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English-speaking countries:

A concise history of Britain

Textbook

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Preface

The British Isles have a rich history going back thousands of years. Unfortunately few of us in Britain really know much about our history. Retrospectively we think there must have been something radically flawed with history as it is taught in out schools as our history is fascinating. For this history guide, we shall divide the period of British history into four main chunks, and each of these four main chunks then subdivided into bite sized chapters that try to explain the way that things happened.

History is an interweaving of events and people, and its not just about kings and queens, its about ordinary people and how events influenced them, and on occasions how they influenced events. Also one has to realise that Britain is not one nation, but a hodge podge of different peoples who tend to remain distinct in spite of a millenium or more of intermarriage. We have therefore put in separate chapters on Ireland, Scotland and Wales, each with its own history.

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Chapter 1. 4000 BC to 1500 BC Stone Age man and the first farmers

This covers the period from the coming of man to Britain (around 4000 BC) up to the Norman conquest in 1066. The people left no literature, but they did leave many burial chambers, monuments and artifacts. It is believed that Stone Age man migrated to Britain across the land bridge that then joined Britain to the rest of Europe. The rising water levels cut Britain off from Europe and left these peoples to develop separately and largely unmolested by any large outside tribes or armies. Stone circles, Neolithic tombs and tools have been found all over the British Isles from the tip of Cornwall in the south to the very north of Scotland. Although stone age artifacts can be found all over Britain, the largest of their construction are found in Wiltshire in southern England.

There are smaller sites from this period of history all over the country - if you are interested you need to stop by a good bookshop and get a specialist publication on the area you are interested in. The two largest sites are:- Avebury Not just one, but 4 inter-connected monuments. An Avenue of paired stones connects the henge at Avebury to a smaller henge called the Sanctuary, and nearby Silbury Hill (the largest artificial mound in pre-historic Europe). Stonehenge: Nobody knows what it was built for, perhaps Druid temple or perhaps an astronomical calculator. Work started on it in 3100 BC and it was continuously being built, used and modified until 1100 BC. An amazing period of 2000 years - not many other buildings in the world have been used for as long. After 1100 BC it fell into disuse, again nobody knows why. The stones on the site were used by the local people as a convenient source for building houses and road making. Even up to 100 years ago, local farmers used the stones from Stonehenge for road building and other construction work. It was given to the nation in 1918, and the government has been responsible for maintaining the monument since then. As Britain's only world heritage site, one can see its importance. However there is still a long way to go in presenting the site sympathetically to the visitor.

Stone Age man constructed Stonehenge from massive 50 ton blocks of stone. Some were transported along a 240 mile route from the Welsh mountains. One hypothesis for Stonehenge's being there, is that it was a giant astronomical observatory. The sun on midsummer's day rises above the heel stone on the horizon, and other lies concerning the sun and moon and their movements can be found Others believe that it was a druid's temple, or shrine. Whatever interpretation one puts on it, it was a massive and sustained feat to construct and maintain for 2000 years. It is a pity that the site has not been better maintained over the years, but you can still get the feel and majesty of the place. It is worth getting one of the more advanced guide books, which go beyond the superficial

Chapter 2. Age of Hill Forts and Hill Tribes in Britain

The 1500 BC to the Roman Invasion in 43 AD

For some unexplained reason, Iron Age man started to change his living habits. They stopped building burial mounds and stone circles, stopped using the ancient sites like Stonehenge. Instead the Iron Age peoples took to farming in permanent fields and to living in protected hill forts. The explanation might be that with the acquisition of the knowledge to make iron tools, then farming and tilling land became a viable proposition. Or perhaps iron weapons made man more aggressive and groups needed protection from maurauding bands of armed thugs.

Maiden Castle in Dorset as it is seen today, was typical of a large protected hill fort, with its various ramparts. By around 150 BC there was a substantial trade between Britain and the continent. Involved were raw materials such as tin, silver or gold: finished goods like wine pottery and coins: and even slaves. Julius Caesar made a landing in Britain in 55 BC, but only suceeded in establishing a tempory bridgehead. After another abortive attempt the next year, he sailed away and the Romans left Britain alone for another century, until they landed in force in 43 AD

By the eve of the Roman invasion, Britain was a series of small kingdoms, perhaps 20 of these large enough to have a regional influence, but with no one kingdom holding any real control over any large area of the country

Chapter 3. The Romans in Britain

A well planned invasion by 40,000 to 50,000 Roman soldiers took place in the summer of 43AD. A massive force for those days, and the British tribes were no match for them. Within a year or so the Romans had pushed west to a line from Exeter to Lincoln (shown on the left), and by 60AD controlled most of Britain south of the Humber (shown on the right) A revolt with the Iceni tribe under Queen Boudica nearly managed to dislodge the Romans. But their superior military knowledge prevailed, and after that they had no major uprisings in England. Most of the country was under civil, rather than military rule. They pushed north, and built the network of straight roads across the country, most of which can still be followed today. As they pushed north into Scotland, they decided to build a gigantic wall, Hadrian's Wall, to control the frontier. It was started in 122AD, and runs roughly from Newcastle to Carlisle. You can still see large sections of Hadrians Wall today as it snakes across the Northumberland moorland. Also can be seen in museums the mosaics that the Romans used to decorate their villas. Indeed some villas, like Fishboune, have been excavated. The Romans did expand further into Scotland, building the Antonine Wall across the Lowlands (Glasgow to Edinburgh). However this was a turf, not stone wall, and little remains. It was started in 142 AD, but abandoned by 163 AD. The country appears to have enjoyed a period of unprecedented peace - "the golden age of the Villa". Around 300 AD the Roman Empire came under sustained attack by the barbarian hordes in central Europe and some troops were withdrawn to help in that area. Northern Britain started to suffer attacks from the Scots and Picts.

But it was until 410 AD that the Roman Emperor Constantine finally removed the whole garrison of Britain to defend the Rhine frontier from attack. The cities of Britain were instructed to look to their own defence. The Romans never returned to Britain. Britain was to slip into a 600 year period of wars and fragmentation. Of Angles and Saxons invading, the Celts being pushed West, and the country under almost continuous Viking attack.

Chapter 4. 410 to 1066 Anglo Saxon Britain. Viking raids. Ehe Norman invasion

The breakdown of Roman law and civilisation was fairly swift after the Roman army departed in 410 AD. To counter the raids from continental pirates, Vikings, Picts and Scots towns would bring in mercenaries from Europe to defend them from attack. These mercenary soldiers were Angles and Saxons from northern Germany. The deal was that the mercenaries brought their families with them, and got paid with land which they could farm. Eventually the Anglo Saxon mercenaries realised that they were stronger than their employers and appear to have taken over the running of areas themselves.

There is of course the whole legend of King Arthur_that is ascribed to this period. Arthur appears to have been a fictional, rather than historical figure, but that link gives you a complete guide to King Arthur, who he could have been and where he could have lived. The new Anglo Saxon invaders were not organised centrally, as the Romans had been, or as the Normans would be. They slowly colonised northwards and westwards, pushing the native Celts to the fringes of Britain. Roman Britain was replaced by Anglo Saxon Britain, with the Celtic peoples remaining in Cornwall, Wales and Scotland. The Anglo Saxon areas eventually combined into kingdoms, and by 850 AD the country had three competing kingdoms as shown on the map on the left. The three kingdoms of Mercia, Northumbria and Wessex, not only were competing between themselves, but they were also under sustained attack from Viking raids. The Viking incursions culminated with a "Great Army" landing in East Anglia in 865 AD. It made wide territorial gains, and by 875 the kingdoms of Mercia and Northumbria had succumbed. Only Wessex remained as Anglo Saxon. The Vikings attack Wessex in 878, and the Saxon king, Alfred (of burning the cakes fame) had to flee to the Somerset marshes.. However he was able to regroup and counter attack. His efforts and those later of his son and grandsons, gradually pushed the Vikings (remember Eric Bloodaxe) northwards and eventually into the sea.

By 955, Alfred the Great's grandson Eadred, ruled over a united England. Government became centralised, and the king had the infrastructure to rule the whole country. Next came another wave of Viking attacks. The net effect was that the English kin, Ethelred the Unready, found his kingdom under attack on all coasts by Norsemen. On Ethelred's death in 1016, the Viking leader Cnut was effectively ruling England. But on Cnut's death, the country collapsed into a number of competing Earldoms (shown on the left) under a weak king, Edward the Confessor. The strongest of these earls was Harold, Earl of East Anglia. Through a series of battles and intermarriages, Harold controlled Wessex and was in a powerful position. So when Edward the Confessor died in 1066 without a male heir, Harold claimed the throne.

His claim was disputed by William, Duke of Normandy, whose claim to the English throne was even more tenuous than Harold's. There were two major influences on English life during this whole period of English history, at opposite ends of the aggression spectrum.

One was the coming of Christianity to Britain, brought by Irish monks to places like Lindesfarne in 635, or Iona in Scotland in 563. The church had organised the whole country into diocese, each under a bishop, by about 850. The other was the Viking raider. And it was the Viking raider that paradoxically allowed William to conquer Britain. When Edward the Confessor died, the Vikings saw a chance to regain a foothold in Britain, and landed an army in Yorkshire in 1066. Harold marched north to take on the Vikings under Harald of Norway and Tostig (King Harold's brother). He defeated the Norsemen near York, but while celebrating his victory, learnt that William of Normandy had landed in southern England.

Within 13 days he had marched his army some 240 miles from Yorkshire to Sussex, where the Normans were camped near Hastings. The ensuing Battle of Hastings was won by the Normans who were fresh, and had better archers and cavalry. Harold died with an arrow through his eye. William was crowned William I in London on Christmas Day 1066

Chapter 5. The Norman kings consolidate their hold on Brit ain

The Bayeaux tapestry shows how the military might of the Normans defeated Harolds exhausted army. Once established as king, William I continued in the vein of might being right. The Tower of London was built with the express aim of showing the inhabitants of London who was in charge now. William continued with a demonic round of castle building across the whole country. The uniqueness of the Norman conquest in British history is that not only did the ruler change, but also the whole of the ruling class changes, and there was even a new language. The English nobility lost their lands, and the new landowners built castles like Warwick and Windsor that survive to this day. By the time William died in 1087 around 100 major castles had been built. The other major legacy of William's reign is the Domesday Book. William wished to know the existing and potential value of his new kingdom. Surveyors were sent out across the whole country and their report was the massive Domesday Book which noted land down to individual landholdings. The other Norman Kings, William II, Stephen, Henry I and Henry II were no pussycats, but they had little efffect on posterity until Henry II ascended to the throne in 1154 Remember that William I had been duke of Normandy as well as King of England (map left). Henry II expanded this empire, as he wasDuke of Aquitaine (right) though his wife's title. England was there a major player on Continental Europe, and continued to hold parts of France for 500 years until Calais was finally lost in 1558Henry II is known for his ordering the murder of the Archbishop Of Cantabury, Thomas Becket, in Cantabury Cathedral stabbed at the high alter in 1170.

