effects were more long-standing due to English crusading?
20. How did the Church benefit from English crusading?
21. How can the 200 years following the Norman Conquest be characterized for the kingdom?
22. What language was the language of the ruling class, the king, his family, the leaders of the Church, bishops and abbots, and the great landowners?
23. Where did the majority of people of England live?
24. What was a manor?
25. What peasants were called villeins?
26. What did the lord of the manor do for his tenants?
27. What person was called a reeve?
28. Did the population of England grow in number during the Norman period?
29. What was the consequence of the growing population and increased agricultural production in England during the Norman period?
30. How many towns were there at the beginning of the Norman Conquest?
31. How many towns were there in England about 150 years later?
32. What was the population of London in 1300?
33. What centers were the major British towns during the Norman period?
34. What were the most common urban trades during the Norman period?
35. What universities came into being during this period?
36. Why did the period of prosperity, population growth, and increased economic activity come to an end at the beginning of the 14th century?
37. How many of England's population were killed by the Black Death, Plague?
38. What was the main reason of the Hundred Years' War?
39. Whose death finally provoked the conflict between the two countries?
40. Why did Edward III of England have a strong claim to the French throne?
41. Who was appointed King of France at Rheims Cathedral?

42. Who was the master of Brittany and obtained ports there in 1345?
43. Who was Philippe VI replaced by after his death?
44. Who agreed to sign the Treaty between England and France in 1354?
45. What territories did Edward III obtain according to the Treaty of 1354?
46. When did the English have almost half of the French kingdom?
47. What did Charles VI of France do in 1369?
48. What year marked the final of the Hundred Years' War?
49. What was the reign of King Richard II marked by?
50. Why were revolts breaking one after another during the reign of King Richard II?
51. What commission was set up to decide what to do with King Richard II after his surrender to the rebels in 1399?
52. Who was acknowledged the king after the abdication of King Richard II?
53. Why was Henry V able to devote himself to a renewal of the war with France from 1415 to 1420?
54. What were the reasons of the outbreak of a new civil war and the Wars of the Roses?
55. What was Henry VI's long reign marked by?
56. Who was appointed Lord Protector of England after the mental breakdown of Henry VI?
57. Who was supported by much of the nobility and defeated the Lancastrians in 1455?
58. Who managed to escape to Scotland after the defeat of Lancastrians in 1455?
59. Why was Richard's triumph brief?
60. Who was crowned as Edward IV in London?
61. Who won the battle between the Lancastrians and Yorkists in 1461?
62. Why were Edward IV's hopes for a long and peaceful reign dashed?
63. Why did Edward IV flee to Flanders?
64. Why was Edward IV left almost unchallenged on the throne?
65. When Edward IV died, who did he appoint Lord Protector of his son, Edward V?
66. What did Richard of Gloucester announce about Edward V's right to rule?

67. Who himself proclaimed king in Edward's place?
68. Why was Richard's seizure of the throne received badly?
69. Who won the battle between Henry Tudor's and Richard's troops?
70. Who was the beginner of the Tudor dynasty?
71. What event united the warring houses of Lancaster and York, and finally brought the Wars of the Roses to an end?
72. What did the accession of Henry Tudor mark?
73. Why were the Tudor kings able to gain far more power than their Plantagenet predecessors?
74. What did Tudor absolutism form in Britain?
75. Why was Henry VIII's break with the Catholic Church possible?
76. What scene was set by the Tudor years in Britain?
77. Whose vivid portraits did Shakespeare paint in his history plays?

Lecture 3

Tudors and Stuarts (1485–1603)

This lecture will cover the English history during the most crucial and interesting period in its history. Between the accession of the House of Tudor in 1485 and the end of the House of Stuart in 1714, England transformed itself from a feudal and relatively minor European state into a constitutional monarchy.

3.1. The Land and Its People in 1485

The population of England and Wales was only about 2.2 million in 1485. This number had shrunk from possibly 6 million in the 1340s as a result of the Black Death (1348–1349) and recurring plague epidemics. The English people were also subject to additional epidemic diseases (smallpox, cholera, typhus, typhoid fever, sweating sickness, and whooping cough); bad harvests – perhaps one harvest in four was poor; one in six, so poor as to produce famine; accidents (fire, drowning); and violence (war, assault). Average life expectancy in England in 1485 was about 35 years. Old people were relatively rare. Infant mortality was high, perhaps 20 percent in the first year.

Less than 10 percent of England's population lived in urban areas. The cities may be divided as follows:

London was by far the largest city with, perhaps, 50000 people. It was the center of trade, the main exporting centre for goods from Europe, and a crossroads east-west and north-south for England. It was the center of government: Westminster was home to the Palace of Westminster, the principal royal residence, the Houses of Parliament, and the law courts.

Provincial cities with populations of around 10000 included Bristol, a western seaport; Norwich, a cloth town in East Anglia; and York, the most important city in the north.

Cathedral, market, and county towns of several hundreds, which swelled in size during markets and fairs, included, for example Salisbury, Hampshire; Dorchester, Dorset.

All cities were highly dependent on the wool trade, England's one major industry. This would make them vulnerable when that trade stagnated in the 16th century. In any case, most people did not live in towns. They lived in the countryside on manors and in villages.

Less than 10 percent of the population owned land. About half of it was owned by the top of the population, the nobility and gentry. Yet, they had tremendous power over their tenants. The landlord could demand rents, military service. In return, the landlord was obligated to provide legal, military, and economic protection, as well as paternal care and hospitality, for example, Christmas feasts.

The king was at the top of the human chain. He owned about five percent of the land in England. The nobility came second; they consisted in 1485 of about 50 to 60 families with inheritable titles. The head of the family sat in the House of Lords. This rank owned about 5–10 percent of the land. The gentry came next. They consisted of about 3,000 knights, esquires, and plain gentlemen in 1485. The most prominent sat in the House of Commons. Altogether, they owned about 10–15 percent of the land. The yeomanry were substantial farmers. Husbandmen were small farmers, probably renters from a bigger landowner. Cottagers rented a cottage with no farm attached. Laborers had no home of their own. They lived and worked on someone else's farm. The poor had no permanent residence or visible means of support.

These ranks could be further subdivided. Thus, nobles were divided into dukes, marquesses, earls, viscounts, and barons; then further divided by the order in which one's title was created. Finally, every human rank might be divided into families, with the genders ranked, as follows: father, mother, male children (in birth order), and female children (in birth order).

3.2. Establishing the Tudor Dynasty

At Henry VII's accession in 1485, there remained numerous descendants of Edward III and Yorkist claimants to the Crown, some with better claims than his. Henry married Elizabeth of York, daughter of Edward IV, thus uniting the Lancastrian and Yorkist claims in the subsequent Tudor line. Henry next engineered the marriage of his daughter, Margaret, to the Stuart King James IV of Scotland in 1503. (This would be the source of the later Stuart claim to the throne of England.) Finally and most importantly, after protracted negotiation, Henry's son Arthur married Catherine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, in 1501. This was potentially Henry's greatest coup, because Spain was rapidly acquiring a worldwide empire.

Henry VII's shrewd foreign policy, combined with his cultivation of good relations with the church, ensured that at his death in 1509, England had no significant foreign enemies.

Having secured his position abroad, Henry sought to make the Crown stronger at home by following three old medieval principles:

- 1) The king must be strong. Henry demonstrated this in a number of ways. He was victorious on the battlefield. He worked hard at the business of being king. He kept the nobility in check. He gave away few lands or titles. He relied on a wide array of advisors, not a few over-mighty subjects. He encouraged Parliament to pass a Statute against Liveries (1487; renewed 1504), which banned private noble armies. He used attainder or the threat of attainder to destroy uncooperative or dangerous noble families, especially Yorkists.

- 2) The king must govern with consent. Henry was careful to secure parliamentary approval for controversial measures. He summoned a large council of 20 to 30 aristocrats, merchants, and professionals for advice. In the countryside, he relied on his justices of the peace (drawn from the gentry), not his nobles, to keep order. Like Edward IV, Henry promoted court ceremonies, entertainments, and propaganda to maintain the popularity of the regime.

3) The king must live of his own (that is, be financially self-sufficient). Unlike the Lancastrian kings, Henry VII was able to live off his “ordinary” revenue (Crown lands, Customs, and so on) without having to ask Parliament to raise “extraordinary” revenue through more taxes. Henry maximized his ordinary revenue in four areas:

- Crown lands: As king, Henry brought with him Tudor lands and inherited Lancastrian and Yorkist properties. He also revoked grants of land made by previous kings, confiscated the lands of trouble from some aristocrats, and made few grants of his own. As a result, the yield from Crown lands nearly doubled.

- Customs: by pursuing peace and trade agreements with other European nations, Henry promoted trade, which increased his yield from Customs.

- Feudal dues: Henry aggressively pursued fines and fees owed to the Crown from its vassals as feudal rights.

- Legal fees: Henry’s more efficient bureaucracy made it possible to exploit fees and fines from legal cases more effectively.

As a result, Henry VII’s annual revenue rose from about £91,000 to about£113,000 by the end of the reign. This meant that he had money to pursue his policies and rarely had to call Parliament for emergency taxation.

As a result of these policies, when Henry VII died in 1509, he left his successor a secure throne, a full treasury, an efficient government, and a mostly loyal nation, apart from the grumbling of a humbled nobility.

3.3. King Henry VIII

For the first two decades of the reign, the king lived the life of a playboy. He left the running of the country to his principal advisor, Thomas, Cardinal Wolsey. Between 1513 and 1530, Cardinal Wolsey dominated Henry’s government.

Wolsey monopolized power in the church; these positions made him virtual head of the Church in England. Wolsey was fabulously wealthy

owing to these various posts. At his height, he made £35,000 a year, equal to a third of the royal revenue. He built two magnificent palaces – Hampton Court, Surrey, and York Place (later Whitehall), Westminster – more luxurious than anything the king had.

