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PREFACE

The guidelines for Linguocountrystudy of Great Britain cover the current programme of the basic discipline “Linguocountrystudy of Great Britain and the USA” that is a part of the Bachelor’s degree curriculum. The guidelines are intended to aid students of Foreign Languages Department in their independent studies and exam preparation.

The guidelines include brief content of five topics in History of Great Britain tracing the development of the nation from prehistoric times to the Tudor age: “Britain’s prehistory”, “the Celts and the Romans”, “the Saxon invasion. The Vikings. The Norman conquest”, “Feudalism. Magna Carta. The wars of Roses”, “The Tudors. Reformation”. The History section is followed by the topics and tasks of the seminars including group discussions and team projects, and the topics of the individual projects aimed at encouraging students to study economic, social, political realia; culture and traditions of the UK countries. The detailed structure of individual projects in the form of research essays as well as the list of recommended literature and internet resources will help our students cope with their tasks successfully. The list of video resources comprises useful links of the BBC documentary episodes “Digging for Britain” and “History documentary” as well as brilliant pieces of the British cinematography such as “Elizabeth”, “King’s speech”, “Dark hours”, “The young Victoria”, “The White queen”, etc. that enrich and broaden students’ scope of knowledge of the historical events, prominent historical personalities, British cultural and political life.

BRITAIN'S PREHISTORY

Britain has not always been an island. It became one only after the end of the last ice age. The temperature rose and the ice cap melted, flooding the lower-lying land that is now under the North Sea and the English Channel.

The first settlements.

- 1) Around 10, 000 BC, as the Ice Age drew to a close, Britain was peopled by small groups of hunters, gatherers and fishers. Few had settled homes, and they seemed to have followed herds of deer which provided them with food and clothing. By about 5000 BC Britain had finally become an island, and had also become heavily forested. For the wanderer-hunter culture this was a disaster, for deer and other animals on which they lived largely died out.
- 2) About 3000 BC Neolithic (or New Stone Age) people crossed the narrow sea from Europe in small round boats of bent wood covered with animal skins. Each could carry one or two persons. These people kept animals and grew corn crops, and knew how to make pottery. They came from the Iberian (Spanish) peninsula. They were small, dark, and long-headed people, and may be the forefathers of dark-haired inhabitants of Wales and Cornwall today. They settled in the western parts of Britain and Ireland, from Cornwall at the southwest end of Britain all the way to the far north. They built "barrows" – burial mounds made of earth and clay, on the chalk uplands of South Britain. That is why Neolithic people, who inhabited Britain, are called "chalkland people".

After 3000 BC the chalkland people started building great circles of earth banks and ditches. Inside, they built wooden buildings and stone circles. These "hengés", as they are called, were centres of religious, political and economic power. The most spectacular was Stonehenge, which was built in separate stages over a period of more than a thousand years. After about 2400 BC, huge bluestones were brought to the site from

south Wales. The movement of these bluestones was an extremely important event, the story of which was passed on from generation to generation. Stonehenge was almost certainly a sort of capital, to which the chiefs of other groups came from all over Britain. Certainly, earth or stone henges were built in many parts of Britain, as far as the Orkney Islands north of Scotland, and as far south as Cornwall. They seem to have been copies of the great Stonehenge in the south.

- 3) After 2400 BC new groups of people arrived in southeast Britain from Europe. They were round-headed and strongly built, taller than Neolithic Britons. Their arrival is marked by the first individual graves, furnished with pottery beakers, from which they get their name: the “Beaker” people.

The Beaker people brought with them from Europe a new cereal, barley, which could grow almost anywhere. Stonehenge remained the most important centre until 1300 BC. The Beaker people's richest graves were there, and they added a new circle of thirty stone columns. British society continued to be centred on a number of henges across the countryside. From about 1300 BC hill-forts replaced henges as the centres of local power. Most of them were found in the southeast. The henge civilisation seems to have become less important. Family villages appeared across the country manifesting a settled farming class.

THE CELTS. THE ROMANS.

THE CELTS

Around 700 BC, another group of people began to arrive. Many of them were tall, and had fair or red hair and blue eyes. The Celts were technically advanced. They knew how to work with iron. The Celts are important in British history because

they are the ancestors of many of the people in Highland Scotland, Wales, Ireland, and Cornwall today. Celtic languages, which have been continuously used in some areas since that time, are still spoken.

From about 500 BC trade contacts with Europe declined, and regional differences between northwest and southeast Britain increased. The Celts were organised into different tribes, and tribal chiefs were chosen from each family or tribe, sometimes as the result of fighting matches between individuals, and sometimes by election.

The last Celtic arrivals from Europe were the Belgic tribes. It was natural for them to settle in the southeast of Britain, probably pushing other Celtic tribes northwards as they did so.

The Celtic tribes continued the same kind of agriculture as the Bronze Age people before them. But their use of iron technology and their introduction of more advanced ploughing methods made it possible for them to farm heavier soils. They continued to use and build hill forts. The hill-fort remained the centre for local groups. The insides of these hill -forts were filled with houses, and they became the simple economic capitals and smaller "towns" of the different tribal areas into which Britain was now divided.

Various Celtic tribes traded with many peoples during the Iron Age in most of Central and Western Europe. The Celts proved to be very active merchants on the coastlines of the Mediterranean Sea as well, exchanging mostly iron tools,

wine, and pottery. Additionally, a considerable number of Celtic artefacts which belonged to the Hallstatt culture were excavated on the territory of several Central European countries.

The Celtic tribes were ruled over by a warrior class, of which the priests, or Druids, seem to have been particularly important members. These Druids could not read or write, but they memorised all the religious teachings, the tribal laws, history,

medicine and her knowledge necessary in Celtic society. The Druids from different tribes all over Britain probably met once a year. They had no temples, but they met in sacred groves of trees, on certain hills, by rivers or by river sources. We know little of their kind of worship except that at times it included human sacrifice.

During the Celtic period women may have had more independence than they had again for hundreds of years. When the Romans invaded Britain two of the largest tribes were ruled by women who fought from their chariots. The most powerful Celt to stand up to the Romans was a woman, Boadicea. She had become queen of her tribe when her husband had died. She was tall, with long red hair, and had a frightening appearance. At the time of the Roman conquest of southern Britain Queen Boudica ruled the Iceni tribe of East Anglia after her husband's (King Prasutagus') death. Boudica was a striking looking woman. She was very tall, the glance of her eye most fierce; her voice harsh. A great mass of the reddest hair fell down to her hips. Her appearance was terrifying. Boudica and her daughters drove round in her chariot to all her tribes before the battle, exhorting them to be brave. Boudica was not killed in the battle but took poison rather than be taken alive by the Romans. Boudica has secured a special place of her own in British folk history remembered for her courage.



The Warrior Queen who fought the might of Rome. And in a way she did get her revenge, as in 1902 a bronze statue of her riding high in her chariot, designed by Thomas Thorneycroft, was placed on the Thames embankment next to the Houses of Parliament in the old Roman capital of Britain, Londinium.

The Romans

At the time of the Roman arrival, Britain (originally known as Albion) was mostly comprised of small Iron Age communities, primarily agrarian, tribal, with enclosed settlements. Southern Britain shared their culture with northern Gaul (modern day France and Belgium); many southern Britons were Belgae in origin and shared a common language with them. In fact, after 120 BCE trading between Transalpine Gaul intensified with the Britons receiving such domestic imports as wine; there was also some evidence of Gallo-Belgae coinage.

Previously, the Channel, or Mare Britannicum, had always served as a natural border between the European mainland and the islands. During his subjugation of Gaul during the Gallic Wars, Caesar had wanted to interrupt Belgae trade routes; he also assumed the Britons were assisting their kindred Belgae. Later, he would rationalize his invasion of Britain by telling the Roman Senate that he believed the island was rich in silver. Although the Republic was probably aware of the island's existence, Britain, for the most part, was completely unknown to Rome, and to many more superstitious citizens, only existed in fables; traders repeatedly told of the islanders' barbarous practices. Caesar's initial contact with

the islanders went poorly, and he had to quickly reorganize his army to avoid defeat. During his second 'invasion' when he was accompanied by five legions, he pushed further northward across the Thames River to meet the Briton chieftain Cassivellaunus. Although he was joined for battle by several local chieftains, to avoid crossing the Channel in poor weather, Caesar feigned growing problems in Gaul, arranged a peace treaty with Cassivellaunus, and returned to the European mainland without leaving a garrison. While many Romans were enthusiastic about Caesar's excursion across the Channel, Caesar's worst enemy Cato was aghast. The Greek historian Strabo, a contemporary of the late Republic, said the only things of value were hunting dogs and slaves. More important to Caesar was the difficulties developing in Gaul, a failed harvest, and possible rebellion. The Romans would not return to Britain for another century.

With the death of Caesar and the civil war that followed, the Republic was no more, and the new empire's interest in Britannia intensified under both Emperors Augustus and Caligula as the Romanization of Gaul progressed. While Augustus's attentions were drawn elsewhere, Caligula and his army stared across the Channel towards the British Isles - the emperor only ordered his men to throw their javelins at the sea - there would be no invasion. The actual annexation fell to the most unlikely of emperors, Claudius (41 – 54 AD). In 43 CE, Emperor Claudius with an army of four legions and auxiliaries under the command of Aulus Plautius crossed the English Channel, landing at Richborough. They began the conquest of the island. Some believe the emperor's only goal was personal glory; years of humiliation under Caligula left him longing for recognition. Although he had only been there sixteen days, Claudius would take credit, of course, for the conquest with a glorious triumphant return to Rome in 44 AD.