Chapter 6. Wars in France, revolt in England, Civil War in England

After Henry II, English in started running into problems, either with the Barons, the people or from pretenders to the throne.

King John was defeated by the barons and only kept the throne by signing the Magna Carta, which stated that the king was not above the law, that he only ruled by the will of the people, and that if he broke his part of the contract, then the people had the right to overthrow the king. The whole episode amounted to a civil war, and was probably not as cosy as the painting on the left depicts Continental wars continued to cost England more money than it could afford. England soon lost all its French possessions apart from Gascony (Bordeaux). Edward II's forays into Europe did not succeed in re-conquering any ground.

Between 1370 and 1413, Kings were dethroned, Peasants revolted and the House of Lancaster seized the throne. Henry V's reign was brief and colourful (1413 to 22) The English are a nation for remembering victories and forgetting defeats. Henry V's victory at Agincourt, thanks to Shakespeare, is well remembered. "Cry God for Harry, England and St George" But the territorial gains that Agincourt brought were soon lost, and even Gascony had fallen. By 1453 only Calais remained as an English foothold in Europe. The consequence of the loss of the French territories was that the Royal House of Lancaster became discredited. A series of coups and counter-coups, intrigue and murder gripped the throne. A litany of kings came and went between the battle of St Albans in 1455 and the battle of Bosworth in 1485. The result was a new royal house - the Tudors. Henry VII seized the throne on winning the battle of Bosworth and England was to enter a new period of history. History is written by the victors, and sometimes by Shakespeare. The victors were the Tudors and they wrote of the defeated king's epitaph. Nobody will ever now know whether he did murder the little princes in the tower. He probably was not a hunch back, but his body was flung into an unmarked grave after the battle so we will never know that either.

Chapter 7. The Tudors - Henry VII, Henry VIII, Mary & Elizabeth

Henry VIII, who come to the throne in 1509, was a man who left his stamp on history. His six marriages in search of a male heir led to two daughters (Mary and Elizabeth) and a son Edward (who died young). Henry's need for a divorce led to a row with the pope who refused to grant Henry one. Henry countered by dissolving the Roman Catholic Church in Britain, and setting up the Church of England A Church of England with Henry at the head could then allow Henry to divorce his wife. Of the Six the pneumonic goes - divorced, beheaded, died, divorced, beheaded, survived. He divorced the two European wives, Anne of Cleeves and Catherine of Aragon. The English ladies were more easily dispensable. Henry was a tyrant and a despot. Completely ruthless, and he let nothing and nobody get in his way. Cardinal Wolsey was banished, Thomas Cromwell and Thomas More were executed One other bonus for Henry from his split with Rome was that he gained control of the monasteries - the monastic buildings and land were sold off after the dissolution of the monasteries in 1538. Many of the buildings fell into decay, and they lost their farmlands for ever. Henry's elder daughter. Mary was a Catholic - and a militant Catholic at that, her efforts as queen to restore Catholicism to England made her the most unpopular queen in British history> and the means that she used to pursue her aims earned her the nickname "bloody Mary". There were 283 Protestant martyrs burnt at the stake in her reign. Among the martyrs were Cranmer (Archbishop of Canterbury), Ridley (Bishop of London) and Latimer (a leading preacher)

A loveless marriage to the King of Spain produced no children. So when Mary died she was succeeded by her Protestant half-sister Elizabeth. Elizabeth's reign brought in one of the most glorious eras of British history. Exploration, colonisation, victory in war, and growing world importance. The Arts flourished, this was the age of Shakespeare and Bacon. It was the age of the sea dog, Drake and Raleigh, Hawkins and Frobisher. But as with her sister, plots against the queen were mounted - Mary Queen of Scots, was finally executed in 1587- the Earl of Essex, a former favourite, was executed for leading a revolt in 1601. And the wars against Spain and

in Ireland were expensive - she was £400,000 in debt when she diedDrake's voyage round the world in the Golden Hind started in 1577 and took 3 years. Though he did not find Australia or the north west passage, he brought back great wealth from raids on the Spanish possessions in the Pacific and from cargoes of spices. Drake was the first Briton to sail round the world. Eventually there was all out war with Spain. Philip of Spain assembled the largest fleet the world had seen, and in 1588 it set sail to invade England. The smaller, more maneuverable English ships harried the Spanish armada all the way up the English Channel. But the Armada reached Calais and anchored. The English sent in fireships (crammed with burning tar and gunpowder). This forced the Spanish to cut anchor and scatter. The power of the Armada had been in its tight disciplined formation that the English could not break. Now it was just a collection of individual ships. The Spanish ships made their way back home to Spain via the north of Scotland and down the Irish coast. 50 ships and 20,000 men perished. Spain was humiliated on the world stage. This was also the England of Shakespeare, Marlow and Bacon. Shakespeare left Stratford upon Avon in 1587, and by 1599 he was the part owner of the Globe playhouse in London. He wrote his plays while in London, and retired to Stratford in 1611, where he died in 1616. The Spanish wars had crippled the English exchequer, inflation soared, and in 1601 Elizabeth had to go to Parliament to get more money. Sensing hostility, as Parliament was angry about the privileges she had granted her favourites, she gave way graciously, and gave a "Golden Speech" which became in later years a model for the relationship between monarch and the nation - with obligations on both sides.

A few months later came news of the defeat of the long running battle against the rebels in Ireland. But by now Elizabeth's health had declined, and she was dying. The choice of successor was not straightforward, as she was the last of Henry VIII's children and none of them had any children themselves. Elizabeth delayed making her choice of successor until she was on her death bed. Her successor would be James Stuart, King of Scotland, and son of Mary Queen of Scots, whom Elizabeth had executed as a traitor.

Chapter 8. James I, Charles I and the descent into Civil War, the King executed, Cromwell rules

James Stuart was a Scottish Catholic who believed in the "Divine Right" to rule as he pleased. This brought him into conflict with the English Parliament. The failed Catholic Gunpowder Plot to blow up Parliament in 1605 led to anti catholic riots. The failure of both James and his son Charles I to understand the English tradition of parliamentary liberty led eventually to civil war. James died unlamented in 1625. Charles I immediately came in to conflict with Parliament. He tried to rule without summoning parliament for 11 years, but eventually ran out of money, and summoned Parliament in 1640. Parliament was naturally peeved about his neglect of their rights. They refused him money, and the country split between supporters of the king and supporters of parliament. The first major Engagement of the Civil War was at Edgehill in the Cotswolds on 1642. Indecision among the Royalists and the moulding of the New Model army by the parliamentarians led to Parliament gaining the upper hand, and by 1645 Cromwell won the decisive Battle of Naseby. Charles was captured and put on trial for treason in 1649. He refused to recognise the court, but was regardless found guilty. 59 republicans signed the death warrant (above), and after the restoration Charles II prosecuted those that he could. Oliver Cromwell and the army emerged as the power in the land. Cromwell dissolved parliament with the words "Depart I say, and let us have done with you. In the name of God, go!" It was the start of England's only period of dictatorship Cromwell was unable to find anything to replace the monarchy. When he died in 1658 his son Richard suceeded him, but "Tumbledown Dick" was not a man to rule Britain, and in 1660 Charles II was restored to the throne his father had died for.

Chapter 9. Restoration. Charles II, James II, William III and Anne

Cromwell's failure to put in place a workable alternative to the monarchy, resulted in the country bringing back from exile the monarchy in the form of Charles II, son of the beheaded Charles I. Charles' lasting place in posterity is due to his penchant for mistresses (right) and the resultant illegitimate children, many of whom received dukedoms which survive to this day. Soon after Charles succession Britain had two major catastrophes - the Plague in 1665 (that is a doctor on the left in protective gear) 70,000 died in London alone and the Great Fire of London (right) the following year. However it was the succession that concerned the country. Charles produced no legitimate heirs, and it was his Catholic brother James II who succeeded him in 1685. Britain had briefly been republic, but it was now back to Protestant and Catholic kings. James II reign proved disastrous, he antagonized the government by suspending the anti Catholic laws, then arresting 6 bishops, finally James second wife produced a male heir, (James the old pretender). Leading politicians turnedto James II Protestant daughter Mary and her husband William of Orange and offered them the throne. William landed with an army. James fled to Ireland, where he was eventually defeated in battle by William. James II son, the old pretender and grandson, the young pretender, both tried to re-take the throne but failed Anne, Younger, Protestant daughter of James II succeeded to the throne in 1702. Her reign is noted for the rise of the Churchill's. Anne,s childhood friend Sarah, married John Churchill. Churchill was a brilliant general, who finally succeeded in defeating the French after marching his army 600 miles across Europe. The battle of Blenheim 1704 saw the end of French dominance in Europe. Churchill was rewarded with the title Duke of Marlborough, and Blenheim Palace was paid for by the nation. Sarah Churchill and Anne quarreled a few years later and their influence on state affairs declined

Chapter 10. The House of Hanover ruled Britain 1714 - 1815

There were a lot of better qualified people available to be king of England unfortunately most of them were Catholic. George I was a German who did not speak a word of English, but was Protestant. So started the rule of the House of Hanover, under whom Britain achieved wealth and peace over the next century George was immediately challenged by James II's son, James the Old Pretender, landing in Scotland in an abortive attempt to seize the throne. James soon fled back into exile in France With foreign kings, parliament became more powerful, and the leading politician was Walpole (right) who was prime minister until 1742. He avoided the expense of war, and Britain prosperedIn 1745 the exiled Stuarts led by James II's grandson, Bonnie Prince Charlie. His Highland army got as far south as Derby, but a poor supply line and English reinforcements forced them to retreat. A retreat that ended with the final defeat at Culloden. The coming of George III (right) to the throne in 1760, brought the first British born king for 50 years. And a king who was to reign for the next 50 years. They were exciting times, marred only by the loss of the American Colonies. A canal network was built (left). Captain Cook explored the Pacific (right). Robert Adams was the architect to commission, John Wilkes won liberties for the people, Josiah Wedgwood made china, Gainsborough and Stubbs paints, Capability Brown designed gardens Britain won new territories in Canada and India, but lost the oldest settlement of all, with the declaration of independence by the American colonies in 1776 and the final surrender at Yorktown (right) in 1781 The loss of the American colonies brought about changes in Britain with the appointment of Pitt the Younger as prime minister, whose legislative programme was to bring about the end of royal power. At home the industrial revolution was in full swing. Coal fires (right) lit the night sky as they powered steam engines in factories. But in Europe, French power was manifesting itself following the French revolution in 1789. Nelsons's victory at Trafalgar ensured the Britain ruled the seas, but French troops controlled Europe. A major war loomed