About 1525, Henry VIII began to contemplate an end to his marriage to Catherine of Aragon.

The first of Henry's concerns was the royal succession. Catherine's obstetrical history was not happy. In 1516, she gave birth to a daughter, Mary. Subsequent pregnancies ended in miscarriage or still birth. By 1525, Catherine was 40 years old and had not been pregnant for seven years. As a result, it would appear that Henry would be succeeded by a woman. The contemporary view of female rule was negative. There were few successful precedents in medieval and early modern Europe. The Wars of the Roses were still a vivid memory. Henry was obsessed with what would happen to England after his death. He feared that a female ruler would be unable to keep the barons in line, leaving the Tudors open to the dynastic chaos of future Wars of the Roses. Henry's elevation of his illegitimate son, Henry Fitzroy, to the title Duke of Richmond in 1525 indicates that he was exploring all options.

Henry's second concern was the state of his soul. An amateur theologian, Henry knew that there was a problem, based in scripture, with his marriage to Catherine, for she was his brother's widow. Thus, Anne Boleyn was not the cause of Henry's dissatisfaction with his marriage. But she was the catalyst. In 1527, Henry ordered Cardinal Wolsey to begin proceedings to secure an annulment of his first marriage. This outcome destroyed Wolsey's credit with the king. Mercifully, Wolsey died at Leicester Abbey, while returning to stand trial, in November 1530.

3.4. The break from Rome

Gradually, out of the wreckage of Henry and Wolsey's initial attempt to secure a divorce from the church arose Thomas Cromwell's idea: make

Henry its head in England. In 1529, Henry called a Parliament for the specific purpose of enquiring into the state of the church.

The Roman Catholic Church was the only legal religion of the English state in 1529. It was ever present in the lives of English men and women. It provided their explanation of life, death, success, and misfortune. Its holidays, sacraments, and ceremonies marked the stages of the year and the stages of their lives.

Martin Luther, a 16th-century German monk and theology professor, was deeply disturbed by the worldliness and corruption of the church and doubtful of its sacramental role. He emphasized scripture over church authority. He also argued that faith alone, not sacraments or good works, led to salvation. In 1517, Luther publicly attacked the church's granting of indulgences.

In December 1532, Anne Boleyn became pregnant. She and Henry were married in January 1533. In the spring of 1533, Parliament passed the Act in Restraint of Appeals, forbidding English subjects from appealing to any foreign jurisdiction. Thus, the pope's power in England was a dead letter, and the divorce case could be heard only in England. In May 1533, Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, heard the divorce case and pronounced the marriage of Henry and Catherine to be null and void. In June, Anne was crowned. In September, she gave birth to a girl, named Elizabeth.

It is necessary to explain the fundamental differences between Roman Catholicism and Protestantism in the 16th century. The fundamental difference between Catholics and Protestants was in their source of authority, or religious truth. Catholics found religious truth in three sources:

- Scripture – but scripture was difficult to interpret, and most people could not read in any case. Therefore, the church reserved the interpretation of scripture to religious professionals.
- Tradition – that is, what the church had thought and done for centuries.
- Papal decrees – that is, what the church hierarchy decided.

Protestants, noting the corruption in the church and the fallibility of human nature, relied on scripture alone. Strict Protestants rejected anything lacking scriptural basis, including popes and bishops, along with elaborate ritual church decor, such as crucifixes, images of saints, and so on.

This difference implies differences in structure. The structure of the Roman Catholic Church was hierarchical and complicated, because the discovery and dissemination of God's truth required learned professionals and strict discipline of the laity. The structures of early Protestant churches were simple, with little hierarchy, because the Bible did not authorize it. Rather, if all one needed to know was to be found in scripture, then the church should be "a priesthood of all believers." Given that, the church hierarchy was obviously unscriptural and corrupt, Protestants saw the only hope for reform in secular authority, that is, righteous rulers, such as Henry.

3.5. A Tudor Revolution

The break from Rome implied an expansion of the power of the monarchy and, therefore, the state, in many areas of English life. To achieve their ends, Henry and Cromwell had to reconfigure the power of Parliament, reorganize central and local government, and increase their responsibilities.

Parliament was the junior partner, but still a partner. This meant that some future, weaker king than Henry might find his sovereignty challenged.

To make effective the king's *imperium*, Henry and Cromwell launched a series of government reforms. In making himself indispensable to the king, Cromwell raised the importance of his office, Royal Secretary, laying the foundation for the modern office of Secretary of State. Henry reduced the Council to 20, making it a true "Privy Council".

The kings of France and Spain were chief among the upholders of the old orthodoxy, but Henry VIII of England was an important voice as well. The instinct to concentrate power upon himself caused Henry to find

the authority of the Church increasingly irksome – especially when it threatened the safe survival of the Tudor line. His frustration that his wife, Catherine of Aragon, could not give him a male heir was beginning to reach the crisis. In 1533, he asked Clement VII for their marriage to be annulled. So outraged was he with the Pope’s refusal that he broke with Rome. Thomas Cranmer, Henry’s chosen archbishop of Canterbury, declared that Henry and Catherine’s marriage was officially annulled. Henry and Ann were duly wed and a series of acts were passed giving authority of the King over the Pope. In November 1534, the Act of Supremacy made King Henry “supreme head” of the Church of England.

Henry’s successor, Edward, had presided over the Protestanization of the Anglican Church, but the succession of Henry’s Catholic daughter, Mary I, was greeted with acclaim, as a certain part of British population still supported the Catholic Church.

3.6. Edward VI

England’s situation at the accession of Edward VI (1547–1553) was not good. Henry VIII left his successor numerous problems, including massive government debt; widespread economic distress; religious uncertainty; and hostilities with Scotland, France, and Ireland. Henry’s one real achievement was to give the country a male heir. But even this occurred at the cost of religious unity and a confused order of succession.

Characteristically, Henry tried to end the confusion by actually willing the kingdom to his son; then, if Edward should die without heirs, to Mary; and, if Mary also died childless, to Elizabeth.

Edward’s personality can be compared usefully with that of his father. Unlike his father, he was a delicate boy, lacking strength and vigor. Like his father, he had a quick mind and a strong will. However, Edward was too young to rule actively. That was reserved for his uncle, Edward Seymour.

Edward Seymour, Earl of Hertford, was a brother of Edward’s mother, Queen Jane. He was ambitious. Within days of the new king’s

accession, he persuaded Edward to dismiss the rest of his Regency Council and name him Duke of Somerset and Lord Protector of the realm.

Somerset tried to solve the problems left over from Henry VIII. He continued Henry's "rough wooing" of Scotland, offering either marriage between Edward VI and Mary Queen of Scots or military reprisal if the Scots refused. The Scots refused the marriage with Edward. In 1548, Mary escaped to France, where she married the *dauphin* (crown prince), Francis. Thus, Somerset's Scottish campaign further weakened the English treasury and drove the Scots back into the arms of the French.

One reason for Somerset's failure in Scotland was that Mary was Catholic and the Edward-Somerset regime espoused Protestant reform.

In the winter of 1552–1553, King Edward began to manifest increasing signs of tuberculosis. That spring, Northumberland persuaded Edward to will the Crown to Lady Jane Grey, a great granddaughter of Henry VII. He then persuaded Jane to marry his son Guildford. When Edward died on 6 July 1553, Northumberland and the Privy Council proclaimed Jane queen. In the meantime, Mary had escaped to Norfolk, which was dominated by the Catholic Howard family. There, she was proclaimed as well. Both sides raised armies and marched out to capture the opposing queen. Mary's reached London before Jane's reached Norfolk. There, the Earl of Arundel convinced the Privy Council to proclaim Mary on the 19th of July. Jane's army disintegrated, leading Northumberland to try to abandon her for Mary. The latter was not fooled. Thus, the long-suffering Mary became queen. Jane, Guildford, and Northumberland were arrested and the latter executed immediately.

3.7. Mary I (1553–1558)

The new queen had many positive attributes. Like all Tudors, she was intelligent, courageous, dignified, and she had a Renaissance education. She was naive in politics and inexperienced in government. Her education involved no training to be queen. Rather, her father had kept her away from the corridors of power. Lacking experience, she relied on her

conscience and her faith, which led to an inflexibility lacking in the other members of her family. Above all, she was half-Spanish and all Catholic, which led her to ally with the Spanish Empire, sometimes against her interests, and attempt to undo the Reformation, at tremendous human cost.

Both policies would bring misery to her people and infamy to her reign.

Mary's choice of a husband was controversial. The Privy Council wanted her to marry an Englishman. Mary opted for her cousin, the son of Charles V, Philip, King of Naples. This choice was unpopular with many of her subjects.

The marriage to Philip took place in January 1554. It would not prove happy. Mary loved Philip. Desperately wanting an heir, within months, she experienced a false pregnancy. But Philip saw the match as the diplomatic alliance. The return to Rome was the principal policy goal of Mary's reign. But in the long term, it meant that much institutional Catholicism, monasteries, almshouses, guilds, schools, and hospitals, would never be restored. This would make it all the more difficult to win Mary's subjects back to the faith. Like most of her contemporaries, she rejected the idea of religious toleration, believing that hers was the One True Faith and that anyone who disagreed was a disloyal subject, a minion of the devil, and a double menace to society, dragging her other subjects not only into disobedience but, ultimately, to hell.

In the end, Mary's Counter-Reformation failed, not so much because of the burnings, but because her reign was too short to either extirpate Protestantism or reestablish Catholicism.

3.8. Elizabeth I

According to legend, Elizabeth's ascension to the throne of England was greeted with rapturous rejoicing. In fact, although committed Protestants were happy to be delivered from "Bloody Mary," most people had little to cheer about.