The Romans brought the skills of reading and writing to Britain. The written word was important for spreading ideas and also for establishing power. As early as AD 80 the governor Agricola "trained the sons of chiefs in the liberal arts. The result was that the people who used to reject Latin began to use it in speech and writing. Further the wearing of our national dress came to be valued and the toga

[the Roman cloak] came into fashion. While the Celtic peasantry remained illiterate and only Celtic speaking, a number of town dwellers spoke Latin and Greek with ease, and the richer landowners in the country almost certainly used Latin. Latin completely disappeared both in its spoken and written forms when the Anglo-Saxons invaded.

The most obvious characteristic of Roman Britain was its towns, which were the basis of Roman administration and civilisation. Many grew out of Celtic settlements, military camps or market centres. Broadly, there were three different kinds of town in Roman Britain, two of which were towns established by Roman charter. These were the *coloniae*, towns peopled by Roman settlers, and the *municipia*, large cities in which the whole population was given Roman citizenship. The third kind, the *civitas*, included the old Celtic tribal capitals, through which the Romans administered the Celtic population in the countryside. At first these towns had no walls. Then, probably from the end of the second century to the end of the third century AD, almost every town was given walls. At first many of these were no more than earthworks, but by AD 300 all towns had thick stone walls.

The Romans left about twenty large towns of about 5,000 inhabitants, and almost one hundred smaller ones. Many of these towns were at first army camps, and the Latin word for camp, *castra*, has remained part of many town names to this day (with the ending *chester*, *caster* or *cesrer*): Gloucester, Leicester, Doncaster, Winchester, Chester, Lancaster and many others besides. These towns were built with stone as well as wood, and had planned streets, markets and shops. Some buildings had central heating. They were connected by roads which were so well built that they survived when later roads broke up. These roads continued to be used long after the Romans left, and became the main roads of modern Britain. Six of these Roman roads met in London, a capital city of about 20,000. Outside the towns, the biggest change during the Roman occupation was the growth of large farms, called "villas". These belonged to the rich Britons who were, like the townspeople, more Roman than Celt in their manners. Each villa had many

workers. The villas were usually close to towns so that the crops could be sold easily. There was a growing difference between the rich and those who did the actual work on the land. Most people still lived in the same kind of round huts and villages which the Celts had been living in four hundred years earlier when the Romans arrived. In some ways life in Roman Britain seems very civilised but it was also hard for all except the richest. The bodies buried in a Roman graveyard at York show that life expectancy was low. Half the entire population died between the ages of twenty and forty while 15 per cent died before reaching the age of twenty.

Test your knowledge:

1. The Celts built
 - a) boroughs b) hill forts c) henges
2. Hadrian's wall marked the border between
 - a) England and Wales b) England and Ireland c) England and Scotland d) England and France
3. The Romans occupied Britain in
 - a) 55 BC b) 43 AD c) 55 AD d) 43 BC
4. Towns peopled by Roman settlers were called ...
 - a) civitas b) coloniae c) municipia d) castras
5. Who was the leader of the Celtic tribe who rebelled against the Romans?
 - a) Victoria b) Elizabeth c) Boudica d) Mary
6. The Celtic tribes were ruled over by
 - a) druids c) rich landowners c) warriors d) earls
7. The Romans brought to Britain
 - a) the skills of reading and writing b) the skills of singing and dancing c) the skills of making iron weapon d) the skills of making pottery
8. The Romans left about
 - a) 20 large villages b) 20 large towns c) 1000 large towns d) 1000 large villages
9. Villas belonged to

- a) rich Celts b) rich Romans c) rich Britons d) poor farmers
10. Rome pulled its last soldiers out of Britain in
a) 400 AD b) 409 AD c) 405 AD d) 309 AD
11. Arrange the ancestors of the modern British in a chronological order:
a) Chalkland people; b) hunters, gatherers and fishers; c) The Celts d) Beaker people
12. Stonehenge was built by
a) Beaker people b) Chalkland people c) Vikings d) Angles

THE SAXON INVASION

In 449 the Jutes landed in Kent and this was the beginning of the conquest. The British natives fought fiercely against the in-vaders and it took more than a hundred and fifty years for the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes to conquer the country. Other Ger-manic tribes conquered the Roman provinces on the Continent without any se-rious resistance as the bulk of the population in the provinces occupied by the Romans welcomed the Ger-manic conquerors as their liberators. But the British Celts were free at the time and their resistance was often stubborn and pro-longed. In the South-East the Celts were soon overwhelmed, but in the western parts of the country they offered stout resistance for many years. Now and then the Celts won and the invaders were forced back.

As a result Britain held out longer than the other provinces of the Roman Empire. It was only by the beginning of the 7th century that the invaders managed to conquer the greater part of the land. The final refuge of the Celts was Cornwall and Wales — the mountainous districts of the West — and the northern part of the island (Scotland) where the Celts were still living in tribes and, later on, some independent states were formed.

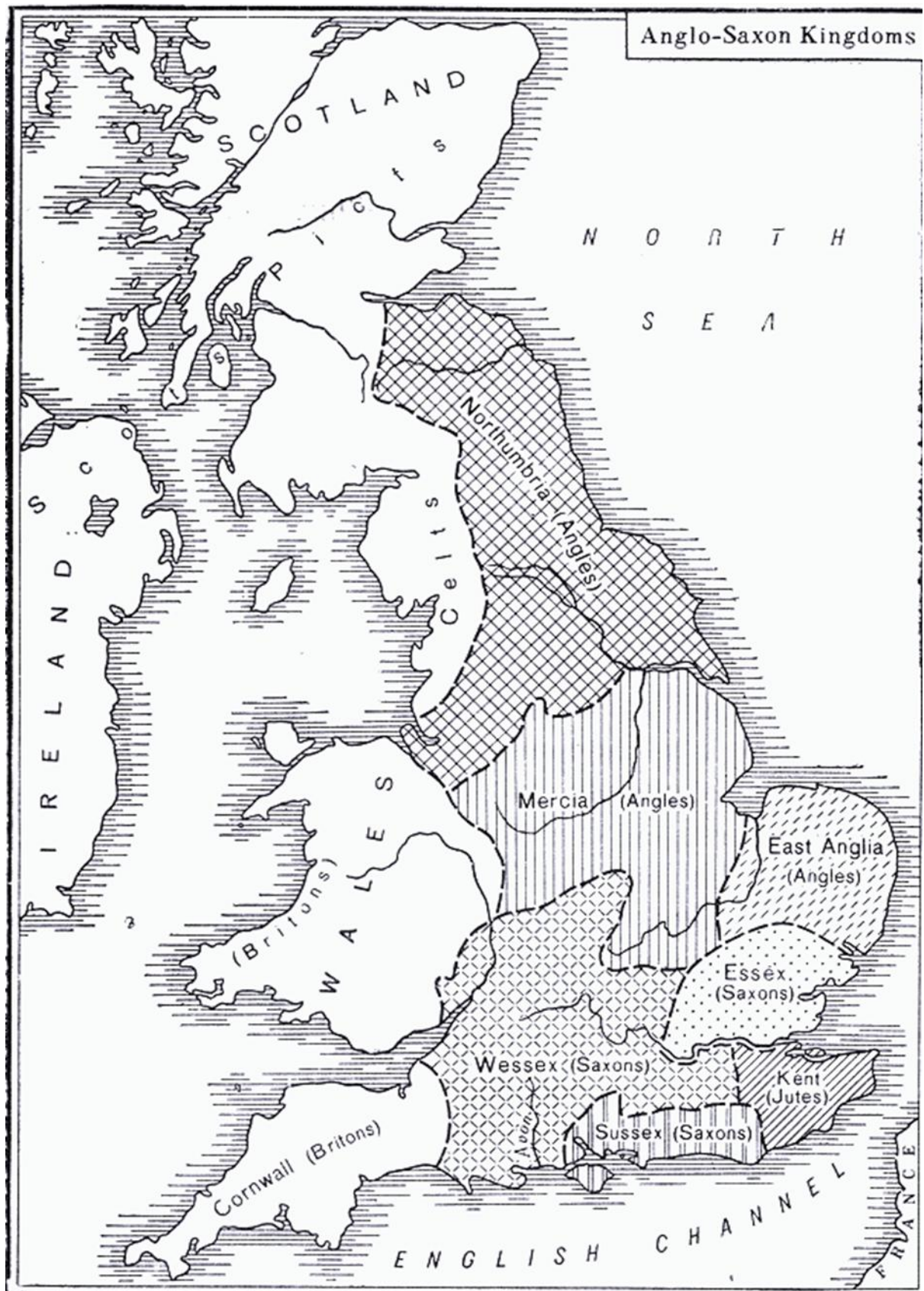
The Celts of Ireland remained independent too. In the course of the conquest many of the Celts were killed, some were taken prisoners and made slaves or had to pay tribute to the conquerors. Some of the Celts crossed the sea to the North-West of France and settled in what was later on called Brittany after the Celtic tribes of Britons. The new conquerors brought about changes altogether different from those that had followed the conquest of the country by the Romans. The new settlers disliked towns preferring to live in small villages. In the course of the conquest they destroyed the Roman towns and villas. All the beautiful buildings and baths and roads were so neglected that they soon fell in ruins. Sometimes the roads were broken up, the stones being used for building material. Thus the art of road-making was lost for many hundreds of years to come. The Jutes, the Saxons and the Angles were closely akin in speech and customs, and they gradually merged into one people. The name "Jute" soon died out and the conquerors are generally referred to as the Anglo-Saxons. As a result of the conquest the Anglo-Saxons made up the majority of the population in Britain and their customs, religion and languages became predominant.