Chapter 11. Power, Peace and Prosperity - 1815 to 1914

Nelson's victory at sea in 1805 and Wellington's (left) on land at Waterloo in 1815, marked the end of major wars for a century. Britain was the dominant power, and the defeat of Napoleon (right) removed French aspirations to rule the world The death of George IV (right)was not regretted by the nation - the Times wrote "there was never an individual less regretted by his fellow creatures than this deceased king"It was an age of poets - Keats, Shelly and Byron. Of Science - Faraday and Davy in electricity, Stephenson with his steam train, artists like Constable and Turner. It was against this background that Victoria came to the throne in 1837, to commence a reign that spanned 64 years Victoria was 18 when she became queen. She became a symbol of her age. It was an age of steam and iron, men like Brunel came to prominence, He surveyed the Great Western railway to Bristol, he built bridges and tunnels that still exist today, he built the Great Eastern, the largest ship afloat. The Great Exhibition of 1851 in Hyde Park was a showcase for British achievements. Authors like Dickens and the Bronte sisters wrote novels. A new parliament building was constructed at Westminster after the old building burnt down1854 brought British involvement in the Crimean War in Russia, and one of those heroic defeats when the Light brigade charged massed Russian guns. One outcome of this defeat was that in future the British army would be better officered, with wealth no longer being the sole key to promotion. Charles Darwin completed his voyage in the Beagle in 1837 and produced his theories of evolution. Africa was explored by men like David Livingstone Slavery was abolished throughout the Empire, and Britain used her naval power to blockade the West African coast and arrest slavers The British Empire, like all empires, was acquired by force of arms. By 1900 Britain had the largest navy in the world, and used it to control an Empire "on which the sun never set". The map (below left) shows the British Empire in 1900, with Canada, Australia, India, large chunks Africa, the Caribbean and the Far East. However by Victoria's death in 1901, Britain was being challenged militarily by Germany. European countries rushed to arm themselves and protect themselves with a series of alliances. The result of these warlike happenings was that , when an Austrian Archduke was assassinated in Bosnia in 1914, the alliances led to virtually every nation in Europe becoming involved, with the Central Powers (coloured green above left) fighting the Allies (coloured red) - 10 million men were to die before peace was declared in 1918

Chapter 12. The First World War 1914 to 1918

Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the Austro Hungarian throne, was assassinated in Bosnia. Within weeks the whole of Europe was at war. The Austrians blamed the Serbs and declared war on Serbia. Russia was allied to the Serbs, Germany to Austria, France top Russia and Britain to France. 750,000 Britons died in the next 4 years of trench warfare. This was the first war Britain had fought on European soil since Waterloo closer on a century before.

German hopes of a quick victory by a rapid advance on Paris were dashed at the battle of the Marne in September 1914. The Germans dug in, the French & British dug in and the stalemate on the Western Front was about to begin. Tens of thousands of men died as they were ordered vainly to attack well dug in enemy troops. On the first day of the Battle of the Somme in 1916, 19,000 British troops were killed in a day. And 400,000 Allies were killed or wounded at the Somme. Stalemate continued at sea as well as on land. The battle of Jutland, the only major sea battle of the war, took place in the North Sea in 1916. The result was inconclusive It was only in 1918 that the Allies, with the Americans now in the war, began to make advances. A better battle plan and the use of the new tanks gave the Allies the breakthrough that they had been seeking for years. Within three months the war was over Altogether over 8 million soldiers on both sides had died. New weapons like the tank, poison gas, and the aircraft had entered wars. Cavalry were no longer used. Air raids and U-boat attacks on merchant ships brought war to the civilian population as well as to the combatants

However the war did not create a "land fit for heroes to live in" as the war time prime minister had promised. Britain was to enter an era of social change, economic recession and large scale unemployment.

Chapter 13. UK - Britain Between the Wars 1918 to 1945

The issue of votes for women, re-surfaced after World War I ended. Women had played their part in the factories and the movement started by Mrs. Pankhurst (shown left with her daughter in prison clothes after her arrest in 1914) led to a limited voting franchise for women in 1918, and full equality with men in 1928The working class became unionised, and labour relations deteriorated. The culmination was the General Strike in May 1926, when some 2 million key workers went on strike over plans to reduce wages and lengthen working hours. The General Strike itself failed, but it did make trades unionists realise that they could not lead British workers into a class war, b8ut that the process of winning at the ballot box would give them real power to change the country In the 1930's Britain was focused on the continuing high unemployment at home. Then there was the shock of the abdication of Edward VIII who wished to marry an American divorcee in 1936. Few saw the threat of Hitler's rise to power in Germany. Germany was re-arming at a frightening rate, but Britain had neither the inclination nor the money to follow Hitler's increased spending on armaments. Eventually Hitler's expansion went too far. The German invasion of Poland led Britain by treaty to declare war on Germany. In 1939 World War II started.

Chapter 14. The Second World War 1939 to 1945

The British Army in Europe soon lost to the Germans, who quickly conquered most of continental Europe. After the evacuation of the British troops from Dunkirk in France back to England in 1940, Britain stood alone against Hitler. Germany tried to conquer Britain by first gaining air supremacy. However the Germans lost the Battle of Britain, the first battle to be fought solely in the air Hitler then tried bombing Britain into submission, but failed thee to. Further afield the British 8th Army was on the retreat in North Africa, and Britain had lost to the Japanese in the Far East, with Singapore and Malaya falling the Japs were at the gates of India. At sea German U-Boats had sunk nearly 8 million tons of allied ships in 1942. With the eventual American entry into the war, following Pearl Harbour, Britain gained vital reinforcements in men and supplies. The German and Japanese supply lines were at full stretch, and eventually a string of victories forced the enemy to retreat. Victory at Alamein led eventually to the Germans being driven from North Africa, and the invasion of ItalyThe planned invasion of France by the allies took place in June 1944, fighting their way out from the bridgehead beaches was a bloody affair, but eventually they did, and within a year World War II was over, and Europe lay in ruins

Chapter 15. Britain since 1945

Immediately after the end of World War II, Britain underwent enormous social change. The country was bankrupt after the war. The wartime prime minister, Churchill was voted out and a new Labour government nationalised many industries, electricity, gas, water, health. Britain took a long time to recover from the cost of war. After a last abortive fling at being a world power - the Anglo-French invasion of the Suez Canal in 1956 - Britain began to dismantle her Empire. Harold Macmillan's "wind of change". It was this change that caused Dean Acheson, former US Secretary of State to remark "Britain has lost an Empire, but has not yet found a rolePerhaps it was this loss of a world position that caused further changes within Britain. The Swinging Sixties brought the mini skirt and the Beetles. If Dean Acheson was worried about Britain's role, the British were not worrying, they were too busy enjoying themselvesOur Royal family became more newsworthy. The marriage of Price Charles to Diana brought some much needed glamour to the Royal family, which was stuck somewhere in the forties. The birth of two sons "the heir and the spare" was followed soon after by recriminations and divorce. Never the less the British monarchy remains, and remains newsworthyThe 1980's were characterized by Mrs. Thatcher, the Iron Lady who started off so well, a strong leader full of good ideas. But, as with so many strong leaders came to think that she was more important than her electorate. Like the British kings and queens of old, she surrounded herself with sycophantic advisors and courtiers, and was allowed to push through a number of completely potty laws like Poll Tax, that eventually brought about her fall from office. Democracy in action, in the past an absolute monarch could never have been democratically removed Britain is still in the late 1990's searching for that role - she has never been fully committed to Europe, but cannot afford to go it alone. The search for a comfortable marriage with the rest of Europe has been long, rough and unresolved. It will undoubted occupy our politicians for the next century However the British economy is in good shape. Constitutional changes are bound to continue though we do not have a written constitution. The House of Lords will probably be

replaced by a more democratic second chamber, the jury is out on whether we will have Prince Charles as our next king, we will probably join the European monetary system late, there will probably be more devolved power to the regions as well as the agreed changes for Scotland and Wales, the Irish question will remain unsolved Britain has had a glorious and interesting past. We have lots to offer both visitors and citizens. We should learn to appreciate our past and plan for an even better future.

For overseas visitors Britain is a wonderful place to explore the past, with a little understanding of our history you will enhance your visit here.

Chapter 16. Scotland - a separate nation

A complex series of wars and diplomatic maneuvers in the period from 500 AD to 1000 AD resulted in Malcolm II becoming king of a Scotland that apart from a few disputes about the Highlands and Islands was basically in its modern form. Border wars with the English continued. Edward I had succeeded conquering most of Scotland, but Robert the Bruce had then won back most of the English gains. Only Stirling Castle remained in English hands An English army arrived to relieve the Scots siege of Stirling (above). Bruce (above left) defeated the English army under Edward II, who was lucky to escape with his life. The Scots victory at the Battle of Bannockburn secured complete Scots independence. Scotland stayed relatively clear of the English until the consequences of Henry VIII's sister marrying the King of Scotland, coupled with the failure of any of Henry VIII's own children to produce an heir, led to the installation of James VI of Scotland as James I of England. Even with James and his successors on both the English and Scots thrones, the two countries were treated as separate kingdoms. When James II fled England into exile and William III became king, many of the highland Scots remained loyal to James II. In an effort to head off open rebellion William insisted that every clan must swear an oath of loyalty to him, or suffer reprisals. Among the reprisals was the massacre at Glencoe of the MacDonalds by English soldiers who were mainly Campbells. Williams harsh handling of the Scots contributed to the continuing support of the Stuart kings in exile, and to Scots support of the 1715 and 1745 Stuart rebellions. Another result of the treatment of the Scots by the English was the passing by the Scottish parliament of an Act giving Scotland the right to an independent army. To head off a war between the two nations the English pushed through a Union between the two nations, closing the Scottish Parliament and giving Scots representation in Westminster. Though the Scottish legal system remained, and still remains today. Was ratified in 1707 The Act of Union.

Scotland became industrialised with the exploitation of the Scottish coalfields and mill like the Lanarkshire mills on the left. In recent times coal has been replaced

by oil from the North Sea, and then there is the debate as to whether this oil is Scottish oil or British oil. In 1997 a referendum in Scotland voted to institute a Scottish parliament with "tax varying powers". It remains to be seen as to whether Scotland will in the future drift further from the Union or remain firmed tried to it.