Among England's many troubles, it was still embroiled in a disastrous war with France; the economy continued to suffer from depressions in agriculture and trade; the royal treasury was nearly bankrupt; an influenza epidemic raged, often fatally; and religious strife continued to tear the country. Perhaps worse in her subjects' eyes, all these problems were left in the lap of another female.

She became the virgin queen, wedded, not to some mere man, but to her first love, the people of England. She played out this metaphor masterfully, referring to the English people as her "good husbands".

Englishmen and women were deeply divided about religion in 1558. Because of this fact and the international situation, the Elizabethan settlement in religion would not be easy. A Catholic settlement would have pleased the great powers of Europe, but it would have been unacceptable to Protestants after the bitter legacy of Bloody Mary. A Protestant settlement would have pleased the Marian exiles but alienated committed Catholics and the Catholic powers, especially France and Spain. Elizabeth I was well-suited for compromise. The Settlement of 1559–1563 and the resultant Church of England was, therefore, a compromise. After the opposing Catholic bishops were sequestered in the Tower, Parliament passed a series of statutes with concessions for both sides. In a sop to conservatives, Elizabeth was named Supreme Governor of the Church of England. They could not abide a female "Supreme Head." In a concession to Catholics, clergy had to swear an oath to the Supreme Governor, but the laity was excused. Protestants were pleased that the Act of Uniformity of 1559 required all the queen's subjects to attend Sunday services conducted according to the second, more Protestant, Book of Common Prayer. But Catholics secured a revision allowing for transubstantiation, elaborate vestments, and Catholic rituals, such as the sign of the cross.

The Treason Act of 1563 made it a capital crime to express support for the pope or to *twice* refuse to swear the oath of allegiance. This last gave Catholics some elbow room. The Thirty-Nine Articles of Faith of

1563 articulated a Protestant theology, embracing justification by faith and denouncing purgatory and the mass. But the structure of the Church remained hierarchical. In short, the genius of the Elizabethan religious settlement is that it thinks Protestant but looks Catholic. The doctrine of the Church of England was Protestant. The structure and much of the ritual of the Church of England were reminiscent of Catholicism. Thus, it appealed to what each religious tradition most cherished: for Protestants, the Word, and for Catholics, ritual and structure.

Mary, Queen of Scots, is sometimes seen as a Catholic counterpart to Elizabeth I. She, too, was ambitious, intelligent, and beautiful. But, where Elizabeth was cautious and shrewd, Mary was impulsive and duplicitous.

Above all, where Elizabeth never put herself in the power of any man, Mary repeatedly married men who were unworthy of her. In 1565, she married Lord Darnley, who proved vain and cruel. He was murdered in 1567 by the Earl of Bothwell. In 1567, she married the Earl of Bothwell, who had abducted her! Many Scots nobles concluded that Mary was, at best, mad and, at worst, a murderess. They deposed her in favor of her infant son by Lord Darnley, who became King James VI.

In 1568, Mary was forced to flee south and seek the protection of her cousin, Elizabeth.

Given England's relative weakness, it was crucial to maintain good relations with its neighbors. England's oldest and most proximate enemy, Scotland, was safely in the hands of a pro-English Protestant government. England's other traditional enemy, France, was just entering a period of weakness and instability, wracked by the Wars of Religion. Under the leadership of Philip II, Spain was, on the other hand, the most powerful state on earth. It controlled most of southern Italy, the Netherlands, all of Central America, and much of South America. This empire provided the wealth for the greatest army and navy in Europe, but it also made Spain a target for English ambitions.

In 1585, Elizabeth made a choice, sending 7,000 troops to the Netherlands under her beloved Leicester. This meant war. In response,

Philip II began to prepare a vast Armada with which to invade England. The English sought to delay the invasion by successfully attacking the fleet in port. With the Spanish fleet preparing to ferry the Spanish army across the Channel, it was imperative to do something about Mary. Elizabeth was reluctant to harm her cousin and a fellow monarch, but Mary had given her cause. In mid-1586, Secretary Walsingham learned of another plot to put Mary on the throne, this one organized by Anthony Babington, one of her household servants. This time, Mary signed a letter agreeing to Elizabeth's assassination. On the evidence of the Babington plot, Mary was tried and convicted of treason. At this point, Elizabeth hesitated. She signed the death warrant, but instructed Secretary of State Davison not to use it. Davison, backed by his fellow privy councilors, implemented the warrant anyway. Mary, Queen of Scots, was executed at Fotheringhay Castle on 8 February 1587. When she heard, Elizabeth was furious.

Philip II now added righteous vengeance to his list of reasons to invade Elizabeth's realm. In the summer of 1588, the Spanish Armada, the largest oceangoing navy yet assembled, sailed for England.

Unfortunately, the Armada was slow and poorly gunned, having few heavy cannon. This meant that, if intercepted by the Royal Navy, it could neither sink the English ships nor close and board them unless the English cooperated. Instead, when the Armada was sighted in late July, the English ships stood at long range and pounded it, but the latter held formation.

When the Armada pulled into Calais, the English sent in fire ships, causing the Spanish to flee in chaos. This allowed English gunfire to pick them off one by one. When the Spanish attempted to return to Spain by sailing north around Scotland and down the west coast of Ireland, they were battered by storms. About half reached port safely.

The defeat of the Armada was a tremendous propaganda victory and confidence-booster for England. It was perceived by many as another sign that England was a "chosen nation." But it did not seriously weaken Spain. This was only the beginning of the war. By 1601, the country had suffered

15 years of war and high taxes. During the 1590s, it had also suffered bad harvests, a major agricultural depression, and famine. The wool trade was also in decline, thanks to the war.

When Elizabeth died on 24 March 1603, Secretary Cecil played kingmaker, proclaiming James King of England.

Perhaps the real Tudor achievement is that, unlike Henry VII, the first Stuart ascended peacefully, without any breakdown of order. Elizabeth and her predecessors had defended the country from foreign invaders, tamed the nobility, worked out a religious settlement, and forged an English and Protestant nation. But they had also oppressed the Irish, offended the Scots, raised the profile of Parliaments, and left unresolved great social and economic tensions. These tensions would haunt their successors.

The problem of poverty had grown during the early modern period. The economic fluctuations of the century after 1540 created numerous poor people and made them more visible. Increasing numbers of people experienced a decline in wealth thanks to rising prices and rents and stagnant wages. Many became migrants. They were thrown off the land by enclosure or an inability to pay their rents. They moved about searching for work. Overall, some 20,000–40,000 people were constantly on the move, including the unemployed, demobilized soldiers, beggars, the sick and lame, and criminals.

Questions:

1. When did England transform itself into a constitutional monarchy?
2. Why did the population of Britain decrease to only about 2.2 million in 1485?
3. What percent of England's population lived in urban areas at the end of the XV century?
4. How could the cities of Britain of that period be divided?
5. What was England's one major industry at that period?
6. What were the demands and duties of landlords?
7. What percent of the land was owned by the nobility in 1485?

8. Who rented a cottage with no farm attached at that period of time?
9. What was the subdivision of the nobles?
10. What was the main purpose of Henry VII's marriage to Elizabeth of York?
11. Why did England have no significant foreign enemies at Henry VII death in 1509?
12. What three old medieval principles did Henry VII follow to make the Crown stronger at home?
13. What areas maximized Henry VII's ordinary revenue?
14. As a result of what policy did Henry VII have money to pursue his policies?
15. Who did Henry VIII leave the running of Britain for the first two decades of his reign?
16. Why was Cardinal Wolsey so rich?
17. Why did Henry VIII begin to contemplate an end to his marriage to Catherine of Aragon?
18. When did Henry VIII call a Parliament for the specific purpose of enquiring into the state of the church?
19. Who emphasized scripture over church authority?
20. What were the fundamental difference between Catholicism and Protestantism in the 16th century?
21. Why was the structure of the Roman Catholic Church hierarchical and complicated?
22. Why were the structures of early Protestant churches simple?
23. What did Henry and Cromwell do to expand the power of the monarchy?
24. Who launched a series of government reforms?
25. Why did Henry break with Rome?
26. What was the situation in England at the accession of Edward VI?
27. Who was made Duke of Somerset and Lord Protector of the realm?
28. What was one of the reasons of Somerset's failure in Scotland?
29. Who was proclaimed queen on 6 July 1553?
30. Why was Mary I called "Bloody Mary"?
31. Why was Mary I choice of a husband controversial?

32. Why did Mary's Counter-Reformation fail?
33. What was the situation in England when Elizabeth I came to power?
34. Why had Elizabeth to make a compromise with the Settlement of 1559–1563?
35. Who was named Supreme Governor of the Church of England?
36. Why was Mary forced to flee south and seek the protection of Elizabeth?
37. Why did Spain become a target for English ambitions?
38. Why was Mary tried and convicted of treason in 1586?
39. What were the drawbacks of the Spanish Armada?
40. Why did the Spanish Armada suffer the defeat?
41. Who was proclaimed the king of England after Elizabeth's death?
42. What were real Tudor achievements?
43. What were weak points in the policy of Tudors?
44. Why did the problem of poverty grow during the early modern period?

Lecture 4

Rise of power (1688–1815)

4.1. Succession Wars

The protestant powers of Europe feared the strength and ambition of Louis XIV of France, though Catholic states such as Spain, Portugal, and Bavaria felt threatened by him as well. The Dutch were immediately threatened when, in 1688, Louis XIV's designs on the Palatinate of the Rhine became clear.

William III of England was still the Stadtholder, or “steward” Of Holland. He approached Emperor Leopold I, who formed the league of Augsburg, or “Grand Alliance”. The War of the Grand Alliance is also known as the Nine Years' War.