The Saxons were a Germanic tribe that originally occupied the region which today is the North Sea coast of the Netherlands, Germany, and Denmark. Their name is derived from the "seax" - a type of sword or dagger typical of the Germanic tribes of the Migration period. One of the earliest historical records of this group, that we know of, comes from Roman writers dealing with the many troubles that affected the northern frontier of the Roman Empire during the second and third century CE. It is possible that under the "Saxons" label, these early Roman accounts also included other neighbouring Germanic groups in the regions such as the Angles, the Frisians, and the Jutes; all these groups spoke closely related West Germanic languages that in time would evolve into Old English.

The Angles were one of the main Germanic peoples who settled in Great Britain in the post-Roman period. They founded several of the kingdoms of Anglo-Saxon England, and their name is the root of the name England. The name comes

from the district of Angles, an area located on the Baltic shore of what is now Schleswig-Holstein.

The Jutes were one of the Germanic tribes who, with the Angles and Saxons, invaded Britain in the 5th century ad. The Jutes have no recorded history on the European continent, but there is considerable evidence that their home was in the Scandinavian area (probably Jutland) and that those who did not migrate were later absorbed by the Danes. According to the Venerable Bede, the Jutes settled in Kent, the Isle of Wight, and parts of Hampshire. In Kent their name soon died out, but there is considerable evidence in the social structure of that area that its settlers were of a different race from their neighbours. There is archaeological evidence to confirm Bede's statement that the Isle of Wight and Kent were settled by the same people, and their presence in Hampshire is confirmed by place-names.



Government and society

The Saxons created institutions which made the English state strong for the next 500 years. One of these institutions was the King's Council, called the Witan.

The Witan probably grew out of informal groups of senior warriors and churchmen to whom kings like Offa had turned for advice or support on difficult matters. By the tenth century the Witan was a formal body, issuing laws and charters. It was not at all democratic, and the king could decide to ignore the Witan's advice. But he knew that it might be dangerous to do so. For the Witan's authority was based on its right to choose kings, and to agree the use of the king's laws. Without its support the king's own authority was in danger.

The Witan established a system which remained an important part of the king's method of government. Even today, the king or queen has a *Privy Council*, a group of advisers on the affairs of state. The Saxons divided the land into new administrative areas, based on *shires* or counties. "Shire" is the Saxon word, "county" the Norman one, but both are still used. (In 1974 the counties were reorganised, but the new system is very like the old one) Over each shire was appointed a *shire reeve*, the king's local administrator. In time his name became shortened to "sheriff".

In each district was a "manor" or large house. This was a simple building where local villagers came to pay taxes, where justice was administered and where men met to join the Anglo-Saxon army, the *fyrð*. The lord of the manor had to organise all this and make sure village land was properly shared. It was the beginning of the manorial system which reached its fullest development under the Normans.

At first the lords, or aldermen were simply local officials. But by the beginning of the 11th century they were warlords and were often called by a new Danish name, earl. Both words, alderman and earl remain with us today: aldermen are elected officers in local government and earls are high ranking nobles. It was the beginning of a class system, made up of king, lords, soldiers and workers on the land. One other important class developed during the Saxon period the men of learning.

These came from the Christian Church.

The Vikings

The Viking raids on England started in the late 8th century. The attack on Lindisfarne monastery in 793 was a particularly dramatic and significant event, heralding the onset of frequent raids on coastal communities, with churches and monasteries being particularly targeted for their wealth. Sporadic raiding gradually turned to larger-scale assaults, as war-bands amalgamated, and these took on a more political aim. Over-wintering in defended camps, the control of extensive areas of land, and the extraction of “protection money” (the so-called Danegeld) became characteristic of Viking activity in England.

English resistance was uncoordinated and often ineffective. England was a region of several independent kingdoms - often at war with each other - and the lack of a unified political and military structure meant that Viking war-bands could roam the countryside with some impunity. Eventually, King Alfred of Wessex was able to confront the Viking “Great Army” at Edington, in 878, when his victory enabled him to establish terms for peace, though this did not put a complete stop to Viking activity which continued on and off for several more generations.

Alfred had to concede the northern and eastern counties to the Vikings, where their disbanded armies settled, created new settlements and merged with the local populations. Lincoln, Nottingham, Derby, Stamford and Leicester became important Viking towns within The Danelaw (or “Scandinavian England”), while York became the capital of the Viking Kingdom of York which extended more or less over what we call Yorkshire. These areas were gradually reconquered and brought back under English control by Alfred’s successors, but not before the Scandinavian influence had been locally imprinted to an extent which is still detectable today. After the Battle of Clontarf (1014) many of the Hiberno-Norse Vikings migrated to England and settled in the north-west, from the Wirral to the Lake District. In northern England, as a crude generalisation, the Pennine watershed represents the interface of the “Norwegian” and “Danish” Viking regions. The last major Viking battle took place at Stamford Bridge near York in 1066, but the threat of further Scandinavian invasion, with ambitions to conquer and rule, did not diminish until well after the Norman Conquest of 1066 and, in

fact, under Canute / Cnut (c.994-1035) the realm had a Danish monarch and was part of an Anglo-Scandinavian empire.

King Alfred: Alfred, also spelled Aelfred, byname Alfred The Great (born 849—died 899), king of Wessex (871–899), a Saxon kingdom in southwestern England. He prevented England from falling to the Danes and promoted learning and literacy. Compilation of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle began during his reign, c. 890. He probably received the education in military arts normal for a young man of rank. He first appeared on active service in 868, when he and his brother, King Aethelred (Ethelred) I, went to help Burgred of Mercia (the kingdom between the Thames and the Humber) against a great Danish army that had landed in East Anglia in 865 and taken possession of Northumbria in 867.

The Danes refused to give battle, and peace was made. In this year Alfred married Ealhswith, descended through her mother from Mercian kings. Late in 871, the Danes invaded Wessex, and Aethelred and Alfred fought several battles with them. Ethelred died in 871 and Alfred succeeded him. After an unsuccessful battle at Wilton he made peace. It was probably the quality of the West Saxon resistance that discouraged Danish attacks for five years. In 876 the Danes again advanced on Wessex: they retired in 877 having accomplished little, but a surprise attack in January 878 came near to success. The Danes established themselves at Chippenham, and the West Saxons submitted “except King Alfred.” He harassed the Danes from a fort in the Somerset marshes, and until seven weeks after Easter he secretly assembled an army, which defeated them at the Battle of Edington. They surrendered, and their king, Guthrum, was baptized, Alfred standing as sponsor; the following year they settled in East Anglia. Wessex was never again in such danger. Alfred had a respite from fighting until 885, when he repelled an invasion of Kent by a Danish army, supported by the East Anglian Danes. In 886 he took the offensive and captured London, a success that brought all the English not under Danish rule to accept him as king. The possession of London also made possible the reconquest of the Danish territories in his son’s reign, and Alfred may have been preparing for this, though he could make no further advance himself. He

had to meet a serious attack by a large Danish force from the European continent in 892, and it was not until 896 that it gave up the struggle. The failure of the Danes to make any more advances against Alfred was largely a result of the defensive measures he undertook during the war. Old forts were strengthened and new ones built at strategic sites, and arrangements were made for their continual manning. Alfred reorganized his army and used ships against the invaders as early as 875. Later he had larger ships built to his own design for use against the coastal raids that continued even after 896. Wise diplomacy also helped Alfred's defense. He maintained friendly relations with Mercia and Wales; Welsh rulers sought his support and supplied some troops for his army in 893. Alfred succeeded in government as well as at war. He was a wise administrator, organizing his finances and the service due from his thanes (noble followers). He scrutinized the administration of justice and took steps to ensure the protection of the weak from oppression by ignorant or corrupt judges. He promulgated an important code of laws, after studying the principles of lawgiving in the Book of Exodus and the codes of Aethelbert of Kent, Ine of Wessex (688–694), and Offa of Mercia (757–796), again with special attention to the protection of the weak and dependent. While avoiding unnecessary changes in custom, he limited the practice of the blood feud and imposed heavy penalties for breach of oath or pledge.

Cnut (Canute): by name Canute the Great, Danish Knut, or Knud, den Store, Norwegian Knut den Mektige (died Nov. 12, 1035), Danish king of England (1016–35), of Denmark (as Canute II; 1019–35), and of Norway (1028–35), who was a power in the politics of Europe in the 11th century, respected by both emperor and pope. Neither the place nor the date of his birth is known.