Chapter 17. Wales - a Celtic land of mountains and coal

The Celts had fled westwards under sustained invasions from Romans, Vikings and Anglo-Saxons. The Anglo Saxon English kings had not ruled Wales, and at the Norman invasion was a collection of small kingdoms. It took the Normans some 200 years to gain control of the whole of Wales. The 8 royal castles like Harlech (left) kept a lid on rebellion in the meantime. The last major Welsh uprising was by Owain Glyndwr between 1400 and 1408Finally the Act of Union in 1536 "incorporated, united and annexed" Wales to England. Since then English law and government has rules in Wales. A solution that appears to have satisfied most Welsh people. Until the middle of the 18th century Wales remained a rural backwater. Population was sparse, and the topography meant that farming was not a viable proposition on any scale.

Then the exploitation of coal and iron brought the Industrial revolution to Wales The need for labour in the south Wales coalfields brought an influx of English into this area which brought about an erosion of the Welsh language, though Welsh continued to be spoken extensively in North Wales. Today the mining of Welsh coal has all but disappeared, but the language continues to be spoken reasonably widely as a second language. Wales has been governed from London via the Welsh Office, under a cabinet minister. Following the referendum on limited devolution in 1997, the Welsh were seen to be virtually equally spilt on the subject, with the more rural "Welsh" areas being for devolution, and the more industrial areas being against it.

Chapter 18. Ireland a short guide to the British in Ireland

The Normans invaded Britain in 1066, they landed in Ireland a century later in 1169. For most of the Middle Ages Ireland was ruled as a separate kingdom under the British Crown. Although the area they controlled was not the whole country, just the eastern part shown in dark red on the left. Gradually they extended their control, but it was not till 1603 that a victory over the Irish in Ulster allowed Britain complete control of Ireland To ensue continuing control over the troublesome province of Ulster, the land was confiscated and given to small Scottish farmers. The idea being to ensue that they remained there and did not sell the land back to the native Irish. The success of this policy is the foundation of the problem of Northern Ireland today. But it is worth remembering that the Ulster Protestants have been there longer than the settlers in North America. There next major event was the Cromwellian army's campaign in Ireland immediately after the English Civil War. Cromwell was short of cash to pay his troops at the end of the war, and confiscated 80% of the land (coloured orange above) for his troops in lieu of money. The dispossessed landowners were offered poor quality land in Connaught in exchange. During the 18th century the British tried to govern an Ireland that sparked periodic unrest. This culminated in the 1798 French invasion of Ireland shown on the left. The next British attempt to solve the "Irish Problem" was the creation of the United Kingdom of Great Britain & Ireland in 1801. A solution that pleased nobody in Ireland, the protest ruling class did not want to lose their independence, and the Catholics felt betrayed when George III refused to grant Catholic emancipation Within a United Kingdom, Ireland started to struggle for reform. O'Connell and his Catholic Association founded in 1823 led the struggle for Catholic emancipation. Then the Potato Famine in the years 1845 to 1848 caused enormous upheavals as the population of Ireland fell from 9 Million to 3 million through famine and emigration. It is clear that a London government would not have let this tradgedy happen in mainland Britain. Further unrest followed the famine in Ireland, and Gladstone became British prime minister in 1868 declaring "my mission is to pacify Ireland", but failed to deliver safety for

tenants from high rents and eviction. The Irish were now led by Parnell whose Irish Party held the balance of power in the British House of Commons. However the Home Rule Bills of 1885 and 1893 were defeated, but the 1912 Home Rule Bill was passed by the Commons and the delaying powers of the Lords were limited to two years. It should have become law in 1914, but the First World War started and it never made the statute book.

A small rebellion - the Easter Rising of 1916 - was put down quickly by the government. Crass mishandling by the British resulted in many of the leaders of the Easter Rising being shot by firing squad, and the extremists acquired the status of martyers. In the election in 1918 73 of the 106 Irish seats went to Sinn Fein, who refused to go to Westminster and set up a provisional government in Ireland. There then followed 3 years of bitter guerilla war with atrocities on both sides, before a truce was finally signed in 1921, which led to the "final solution of the Irish Problem" with partition. The Irish Free State in the South and the continuation of Northern Ireland as part of the United Kingdom.

It is clear today that the Irish problem has not been solved - whether it ever can be is the question. Northern Protestants feel they have a right to determine their own future democratically on the basis of being in the majority. Northern Catholics feel they have the right to be part of a united Ireland. Whilst both sides are suspicious of the other, it is unlikely that a lasting solution can be found. Wherever in the world ethnic divisions exist (Bosnia, Ruanda, Kashmir, Timor, Chetchin. Lebanon, Palestine) solutions are seldom forthcoming

Chapter 19. Church

The Development of Christian Society in Early England. (An original article by Tim Bond).

As Christianity spread through the Western world, it rarely followed a linear path: different pockets of faith and doctrine were developed by a variety of peoples in an even greater variety of locales. Nowhere is this more evident than in Roman Britain and the era of Anglo-Saxon migrations. In five centuries, English religious culture transformed from one of pagan worship to that of leadership in the Christian world. Controversies included more than merely pagan-Christian dynamics; the Christians were greatly divided, and Christian efforts went through many ebbs before becoming firmly established. One must evaluate the development of both Rome and England to gain an adequate understanding of early English Christianity.

Fifty-five years before the birth of Jesus Christ, Julius Caesar encountered the Druidic religious culture in his invasion of Britain. Although only recently established in Caesar's day, the Druids exerted tremendous influence over British society; they were the priests of the primitive government, and possessed considerable authority as such. In addition to their spiritual duties, Druid priests were responsible for educating the youth, remained immune from military duty and taxes, and presided over civil and criminal legal matters (to the point of deciding controversies among states). They were the expression of both a local government and a community spirituality that were bound to a larger whole. They ruled with an iron fist - decisions by Druid priests were final and irrefutable. Their penalties were swift and severe, with many individual Celts and Britons banished from contact with civilization. Many aspects of Druidic culture surfaced in the formation of Celtic Christianity. Druidism was a polytheistic cult with a naturist bent: gods and goddesses were believed to inhabit local springs, caves, forests, and mountains, and became the personification of natural objects and events. The entire social structure,

both as local community and as loose nation-state, was a caste system, with the Druid priests presiding above all. Caesar viewed them with contempt; he found their brutality and centrality immediately threatening, and wrote of the Druids:

All the Gauls are as a nation much given to superstition, and, therefore, persons afflicted by severe illness or involved in wars and danger either make human sacrifices or vow to do so, and use the Druids as their ministers in these ceremonies. The Germans differ much from the Gauls in these customs. For they have no Druids to preside over their religion.

Druidic paganism was destined to be replaced with the advent of further Roman expeditions into the islands, and finally the full annexation of Britain by Rome. Caesar did little more than establish a foothold on the island; Britain officially became a frontier province of the Empire with the invasion of the emperor Claudius' troops in 43 AD. The Roman Empire was approaching the height of her power as Britain became her furthest frontier. The Roman army evolved into an institution of social mobility as Britain was romanized in the first and second centuries. Roman legions embarked on a campaign of terror against the Druids, as the latter refused polytheistic Roman religious beliefs, and thus rejected Roman governmental prerogative. Roman religion, much like Druidism, was inherently intertwined with politics. For Britain to be subjugated under the authority of Rome, the rebellious Druids had to be exterminated. The army paved the way for a flourishing Roman culture in southern England by the early second century.

Social conditions in Rome and dissatisfaction with the corrupt Roman government left many peasants in search of a spiritual fulfillment that was lacking in Roman religious institutions. Jews received a high level of tolerance from the state in their religious practices, as long as they maintained loyalty to the empire. The advent of Christianity in the mid-first century, however, developed into a leviathan that eventually strained Roman tolerance. Early Christians were exceedingly zealous in their faith, and as non-Italians gained more important official posts and social status, many of the new breed of landed aristocrats were either tolerant of or converted to

Christianity. Christianity gained a foothold in Britain by the mid-second century, but had yet to gain anything approaching religious supremacy on the island. Early Christian churches were local communal affairs - each board of elders was elected democratically by the community's inhabitants. Early Christians refused to bow before Roman authority as the Jews had previously done, and many were persecuted as enemies of the state (quite similar to the Druidic situation in Britain). Rome would tolerate native religious rites, but would brook no treason. The universality of the empire, however, paved the way for the universality of Christianity, as Christian missionaries traveled easily along Roman roads on evangelistic expeditions.

As Christianity spread throughout the empire, the Roman government found Christian refusals to worship Roman gods and participate in Roman festivals increasingly distressing; Christians endured persecution in the first and second centuries, but on an individualized, local scale. The third century proved disastrous to the empire: an outbreak of the plague, increasing barbaric invasions from the north, and fifty years of relentless civil war tarnished the image and reputation of Rome. Manpower shortages due to plague sharply decreased trade and commerce. Persians penetrated eastern territories and northern Germanic tribes overran the Balkans, Greece, and Asia Minor simultaneously with Frankish incursions in Gaul and Spain. The strong monarchy and "good emperors" of the second century devolved into anarchy under the military regimes of the third century; Roman government was disrupted as any military leader who had enough strength and persuasion could (and did) become emperor. Between 235-284 AD, twenty-two individuals, only two of whom who did not die violently, sat upon the Roman throne.

While the Empire deteriorated, the structure of Christianity gained strength in the third century, as it moved away from the looseness and democratic administration of the first and second centuries. Christianity now appealed to the entire spectrum of society, as the educated and landed aristocracy as well as the peasant and merchant classes, sought a more personal relationship with a deity than was offered by the Roman gods. The role of bishop was crucial to Christian administrative reform:

bishops were still chosen by the community in the second century, but assumed more authority as they served as leaders, with presbyters as priests subject to the bishop's control. By the third century, bishops were simply approved by the congregation after being nominated by the clergy, and consecrated in office. The Church had created a hierarchy, a government within a government, which captured the attention of Roman officials. These effects rippled into Britain, but made a lesser impact on the island isolated from events occurring throughout the continental empire.