James II's defeat at the Battle of Boyne in 1690 ended his hopes of taking back his throne. William's triumph is celebrated each year on 12 July by the Orange Order. James fled in panic back to France. Led by Patrick Sarsfield, the Earl of Lucan, those left behind fought on bravely. They defeated William at the First Siege of Limerick (1690), but were badly beaten at Aughrim. William's Second Siege of Limerick was successful, forcing the Jacobites to surrender. Both sides signed the Treaty of Limerick in 1691.

The Grand Alliance was recreated in 1701 for the War of the Spanish Succession. This time Britain fought on the Continent, with John Churchill, the Duke of Marlborough, demonstrating his dash and flair. In 1704, he threw the French completely off their guard by marching 50000 men from the Low Countries to the Danube in just 5 weeks. His victories at Blenheim on 14 August 1704 and Ramillies in May 1706 were crucial; he won again at Malplaquet in 1709.

The War of the Spanish Succession was also fought in North America. Known as Queen Ann's War, it took its name from William's successor, Anne, who reigned from 1707. It was only in 1713 that Louis

XIV was defeated. France ceded to Britain its claims in the Hudson Bay territories in the Treaty of Utrecht.

4.2. The House of Hanover

A new century heralded a new succession crisis, and further fears of Britain falling back into “popish” hands. In 1702, Queen Anne ascended the throne, and though no one left the least anxiety about her loyalties, she was still a Stuart and the daughter of James II, a Catholic king. She was also going to die without an heir, as her last surviving child, Prince William, Duke of Gloucester, died in 1700. In 1701, Parliament had rushed through the Act of Settlement to pre-empt any bid by the exiled James II himself, should he outlive Queen Anne, or by his son James Edward Stuart or daughter Louisa Maria Teresa, if he should not. Instead, the Act established that the succession would go to the reliably Protestant (and German) Sophia, Electress of Hanover.

Scotland’s Parliament, irritated at England’s high-handed conduct in passing the Act of Settlement without consultation, brought in an Act of Security in 1704, insisting on its right to choose a monarch of its own. The Westminster Parliament retaliated with an Alien Act that marked out Scots in England as foreigners to be discriminated against – putting the Scots and their economy at a major disadvantage. In these circumstances, the Scottish parliament had to commit itself to a permanent relationship with England. Both countries passed complementary Acts of Union in 1707.

Sophia died just a few weeks before Anne herself died, so on 1 August 1714, Sophia’s son became King George I of Great Britain and Ireland.

George was aged 54 by the time he was crowned king of a country to which he was a stranger. His previous life as a German prince included service in the Hanoverian army in the War of the Spanish Succession. After the failed Jacobite rising of 1715 to restore the Stuarts to the throne, and a second minor scare in 1719, George’s reign was comparatively

secure, and for the most part peaceful. George did, however, take Britain into the War of the Quadruple Alliance (1718–20), fighting alongside the Dutch Republic, Austria, and France to Philip V of Spain in his plans to take the French throne and territories in Italy.

George II, who acceded to the throne in 1727, was also a veteran of the War of Spanish Succession. An early event of George II's reign was the War of Jenkins' Ear, fought against Spain from 1739, over the right of Britain to sell slaves in the Spanish Empire. By 1742, the war broadened out to become part of the War of the Austrian Succession, in which Britain sided with the Austrian Maria Theresa, and her "Pragmatic" party, against France, who had Frederick II of Prussia in its camp. The end of the War of the Austrian Succession was little more than a pause for breath before, in 1756, the same combatants became embroiled in the Seven Years' War. Before this, in 1745–46, George had to overcome the threat to the British throne of a new Jacobite rebellion.

In 1760, a young king followed an old one when George III came to the throne. He was George II's grandson. Although he lost time to illness from early on in his reign, he was generally a force for stability and calm, despite his accession being overshadowed by the Seven Years' War. His down-to-earth manner and agricultural interests earned him his nickname "Farmer George", but he was also a highly educated and cultured man. A passionate reader and bibliophile, he established the King's Library, London, and was a generous patron to the Royal Academy.

4.3. Commercial Expansion

In the early 18th century, the British economy took a great leap forward – though not because of any major boom in manufacturing or farming. Instead, what has been described as a financial revolution made new ways of making money possible. And then, of course, there was "black gold" – the trade in slaves.

The Glorious Revolution was all very well, but Britain's economic situation was anything but glorious. Scottish merchant William Patterson

proposed opening a subscription among entrepreneurs who were prepared to invest money. Collectively, they were to become the governors of a Bank of England, founded by royal charter in 1694.

The new national bank gave promissory notes in return for gold deposits. By 1725, these were part-printed, then completed by cashiers, so they could be sold on and circulated to some extent. By 1759, 10 pound notes circulated freely as currency. The trend took off, although British banking – still in its infancy – was extremely localized: every town had its own bank, issuing its own bills.

By the early 18th century, the English East India Company was shipping tea, silk, and other luxuries from China.

The reliance on a strong Royal Navy for protection on the seas was crucial in maintaining confidence in overseas trade. The fiasco at Beachy Head in 1690 took some of the gilt off the Glorious Revolution, and Britain was determined to avoid any repetition. This concern influenced the founding of the Bank of England in 1694, which was seen as an important way of raising some of the funds needed for a major ship-building programme.

The new, more flexible financing methods lent fresh impetus to a long-standing slave trade. London and Bristol took the lead, but were overtaken by Liverpool in the 1740s. Ships from that port alone transported 1.5 million men, women, and children to the Americas. The “triangular trade” was profitable on all three legs: cheap trinkets, textiles, and weapons sent to West Africa were exchanged for slaves, who were sold for profits in the Americas; the traders then loaded up slave ships with cotton, tobacco, and sugar to be sold back home.

4.4. Colonial Conquests

The middle of the 18th century saw Britain acquiring new territories to the east and west in India, and in Canada. Its good intentions were quickly tested, as it became clear how immense the possibilities were for

England's commercial development – and for the personal enrichment of those in charge.

The Seven Years' War was a European conflict, pitching Britain and Prussia against France and Austria. This inevitably brought about a North American dimension, as both Britain and France had transatlantic colonies. The British settlers coveted Ohio, currently claimed by the French Canadians, who traded with the native tribes for furs.

Canada became a British possession when the Treaty of Paris was signed in 1763. George III promptly made a Royal Proclamation, attempting to control the pace and scope of settlement and secure good relations with the Native American peoples.

European companies setting up among “savage” peoples took it for granted that they had a policing role, if only to safeguard their own activities. The east India Company had been chartered by the British Crown, and essentially acted on its behalf.

The Company's competition with its French rivals soon spilled over into fighting, before getting caught up in the wider conflict of the Seven years' War. Robert Clive, later the Governor of Bengal, commanded the British force.

With the Battle of Buxar (1764), the company tightened its hold over eastern India. Four Anglo-Mysore Wars were fought between 1766 and 1799. The rise of the ruler of the kingdom of Mysore, Tipu Sultan, took Britain by surprise, and he won some initial victories.

British officials oversaw policies that led to a collapse in the agricultural economy in Bengal in 1769-73. This brought about a devastating famine, which caused several million deaths.

4.5. America is lost

Victory in the Seven Years' War gave Britain some breathing space in which it could attend to its American colonies, which had been getting on without much interference – and prospering in the process. Britain increased taxes to pay for the upkeep of military protection by the British

regular army against further French encroachments. In 1765, an unofficial convention of colonists issued a “Declaration of Rights and Grievances”. The British imposed more taxes. They also responded to a boycott of British goods in Boston with a military occupation of the city, and added a Tea Tax to the list in 1733. In 1744, the colonists asserted their rights at the First Continental Congress, but they got a set of five acts that restricted their freedom.

The settlers had traditionally relied on their own militias to defend themselves against a Native American attack. In April 1775, with the colonies in ferment, Britain tried to pre-empt trouble by seizing the weapons in the arsenal at Concord, Massachusetts. Fighting turned into a general uprising. Led by George Washington, the rebels besieged Boston. General Howe’s attack at Bunker Hill on 17 June brought a British victory, but failed to stop the siege. From June, the various rebel militia groups were brought together to form a new Continental Army.

The rebels took Boston in March 1776, and on 4 July the Second Continental Congress issued the Declaration of Independence. The following summer saw a succession of victories for the Continental Army, culminating in a crucial one at Saratoga on 7 October. Louis XVI of France was impressed, and offered assistance to the rebels.

The British regrouped and took Philadelphia, in September 1777. Washington and his Continental Army crept away to Valley Forge. Britain was beginning to lose its focus, though. Washington broke his army into smaller militia-type detachments, and Generals Clinton and Cornwallis became involved in a guerrilla war. Cornwallis was ordered to fall back to the coast and prepare a fortified base for a Royal Navy rescue force. He withdrew to Yorktown, Virginia, but was forced to surrender.

4.6. Georgian Society

Life in the 18th-century Britain could be very enjoyable indeed for those of the better-off classes. There were jobs in London and country retreats for wealthy men, and new professions for those of a more modest

means. Fashionable women reveled in the elegance of the social season, while a rising middle class sought out for many shops now proliferating everywhere.

Although there were wars for about half of the century, and economic problems for some of the time, the 1700s were generally a period of stability and prosperity. Wealth, however, was spread unevenly, with around one-third controlled by five per cent of the population. Inheriting land was still the way to achieve any position of power, as in the century before.

As London grew as a more important commercial and political centre, men of substance would spend much time there, with stays often dictated by the sitting of Parliament. Life at their country residences was often linked with the hunting season. A whole social season arose around time spent in London, and was filled with parties, theatre trips, and sporting events such as the races.