Canute was the grandson of the Polish ruler Mieszko I on his mother's side. As a youth he accompanied his father, Sweyn I Forkbeard, king of Denmark, on his invasion of England in 1013. Canute was left in charge of the fleet at Gainsborough, Lincolnshire, and it was probably then that he met Aelfgifu, daughter of an ealdorman (chief officer) of Northumbria who had been murdered with King Aethelred II's connivance in 1006; she bore him two sons, Sweyn and

Harold. Sweyn I Forkbeard was accepted as king of England by the end of 1013 but died in February 1014, and the English invited Aethelred to return. Canute and the men of Lindsey planned a combined expedition, but Canute deserted his allies at Easter and sailed to Denmark, putting his hostages, savagely mutilated, ashore at Sandwich. In 1015 he returned and began a long struggle with Aethelred's son Edmund II Ironside. Earl Uhtred of Northumbria submitted to Canute in 1016 and was murdered in his hall. After Aethelred died in April 1016, the English witan (council) elected Canute king at Southampton, but those councillors who were in London, with the citizens, elected Edmund. Canute won a victory at Ashingdon, Essex, on October 18, and the kingdom was then divided; but Edmund died on November 30, and Canute succeeded to the whole.

Canute's first actions were ruthless: he gave Englishmen's estates to his Danish followers as rewards; he engineered the death of Edmund's brother Eadwig; and he had some prominent Englishmen killed or outlawed. Edmund's infant sons, however, eventually reached an asylum in Hungary. Already in 1016, Canute had given the earldom of Northumbria to the Norwegian Viking Eric of Hlathir, and in 1017 he put the renowned Viking chief Thorkell the Tall over East Anglia. Yet Canute did not rule like a foreign conqueror for long: by 1018 Englishmen were holding earldoms in Wessex and Mercia. The Danish element in his entourage steadily decreased. Thorkell was outlawed in 1021, and, during the rest of the reign, of his three most influential advisers only one was a Dane. Canute paid off most of his fleet in 1018, and the Danes and the English reached an agreement at Oxford, one authority adding "according to Edgar's law." A draft of the treaty survives, written in the style of Archbishop Wulfstan of York, who later drew up Canute's laws, mainly based on previous legislation. It is likely that it was Wulfstan who aroused in the young Canute an ambition to emulate the best of his English predecessors, especially King Edgar. Canute proved an effective ruler who brought internal peace and prosperity to the land. He became a strong supporter and a generous donor to the church, and his journey to Rome was inspired by religious as well as diplomatic motives. He needed English support against

external dangers. King Aethelred's sons were in Normandy, and Canute married their mother, Emma, in 1017 to prevent her brother, Duke Richard II, from espousing their cause. English forces helped to secure Canute's position in Scandinavia in 1019, when he went to Denmark to obtain the throne on his brother's death; in 1023, when the outlawed Thorkell was causing trouble; and again in 1026 when his regent in Denmark, Ulf Jarl, the husband of his sister Estrid, joined the king of Norway and the king of Sweden in a coalition against Denmark.

Though Canute was defeated at the Battle of the Holy River, Sweden, terms were made. Scandinavian sources attribute to Canute the death of Ulf soon afterward. Canute fomented with bribes the unrest of Norwegian landowners against their king, Olaf II Haraldsson, and was able to drive him out in 1028. He put Norway in charge of Haakon, son of Eric of Hlathir, and, after Haakon's death, of his concubine Aelfgifu and their son Sweyn. Olaf attempted to return in 1030 but fell at Stiklestad. Aelfgifu and Sweyn became unpopular and fled to Denmark in 1035 before Canute's death.

Edward the Confessor: born 1002 / 05 — died Jan. 5, 1066, London; canonized 1161; feast day originally January 5, now October 13), king of England from 1042 to 1066. Although he is often portrayed as a listless, ineffectual monarch overshadowed by powerful nobles, Edward preserved much of the dignity of the crown and managed to keep the kingdom united during his reign of 24 years. His close ties to Normandy prepared the way for the conquest of England by the Normans under William, duke of Normandy (later King William I), in 1066. Edward was the son of King Ethelred II (reigned 978–1016) and Emma, daughter of Richard II, duke of Normandy.

When the Danes invaded England in 1013, the family escaped to Normandy; the following year Edward returned to England with the ambassadors who negotiated the pact that returned his father to power. After Ethelred's death in 1016 the Danes again took control of England. Edward lived in exile in Normandy until 1041, when he returned to the London court of his half brother (Emma was

their mother), King Hardecanute. Edward succeeded to the throne in 1042 and quickly seized the property of his mother, who had plotted against his accession. Nevertheless, for the first 11 years of his reign the real master of England was Godwine, earl of Wessex, though Edward preserved his right as king to appoint bishops. Edward married Godwine's daughter Edith in 1045, but by 1049 a breach had occurred between the two men. In 1051 Edward outlawed the Godwine family and dismissed Edith. During this period Edward rapidly lost popularity by giving foreigners—particularly Normans—high positions in his government.

Test your knowledge:

1. The Witan was created by
 - a) the Saxons
 - b) the Celts
 - c) the Romans
 - d) the Vikings
2. The Vikings invaded Britain in
 - a) 865
 - b) 856
 - c) 765
 - d) 756
3. The Jutes settled mainly in
 - a) Kent
 - b) Mercia
 - c) Wessex
 - d) East Anglia
4. The Vikings came from ...
 - a) Germany
 - b) Normandy
 - c) Norway and Denmark
 - d) Iberian peninsula
5. "Danegeld" means
 - a) Danish money
 - b) Danish king
 - c) Danish Vikings
 - d) Danish law
6. When Cnut and his son died the Witan chose ... to be king.
 - a) Offa
 - b) Ethelred
 - c) Harold
 - d) Edward
7. Aldermen were
 - a) local priest
 - b) local officials
 - c) foreign warriors
 - d) rich farmers
8. Edward lost his popularity because he
 - a) raised taxes
 - b) outlawed the Godwin family
 - c) gave Normans high positions in his government
 - d) seized the property of his mother
9. King Alfred succeeded
 - a) Cnut
 - b) Ethelred
 - c) Edward
 - d) Offa
10. The king's local administrator was called

a) fyrd b) shire reeve c) manor d) alderman

The Norman Conquest

In 1052 Godwine and his sons were able to gather large forces against the king. They compelled Edward to restore their lands and recall Edith as his wife, and they exiled many of his foreign favourites. Upon Godwine's death in 1053, his son Harold became the most powerful figure in the kingdom. It was Harold rather than Edward who subjugated Wales in 1063 and negotiated with the rebellious Northumbrians in 1065. Consequently, Edward on his deathbed named Harold as his successor, even though he allegedly had already promised the crown to William, duke of Normandy. (Edward had exploited his lack of an heir as a diplomatic tool by promising the succession to various parties.) Indeed, according to Norman accounts, Edward sent Harold to Normandy in 1064 to confirm his promise to William. While en route, Harold was captured by one of William's vassals and may have been ransomed by the duke, who then took Harold on a military campaign in Brittany. Harold swore an oath to William that he would defend William's claim to the English throne. The violation of the alleged oath was one of the justifications used in support of the Norman invasion of England.

Harold was killed at the Battle of Hastings in Sussex in October 1066, and two months later William ascended the throne. In the years following Edward's death, his reputation for piety grew, in part as a result of the political needs of his successors. In the late 11th and the early 12th century, Edward's childless marriage came to be understood as the consequence of his devotion to virginity and the chaste life. He was praised for issuing prophecies, and a number of miracles were attributed to him. In the 1130s Osbert of Clare, a monk at Westminster Abbey, where Edward had built a new church, wrote the saint's life the *Vita beati Eadwardi regis Anglorum* ("Life of the Blessed Edward, King of the English"). In 1161 Pope Alexander III, during his struggle with Frederick Barbarossa and the antipope Victor IV, was recognized as the legitimate pope by England's King Henry II in exchange for canonizing Edward, and in 1163 the translation of

Edward's relics was attended by secular and political leaders of the kingdom. In the later Middle Ages Edward was a favourite saint of English kings such as Henry III and Richard II.

William the Conqueror's coronation did not go as planned. When the people shouted "God Save the King" the nervous Norman guards at Westminster Abbey thought they were going to attack William. In their fear they set fire to nearby houses and the coronation ceremony ended in disorder.

Although William was now crowned king, his conquest had only just begun. and the fighting lasted for another five years. There was an Anglo-Saxon rebellion against the Normans every year until 1070.

Few Saxon lords kept their lands and those who did were the very small number who had accepted William. All the others lost everything. By 1086 twenty years after the arrival of the Normans, only two of the greater landlords and only two bishops were Saxon, William gave the Saxon lands to his Norman nobles.

FEUDALISM. MAGNA CARTA.

Feudalism

William organised his English kingdom according to the feudal system which had already begun to develop in England before his arrival. The word "feudalism" comes from the French word "feu", which the Normans used to refer to land held in return for duty or service to a lord. The basis of feudal society was the holding of land, and its main purpose was economic. The central idea was that all land was owned by the king but it was held by others called "vassals", in return for services and goods. The king gave large estates to his main nobles in return for a promise to serve him in war for up to forty days.

The nobles also had to give him part of the produce of the land. The greater nobles gave part of their lands to lesser nobles, knights and other "freemen". Some

freemen paid for the land by doing military service while others paid rent. The noble kept “serfs” to work on his own land. These were not free to leave the estate, and were often little better than slaves.

There were two basic principles to feudalism: every man had a lord and every lord had land. The king was connected through this “chain” of people to the lowest man in the country. At each level a man had to promise loyalty and service to his lord. This promise was usually made with the lord sitting on his chair and his vassal kneeling before him, his hands placed between those of his lord. This was called “homage”, and has remained part of the coronation ceremony of British kings and queens until now. On the other hand, each lord had responsibilities to his vassals. He had to give them land and protection.