As Christianity became more organized and gained momentum throughout Roman society, some emperors replied with systematic persecutions. Decius, in 249, was the first to blame the Christians' refusal to sacrifice to Roman gods for the ills befalling the empire. The persecutions were only slightly successful. Emperors in the third century attempted like solutions and were frustrated by lack of enforcement by local officials. Persecutions lasted until the closing years of the reign of Diocletian (284-305), but even he was forced to admit that Christianity had grown in influence to the point that it must, at least, be tolerated. Roman civilization continued to unravel in the fourth and fifth centuries; Christianity grew ever stronger, poised to supplant the authority of the disintegrating empire. The emperor Constantine (306-337), in the Edict of Milan in 313, granted official tolerance to Christianity and was honored as the first Christian emperor, although he was not baptized until the end of his life. With the exception of the three year reign of Julian (360-363), all subsequent emperors claimed Christianity as their religion. In the reign of Theodosius "the Great" (378-395), Christianity was made the official state religion. Christians in official posts quickly used their new found influence to outlaw pagan practices, such as ritual sacrifice; pagan temples, idols, and altars were destroyed as well. Some degree of Eastern mysticism and aristocratic philosophy remained for several decades, but Christianity had, in fact, triumphed.

The Roman empire was split in half once again (as it was under Diocletian's reforms) in 364 by brother-emperors Valentinian I and Valens in order to better defend the empire from increasing encroachments. The western portion, under the

control of Valentinian I and his successors, lasted barely one century, while the eastern sector survived for seven hundred years. Constant pressure from northern barbarians crippled the western empire; the Huns invaded Italy and Germanic tribes sacked Rome twice by the mid-fifth century. In 476, the western empire was extinguished - Emperor Romulus Augustus was deposed by Odavacar, a Germanic chieftain. The eastern empire continued in the new capitol city of Constantinople (ancient Byzantium), but was gradually transformed from Roman to Byzantine in nature. Church structure underwent further expansion as Christianity grew in the fourth and fifth centuries; bishops became crucial to Church administration. The position of bishop evolved from the president or chief priest of each Christian community, as these high-level priests assumed administrative functions within the growing communities. At first, bishops' duties included administering the sacraments of baptism and communion, but as the bishops' administrative areas increased, these duties fell on priests. The primary concern for priests was the parish. Each major city of the empire came to have its own bishop and became known as a bishopric, approximately equal in size to a Roman city-state. Bishops came to exert great power by the end of the fourth century, revealing the alterations that had occurred in Church-state relations throughout the empire. Ambrose of Milan went so far as to refuse communion to Emperor Theodosius on two occasions, setting an important precedent with major implications for the future: the Church was now able to exercise authority over the state in matters of faith and morality. Some time in the third century (a precise date is unknown), Apostolic Succession was employed for determining the legitimacy of bishops. A bishop's rank was dependent on whether or not he had received consecration through a succession of bishops traceable back to an Apostle. Such high ranking bishops were believed to have inherited their power in a direct line from an Apostle, and the successive passing of office in this manner led to the establishment of sees (from the Latin sedes, seat; a see was the territory of higher order bishops).

The clustering of bishoprics together along imperial provincial lines, with archbishops at the head of each province, imitated Diocletian's political reforms. The patriarchs (bishops of the widest influence) were the highest level, representing the greatest cities in Christendom - one each in Rome, Antioch, and Alexandria. The founding of Constantinople as the seat of the Eastern Empire, however, required the creation of a fourth patriarch, and with the official addition of Jerusalem as a holy see (seat of Christian administration) in 451, the number of patriarchs grew to five. Patriarchal rivalry would come to cause great consternation within Christendom. Christianity spread to the furthest reaches of the empire in the fourth century, but controversy surfaced during the expansion. Varying interpretations of scripture and differences in doctrine created conflicting pockets of Christianity. Donatus, a priest in north Africa, challenged the validity of sacraments (the earthly manifestation of receiving God's grace) offered by immoral priests, or priests who denied the faith under persecution. Arius, a priest from the Egyptian city of Alexandria, challenged the divine nature of Jesus Christ. His followers, called Arians, maintained that Jesus Christ must have been created by God, and was thus inferior to God. Arianism was directly refuted by Athanasius' argument that Jesus was both human and divine. Christ's human/divine nature proved immensely important to early Christians, and was Constantine's impetus for convening the Council of Nicea in 325. The council condemned Arianism, agreeing with Athanasius' assertion that Christ was "of the same substance" as God. Donatism was similarly dispatched by the church in 411, when it was decreed that the moral condition of a priest had no bearing on the validity of the sacraments, as long as the priest had been properly ordained. These and other heresies served to consolidate Christian doctrine.

Several other important developments of enduring influence on Christendom occurred in this period. Rivalries between patriarchs, especially those of Rome and Constantinople, erupted as clergy exerted more control over temporal affairs. Through the machinations of several Roman bishops, the Roman patriarch rose to the prominent position of Pope (taken from the Latin papa, or father). The argument for

papal supremacy centered on Peter being the chief Apostle (a questionable interpretation of a passage in the Gospel of Matthew), and his position as first bishop of Rome: all subsequent Roman bishops were deemed Peter's successors. By no means was this universally accepted. Since the Church, however, was organized on an imperial pattern with Rome as a familiar administrative center, it was simple to transfer secular power to its spiritual leadership.

Many early Christians (particularly in the west) sought knowledge from the Bible alone, casting off the classical heritage of traditional Greco-Roman thought and philosophy. Equating classical thought with the pagan practices of the dying empire, they strove to avoid contact with such humanism. With the spread of Christianity into the eastern regions of the empire in the third and fourth centuries, eastern converts tried to reconcile Christianity and classical education in order to clarify doctrinal issues. Greek became the language of eastern Christians, the New Testament was written in Greek - and Christians turned to Greek thought to express the complications of Christian theology. The union of classical thought, classical education, and Christian theology found its most profound expression in Augustine, bishop of Hippo (354-430). He produced volumes dedicated to every aspect of Christian life; most influential were the Confessions, an account of his worldliness before being converted, and City of God, an expression of Christian principles as applied to government. Augustine agreed that philosophy could reveal some truth, but divine revelation was necessary for an understanding of complete truth. The slavic Jerome (345-420) was the greatest scholar of the early Church fathers: his extensive knowledge of Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, allowed him to translate both the Old and New Testaments into Latin, creating the Latin Vulgate, the standard biblical text of the medieval Catholic church. Augustine and Jerome utilized classical tradition and pagan culture to further Christian theology, leaving their imprint on Christianity for the next millennium.

One final development, which was to have major influence on the development of British Christianity, was the institution of monasticism. Monasticism, from the

Greek *monachos* (alone), surfaced as ecclesiastics sought refuge from mass conversions of the third century- many of which occurred as means to avoid the persecution of pagans or to gain the practical economic and cultural advantages of Christianity in the later Empire, and the increasing corruption of the now wealthy clergy. Monks abandoned society and devoted themselves entirely to their own salvation through fasting, frequent prayer, and isolation in the wilderness. These monks believed self-denial was the true expression of piety and the path that led to God. Such asceticism went to extremes in the east, as monks' increasingly erratic behavior brought about the opposite of their original intention - they actually drew crowds. As monasticism filtered westward, it was refined: Western monks were more concerned with living lives free from earthly corruption, but refrained from the outrageous actions of their eastern brothers. By the early fifth century, many monasteries (communities of monks) had been established.

Monasticism became the bastion of classical learning and culture throughout Europe. Candidates studied hard to be ordained, and many monks poured over Latin and Greek manuscripts in their studies and work. The chief monk was the abbot, who had full authority over the activities and members of the monastery. For the first time on an official scale, women were included: nuns and monks lived and worked under the guidance of a common rule and a common leader in the so-called double monastery. In many double monasteries, men were subordinated to a female leader (an abbess) and used to lead worship (under Catholic doctrine only males could be priests) and as a labor force. Many abbesses, especially those in Anglo-Saxon England, were from royal houses and controlled vast territories and thousands of people. Abbots and abbesses ruled the community, and became instrumental in the development of towns in the Middle Ages. Structurally, politically, spiritually, and historically, monasticism served as a link between Greco-Roman civilization and the Renaissance.

In the late fourth and early fifth centuries, Roman legions were evacuated from Britain to the continent to resist increasing barbarian invasion. Up to that point,

Britain was still a province of Rome, with Christianity the official religion of Roman citizens. Although still a minority in the whole of the island, Christianity had made an impact in the southern, more romanized regions of Britain. In fact, early British Christians also endured some degree of persecution. Albanus of Verulamium was killed in a campaign that resulted in the destruction of many churches, and later canonized as a martyr by English Catholics. The accepted, but disputed, date for Albanus' martyrdom is 209 AD. Aaron and Julius of Caerlon were likewise murdered in Christian persecutions. The British Church was sufficiently organized by 314 to warrant representation at the Council of Arles, although there is no indication that British Christianity had any official capacity within Roman Christendom. No British representatives attended the Council of Nicea in 325 or the Council of Sardica in 343, but the British Church accepted and enforced the resulting condemnation of Arianism. At least three British bishops attended the Council of Ariminum in 360, but were too poor to pay their own expenses. These disconnected pieces of evidence imply, but do not prove, a strong Christian presence in Britain before the province was released from imperial attachments in the fifth century.

The first indication of the independent nature of British Christianity occurred in the first years of the fifth century. Pelagius, a British priest residing in Italy, expressed the belief that man was responsible directly to God for his actions, grace was attained through the effort to abide by the law of God, without direct intervention by governmental or ecclesiastic authority. This was contrary to the views of Augustine in the City of God, where a Christian government directed the activities if its citizens. The debate raged long after the death of both men, and had serious implications in the Christianizing of the British Isles. The Venerable Bede, an eighth century British monk and scholar, revealed that Irish monks still clung to Pelagian theory well into the seventh century. (Bede's Ecclesiastic History of the English People remains the primary source of both the spiritual and cultural history of the Anglo-Saxon era).

In Roman Britain, Christianity took root in the poorer ranks of society living outside the highly Romanized towns. Such areas in the south were still within the sphere of Roman influence, but in spite of three centuries of Imperial rule, the majority of Christians in Britain were of Celtic background. When Rome abandoned Britain, both spiritually and politically, the majority of British Christians fled to the west amid the onslaught of Angle, Saxon, and Jute invasions. Isolated from Roman Christianity until St. Augustine's mission in 597 AD, the period was a turning point in the further development of Christianity in England.

Fifth century monasticism proved to be the leading factor in the Christianization of the British Isles. Angles, Saxons, and Jutes from pagan northern Germany invaded and easily conquered the central and southern regions of England after Roman troops withdrew. Roman Christians fled to Wales, incorporating native pagan rituals and holidays into their faith to synthesize a unique brand of Welsh Christianity. Welsh Christians, in turn, felt little desire to attempt the conversion of the Germanic tribes. After driving the Britons into Wales, the invading barbarians turned their attention to the Scots and Picts, driving them into the Scottish highlands. Native culture, whether Celtic or Roman, was virtually abandoned in the English territory. At the same time, the monastic movement of Roman Christianity became increasingly evangelistic, sending missionaries into remote locations untouched by the empire. In this period, monasteries and convents became involved in local affairs, converting native peoples while establishing a link to classical culture and education. With Roman culture all but vanished and the Picts and Scots exiled to the northernmost regions, Christian monasticism arrived in Ireland in the form of Saint Patrick.