Provincial towns and cities were growing, especially the “spa” towns. Bath was the most fashionable spa, and its population grew in the 18th century. It was a place of fashion and manners, and its season, as in London, was an opportunity for both sexes to show off new clothes, learn new dances, and attract suitable wives and husbands. As other towns expanded, also gaining theatres, assembly rooms, and coffee houses, people from the surrounding areas enjoyed “mini seasons” there, too.

Employment also began to change. The rise of professions now saw a growing body of men working as clergy, doctors, lawyers, or – as commerce and industry expanded – businessmen and merchants. The rising middle classes, their leisure pursuits, and growing spending power helped feed new industries and create a consumer revolution. Shopping for everything from cutlery to buttons became all the rage.

4.6. Inventors and Entrepreneurs

In the space of a few generations, the Industrial Revolution was to utterly transform the British scene – from its landscape to its social

assumptions and sense of identity. Invention and entrepreneurship went together in bringing about these changes. Neither could have taken place without the other.

Inventions, such as John Kay's flying shuttle, in 1733, made handloom-weaving more productive. The realization that these devices automated the processes of manufacturing offered to manufacturers the possibility of replicating them, perhaps many times over, to bring output to unprecedented levels.

External sources of powers were not new: horses had pulled carts and coaches from time immemorial; windmills and watermills had been used for centuries in grinding grain.

In 1738, Lewis Paul and Edward Baines invented a roller-spinning machine, which allowed yarns to be made on a much larger scale. Paul's carding machine of 1748 allowed the clumps and tangles to be teased out of the raw wool with ease, enabling the worker to produce far more usable fibre. James Hargreaves' spinning jenny (1764) was quickly eclipsed by Richard Arkwright's spinning (later, water) frame, in 1775.

Arkwright was responsible for a more important innovation: modern factory production. He achieved enormous economies of scale, but water power was not available everywhere, capacity was limited by difficulties of access and river flow. The first steam pump was developed by Thomas Savery, in 1698, although its poor performance gave no suggestion that a technological revolution was under way. Thomas Newcomen's atmospheric engine, in 1712, was an improvement, although Scottish engineer James Watt was to make it better. Watt saw how inefficient Newcomen's engine was, particularly in its condenser. Watt's separate condenser allowed most of the heat to be retained and reused in successive strokes; his steam pump also had an efficient rotating engine. Watt was sponsored by Matthew Boulton, who was one of the new breed of entrepreneurs. He was driven by a dream of industrial power; a desire to realize the potential of new technologies. His Soho Manufactory, in

Birmingham, made everything from toys to buttons and, from 1788, had a steam-powered mint for the mass production of coins.

4.6. The Napoleonic Wars

A whole continent could not contain the ambition of Napoleon Bonaparte, the “Little Corporal” who seized an emperor’s crown. For Britain, as for other European countries, the need to handle the threat from France overshadowed the end of the 18th and start of the 19th centuries.

France in the early 1790s was aggressive: this was a way for the revolutionary regime to maintain momentum and keep the people’s spirits high. French soldiers were repulsed on invading the Austrian Netherlands in 1790, but fared far better when they tried again two years later. Britain joined Austria, Spain, Prussia, and the Kingdoms of Sardinia and Naples in a First Coalition against France in 1793. The defeat of an Austro-British army at Tourcoing, in May 1794, left the First Coalition in disarray, and by 1795, France appeared to be secure.

The Italian island of Corsica had been ceded to France in 1768, so when Napoleone di Buonaparte was born the following year, he was French, and it was to a French military academy that he went a decade later. He came to prominence as a young artillery commander at the Siege of Toulon, in 1793, after that city was sought, with British backing, to throw off France’s Convention government.

Now a general, from 1796 he fought a triumphant campaign against Austria in Italy. Austria was brought to terms in 1797, though the following year, it became a member (with Britain, Russia, Portugal, Sweden, and the Ottoman Empire) of the Second Coalition.

In 1798, Napoleon invaded Egypt. Though the Canal was not yet built, Suez was vital to Britain’s links with its empire in Indian. The British therefore supported the Ottoman Turks, Egypt’s then rulers.

When a Third Coalition brought Britain into alliance with Austria, Russia, and others, Napoleon demonstrated his defiance by crowning himself Emperor of France on 2 December 1804.

In 1805, resolving to invade England, Napoleon marshaled 180,000 troops on France's northern coast. It was almost as many soldiers as the British Army had in total. The English Channel, Napoleon notoriously observed, was an "ere ditch", which it would take only a little courage to cross. It turned out to be a more formidable barrier, however, especially when it was patrolled by a determined Royal Navy.

The Royal Navy also helped to protect Britain's overseas trade. This was crucial for an industrializing nation. Thanks to the Royal Navy, this "nation of shopkeepers" was able to stay in business – not least by providing economic support to other nations struggling against Napoleon.

On land, however, Napoleon's victories went on: 2 December 1805 brought his culminating triumph over an Austro-Russian army at Austerlitz. Austria was forced out of coalition. Fourth Coalition, now formed by Britain in conjunction with Prussia, Russia, Saxony, and Sweden. Britain won significant victories at sea, but the Coalition as a whole was soon defeated.

The year 1812 changed everything. Napoleon invaded Russia in June. France was defeated at the Battle of Leipzig in October 1813.

Questions:

1. Whose strength and ambition did the protestant powers of Europe fear at that time?
2. Who was still the Stadtholder, or "steward" of Holland?
3. Who formed the league of Augsburg, or "Grand Alliance"?
4. Why was James II not able to take back his throne?
5. What was the consequence of William's Second Siege of Limerick success?
6. Who signed the Treaty of Limerick in 1691?
7. Why was the Grand Alliance recreated in 1701?

8. Whose victories at Blenheim in 1704 and Ramillies in 1706 were crucial?
9. Why was the War of the Spanish Succession also known as Queen Ann's War?
10. When did Queen Ann ascend the throne?
11. What did the Act of Settlement of 1701 establish?
12. What Parliament brought in an Act of Security in 1704?
13. What were the consequences of an Alien Act for the Scots?
14. Who became King of Great Britain and Ireland in 1714?
15. What type of a person was George I?
16. When was George II crowned king of Great Britain and Northern Ireland?
17. What type of a person was George III?
18. Why did the British economy take a great leap forward in the early 18th century?
19. What did Scottish merchant William Patterson propose?
20. When was the Bank of England founded by royal charter?
21. Why was British banking extremely localized in the middle of the 18th century?
22. Why was the reliance on a strong Royal Navy crucial for protection on the seas?
23. Why was the founding of the Bank of England in 1694 seen as an important way of raising some of the funds needed for a major ship-building programme?
24. What methods lent fresh impetus to a long-standing slave trade?
25. Why were colonial conquests in the middle of the 18th century so important for Britain?
26. When did Canada become a British possession?
27. Why did the east India Company act on the behalf of the British Crown?
28. With the help of what battle did the east India Company tighten its hold over eastern India?
29. Why was "Declaration of Rights and Grievances" issued in 1765?
30. Why did the British impose more taxes?

31. Who did the American settlers traditionally rely on to defend themselves against a Native American Attack?
32. What city did the American rebels besiege in 1775?
33. What groups were brought together to form a new Continental Army?
34. When did the Second Continental Congress issue the Declaration of Independence?
35. Who offered assistance to American rebels?
36. Why was life in the 18th century very enjoyable only for those of the better-off classes in Britain?
37. How could you describe Georgian Society's life in Britain in the 18th century?
38. How was wealth spread in Britain at that time?
39. Why did employment also begin to change at that time?
40. What revolution was to utterly transform the British scene?
41. What inventions were very important for the economic development of the country?
42. Why was it important for Britain, as for other European countries, to handle the threat from France at the end of the 18th and at the beginning of the 19th centuries?
43. Why was France aggressive in the early 1790s?
44. What countries joined the First Coalition against France?
45. What members did the Second Coalition include?
46. Why did the British support the Ottoman Turks in 1798?
47. What countries joined the Third Coalition against France?
48. When did Napoleon crown himself Emperor of France?
49. Why was it crucial for Britain to protect its overseas trade at that time?
50. When was France defeated at last?

TEST I

Britons and invaders up to 1066

1. The first inhabitants of the British Isles were

- a) the Germanic tribes of Angles.
- b) the Germanic tribes of Saxons.
- c) Celtic tribes.
- d) the Germanic tribes of Jutes.

2. The first Roman Emperor to enter Britain was

- a) Claudius.
- b) Caesar.
- c) Neuron.
- d) Caesar's predecessor.

3. Britain remained under Roman control for almost

- a) four centuries.
- b) three centuries.
- c) four and a half centuries.
- d) five centuries.

4. The most important Roman official in Britain was

- a) the emperor.
- b) the governor.
- c) the procurator.
- d) the senator

5. The key role in the Romanization of Britain was played by

- a) the presence of the Roman army.
- b) the presence of the governor.
- c) the presence of Britons in the Roman army.
- d) the presence of procurator.

6. Latin was the language of

- a) command in the army only.
- b) civilian administration.
- c) people living outside the towns.
- d) command in the army and civilian administration.

7. The organization of an official Roman province of Britannia affected

- a) all levels of the British society.
- b) people living outside the towns most of all.
- c) higher levels of the British society most of all.
- d) some Britons who became full Roman citizens.

8. The Roman Empire hoped to be provided by ... by Britain first of all.

- a) gold and silver
- b) textiles and leather
- c) glass vessels and fine pottery
- d) lead and iron

9. Wales and Scotland remained unromanized because

- a) the Roman Empire didn't want to invade these regions.
- b) the Roman Empire wanted to trade with these regions first of all.
- c) Roman troops met strong resistance in these regions.
- d) Roman troops were defeated in all the battles in Wales and Scotland.

10. It is considered that Britain was entering a period of economic decline by

- a) the mid-3d century.
- b) the mid-4th century.
- c) 407AC.
- d) the 3rd century.