When a noble died his son usually took over his estate. But first he had to receive permission from the king and make a special payment. If he was still a child the king would often take the produce of the estate until the boy was old enough to look after the estate himself. In this way the king could benefit from the death of a noble. If all the noble's family died the land went back to the king, who would be expected to give it to another deserving noble. But the king often kept the land for some years, using its wealth before giving it to another noble. If the king did not give the nobles land they would not fight for him.

Between 1066 and the mid fourteenth century there were only thirty years of complete peace . So feudal duties were extremely important. The king had to make sure he had enough satisfied nobles who would be willing to fight for him. William gave out land all over England to his nobles. By 1086 he wanted to know exactly who owned which piece of land and how much it was worth. He needed this information so that he could plan his economy, find out how much was produced and how much he could ask in tax. He sent a team of people all through England to make a complete economic survey. His men asked all kinds of questions at each settlement: how much land was there? Who owned it? How much was it worth? How many families, ploughs and sheep were there? And so on. This survey was

the only one of its kind in Europe. Not surprisingly, it was most unpopular with the people, because they felt they could not escape from its findings. It so reminded them of the paintings of the Day of Judgement, or “doom” on the walls of their churches that they called it the “Domesday” Book. The name stuck. The Domesday Book still exists, and gives us an extraordinary amount of information about England at this time.

When William died, in 1087, he left the Duchy of Normandy to his elder son, Robert Curthose (“Curthose” derives from the Norman French “Courtheuse”, was apparently acquired when his father teased him as a child for having short legs). He gave England to his favourite second son, William, known as “Rufus” (Latin for red) because of his red hair and red face. And to the youngest, Henry Beauclerc (good scholar), he left only a large sum of money.

When Robert went to fight the Muslims in the Holy Land, he left William (Rufus) in charge of Normandy. William Rufus died in a hunting accident in 1100, shot dead by an arrow. He had not married, and therefore had no son to take the crown. At the time of William’s death, Robert was on his way home to Normandy from the Holy Land. Their younger brother, Henry knew that if he wanted the English crown he would have to act very quickly. He had been with William at the time of the accident. He took charge of the king's treasury. He then rode to Westminster, where he was crowned king three days later. Robert was very angry and prepared to invade. It took him a year to organise an army.

The Norman nobles in England had to choose between Henry and Robert. In the end they chose Henry because he was in London, with the crown already on his head. Robert’s invasion was a failure and he accepted payment to return to Normandy. But Henry wanted more. In 1106 Henry invaded Normandy and captured Robert. Normandy and England were reunited under one ruler. Henry I spent the rest of his life fighting to keep Normandy from other French nobles who tried to take it.

In 1120 Henry’s only son was drowned at sea. During the next fifteen years Henry hoped for another son but finally accepted that his daughter, Matilda,

would follow him. Henry had married Marilda to another great noble in France, Geoffrey

Plantagenet, Geoffrey was heir to Anjou, a large and important area southwest of Normandy. Henry made all the nobles promise to accept Matilda when he died. But then Henry himself quarreled publicly with Marilda's husband, and died soon after. This left the succession in question. Stephen of Blois, Henry I's nephew, claimed the crown. Most of the nobles chose Stephen. Only a few nobles supported Matilda. She invaded England four years later. Her fight with Stephen led to a terrible civil war in which villages were destroyed and many people were killed.

In 1153 Matilda and Stephen agreed that Stephen could keep the throne but only if Marilda's son, Henry, could succeed him. Stephen kept the promise.

Henry II, the first of the great Plantagenet dynasty, was the first unquestioned ruler of the English throne for a hundred years. He destroyed the castles which many nobles had built without royal permission and made sure that they lived in manor houses that were undefended. The manor again became the centre of local life and administration.

Henry quarreled with his beautiful and powerful wife, Eleanor of Aquitaine, and his sons, Richard and John, took Eleanor's side. It may seem surprising that Richard and John fought against their own father. But in fact they were doing their duty to the king of France, their feudal overlord, in payment for the lands they held from him.

In 1189 Henry died a broken man, disappointed and defeated by his sons and by the French king. Henry was followed by his rebellious son, Richard. Richard I, the Lionheart, has always been one of England's most popular kings, although he spent hardly any time in England. He was brave, and a good soldier, and his nickname "lionheart" proves this. He went to the Holy Land to make war on the Muslims and he fought with skill, courage and honour. On his way back from the Holy Land Richard was captured by the duke of Austria, with whom he had quarreled in Jerusalem. The duke demanded money before he would let him go, and it took two years for England to pay. Shortly after, in 1199, Richard was

killed in France. He had spent no more than four or five years in the country of which he was a king. Richard had no son, and he was followed by his brother, John.

Magna Carta

A born cynic, with a puckish sense of humour, treacherous and entirely without scruple, he was possessed of some of the restless energy of his father and was prone to the same violent rages but unlike his father, John was unstable, and cruel, and very greedy. His deep distrust of others sometimes verged on paranoia.

John made himself unpopular with the three most important groups of people, the nobles, the merchants and the Church. John was unpopular mainly because he was greedy. The feudal lords in England had always run their own law courts and profited from the fines paid by those brought to court. But John took many cases out of their courts and tried them in the king's courts, taking the money for himself.

It was normal for a feudal lord to make a payment to the king when his daughter was married, but John asked for more than was the custom. In the same way, when a noble died, his son had to pay money before he could inherit his father's land. In order to enlarge his own income, John increased the amount they had to pay. In other cases when a noble died without a son, it was normal for the land to be passed onto another noble family. John kept the land for a long time, to benefit from its wealth.

He did the same with the bishoprics. As for the merchants and towns, he taxed them at a higher level than ever before.

In 1204 King John became even more unpopular with his nobles. The French king invaded Normandy and the English nobles lost their lands there. John had failed to carry out his duty to them as duke of Normandy. He had taken their money but he had not protected their land.

In 1215 John hoped to recapture Normandy. He called on his lords to fight for him, but they no longer trusted him. They marched to London, where they were joined by angry merchants. Outside London at Runnymede, on the River Thames

near Windsor in the south of England, a few miles up the river. John was forced to sign a new agreement. This new agreement was known as “Magna Carta”, the Great Charter, and was an important symbol of political freedom. The king promised all “freemen” protection from his officers, and the right to a fair and legal trial. At the time perhaps less than one quarter of the English were “freemen”. Most were not free, and were serfs or little better. Hundreds of years later, Magna Carta was used by Parliament to protect itself from a powerful king. In fact Magna Carta gave no real freedom to the majority of people in England. The nobles who wrote it and forced King John to sign it had no such thing in mind. They had one main aim: to make sure John did not go beyond his rights as feudal lord.

Magna Carta marks a clear stage in the collapse of English feudalism. Feudal society was based on links between lord and vassal. At Runnymede the nobles were not acting as vassals but as a class. They established a committee of twenty-four lords to make sure John kept his promises. That was not a “feudal” thing to do. In addition, the nobles were acting in co-operation with the merchant class of towns.

The nobles did not allow John's successors to forget this charter and its promises. Every king recognized Magna Carta, until the Middle Ages ended in disorder and a new kind of monarchy came into being in the sixteenth century.

It is not certain how many copies of the 1215 Magna Carta were originally issued, but four copies still survive: one in Lincoln Cathedral; one in Salisbury Cathedral; and two at the British Library.

Test your knowledge:

1 . What did the people shout during the coronation of William the Conqueror ?

- a) “God Save the King”
- b) “God Save the Queen”
- c) “God Save the Nobles”

d) “God Save the People”

2. How long had William been fighting against Anglo-Saxons?

- a) another three years
- b) another twenty years
- c) another five years
- d) last ten years

3. Whom did William give out the land to?

- a) to serfs
- b) to the king of France
- c) to nobles
- d) to himself

4. How many days did the noblemen have to serve the king?

- a) 10
- b) 20
- c) 60
- d) 40

5. What were the duties of the king in relation to his vassals?

- a) to give them the land and protection
- b) to give them the land
- c) to protect them
- d) to love them

6. When the noble died his land ...

- a) went back to the king
- b) went to the wife
- c) went to the neighbor
- d) went to his son

7. What territories did William control?

- a) Normandy and England
- b) England and Germany
- c) Scotland and England
- d) Normandy and Scotland

8. How did William II die?

- a) in a dream
- b) of plague
- c) in a hunting accident
- d) in the battle

9. When did Henry I capture Normandy ?

- a) 1103
- b) 1106
- c) 1110
- d) 1107

10. When did John the Lackland sign a new agreement “Magna Carta”?

- a) 1217
- b) 1210
- c) 1213
- d) 1215

War with Scotland and France

As the grandson and nephew of the last French Capetian kings, Edward considered himself to be a far nearer relative than a cousin. He quartered the lilies of France with the lions of England in his coat-of-arms and formally claimed the French throne through right of his mother. By doing so Edward began what later came to be known as the Hundred Years War. The conflict was to last for 116 years from 1337 to 1453.

The wars of roses

The Wars of the Roses were a series of dynastic wars fought between supporters of two rival branches of the House of Plantagenet, the houses of Lancaster, whose emblem was the red rose and the House of York whose badge was the white rose.