Patrick (c.390-461) was born of Christian Briton parents, but was kidnapped at age sixteen as a laborer by Irish slave traders. He endured six years of isolation as a shepherd, spending the time in prayer and reaching out to the Holy Spirit. Prompted by a vision, he escaped to the continent on an Irish ship, but finally made his way home to Britain. His parents welcomed him, but another vision compelled him to

travel to Gaul and enroll in a monastery (probably the monastery in Lerins) in preparation for missionary work in Ireland. After successful completion of his studies, he was ordained as a priest and bishop. Patrick's experiences as a carefree Romano-British teenager, an isolated slave and holy man in Ireland and classically trained monk set the stage for a unique twist in Christianity, especially within the British Isles.

Upon his return from the continent in 432, Patrick proceeded at once to Ireland. He accepted the Irish people just as they were, both men and women, and genuinely loved his adopted people. Patrick established many monasteries and bishoprics throughout all but southern Ireland. He succeeded in his mission to Ireland on many different levels: he converted thousands of individuals, established church structure, and persuaded the Irish people - especially Irish kings - that faithfulness, courage, and generosity could replace the sword as the primary instrument of organizing a society. Patrick spoke of the evils of slavery, which was abolished in Ireland shortly after his death. He had considerably less success with his British brothers. Petty Anglo-Saxon warlords established kingdoms throughout Britain upon the evacuation of the remaining Roman legion. Coroticus, a west coast king, invaded the coast of northern Ireland and destroyed entire communities, carting away Patrick's converts by the thousands. The Roman Christians in Wales were no help to Patrick as they viewed the emerging Celtic Christianity with contempt and were snobbish to the Irish monk. Irish monasticism continued to thrive despite these early setbacks. Celtic Christianity developed differently than Roman Christianity. Ireland was never part of the Roman Empire and remained somewhat isolated from the continent, even after Patrick's mass conversions. Catholic structure had been based on a model of Roman government that was unknown in Ireland. Monasteries, rather than bishoprics, became the fundamental unit of Celtic Christianity, with abbots exerting far more influence than bishops. By the sixth century, Irish monasticism exhibited outward signs of these differences. Celtic monks were ascetics, practicing strenuous fasts and meditation under severe privation. Confession of sin became common, so much that Irish monks

wrote manuals dedicated to dispatching appropriate penitentials for various sins. Remaining isolated from the continent prevented the corruption of the Latin language that occurred in European monasteries. The Irish fervor for learning encouraged writing, and Celtic monks provided beautiful manuscripts illustrated with geometric patterns, Celtic images, and Oriental elements passed down from the original monasteries in the east. The most profound difference between Celtic and Roman monasticism, however, was found in the very nature of each community. Continental monasteries were refuges from the world, and by the mid-fifth century, under rules established by Saint Benedict of Nursia; such Benedictine monasteries favored moderation over asceticism, the absolute authority of the abbot, and communal living and worship among brethren.

Celtic Christianity, like Welsh Christianity, was shaped much more by local concerns and compromise with the natives. Ireland had few walls and divided pastures, war was the sport of kings, Celtic women fought like Amazons, and marriage, as an institution, was largely ignored. Irish monasticism employed select Druidic elements: monastic communities petitioned clans for land grants in return for educating the clan's youth in the priestly arts. Authority became hereditary, as bishops and priests were allowed to administer sacraments, but were recruited and directed by powerful abbots and abbesses. Celtic monks shaved their heads in the Druidic tradition, and the Roman date for Easter was slightly altered to coincide with local fertility festivals. Irish monasticism, however, possessed one feature which was lacking, up to the sixth century, in both Welsh and Roman Christianity: Celtic Christianity encouraged missionary work throughout the world.

The first new wave of Christianity since the conversions of Roman British citizens in the fourth century began with the founding of a new Celtic monastery on the island of Iona, just off the western coast of Scotland. Established in 563 by Saint Columba, a Celtic monk, Iona proved to be pivotal in christianizing Scotland and northern England. Columba himself was almost single-handedly responsible for the conversion of the Picts, with nine successive abbots of his clan converting virtually

all of Scotland and nearly two-thirds of England. Continental missionary work also sprang from Columba's monastery in Iona: Saint Columbanus, a young monk, took twelve disciple monks to northern Italy and founded a monastery in Bobbio. As the Irish monks converted the north, a second wave of missionary work, Roman in nature, commenced in the south in 597. Gregory the Great, the highly influential pope of 590-604, dispatched Augustine (later to gain sainthood) to England with the express purpose of converting the Saxon kings of south England. Augustine landed in Thanet, immediately targeting the Kentish king, Ethelbert, whose wife was a Frankish Christian. Ethelbert's baptism inspired the conversion of a sizable majority of subjects: the trend of subjects following a king's conversion became a common thread of the spread of Christianity in southern England (the same trend resurfaced during the English reformation, under the reigns of Tudor monarchs). Augustine established a monastery in Canterbury, from which the southern conversions flourished, and which was to become the most powerful seat of Christianity in Britain. Paulinus, of Augustine's original party, became a member of King Edwin's Northumbrian court, through connection's with Edwin's Christian wife. Edwin and his subjects converted, but pressures from Mercia provided the impetus for still another trend in the Christianization of England.

The kingdom of Mercia, ruled by Penda, practiced Norse pagan religions, but sought an alliance with Welsh Christians in its struggle for supremacy over Northumbria. Mercia triumphed, with two Northumbrian kings, Edwin and Oswald, losing their lives in the struggle. Mercian paganism became the official religion of the kingdom. This trend continued throughout the seventh century, as pagan and Christian kingdoms fought for dominance, several kingdoms vacillated between paganism and Christianity as power shifted among the Saxon kingdoms. Of special note, however, is the leniency which the pagan kings showed to Christians: Christians were allowed to worship as they pleased, a courtesy which was not extended to pagans when Christian kingdoms triumphed.

The first half of the seventh century is one of the most important periods in British ecclesiastic history. Gregory and his disciples acknowledged the wisdom of incorporating native fertility and harvest rituals into the list of Christian holidays; Roman Christianity established a firm hold on southern England. With Canterbury as its base, Roman Christianity quickly spread northward to confront Celtic Christianity. Aidan of Iona founded a monastery on the island of Lindisfarne in 635, and two of his monks, Benedict Biscop and Wilfrid, were instrumental in winning Northumbria to Celtic Christianity. Lindisfarne, even more than Iona, became a center for training and education: the most famous illuminated manuscript of Celtic monasticism, the Lindisfarne Gospels, was completed in 700. Paganism was in the final stages of its vitality as religious controversy moved from the basis of paganism versus Christianity to Roman versus Celtic Christianity. Arguments over the proper calendar dates for feasts and differences in discipline raged throughout England during the mid-seventh century. Welsh and Roman Christians addressed the issues without resolution on the banks of the Severn in the 640's, but Roman and Celtic Christians lacked the motivation and flexibility to resolve the conflict until the Synod of Whitby in 664. Held in Northumbria at the behest of King Oswy, the meeting carried political, as well as religious, overtones. Wilfrid traveled to Italy after the establishment of the monastery at Lindisfarne and became a firm proponent of uniting Rome and England. At Whitby, Wilfrid spoke on behalf of Roman Christianity, maintained that all of Christendom, with the exception of the two small islands, agreed on doctrine as espoused by Rome. Oswy, under the influence of a new generation of fervent Roman Christian princes, ruled in favor of Roman Christianity. His decision, in large part, must be attributed to an effort to solidify alliances with the kingdoms of Wessex, Essex, and Kent, against Mercia. A gradual fusion of Celtic and Roman Christianity ensued: the Archbishop of Canterbury was made the highest ranking ecclesiastic in Britain, with the various bishops and monasteries subordinated to his authority, and Roman dates were employed to delineate holidays. The missionary and intellectual work of Celtic monasticism, however, was allowed to thrive. The Whitby decision was irrevocable, but not irrefutable. The Welsh church,

for example, failed to come to terms until 738, and pockets of resistance lasted until the ninth century. England under a united Christianity, however, was a powerful component of the medieval church. Theodore of Tarsus was appointed to carry out the successful parish reorganization of England. English monasticism was saved as an important training institution for further missionary work and remained the main depository of intellectual activities throughout the Middle Ages. Three monks from monasteries established by Benedict Biscop became highly influential members of Christendom: the previously mentioned Bede; Saint Boniface, whose work included conversion of the Frisians and Swabians in Germany; and Alcuin of York, who carried Christianity and intellectualism into the illiterate court of the Frankish king, Charlemagne. England was to remain an essential part of Roman Catholicism until the marital antics of Henry VIII in the sixteenth century. Several comparisons can be made between the development of Christianity in both the Roman Empire and England. In most instances, Christianity took root in the peasant classes (as was the case in Roman Britain), filtering up into higher social orders as it became more acceptable. After the mass conversions of the second and third centuries, the aristocracy saw Christianity as fashionable, and such superficial conversions had an influence on the development of monasticism. Prior to the flowering of Christianity in the Empire, social changes were initiated by the upper echelons of society and traveled downward through the lower castes, the majority of the Anglo-Saxon conversions occurred as subjects followed the lead of their kings. Cultural clashes developed different interpretations of scripture in both civilizations, and the subsequent disparity of doctrine, as well as compromise with native peoples in the course of the conversion process, created conflicts and controversies. The largest difference between Roman and English Christianity occurred in the development of monasticism, and this contrast remained throughout the entire medieval period: British monasticism remained dedicated to classical thought while continental monasticism was corrupted through increasing contact with native civilizations and migrant Germanic tribes. England proved to be a microcosm of Christendom as a whole.

The Religious Policy of King Henry VIII (by Jeff Hobbs).

Henry VIII is often remembered as the English monarch who broke with the Roman Church. However, Henry was only attracted to Protestant doctrine in a limited way, as the years 1530-1547 demonstrate. Between the years 1530-1534, Henry tried to secure the Pope's permission to divorce Catherine of Aragon, by threatening first the English clergy and then the Pope's powers in England. When the Pope still did not grant the divorce, Henry undertook the most extreme of measures, claiming jurisdiction over the English Church for himself. The Act of Royal Supremacy of 1534 stated that the Crown was reclaiming powers that it had always possessed; powers that Rome had usurped during the previous four hundred years - a fact which Henry and his advisors firmly believed.