11. The Roman troops in Britain crossed into Gaul with most of the remaining Roman Garrison in 406 AC because

- a) bronze coins were no longer in circulation in Britain.
- b) the British leaders addressed a plea to Rome to send them assistance against the Saxon raiders.
- c) Alamanns, Vandals and Burgundians penetrated deep into Gaul.
- d) they wanted to return to Rome.

12. The arrival of the Saxon invaders in England is dated to

- a) 550 AC.
- b) 449 AC.

c) 500 AC.

d) 560 AC.

13. The culture and language of the Britons fragmented and much of their territory was taken over by the Anglo-Saxons

a) in 406 AC.

b) when King Aethelbert of Kent married Bertha, the daughter of the Merovingian ruler of a Frankish Kingdom based around Paris.

c) in 597 AC.

d) with the beginning of Anglo-Saxon settlement.

14. With the beginning of Anglo-Saxon settlement the Britons migrated to

a) the North of Wales.

b) Cornwall.

c) Scotland.

d) mainland Europe.

15. Common Brittonic developed into the distinct Brittonic languages:

a) Welsh, Cumbric, Cornish and Breton.

b) Welsh, English and Scottish.

c) Galician, Brittonic, Cornish and Welsh.

d) Welsh, Cumbric, Scottish and Cornish.

16. The Heptarchy consisted of ... principal kingdoms.

a) five

b) six

c) seven

d) eight

17. Anglo-Saxon kingship had its roots in

a) Britons' custom.

b) the Roman Empire.

c) North European Germanic custom.

d) South European Germanic custom.

18. The king in Anglo-Saxon kingship was predominantly

a) a powerful politician.

b) a war-leader.

c) a governor.

d) a religious man.

19. King Aethelbert of Kent accepted Christianity under the influence of

a) Pope Gregory I.

b) the Merovingian ruler of a Frankish Kingdom based around Paris.

c) Bretwalda.

d) his wife Bertha who was a Christian.

20. King Aethelbert accepted Christianity because

a) he truly understood the significance of the new religion.

b) he understood that the support of a powerful Church would provide him with a strong additional underpinning of his royal authority.

c) he utterly rejected the pagan beliefs of his forefathers

d) he understood that the whole country would fall rapidly into the Christian fold.

21. The first archbishopric in England came to be established in

a) Essex.

b) Wessex.

c) Sussex.

d) Kent.

22. After the death of king Aethelbert, his successor

a) reverted to paganism.

b) invited a lot of Christian bishops to Britain.

c) developed the Christian culture in monasteries.

d) rejected the pagan beliefs of his forefathers.

23. To revive the English Church, in 669 Pope Vitalian

a) chronicled the early history of the Anglo-Saxon Church.

b) portrayed the triumph of the church.

c) appointed a new archbishop.

d) founded the cathedral school at York.

24. By the late 8th century, the English Church

a) suffered decline.

b) had a new archbishop appointed by Pope Vitalian.

- c) was chronicled by Bede, the monk.
- d) was well-established and confident.

25. The term “Viking”

- a) was rarely used in the early stages of the raids.
- b) was used to describe the Viking long ships.
- c) was used in Ecclesiastical History.
- d) was a common term used in Northumbria.

26. The frequency of the Vikings raids rose rapidly

- a) in 793 CE.
- b) in the 9th century.
- c) in the 10th century.
- d) in the 11th century.

27. Canterbury and London were stormed by the Vikings

- a) when the monasteries of Northumbria were raided.
- b) when the “Great Army” landed in East Anglia.
- c) when the Vikings established their first base in France.
- d) after the Viking army overwintered for the first time in England.

28. Alfred the Great was one of the most renowned kings of

- a) Wessex.
- b) East Anglia.
- c) York.
- d) Canterbury.

29. After the act of enlightenment, Alfred the Great

- a) was defeated by the Vikings.
- b) was forced to flee after the Christmas celebration.
- c) had to pay off the Vikings.
- d) began the resistance and gathered his supporters.

30. After getting the royal throne, one of Alfred’s first acts following the peace settlement with the Vikings was

- a) capturing two Viking ships.
- b) the building of a sea fleet.
- c) taking western Mercia.
- d) raiding the English coastline.

31. In the early 880s, Alfred the Great

- a) ordered the construction of a series of new fortified towns or burhs.
- b) didn't want to reorganize the army.
- c) made all his peasants serve in the army.
- d) didn't allow peasants to remain on their farms.

32. From the 880s, Alfred the Great sponsored

- a) raiding the Scandinavian coastline.
- b) the foundation of the cathedral school at York.
- c) a revival of learning in Wessex.
- d) a revival of Anglo-Saxon kingdoms.

33. Viking raids had turned into an invasion and the Danish king, Sweyn, seized the English throne

- a) by 954 CE.
- b) by 1016.
- c) by 1042.
- d) by 1016.

34. At the beginning of the 11th century, England became a part of a vast realm that spanned the North Sea and included

- a) Norway, Denmark, and part of Sweden.
- b) Denmark, part of Sweden and part of France.
- c) Norway, Denmark and Sweden.
- d) Denmark, Sweden, and part of France.

35. ... became the capital of Canute's huge northern Empire.

- a) Reading
- b) London
- c) Winchester
- d) Canterbury

36. The death of ... brought an end to Danish rule in England.

- a) Edward the Confessor
- b) Canute and his sons
- c) Aethelred the Unready and his sons
- d) Earl Godwin

37. The accession of Edward the Confessor in 1042 saw

- a) the beginning of Danish rule in England.
- b) the foundation of Westminster Abbey.
- c) the end of Danish rule in England.
- d) the revival of Danish rule in England.

38. Edward the Confessor's reign was marred by growing tensions between

- a) Denmark and Norway.
- b) the Church and the raiders.
- c) political and economic interests.
- d) the pro-Norman court and the Anglo-Saxon earls.

39. Edward the Confessor devoted his life to

- a) the interests of the Church.
- b) the foundation of Westminster Abbey.
- c) the political interests of England.
- d) the struggle with Canute and his sons.

40. Normans were by origin

- a) descendants of the Romans.
- b) a Germanic tribe.
- c) a Scandinavian tribe.
- d) descendants of a Celtic tribe.

41. Normans spoke

- a) English.
- b) Dutch.
- c) Scandinavian.
- d) the Norman-French dialect of French.

42. During Edward the Confessor's reign Anglo-Saxon society

- a) evolved into its final form.
- b) flourished.
- c) was ruled by the Vikings.
- d) was under the influence of Normandy.

43. During Edward the Confessor's reign justice at a local level was administered by

- a) thegns.
- b) earls.
- c) sheriffs.
- d) laymen.

44. The last Anglo-Saxon to become the King of England was

- a) King Aethelred.
- b) Earl Godwin.
- c) Canute.
- d) Edward the Confessor.

TEST II
Medieval England

1. The Norman Invasion began in

- a) the 10th century.
- b) in 1066.
- c) in 1042.
- d) in the middle of the 11th century.

2. William the Conqueror was

- a) of Anglo-Saxon origin.
- b) the son of Edward the Confessor.
- c) the first Norman King born in England.
- d) the Norman Duke who won the battle at Hastings.

3. William the Conqueror

- a) radically reshaped England.
- b) devoted his life to the foundation of Westminster Abbey.
- c) ruled together with Earl Godwin.
- d) lived in peace in England after the Battle at Hastings.

4. “Fealty” is the term which means

- a) feudalism.
- b) land owners and tenants.
- c) the right of peasants to owe labour instead of military service to their lord.
- d) an oath which feudal landholders swore to their overlord.

5. Normandy and England were united under the rule of

- a) William the Conqueror.
- b) Duke Richard I of Normandy.
- c) Henry I.
- d) Henry II.

6. The key component in Henry II program to restore royal authority was

- a) taking control of Ireland.
- b) taking control of Wales.
- c) participating in Crusades.
- d) strengthening the system of justice.

7. ... was crowned as King of Ireland in 1183.

- a) Henry II
- b) Prince John
- c) Edward I
- d) Henry III

8. In 1282, Edward I took control of the whole of

- a) Ireland.
- b) Jerusalem.
- c) Wales.
- d) the Holy land.

9. The First Crusade (1096-99) was largely

- a) French affair.
- b) Welsh affair.
- c) the affair of all Christian monarchs.
- d) Edward I affair.

10. The aim of the Second Crusade was

- a) to seize the Muslim Emir.
- b) the recovery of Lisbon.
- c) finding the main routes to the Holy land.
- d) the recovery of the strategic city of Edessa in Syria.

11. The Third Crusade was headed by

- a) Edward I.
- b) King Richard the Lionheart.
- c) Henry III.
- d) Edward II.

12. The 200 years following the Norman Conquest were

- a) a time of stability for the kingdom.
- b) a time of instability for the kingdom.

- c) the time when the Hundred Years' War began.
- d) the time when the majority of the population moved to towns.

13. Manors were

- a) villages.
- b) free tenants.
- c) landholdings.
- d) growing towns.

14. ... protected his tenants in times of war and acted as a judge in disputes between neighbors.

- a) The king
- b) The bishop
- c) A knight
- d) The lord of the manor

15. During the Norman period, growing population and increased agricultural production went hand in hand with

- a) the decrease of luxuries' production.
- b) the increase of the number of villeins.
- c) a rise in the number and size of towns.
- d) the decrease of trade.

16. Approximately 150 years after the Norman Conquest the number of towns was about

- a) 112.
- b) 240.
- c) 300.
- d) 340.

17. The most common urban trades during the Norman period were those involved with the supply of

- a) building materials.
- b) shoes.
- c) food and drink.
- d) iron.