First Battle of St. Albans. 22 May, 1459. As the result of a long standing power struggle involving Richard, Duke of York and Margaret of Anjou, wife of the Lancastrian King Henry VI, banners were unfurled at St. Albans in the first battle in the civil war which was later to be termed the Wars of the Roses. The opposing armies clashed at the town of St Albans. The Yorkists made two frontal assaults down the town's narrow streets against Lancastrian barricades, to no

effect. The Earl of Warwick lead his troops through back lanes and gardens, to launch a surprise attack on Lancastrian troops in the Market Square. The Lancastrians were routed. Warwick then issued orders to shoot those guarding the king, Henry seems at this point in the battle to have been wounded by an arrow. The Lancastrians troops stationed at the barricades realised they were outflanked and fled. Henry VI was captured and escorted back to London by the victorious Yorkists. The leading Lancastrian Dukes of Somerset and Northumberland along with Lord Clifford were killed.

Northhampton. 10 July, 1460. Margaret of Anjou, fiercely defensive of the rights of her son, Edward of Lancaster, the Prince of Wales, remained utterly determined to crush the Yorkist claim to the throne. She gathered an army to advance her son's cause and York, Salisbury and Warwick were forced into flight before her. In response the Duke of York marched his forces from his base at Ludlow, but was intercepted by a Lancastrian army lead by Lord Audley. Attempts at negotiation between Warwick and the Lancastrians proved fruitless as Henry refused to admit Warwick to his presence. The ensuing battle outside the walls of Northampton proved a significant Yorkist victory, the Duke of Buckingham, the Earl of Shrewsbury and Lords Egremont and Beaumont were all killed whilst attempting to protect the king from the Yorkists closing on his tent. Henry was again captured and Margaret and her son were forced to flee.

Wakefield. 30 December, 1460. The resolute Margaret of Anjou responded to this victory by raising a further army. York and his brother-in-law and ally Richard Neville, Earl of Salisbury advanced to meet the Queen. They defeated a Lancastrian advance guard lead by Andrew Trollope and arrived at Sandal castle in Yorkshire where they planned to spend Christmas. A large force of around 6,000, lead by the Duke of Somerset and Lord Clifford surrounded the castle. York impulsively lead his army down from the castle and into a trap. Two large forces of the Lancastrian army, commanded by the Earl of Wiltshire and Lord Roos, emerged from nearby woods and the jaws of the trap snapped shut on the Yorkist

leader. The Duke of York was killed in the ensuing slaughter. His son the Earl of Rutland was killed whilst in the course of escape, Salisbury was captured and executed. Their severed heads were displayed at York, that of York himself decorated in derision with a paper crown.

The Battle of Mortimer's Cross. 2 February, 1461. York's eldest son, Edward, Earl of March, took up the position of leader of the Yorkist cause. An efficient general, he presented as a formidable opponent to Margaret. Edward IV joined forces with the dead Salisbury's son, Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, in London, determined to avenge his father's death. Edward marched into Hereford to engage the Lancastrian lords, Jasper Tudor and the Earl of Wiltshire, who were routed at Mortimer's Cross. Prior to the battle a complete parhelion appeared in the sky, from which phenomena it is believed, Edward adopted his badge of the Sun in Splendour. Jasper's father, Owen Tudor, was captured and beheaded after the battle.

Second Battle of St. Albans. 17 February, 1461. A large Lancastrian army proceeded towards London, who were met by the Earl of Warwick, with the king in his train at the town of St. Albans on Barnard's Heath. Elaborate defences of caltraps, spiked nets and various traps were set up in anticipation of the arrival of the Lancastrian army. However, the attack did not materialise as Warwick had envisaged. The Lancastrian vanguard entered St Albans from the direction of Dunstable and pursued the Yorkist rearguard in retreat from the town. The main body of the Yorkist army was then attacked from the flank and the rear. Warwick marched west to join forces with the approaching Yorkist army under Edward, leaving London undefended. Terrified by tales of Lancastrian pillaging and looting, the citizens of London refused to open the gates, forcing the Lancastrians to withdraw north to Yorkshire.

Battle of Towton. Palm Sunday, 29 March, 1461. The Battle of Towton, a bitter blood bath was fought in a fierce snowstorm on a plateau between the villages of Towton and Saxton in Yorkshire. Both sides had amassed sizeable

armies of around 50,000 each. Edward led the Yorkist centre, Warwick the right and Fauconberg the left. The Lancastrian army was led by the Duke of Somerset, who controlled the centre, the Earl of Northumberland commanding the right and the Duke of Exeter the left. The Lancastrian army occupied a good strategic position at the summit of the plateau. The Yorkist archers, greatly aided by the wind direction, were able to shoot much further than their Lancastrian counterparts. Finally the Lancastrians charged their opponents and ferocious hand to hand fighting ensued. Edward himself fought on foot. The Duke of Norfolk arrived on the scene with reinforcements ensuring a Yorkist victory. The routed Lancastrians fled, Some of the worst slaughter took place at the aptly named Bloody Meadow, where it was reported men crossed the River Cock over the bodies of their fallen comrades. The dead littered the fields all the way from Towton to Tadcaster. At Tadcaster some Lancastrian troops made a stand but were slaughtered. The rout lasted throughout the night and into the morning. Towton proved to be the largest and bloodiest battle ever fought on English soil, with casualties reported to have been in excess of 28,000. Henry VI, Margaret of Anjou, and the Lancastrian Prince of Wales fled north to seek refuge in Scotland. The triumphant Earl of March was accepted as king and crowned as Edward IV at Westminster Abbey on 28 June, 1461.

Battle of Hexham. 14 May, 1464. On his return from the Scottish border, Montague again met the Lancastrians forces at Hexham, which resulted in a further Yorkist victory. Many Lancastrian leaders were executed after the battle, severely limiting their effectiveness as a rival party for the crown.

Battle of Edgecote Moor. 26 July, 1469. King Edward IV's unpopular marriage to the greedy and grasping Elizabeth Woodville eventually succeeded in alienating Warwick and his brother George Plantagenet, Duke of Clarence. In 1469 in response to an uprising in Yorkshire Edward gathered an army and marched north, he was intercepted and defeated on the journey by a Lancastrian force. Warwick and Clarence had already landed in England from Calais to join the

rebels under 'Robin of Redesdale'. Edward was captured and 'the Kingmaker' Warwick assumed control of the country, albeit in his name.

Battle of Losecote Field. 12 March, 1470. Under the ruse of putting down an uprising, Edward IV raised an army in 1470 and attacked Warwick's forces at Empingham. Victory went to the royal forces. The battle acquired its name of 'Losecoat Field' due to the haste in which the rebels shed their coats in flight. Warwick and Clarence fled to France, where they were encouraged by Louis XI to form an alliance with the exiled Margaret of Anjou, Warwick married his younger daughter, Anne Neville, to Margaret's son, the Lancastrian Prince of Wales.

The Battle of Barnet. 14 April, 1471. Warwick, returning from France, joined forces with his allies Montague, the Duke of Exeter and the Earl of Oxford at Coventry and marched toward London. Edward awaited them just north of the town of Barnet. A thick mist descended prior to the battle, obscuring sight of the enemy, resulting in both army's being incorrectly aligned, with their right wings were overlapping. The royal army duly advanced, the right wing outflanking Warwick's left. The same situation arose with the royal left wing, which was similarly outflanked and routed by Warwick's right, commanded by the Earl of Oxford, an excellent general. The King managed to deploy his reserve and attacked Warwick in the centre. Oxford, who had been engaged in the pursuit of the fleeing Yorkists, returned to the battle, due to the thick mist, Montague's men mistook Oxford's banner for the Yorkist sun in splendour and opened fire on them. Oxford's contingent fled and the rebels were routed. The mighty Warwick was killed fleeing the battlefield in an attempt to reach his horse.

Tewkesbury. 4 May, 1471. Margaret of Anjou and her son, Edward, Prince of Wales, landed from France on the eve of the Battle of Barnet to hear the disquieting news of the Yorkist victory at Barnet and her ally, Warwick's death. Edward pursued them as they marched to Wales to join forces with the staunch Lancastrian, Jasper Tudor, Earl of Pembroke and caught up with them at Tewkesbury, in Gloucestershire. The Prince of Wales and Lord Wenlock led the

Lancastrian centre and the Earl of Devon, the left. Margaret retired to a nearby convent, to await the outcome of the battle. Edward IV himself commanded the centre of the Yorkist army, his youngest brother, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, the left and William, Lord Hastings the right. Edward attacked at dawn, following an exchange of artillery fire, the Yorkists advanced at which Somerset attacked the flank of the Yorkist left. The Yorkist's responded by attacking Somerset's flank. Somerset himself attacked and slew the aged Wenlock, whom he frenziedly accused of not supporting him. The remainder of the Lancastrians panicked and fled, pursued into Tewkesbury by the exultant Yorkists. The Prince of Wales was either killed fleeing the battle or shortly thereafter. Lancastrians who sought sanctuary in Tewkesbury Abbey were dragged out and executed. The Lancastrian cause was now utterly decimated, Margaret, crushed at last by the death of her son, was taken prisoner and imprisoned in the Tower of London.

Bosworth. 22 August, 1485. On the death of Edward IV, his young sons, Edward V and Richard, Duke of York. were imprisoned in the Tower of London, after which they were never again seen alive, and the throne was taken by his brother, who became Richard III. His right was challenged by Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who claimed to be the heir of Lancaster. Henry landed at Milford Haven in Wales on August 7, 1485 and Richard III advanced to meet him. The two armies eventually faced each other south of the village of Market Bosworth in Leicestershire. The ranks of the Yorkist army were infiltrated with treason. Lord Thomas Stanley and his brother Sir William who positioned their armies to the sides of the battle and their timely intervention ensured a victory for Henry Tudor, who succeeded to the throne as Henry VII. Richard III was killed in battle, having refused to flee. Henry later married Edward IV's eldest daughter, Elizabeth of York. Click for a fuller account of the battle.