Yet, by the end of 1534, the English Church was still a Catholic one. Although it was now free of Rome, its religious doctrine hadn't changed at all. There was plenty of debate over the form of doctrine the Church should take, and Henry incorporated some evangelical ideas into his Church. The Dissolution of the Monasteries, for instance, may have been primarily concerned with matters of money and land, but it also swept away a huge and privileged clerical society. This was a very visible attack on the pre-Reformation Church, and the whole task was completed within the four years between 1536-40. In 1536, the Ten Articles were produced as a formulary of the new Church's faith. These articles referred to just three sacraments - baptism, penance and the Eucharist - rather than the usual seven. This was radical at the time, but also confusing, and there was much debate over the 'missing' four sacraments of confirmation, ordination, marriage and last rites. A month later, Thomas Cromwell's Injunctions took a moderate stand against images in churches and against pilgrimages, and it also banned some holy days and saints' days. The issue of transubstantiation was not specifically mentioned, and the Lutheran concept of justification by faith alone was watered down. Therefore, the official religion of England did not condemn the Mass and it did not condemn the Catholic call for good

works; but emphasis was laid upon the words of the Scriptures and upon the merits of the simple Christian life. It was a tentative move in an evangelical direction.

In 1537, the 'Institution of a Christian Man' was a further attempt at a formulary of faith. It tried to deal with the questions of purgatory, and the status of the four missing sacraments in the Ten Articles - which were now found to be lesser sacraments! It emphasised the fact that justification through the merits of Christ didn't dispense with the need for good works. On the issue of transubstantiation the Bishop's Book was adamant that "under the form and figure of bread and wine, which we there presently do see and perceive by outward senses, is verily, substantially, and really contained the very selfsame body and blood of our Saviour Jesu Christ".

However a great breakthrough for evangelicals did come in 1537 when royal permission was given for a vernacular version of the Bible. In 1538 Cromwell issued further Injunctions that required that all churches acquire a copy of the English Bible. The central position of scripture in Protestant belief made it vital to make the text available, and an official version gave the English Bible the stamp of approval. Cromwell's Injunctions also took a strong line against images, and centres of pilgrimage. These three years 1536-38 marked the high watermark of officially sanctioned evangelical doctrine under Henry VIII. The King was a keen theologian, and was prepared to incorporate evangelical ideas into his new Church where he saw fit. But he wasn't comfortable with the alterations, and from 1539 onwards he reversed most of his previous policies. In 1539 the Act of Six Articles returned the Church to unambiguous Catholic orthodoxy apart from papal supremacy. Amongst other things, transubstantiation and auricular confession were reaffirmed. Clerical marriage, which had crept in, was condemned, and vows of chastity were now held to be unbreakable. This was an embarrassment to the Archbishop of Canterbury, Thomas Cranmer, whose marriage was an open secret at the time. More significantly, under this act heresy again became a felony. This was a clear signal that Henry VIII wouldn't tolerate those with radical religious views. Henry tried to establish a concensus between Protestants and conservatives. Protestants were punished for

violating the Six Articles, while papists were punished for denying the royal supremacy. Until Henry's death in 1547, the Act of Six Articles remained the basis of the Church's faith. In 1543, 'A Necessary Doctrine & Erudition for any Christian Man' came down entirely on the side of traditional orthodoxy, and merely replaced the papal supremacy with the king's authority. Any traces of Lutheranism that were present in the Book of 1537 'Institution of a Christian Man' had now disappeared. Although the English Bible was retained, access to it was severely restricted by the Act for the Advancement of True Religion in 1543. This allowed only upper class men & women to read the Bible, with such women only allowed to read it in private. Henry VIII had dallied with Protestant ideas, but ultimately he proved to be conservative on matters of religious doctrine. It would take his son, Edward VI, and his advisors, to turn England into something more like a genuine Protestant country.

An Overview of Churchmen & the Church in the 14th Century

To the modern day reader, the number and variety of people who provided some kind of religious function in the late fourteenth century is mind-boggling. First, there was the secular hierarchy of paid archbishops, bishops and priests. Usually, the archbishops and bishops were like the secular aristocracy of the time. They lived in palaces and employed men to work their lands; they participated in politics, and even enjoyed such aristocratic pursuits as hunting. There was a huge social gulf between these prelates and their parish clergy. Such clergy were often from poor backgrounds, were poorly educated and many of them received meagre benefices from which to support their pastoral work. Aside from these, there were various orders of monks and nuns, who were supposed to stay within their own religious communities - locked away from the outside world. By comparison, the various orders of friars were supposed to get out into the world and preach, and to make their living by begging. This was the theory, but in practice things might be different. There were numerous complaints, in the literature of the time, of monks who lived in luxury and of friars who dallied with women and gave easy confessions to nobles in return for large endowments for their order. Even for those who could not get a benefice as a parish

priest, there were other ways of making a living from their faith. The nobility employed priests and choirs in their own private chapels and joining part of a noble's entourage must have been a much sought-after prize. Others might make a living as a chantry priest, which involved saying prayers for the souls of living or departed patrons. Some people, called pardoners, travelled around the country selling pardons and religious relics to any who might buy them - and there were plenty of buyers. Also at this time, professions such as lawyers and doctors were considered to be clerics. This was important because it allowed them to claim 'benefit of clergy' - the privilege of not having to appear before a secular court of law for an alleged offence. These various elements of the Church did not always get on with each other. In the Universities there were bitter disputes between the secular clergy and the friars, often over benefices; different orders of friars might be hostile to each other; and, in the parishes, local clergy often resented friars coming into their church and preaching to their congregation. To add to this problem, the Church experienced a schism from 1378 to 1417, when there were two popes - one in Rome and one in Avignon. Like other parts of Christendom, the Church in England had to choose sides. As an institution, the Church also experienced serious challenges from the lay community in the late fourteenth century. From the 1370s onwards, Parliaments frequently complained that the clergy weren't paying their fair share towards the war effort with France - and some demanded disendowment of the clergy. However, the biggest threat to the Church in the last decades of the century was from Lollardy, a movement instigated by John Wycliffe, which began to question the Church's claim to be the sole authority on matters of religion. Lollardy posed a serious problem for the Church because a number of nobles took Wycliffe's ideas from the confines of Oxford University out into the political world. Locally, in areas such as Leicester, nobles offered protection to Lollard preachers and, by the end of the century, the heresy acts were revived so that wayward preachers could be put to death. The Church managed to retain its position as the sole authority on religious matters - at least for the time being.

The History of the English Book of Common Prayer

Walk into any Anglican cathedral or church, and the chances are that you will find a Book of Common Prayer somewhere within. Although this Prayer Book is now a well-established part of the Anglican Church service, its origins are firmly rooted in the ideological struggle of the English Reformation.

By the time Henry VIII died, in 1547, the English religion was basically still Catholic - but with a difference. Although Henry had broken with Rome and wound down the monasteries, the mass was still a Catholic one, told in Latin, and Catholic sacraments remained. Henry had dabbled with Reformist ideas, ordering that English bibles be placed in every parish, and even reducing the number of sacraments from seven to two for a short period of time. But he changed his mind, and for the last eight years of his life Catholic practices remained almost in full, although Henry persecuted hard line Reformists and Catholics alike. It was during the short reign of Henry's son, King Edward VI, that something like real Protestantism gradually became the official religion of the country. In 1549 Archbishop Thomas Cranmer produced what is now known as the First English Prayer Book, and it became the sole legal form of worship. This Prayer Book was the first attempt at putting the English service into a single volume, and it set out a format of worship to be followed throughout the year. It was a move in a Protestant direction because it emphasised scripture as the basis of the service, and some of the Catholic ceremonial elements were removed. Also, the service was now in English rather than Latin. Yet this Prayer Book was still open to both Catholic and Protestant interpretation. The order of the old Latin mass was mostly retained, and, of utmost importance at the time, the matter of transubstantiation (the belief that the bread and wine changed into the body and blood of Christ) was left open.

As a result of this ambiguity, Archbishop Cranmer received pressure from all manner of Reformists. Various notable foreign reformers, such as Peter Martyr and

Martin Bucer, had recently fled the Counter Reformation in Europe, and sought refuge in England. They urged Cranmer to produce a genuinely reformed Prayer Book. At the same time, Bishops such as Ridley of London sometimes took their own steps beyond the first Prayer Book. For instance, from 1550 Ridley issued an order that turned all altars in his London diocese into communion tables, symbolising the removal of barriers between officiating priests and participating laity.

The result was that, in 1552, Cranmer produced a new Prayer Book. There has been much historical debate over the authorship and meaning of the Second Prayer Book, because we don't know exactly who drafted it. While Cranmer, obviously played a central role in it, it is possible that Martyr, Ridley, John Knox and Hooper amongst others may all have had some input. Whatever the authorship, the Second Prayer Book was significant because it completely altered the First Prayer Book, and put forward a much more Protestant form of worship. The key to the Protestant emphasis of the Second Prayer Book was the stance it took on the issue of transubstantiation. The Second Prayer Book's emphasis on remembrance, and feeding by faith, made it plain that this was not Christ's body or blood that were being consumed but something that represented them. The denial of transubstantiation is rationalised by the fact that "the natural body and blood of our saviour Christ ... are in heaven and not here. For it is against the truth of Christ's true natural body, to be in more places than in one at one time". There were plenty of other changes too. The Catholic altar was replaced by a communion table, possibly in recognition of what Ridley and others had already done. The Calvinist doctrine of predestination, the idea of souls elected to go to heaven, also replaced the Catholic idea of salvation through good works. Therefore, whereas the First Prayer Book said that "when the judgement shall come which thou hast committed to thy well beloved Son ... we, may be found acceptable in thy sight, and receive blessing, the Second Prayer Book changed this to "and in whom the souls of them that be elected, after they be delivered from the burden of the flesh, be in joy and felicity". The Second Prayer Book also reduced the amount of ceremony during the service. For instance, in the baptism ceremony, the

Second Prayer Book excluded the exorcism "I command thee, unclean spirit, in the name of the Father ... that thou come out, and depart from these infants".

Ironically, the new Prayer Book was only to last a year or so as the basis of worship because Edward VI died and was replaced by Mary I, a devout Catholic. Yet ultimately, as some Anglican Cathedrals and churches demonstrate, the Prayer Book was to endure.