18. Schools for the education of boys were attached to

- a) universities.
- b) Oxford and Cambridge.
- c) the royal family.
- d) cathedrals and monasteries.

19. The period of prosperity, population growth, and increased economic activity in England came to an end

- a) at the beginning of the 14th century.
- b) in the middle of the 14th century.
- c) at the end of the 14th century.
- d) at the beginning of the 15th century.

20. The Hundred Years' War between England and France broke out in 1337, the reason was

- a) Charles IV's attempts to seize the British throne.
- b) Edward II's attempts to seize the French throne.
- c) Edward III's attempts to seize the French throne.
- d) the Black Death, Plague.

21. The French appointed ... King of France at Rheims Cathedral.

- a) Charles IV
- b) Philippe VI
- c) Edward III
- d) Jean le Bel

22. When in July 1338 Edward III set sail for Antwerp, Philippe VI

- a) was eager to win the battle.
- b) ordered his generals to come with the French fleet.
- c) decided to give battle.
- d) resolutely refused to give battle.

23. By 1345, Edward III

- a) was the master of Brittany and obtained ports there.
- b) was defeated by Philippe VI.
- c) returned with the fleet of 250 ships
- d) was replaced by Jean le Bel.

24. ... agreed to sign the Treaty between England and France in 1354.

- a) Philippe VI
- b) Jean le Bel
- c) Charles VI of France
- d) King Richard II

25. Due to the Treaty signed in 1354, Edward obtained

- a) Normandy.
- b) Antwerp, Normandy and Aquitaine.
- c) Normandy, Aquitaine and Maine.
- d) Normandy, Aquitaine, Maine and Anjou.

26. The Hundred Years' War ended in

- a) 1345.
- b) 1350.
- c) 1453.
- d) 1558.

27. The reign of King Richard II was marked by

- a) increased economic activity.
- b) a series of crises.
- c) the prosperity of the population.
- d) the Black Death, Plague.

28. After being taken as a prisoner, King Richard II

- a) was transported to France.
- b) was acknowledged to be England's enemy.
- c) addressed the Parliament in English.
- d) was induced to abdicate.

29. The first three decades of Henry VI reign were marked by

- a) military defeat in France.
- b) victories in France.
- c) a lot of revolts in England.
- d) bad harvests in Britain.

30. When Richard, former Lord Protector of England and Duke of York, raised the army and defeated the Lancastrians in 1455,

- a) Henry VI and Margaret of Anjou were captured.
- b) Margaret of Anjou was captured.
- c) Henry VI was captured.
- d) Henry VI and Margaret of Anjou were put to prison.

31. ... was crowned as Edward IV, the first Yorkist King.

- a) Queen Margaret's son
- b) The eldest son of Henry VI
- c) Richard's son
- d) Elizabeth Woodville's son

32. When Lancastrians and Yorkists met in a battle in 1461,

- a) Queen Margaret won.
- b) Edward IV won.
- c) Henry VI won.
- d) Richard of Gloucester won.

33. Edward's hopes for a long and peaceful reign were dashed when it was revealed that

- a) Henry VI was captured and imprisoned in the Tower of London.
- b) Queen Margaret was captured and imprisoned in the Tower of London.
- c) he fled to Flanders.
- d) he had married a commoner, Elizabeth Woodville, in secret.

34. Henry VI was reinstated on the throne after

- a) Margaret of Anjou crossed to England with a fresh Lancastrian army.
- b) the battle of Hexham in 1464.
- c) the battle in 1461.
- d) Edward IV returned to Britain from Flanders.

35. The only remaining Lancastrian with credible aspirations to rule after the death of Henry VI and his son was

- a) Edward IV.
- b) Henry Tudor.
- c) Edward V.
- d) Richard of Gloucester.

36. Young Edward V remained on the throne for ... before Richard of Gloucester had him seized and placed in the Tower of London.

- a) 2 years
- b) a year
- c) half a year
- d) 2 months

37. When Henry Tudor's army came face to face with Richard's troops,

- a) Richard won the battle.
- b) Richard left the battle field.
- c) Richard was defeated and killed.
- d) both Henry Tudor and Richard decided to conclude a peaceful treaty.

38. Henry Tudor took the throne as ..., beginner of the Tudor dynasty.

- a) Henry IV
- b) Henry V
- c) Henry VI
- d) Henry VII

39. ... united the warring houses of Lancaster and York, and finally brought the Wars of the Roses to an end.

- a) The victory of Henry Tudor's army
- b) Henry Tudor's marriage to Elizabeth, Edward IV's daughter,
- c) The victory of Richard of Gloucester
- d) Henry Tudor's taking the throne

40. The accession of Henry Tudor marked the end of the Middle Ages in England and signaled

- a) a change in the relationship between the monarchy and nobility.
- b) the end of the Wars of the Roses.
- c) the beginning of the English Renaissance.
- d) the strengthening of the might of barons.

TEST III
Tudors and Stuarts

1. Between 1485 and 1714, England transformed itself into

- a) a feudal state.
- b) a minor European state.
- c) a constitutional monarchy.
- d) an absolute monarchy.

2. Average life expectancy in England in 1485 was about

- a) 25 years.
- b) 35 years.
- c) 45 years.
- d) 55 years.

3. Provincial cities with population of around 10000 included

- a) London, York and Bristol.
- b) Salisbury, Hampshire and London.
- c) Dorset, York and Norwich.
- d) Bristol, Norwich and York.

4. All cities were highly dependent on

- a) the wool trade.
- b) the wheat trade.
- c) fishing.
- d) factory production.

5. ... were substantial farmers.

- a) The yeomanry
- b) Cottagers
- c) Laborers
- d) The gentry

6. Henry VII became the king of England in

- a) 1400.
- b) 1465.
- c) 1485.
- d) 1500.

7. Because of Henry VII shrewd foreign policy and his cultivation of good relations with the church England had ... in 1509 at his death.

- a) a lot of foreign enemies
- b) no significant foreign enemies
- c) Spain as its only true friend
- d) a great influence in the whole world

8. Henry VII encouraged Parliament to pass a Statute against Liveries, which banned

- a) Crown lands.
- b) court ceremonies.
- c) entertainments.
- d) private noble armies.

9. By pursuing peace and trade agreements with other European nations, Henry VII promoted trade, which increased his yield from

- a) Customs.
- b) legal fees.
- c) crown lands.
- d) feudal dues.

10. As a result of Henry VII policy, he ... to pursue his policies.

- a) had no money
- b) had to raise legal fees
- c) had money
- d) had to sell some crown lands

11. Between 1513 and 1530, ... dominated Britain's government.

- a) Henry VIII
- b) Catherine of Aragon
- c) Henry Fitzroy
- d) Cardinal Wolsey

12. Catherine of Aragon had

- a) one son, Henry Fitzroy.
- b) one daughter, Mary.
- c) a son and a daughter.
- d) no children at all.

13. Henry VIII ordered Cardinal Wolsey to begin proceedings to secure an annulment of his marriage with Catherine of Aragon in

- a) 1525.
- b) 1526.
- c) 1527.
- d) 1530.

14. Martin Luther emphasized

- a) scripture over church authority.
- b) the benefits of the Roman Catholic Church.
- c) the sacramental role of the Roman Catholic Church.
- d) the role of Thomas Cromwell.

15. The Act in Restraint of Appeals which was passed in 1533 forbade English subjects to appeal to

- a) the Pope's power.
- b) Britain's jurisdiction.
- c) any foreign jurisdiction.
- d) Archbishop of Canterbury.

16. Catholics found religious truth in the following sources:

- a) Scripture and tradition.
- b) Papal decrees and Scripture.
- c) tradition, rituals and images of saints.
- d) Scripture, tradition and Papal decrees.

17. Protestants relied on

- a) popes and bishops.
- b) Scripture alone.
- c) tradition and Papal decrees.
- d) images of saints.

18. The structure of Roman Catholic Church was

- a) simple.
- b) with little hierarchy.
- c) hierarchical and complicated.
- d) hierarchical but not complicated.

19. To make effective the king's imperium, Henry VIII and Cromwell

- a) launched a series of government reforms.
- b) left central and local government as it was.
- c) applied to Roman Catholic Church.
- d) increased the Council to 50.

20. Henry VIII broke with Rome because

- a) it was necessary to reform Roman Catholic Church.
- b) he didn't want to divorce Catherine of Aragon.
- c) he was outraged with the Pope's refusal to annul his marriage with Catherine of Aragon.
- d) the kings of France and Spain supported him.

21. King Henry VIII was made "supreme head" of the Church of England due to

- a) his wife's help.
- b) the Act of Supremacy.
- c) the safe survival of the Tudor line.
- d) "Privy Council".

22. Henry's successor, Edward,

- a) supported the Catholic Church.
- b) supported the Act of Supremacy.
- c) laid the foundation for the modern office of Secretary of State.
- d) presided over the Protestantization of the Anglican Church.

23. England's situation at the accession of Edward VI

- a) was good.
- b) was characterized by the economic growth.
- c) was rather bad.
- d) was characterized by great achievements.

24. Edward Seymour persuaded Edward VI

- a) to be ambitious.
- b) to give the country a male heir.
- c) to rule actively.
- d) to dismiss the rest of his Regency Council.

25. Lady Jane Grey, a great granddaughter of Henry VII, married

- a) Edward VI.
- b) Guildford.
- c) Duke of Somerset.
- d) Francis in France.

26. Mary I reign

- a) didn't bring happiness to the people of England.
- b) was very successful
- c) was rather long.
- d) brought happiness to the people of England.

27. Mary I

- a) was religiously tolerant.
- b) rejected the idea of religious toleration.
- c) was a Protestant.
- d) managed to reestablish Catholicism in England.

28. In the end, Mary's Counter-Reformation

- a) succeeded.
- b) changed into Protestantism.
- c) failed.
- d) became a double menace to society.