The Battle of Stoke. 16 June, 1487. An imposter arose to challenge the newly established Tudor regime in 1487. Lambert Simnel, who posed as Edward, Earl of Warwick along with his die-hard Yorkist supporters, including John de la

Pole Earl of Lincoln, Richard III's appointed heir, he planned an invasion of England. They were met by Henry VII's forces under the Earl of Oxford at East Stoke. Initially the rebel army seemed to be gaining the upper hand, but after the arrival on the battlefield of Lancastrian reinforcements, they were eventually routed and Henry VII triumphant.

THE TUDORS. REFORMATION.

The Tudors.

The century of Tudor rule (1485-1603) is often thought of as a most glorious period in English history. Henry VII built the foundations of a wealthy nation state and a powerful monarchy. His son, Henry VIII, kept a magnificent court, and made the Church in England truly English by breaking away from the Roman Catholic Church. Finally, his daughter Elizabeth brought glory to the new state by defeating the powerful navy of Spain, the greatest European power of the time. During the Tudor age England experienced one of the greatest artistic periods in its history.



HENRY VII

- avoided quarrels with Scotland and with France;
- made an important agreement with the Netherlands which allowed English trade to grow again;
- forbade anyone to keep armed men;
- encouraged the use of heavy fines as punishment because this gave money to the Crown.



HENRY VIII (the BLUE BEARD)

- broke with Rome (through several acts of Parliament England became politically a Protestant country). Establishing the Church of England in 1534 and the Act of Supremacy (King Henry VIII of England and subsequent monarchs - the supreme head of the Church of England);
- The English navy increased under Henry VIII from just 5 ships at the beginning of his reign to about 60 ships (Father of the English navy);
- Henry VIII decreased the power of the nobles and increased the power of Parliament and the monarchy;
- The Union of England and Wales which was legally accomplished by Parliament in 1536 and 1543.

The Act of Supremacy, passed in 1534, established King Henry VIII as the Supreme Head of the English Church. The Reformation Parliament of 1529-1536 approved the king's break with the see of Rome, as well as Henry's divorce and remarriage. In 1539 it was ordered that an English translation of the Bible be placed in every parish church in England. The aged Bishop Fisher refused to subscribe to the Act of Supremacy, and hailed as a Catholic martyr, he received the support of the Pope, who promised to make him a Cardinal in reward for his heroic stand for the rights of the Church against the formidable monarch's wishes. Enraged and ruthless when opposed, Henry vowed that if a hat arrived to make him a cardinal, the Pope would find Fisher had no head on which to wear it. The Bishop stood bravely by his principles.

On 17th June, 1535, he was found guilty of treason and sentenced to death. Sir Thomas More, Henry's Lord Chancellor and the author of *Utopia*, also refused to acknowledge the Act of Supremacy. Despite the pleadings of his family, he could not bring himself, in good conscience to subscribe to the Act. After a harsh term of imprisonment in the Tower, he was informed on the morning of 1st July, 1535, that he was to die later that day. More conducted himself with great courage and walked calmly

to his execution wearing a coarse garment and holding a red cross. Thomas asked the Lord Lieutenant for help to mount the steps of the scaffold and joked "but as for my coming down again, let me shift for myself." Before laying his head on the block More loudly declared "I die the king's good servant, but God's first." His head joined that of Fisher on a pike on London Bridge, but was removed under cover of darkness by sympathizers.



Thomas Cromwell - (born c. 1485, Putney, near London—died July 28, 1540, probably London), principal adviser (1532–40) to England's Henry VIII, chiefly responsible for establishing the Reformation in England, for the dissolution of the monasteries, and for strengthening the royal administration. At the instigation of his enemies, he was eventually arrested for heresy and treason and executed. Cromwell's part in the English Reformation has been much debated. At one time he was credited with supplying Henry with a complete plan of action as early as 1529; later it became usual to see in him nothing but the king's most competent executive agent. The truth seems to be that he was in no way in charge until early in 1532, taking over when the king's policy of forcing the pope to come to terms had proved to be a failure. It was, to all appearances, Cromwell who then came forward with a clear notion of how to achieve Henry's purpose without the pope. His policy consisted in making a reality of some large and vague claims to supreme power that Henry had uttered at intervals. He proposed to destroy Rome's

power in England and to replace it by the royal supremacy in the church. He was behind the first attacks on the papacy (1532) and the act against the payment by bishops of their first year's revenue to Rome. He secured the submission of the clergy to the king in matters of legislation, and in 1533 he secured the passage of the Act in Restraint of Appeals to Rome, preventing appeals to Rome in matrimonial and testamentary cases. Its preamble embodied his political theory of the sovereign national state. Thereafter he was in complete control of the government, though he remained careful to pretend to be acting on the king's authority. In 1534 he completed the erection of the royal supremacy with the passage of the Act of Supremacy. In 1536, as a newly created baron, Cromwell was also appointed the king's deputy as head of the church. Cromwell's own religious views have been in much doubt. They certainly were not very strong, and his essentially secular temper subordinated religious to political considerations. Nevertheless, he came to be firmly associated with a radical policy of reform and Reformation. In the main, this resulted from difficulties abroad. While hostility between France and Spain had prevented foreign intervention during the critical years of the Reformation, 1533–36, there seemed a danger of an alliance against England after that date. Cromwell, whose forthright and clear-sighted temper was less well suited to the conduct of foreign affairs than was Henry VIII's skillful opportunism, involved himself in projects of a Lutheran alliance distasteful to the king, who wished to stand on Catholic orthodoxy. In 1539 Cromwell made the mistake of trying to force the king to his side by compelling him to marry Anne of Cleves. The king from the start hated his fourth wife, and by February 1540 it was clear that the alliance with the German princes that she represented was unnecessary. Thereafter, Cromwell's fall came quickly. He fought back for a few months, being created earl of Essex and lord great chamberlain in April 1540, but early in June his enemies persuaded Henry that his vicegerent was a heretic and a traitor. He was arrested on June 10, condemned without a hearing, and executed on July 28. His fall did not end the Reformation, but it marked the end of competent government and purposeful policy in Henry's reign.



BLOODY MARY

- Remembered for burning nearly 300 Protestant men, women and children during her reign;
- restored the navy, established new hospitals, improved the education of the clergy and increased the authority of local government;
- in 1557, England was dragged into a war with Spain against France. This was a disastrous campaign for Mary's troops and England officially lost possession of Calais in January 1558, which was its last stakehold in France.



ELIZABETH I

- defeated the Spanish Armada (1588);
- turned England into a strong and dominant naval power.
- turned the Scots into a permanent ally;
- increased literacy in England. The promotion of the Arts: her love of arts led to theatres being built and great poets and playwrights like Shakespeare, Spenser and Marlow emerging;
- expanded England overseas – Elizabeth I encouraged explorers like Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Francis Drake, Sir John Hawkins and others, to discover new places and form colonies.
- helped the poor: her Poor Laws gave support to those in poverty.

The Poor Law - 1563 Act

Different types of poor people were categorised in order to determine the treatment that they might receive as follows:

- The “Deserving Poor” - the old the young and the sick who should receive help. These poor people were provided with “Outdoor Relief” in the form of clothes, food or money;
- The “Deserving Unemployed” - those willing and able to work but unable to find employment. These poor people were provided with 'Indoor Relief' in the form of being cared for in almshouses, orphanages and workhouses;
- The sick were cared for in hospitals;
- Apprenticeships were arranged for the young;
- The “Undeserving Poor” - those who turned to a life of crime or became beggars. The dishonest men in these categories were criminals who turned to various forms of theft. The beggars in these categories were referred to as “Idle Beggars” but many have since been referred to as “Poor Beggars”. The punishments for these categories were extremely harsh.

Test your knowledge:

1. Who made an important trade agreement with Netherlands in 1485?
 - a) Henry VII
 - b) Elizabeth I
 - c) Charles V
 - d) Catherine of Aragon
2. What did Henry VII consider to be the basis of wealth for England?
 - a) wars
 - b) international politics
 - c) shipbuilding
 - d) international trade
3. This king was cruel, wasteful with money and interested in pleasing himself.
 - a) Edward VI

- b) Henry VIII
- c) Henry VII
- d) Elizabeth I

4. Why did Henry VIII dislike the Church of England?

- a) because The Pope didn't allow him to divorce
- b) he didn't believe in God
- c) he couldn't completely control it
- d) because of personal believes

5. Henry VIII married...

- a) three times
- b) six times
- c) four times
- d) was single

6. After Henry's death the crown was succeeded by

- a) Edward VI
- b) Henry IX
- c) Elizabeth I
- d) Elizabeth II

7. Edward VI died in the age of...

- a) 16
- b) 25
- c) 51
- d) 21

8. The queen Mary was

- a) a foreign invader
- b) cousin of Edward VI
- c) sister of Henry VIII
- d) daughter of Henry and Catherine

9. When Mary died the throne was passed to...

- a) James IV
- b) Elizabeth I
- c) Henry IX
- d) Elizabeth II

10. What did Elizabeth I do with her half-sister Mary?

- a) put in prison
- b) named as a throne successor
- c) proclaimed her an authorized representative of Her Majesty the Queen
- d) executed

Seminar # 1

The United Kingdom of GB and Northern Ireland: geography, climate, population

1. The geographical position of the British Isles, territory and administrative structure.
2. Surrounding seas and coastline.
3. Rivers and lakes.
4. The population of GB.