29. The Settlement of 1559–1563 and the resultant Church of England was

- a) the victory of "Bloody Mary".
- b) the victory of Roman Catholic Church.
- c) the victory of Protestants.
- d) a compromise.

30. ... was named Supreme Governor of the Church of England.

- a) Elizabeth I
- b) "Bloody Mary"
- c) Charles V
- d) Jane Guildford

31. ... made it a capital crime to express support for the pope or to twice refuse to swear the oath of allegiance.

- a) The Act of Uniformity of 1559
- b) The Treason Act of 1563
- c) The Thirty-Nine Articles of Faith of 1563
- d) The Settlement of 1559-1563

32. The doctrine of the Church of England was

- a) Catholic.
- b) neither Catholic nor Protestant.
- c) both Catholic and Protestant.
- d) Protestant.

33. In 1568, ... was forced to flee south and seek the protection of her cousin.

- a) Elizabeth
- b) the Earl of Bothwell
- c) Mary Stuart
- d) the Supreme Governor of the Church of England

34. During the reign of Elizabeth, ... was the most powerful state on earth.

- a) France
- b) Scotland
- c) England
- d) Spain

35. In 1585, Elizabeth sent 7,000 troops to the Netherlands which meant

- a) war.
- b) peace.
- c) the death warrant for Mary.
- d) the Babington plot.

36. The aim of the Babington plot was

- a) to murder Elizabeth.
- b) to wage a war with Spain.
- c) to murder Mary.
- d) to put Mary Stuart on the throne.

37. In 1588, the Spanish Armada

- a) sailed for the Netherlands.
- b) returned to Spain.
- c) sailed for England.
- d) sailed for Scotland.

38. The Spanish Armada

- a) had a lot of heavy cannon.
- b) was slow and poorly gunned.
- c) was met by a lot of storms.
- d) sunk north of Scotland.

39. The defeat of the Spanish Armada

- a) seriously weakened Spain.
- b) brought prosperity to England.
- c) didn't harm England.
- d) didn't seriously weaken Spain.

40. The early modern period at the beginning of the century brought

- a) the problem of poverty.
- b) the problem of foreign invaders.
- c) the problem of wars with the Scots.
- d) the problem of conflicts between Catholics and Protestants.

TEST IV
RISE OF POWER (1688–1815)

1. The protestant powers of Europe feared the strength and ambition of

- a) Spain.
- b) the Dutch.
- c) Portugal.
- d) Louis XIV of France.

2. The War of the Grand Alliance is also known as the

- a) Nine Years' War.
- b) Ten Years' War.
- c) War of Stadtholder.
- d) War of Jacobites.

3. The Grand Alliance was recreated in 1701 for the War of

- a) Orange Order.
- b) James the Second.
- c) the Spanish Succession.
- d) Duke of Marlborough.

4. The War of the Spanish Succession was also fought in

- a) North America.
- b) Bavaria.
- c) Portugal.
- d) South America.

5. The War of the Spanish Succession was also known as

- a) James II's War.
- b) Queen Ann's War.
- c) William III's War.
- d) the Earl of Lucan's War.

6. The Act of Settlement of 1701 established that the succession would go to

- a) the Exiled James II.
- b) James Edward Stuart.
- c) Louisa Maria Teresa.
- d) Sophia, Electress of Hanover.

7. The Act of Security of 1704 was brought in by

- a) the Westminster Parliament.
- b) Scotland's Parliament.
- c) Sophia, Electress of Hanover.
- d) George I.

8. The Alien Act put ... and their economy at a major disadvantage.

- a) the Britons
- b) the French
- c) the Scots
- d) the Spaniards

9. In August 1714, ... became King George I of Great Britain and Ireland.

- a) Sophia's son
- b) Anne's son
- c) Prince William's son
- d) Louis XIV's son

10. When George was crowned king of Great Britain and Ireland he was already aged

- a) 39.
- b) 53.
- c) 54.
- d) 60.

11. In 1745–1746, George II had to overcome the threat to the British throne of

- a) Maria Theresa and her “Pragmatic” party.
- b) a new Jacobite rebellion.
- c) Philip V of Spain.
- d) Frederick II of Prussia.

12. The King’s Library in London was established by

- a) Queen Ann.
- b) George I.
- c) George II.
- d) George III.

13. The nickname “Farmer George” was given to ... because of his down-to-earth manner and agricultural interests.

- a) George I.
- b) George II.
- c) George III.
- d) George IV.

14. “Black gold” in Britain’s economy in the early 18th century was the

- a) development of manufacturing.
- b) development of farming.
- c) Seven Years’ War.
- d) trade in slaves.

15. The New national bank – the Bank of England – was founded by royal charter in

- a) 1694.
- b) 1700.
- c) 1759.
- d) 1800.

16. The reliance on a strong ... was crucial in maintaining confidence in overseas trade.

- a) National Army
- b) Royal Navy
- c) monarch
- d) British Parliament

17. The middle of the 18th century saw Britain acquiring new territories

- a) in Africa.
- b) in Americas.
- c) in Canada and to the east and west in India.
- d) in Canada and Australia.

18. ... inevitably brought about a North American dimension, as both Britain and France had transatlantic colonies.

- a) New flexible financing methods
- b) The Seven Years' War
- c) The British settlers
- d) The Glorious Revolution

19. Canada became a British possession when the Treaty of Paris was signed in

- a) 1633.
- b) 1700.
- c) 1763.
- d) 1850.

20. The East India Company was chartered by

- a) the British Crown.
- b) the French rivals.
- c) Tipu Sultan.
- d) the French Government.

21. Britain increased taxes to be paid by ...after the victory in the Seven Years' War.

- a) the French
- b) "savage" peoples in India
- c) the British settlers in Ohio
- d) American colonists

22. "Declaration of Rights and Grievances" was issued by

- a) the British Parliament.
- b) the French Parliament.
- c) an unofficial convention of colonists.
- d) the First Continental Congress.

23. In 1744, the colonists asserted their rights at

- a) the First Congress of Americans.
- b) the First Continental Congress.
- c) the Second Congress of colonists.
- d) the Second Continental Congress.

24. The Declaration of Independence was issued by

- a) the First Congress of Americans.
- b) the First Continental Congress.
- c) the Second Congress of colonists.
- d) the Second Continental Congress.

25. From June 1775, various rebel militia groups of American colonists were brought together to form

- a) a new Continental Army.
- b) the Army of Militia Groups.
- c) the Army of Louis XVI of France.
- d) a new Britain's Army.

26. George Washington broke his army into smaller militia-type detachments, and Generals Clinton and Cornwallis became involved in

- a) the battle at Saragota.
- b) the battle at Bunker Hill.
- c) the battle in Concord, Massachusetts.
- d) a guerrilla war.

27. The 1700s were generally a period of ... for Britain.

- a) famine
- b) financial losses
- c) stability and prosperity
- d) poverty and disillusion

28. Provincial towns and cities were growing in the 18th century in Britain, especially the

- a) seaboard towns.
- b) “spa” towns.
- c) towns with mines.
- d) mountain towns.

29. The rise of professions in the 18th century saw a growing body of men working as

- a) farmers and workers.
- b) doctors, lawyers, businessmen and merchants.
- c) military men.
- d) farmers and clergy.

30. The Industrial Revolution utterly transformed the British scene, and ... went together in bringing these changes.

- a) industrialization and invention
- b) industrialization and new banks
- c) invention and entrepreneurship
- d) new banks and entrepreneurship

31. A very important innovation: modern factory production was introduced by

- a) Lewis Paul.
- b) Edward Baines.
- c) James Hargreaves.
- d) Richard Arkwright.

32. The first steam pump was developed by

- a) Thomas Savery.
- b) James Watt.
- c) Thomas Newcomen.
- d) Matthew Boulton.

33. Matthew Boulton, who was one of the new breed of entrepreneurs, was driven by a dream of

- a) atmospheric engine.
- b) industrial power.
- c) mass production of coins.
- d) roller-spinning machine.

34. For Britain, the need to handle the threat from ... overshadowed the end of the 18th and start of the 19th centuries.

- a) North American colonists
- b) Germany
- c) Russia
- d) France

35. The First Coalition against France united

- a) Britain, Spain, Prussia, Austria, the Kingdoms of Sardinia and Naples.
- b) Britain, Spain, Prussia, and Austria.
- c) Britain, Spain, Prussia, the Kingdoms of Sardinia and Naples.
- d) Britain, Spain, Prussia, Austria, the Kingdom of Naples.

36. General Napoleone di Buonaparte fought a triumphant campaign against ... in Italy in 1796.

- a) the Italian Army.
- b) Prussia.
- c) Britain.
- d) Austria.

37. The Second Coalition united

- a) Britain, Austria, Russia, Prussia, and the Ottoman Empire.
- b) Britain, Austria, Russia, Prussia, Russia, Sweden, and the Ottoman Empire.
- c) Britain, Russia, Portugal, Sweden, Austria, and the Ottoman Empire.
- d) Britain, Austria, Russia, Sweden, and the Ottoman Empire.

38. In 1798, Napoleon invaded

- a) Egypt.
- b) the Ottoman Empire.
- c) Austria.
- d) Prussia.

39. Thanks to ... Britain was able to stay in business – not least by providing economic support to other nations struggling against Napoleon.

- a) the Third Coalition
- b) the Royal Navy
- c) the British Army
- d) the English Channel

40. The Fourth Coalition was formed by Britain in conjunction with

- a) Austria, Russia, Saxony, and Sweden.
- b) Austria, Prussia, Russia, Saxony, and Sweden.
- c) Prussia, Austria, Russia, and Sweden.
- d) Prussia, Russia, Saxony, and Sweden.

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