Seminar # 2

The national emblems of GB. Union Jack. The Royal Coat of Arms.

1. The national emblems of England.
2. Union Jack.
3. The Royal Coat of Arms.
4. The national emblems of Wales.
5. The national emblems of Scotland.
6. The national emblems of Northern Ireland.

Seminar # 3

The regions of England and their dialects

1. Northern dialects: Liverpool English (Scouse), Mancunian dialect, Cheshire dialect.
2. East Midlands English.
3. West Midlands dialects: Black country dialect (Dudley, Walsall, Sandwell), Brummie.
4. East Anglian English: Norfolk dialect, Suffolk dialect, Essex dialect.

5. West country English: Anglo-Cornish, Bristolian.

Cockney dialect. Estuary English. Yorkshire, Lancashire and their dialects.

1. Cockney dialect, its origin, linguistic peculiarities. Rhymed Cockney. The famous Brits who speak Cockney.
2. Estuary English and its linguistic peculiarities.
3. The county of Yorkshire and its dialect (the origin, peculiarities, its role in the British culture).
4. The county of Lancashire and its dialect (the origin, peculiarities, its role in the British culture, Lancastrian humour).

Seminar # 4

Scotland and its cultural relia. The Scots language and its dialects.

1. Highland culture. Highland Games.
2. Highland dress and its history.
3. Scottish bagpipes.
4. Scottish food and drink. Burn's supper.
5. Ceilidh (in the old days and nowadays).
6. Hogmanay and its background.
7. Scottish Standard English and its linguistic peculiarities.
8. The Shetland dialect.
9. The Orcadian dialect.
10. The Caithness dialect and the Doric dialect.
11. The Glasgow dialect.
12. The Edinburgh dialect. Irvine Welsh's "Trainspotting".

Seminar # 5

**Welsh culture and traditions. The main linguistic features of
Welsh English.**

1. Welsh Lovespoons.
2. Calenning (New Year celebration).
3. Noson Gyflaith.
4. St. Dwynwen's Day.
5. Traditional music and instruments.
6. Traditional Welsh food.
7. Welsh English and its dialects

Seminar # 6, # 7

**Public holidays and celebrations. Festivals and fairs. Traditional
ceremonies in London.**

- I. Public holidays and celebrations.
 1. New Year
 - New Year in England.
 - Hogmanay Celebrations. The night of Hogmanay.
 - First Foot.
 - Tar-barrel burning.
 2. Pancake Day
 - Pancake Day or Shrove Tuesday.
 - Student Rags.
 - Pancake bell.
 - Pancake Race.
 - Pancake Greaze.
 3. Guy Fawkes Night – November 5
 - Gunpowder plot.
 - Guy Fawkes Night.
 - Penny for the Guy.
 - Trafalgar Square on Bonfire Night.

- Annual St. Mary Carnival.

II. Festivals and fairs.

1. Festivals of music and drama.
2. Burns Night.
3. Shakespeare Birthday celebrations.
4. The bath festival.
5. The Welsh Eisteddfodau.
6. Edinburgh International Festival.
7. Fairs (The Trinity Fair, Pack Monday Fair, Gingerbread Fair in Birmingham).

III. Traditional ceremonies in London.

1. Changing the Guard. Mounting the Guard. Swan-Upping.
2. The ceremony of the keys.
3. Trooping the Colour.
4. Swan-Upping.
5. Electing London's Lord Mayor. The Lord Mayor's show.

Seminar # 8

Traditional British cuisine. British pubs and clubs.

Choose one of the following topics and prepare a team project (2-3 students):

1. The history of British cuisine.
2. Top 5 traditional British dishes.
3. British fast food.
4. Traditional Welsh recipes.
5. Traditional Irish food.
6. 10 things to know about Scottish cuisine.

Seminar # 9

Modern British cinematography. Modern British theatre. Modern British music.

Choose one of the following topics and prepare a team project (2-3 students):

1. The 10 best modern British films.
2. British Oscar winners.
3. How modern British films contribute to the British culture.
4. The most prominent modern British playwrights.
5. National British theatres (Royal National Theatre, National Theatre of Scotland, National Theatre of Wales).
6. British Tony winners.
7. British Grammy winners.
8. The 10 greatest modern British singers.
9. The best British bands of the 21st century.

Seminar # 10

The forces of law and order

1. The legal system of England and Wales. The two basic sources of English law.
2. The main types of court for criminal cases.
3. The system of punishment in GB.
4. The legal professions and the court.
5. The legal system of Scotland.
6. The British police. New Scotland Yard.

Individual projects (Research essay)

1. The Roman conquest and its consequences.
2. Anglo-Saxon culture and its impact on England.
3. The background to the Norman Conquest.
4. The age of plagues in Britain. How did it influence the economic and trade relations of the country?
5. The role of William Wallace in British history.
6. The age of chivalry. The legend of King Arthur.
7. The Wars of Roses: reasons and consequences.
8. Henry VII and Henry VIII: like father, like son?
9. Elizabeth I and her role in British history.
10. Mary Queen of Scots: a victim or a murderer?
11. Modern British writers in modern British cinematography.
12. Scottish independence: the historic backgrounds.
13. IRA: the genealogy of Irish nationalists' movement
14. Brexit: the main reasons of leaving EU.
15. Youth subcultures in GB and in Ukraine: what are they nowadays?

Structure of a Research Essay (Individual project)

All essays and research papers consist of three parts:

- an introduction
- body paragraphs
- conclusion.

The Introduction:

- is the first paragraph of our essay
- it begins with a general statement about your topic
- provides background information for your reader
- concludes with the thesis (last sentence of the introduction)

The Thesis

- is the last sentence of the paragraph
- one sentence only
- is a strong statement that you can prove
- is the answer to your research question
- is the controlling idea of the research and is a map to the route the research essay will follow
- is specific and expresses one major idea about the subject

The Body

- is where the evidence to prove the thesis is presented
- is where the information supports or proves the thesis statement
- this supporting information can be analysis, argument, evaluation, persuasion and comparison/contrast
- the body of the paper is well organized with each paragraph consisting of a topic sentence, supporting and concluding sentences and a transition to the next paragraph
- **all support for your thesis, whether quoted or paraphrased, must be cited**

Conclusion

- this is the last paragraph of the paper and summarizes how your paper proved the thesis
- restates thesis
- leave the reader with a last thought (the "hmmmm" factor)
- no new information is given in this paragraph.

Introduction General statement about the topic
Background information for your reader
(1-1,5 pp.) Thesis

Body First Paragraph - Main Point
Supporting Details
Supporting Details
(10-12 pp.) Concluding Sentence
Transition

**You can devote
2 or 3
paragraphs to
each main
point if you
choose**

Second Paragraph - Main Point
Supporting Details
Supporting Details
Concluding Sentence
Transition

Third Paragraph - Main Point
Supporting Details
Supporting Details
Concluding Sentence
Transition

Conclusion Summary of the main points used to prove the thesis

(1,5-2 pp.) Last thought ("hmmmm" factor)

Exam questions

1. Geographical position, climate, population of the UK.
2. Britain's prehistory. The first settlements.
3. The national symbols of England, Scotland, Wales and the Northern Ireland.
4. The Celts.
5. The Romans. The Roman life.
6. The Vikings.
7. The Saxon invasion. Government and society.
8. The Saxon king Ethelred. Cnut (Canute). Edward the Confessor.
9. The Norman Conquest. William the Conqueror and his sons.
10. The feudal system. William's "Domesday Book"
11. The Plantagenets. Henry II, Richard the Lionheart, John the Lackland. Magna Carta.
12. The Wars of the roses.
13. Oxford and Cambridge Universities: history and traditions.
14. Estuary English. Cockney dialect.
15. Scottish Standard English and its linguistic peculiarities.
16. Welsh culture and traditions.
17. Welsh English and its dialects.
18. British official holidays.
19. British festivals and fairs.
20. Modern British theatre.
21. Scottish culture and traditions.

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Internet resources

21. <http://www.history.com/topics/british-history>
22. <http://www.britannia.com/history/>
23. http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/british/launch_tl_british.shtml
24. <https://www.britannica.com/place/United-Kingdom>
25. <http://www.scotland.org/about-scotland/scottish-history>
26. <http://www.wales.com/about-wales/history-ancestry>
27. <http://www.historyonthenet.com/chronology/timelinenorthernireland.htm>
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Video resources

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43. The Young Victoria. - Mode of access:
https://www.imdb.com/title/tt0962736/?ref_=nv_sr_1
44. The White Queen. - Mode of access:
<https://www.imdb.com/title/tt2372220/>

Keys

Test 1

1. b); 2. c); 3. a); 4. b); 5. c); 6. c); 7. a); 8. b); 9. c); 10. b); 11. b), a), d), c); 12. b)

Test 2

1. a); 2. a); 3. a); 4. c); 5. a); 6. d); 7. b); 8. c); 9. d); 10. b)

Test 3

1. a; 2. c); 3. c) 4. d); 5. a); 6. d); 7. a); 8. c); 9. b); 10. d)

Test 4

1. a); 2. d); 3. b); 4. a); 5. b); 6. a); 7. a); 8. d); 9. b); 10. d)