An Overview of the Church & Faith in the 14th Century

The parish church played a very important part in everyday life and it was involved in secular affairs as much as spiritual ones. Church courts regulated the moral behaviour of local parishioners and were a means of settling disputes between neighbours, whilst monasteries might provide alms to the poor, and a basic education to local children. The parish also took money from its parishioners in the form of the tithe, which was a percentage of their income and/or livestock. At the same time, the parish church served a more informal purpose as a focal point for the local community. It was usually a bigger building than that of the local villagers and might serve as a community hall for such functions as plays, dances and even markets. There were numerous holy days and feast days throughout the year - perhaps between 30 and 50 depending upon locality - and some of these meant days off work.

In terms of the mass itself, the laity's main role in the service was as spectators. They were encouraged to participate in a series of Creeds, Aves and Paternosters at identified points in the service, but otherwise the mass was in Latin and required little participation. The church walls were often painted with biblical pictures, such as scenes from the passion of Christ, and depictions of Doomsday. At a time when literacy was only beginning to increase amongst the wealthy lay people, these images were an important element of the population's perception of their faith. At the same time, Doomsday was a common component of faith at this time, with many believing that the end of the World was imminent.

An important element of faith at this time was the belief in purgatory - a place between heaven and hell, where the soul would need to be cleansed before it might go to heaven. Therefore, it was believed, remission from time in purgatory might be bought on earth from things such as indulgences. These were documents signed by prelates that granted a certain amount of pardon for the soul when in purgatory. Travelling pardoners sold these indulgences, but another way of gaining one was to take part in a pilgrimage to a holy shrines in England or abroad.

People sought remission in purgatory in other ways. Institutions such as chantries, fraternities and religious guilds were set up by groups of lay people to provide prayers for the souls of the living and/or the dead when they were in purgatory. These different organisations varied in wealth - they might have great buildings and employ their own priests, or they might merely provide a candle or two in front of an altar. Another notable aspect of popular religious devotion, in the late fourteenth century, was the performance of miracle plays. Some of the larger trade guilds, for instance those of York and Coventry, performed miracle plays amidst the widespread festivities of Corpus Christi week. These plays were performed in great cycles - which spanned several days - and they charted the story of the World from its beginning to Doomsday, with great emphasis on Christ's passion in particular. All of the trade guilds of York took part, and great expense and preparation went into the staging of these plays.

The History of Lollardy

Britannia's biography of **John Wycliffe** highlights some of his criticisms of the Church, and also tells how certain of his followers became known as Lollards. In the last twenty years or so of the fourteenth century, Lollards became a serious threat to the established Church. Lollards believed that Christianity should be closely based on the Bible; that everyone should have access to a vernacular Bible; and that everyone should be allowed to interpret its meaning for themselves. This posed a threat at the

time because the Church was the sole authority on the Bible, and it was usually its interpretation of the Bible that permeated society.

At a time when there was plenty of criticism of the Papacy and the clergy, Wycliffe went a step further and suggested that the clergy should be separated from secular matters so that they could concentrate on spiritual affairs. Lollards wanted the clergy to live off alms and their own labour, rather than from the labours of others. Their concern was that the clergy had become so caught up in secular affairs that they had forgotten their spiritual obligations.

The Lollard use of the Bible as the main authority of Christian faith also gave them justification for criticising some of the practices of the Church. For instance, the fifth of the conclusions which the Lollards posted outside Westminster Hall in 1395 referred to the use of, amongst other things, "water ... salt and oyle and encens, the ston of the auter, upon uestiment, mitre, crose and pilgrimes" as the "uerray practy[s] of nigromancie rathere thanne of the holi theologie". Other critics of the time questioned some of the Church's practices, but they did so because they saw them as misguided - the Lollards sought to have 'superstitious' practices removed because they had no scriptural justification. Another important part of Wycliffe's teaching was the idea of predestination, whereby only those preselected would enjoy salvation in heaven when they died. This, again, was an implicit attack on the function of the Church. A central tenet of Catholicism up to this point was the belief that salvation could be achieved through good behaviour and charitable works. A chief function of the clergy was to help the laity achieve this grace, via the sacraments such as the Eucharist, and confession, whereby repentant sinners might be forgiven. The idea that only those who were predestined for salvation would get to heaven directly threatened the belief that good acts on earth might influence one's chances of getting to heaven. During the course of the fifteenth century, the Lollards began to see themselves as separated from their fellow conforming Christians, and that they had a better chance of being one of the elect than if they were just a member of the established Church.

The main belief that took Wycliffe's teaching outside of the usual criticism of the Church was the denial of transubstantiation, the miraculous transformation of the Eurcharistic bread and wine into the body and blood of Christ. When Wycliffe originally put forward this idea in 1382, it lost him a lot of support, especially at the higher levels of society. This belief also brought Lollardy into the realms of heresy because it denied that 'wene that Godis bodi, that neuere schal out of heuene, be uertu of the prestis wordis schulde ben closid essenciali in a litil bred that thei schewe to the puple'. This was a denial of the central mystery of the medieval mass and posed a direct challenge to the Church. Criticism of the Church and its practices was one thing, but a denial of such important doctrine was too much for fourteenth century England. The reason that Lollardy posed a threat to the Church at this time was because some members of the nobility, including some at the King's Court, were attracted to Lollard ideas. The initial rise of Lollardy depended upon gentry, such as Sir Thomas Latimer and Sir John Montague, taking the scholarly arguments of Wycliffe and his followers out into the world of everyday politics. Between 1384 and 1396, a large Lollardic compilation known as the Floretum was produced and widely circulated, as well as the Bible translation, and this suggests that money and organization were available.

Also important to the initial spread of Wycliffe's ideas were the various clerics who favoured such beliefs. Preaching amongst the laity was an important way to spread dissent, especially after a purge of Oxford University in 1382. Preachers received protection from local knights and manual craftsmen, like William Smith in Leicester, were able to spread Lollard ideas to a wider audience. This suggests a different strand of Lollardy to the intellectual one that Wycliffe started at Oxford University. To artisans, such as Smith, the right of the laity to withhold tithes from incompetent parsons and even to dispense with a ministry altogether were probably more important than some of Wycliffe's finer metaphysical arguments.

We do not know exactly how much support Lollardy enjoyed in late fourteenth century England, but we do know that the Church and government perceived

religious dissent as a serious threat. In 1377, the Pope issued a bull listing nineteen errors which Wycliffe had made and, in 1382, the Council of Blackfriars rejected fourteen of his beliefs and declared ten of them heretical. By 1384, the ecclesiastical authorities had issued injunctions against Wycliffe's followers over a wide area of the country. In 1401, the heresy act was passed decreeing that all those found guilty of heresy, or the possession of heretical writings, and who refused to recant, were to be handed over to the lay powers and burned. From this point onwards, Lollards had to operate underground. Yet the movement did persist into the fifteenth century - in towns such as Bristol, Coventry and Leicester, and in country areas such as Kent and East Anglia. The Church must have still perceived a threat from these dissents since, in 1423, Archbishop Arundel's 'Constitutions' restricted the free discussion of the central issues of theology. Although Lollardy then evades the historian for much of the fifteenth century, it did endure. It had re-emerged by the time of the English Reformation and, at least some of the heretics burned during the reign of Mary Tudor in the mid-sixteenth century, were Lollards rather than Lutherans or Calvi

Overview of Christianity in Britain

Of the religions practised in modern Britain, Christianity is the most longestablished and widely observed. It was first brought to Britain during the days of the Roman empire. There are, in fact, forty churches still in regular use, parts of which date from that period. With the departure of the legions and the Anglo-Saxon invasions of the fifth century Christianity was reduced to pockets of support in Wales, Scotland and Ireland. This situation changed with the arrival of missionaries sent by the Pope led by Augustine in 597. The next few centuries saw Christianity established throughout Britain. Augustine, meanwhile, became the first Archbishop of Canterbury, the holder of which position remains the most important figure in the Church of England. Bishops were also established in a number of other centers, and by the end of the eleventh century a system of dioceses and parishes had been established across much of England. This system, with the creation of additional parishes and dioceses in the nineteenth century to cope with population growth and

urban development, remains the basis of the structure of the Church of England. The Reformation of the sixteenth century did not disturb this structure. It did, however, fracture the Christian community in the British Isles. Links with Rome were broken and an established church owing its allegiance to the English crown replaced the medieval Church in England, Wales and Ireland. In Scotland it was replaced by the established Presbyterian Church of Scotland. Roman Catholicism survived in strength only in Ireland. The Reformation was followed by further divisions. Conflicts over theology, church order and freedom of conscience led to a series of secessions from the Church of England in the course of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. These Free Churches, as they are now called, were joined in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries by the Methodist products of the Evangelical Revival. This and the resurgence of Roman Catholicism throughout Britain in the course of the nineteenth century, largely as a result of immigration, particularly from Ireland, produced an increasingly diverse religious scene. Further immigration in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries has added to this diversity. There are now over 200 different Christian denominations in Britain, nists.

The Structure of the Church in Britain

The Church of England is the successor of the medieval church in England. It has its own liturgy, the Book of Common Prayer dating from 1549 and the Alternative Service Book which was introduced in 1980. It is divided into two provinces, Canterbury in the south and York in the north of England. The archbishops of these respective provinces are the two most senior clergy in the Church. Each province contains a number of dioceses, defined administrative areas presided over by a bishop who has exclusive jurisdiction within it. The province of Canterbury has 30 dioceses, including the Diocese of Europe, and the province of York has 14.

The dioceses are further divided into archdeaconries, deaneries and parishes. An archdeaconry, headed by an archdeacon appointed by the bishop, may include the whole of a diocese, but is usually smaller. A deanery, presided over by a dean, is a collection of parishes within an archdeaconry. The smallest administrative unit in the Church of England is the parish. There are 13,150 of these, covering the length and breadth of England. The majority of the Church's 13,920 clergy are involved in parish ministry.

Each diocese has its own bishop, who is responsible for its spiritual leadership, and is centered upon a cathedral church. With the exceptions of the cathedrals of Coventry, Guildford and Liverpool (all of which were completed in the post-war ancient buildings, originated before 1500. are period) these The church nominates two candidates to fill each vacancy of and archbishop or bishop. One of these candidates is then appointed by the Sovereign on the advice of the Prime Minister. The two archbishops, the bishops of London, Durham and Winchester, together with 21 other bishops in order of seniority, sit in the House of Lords. Clergy of the Church of England, in common with those of the Church of Scotland, the Church of Ireland and the Roman Catholic Church may not sit in the House of Commons. The Church of England has its own central governing and legislative body, the General Synod. This has three houses, one for the diocesan bishops, while the other two are made up respectively of elected representatives of the clergy and the laity of the Church. Lay people are also involved in church government in the parishes. The various organizations within the Church report to the Synod on such matters as the mission of the clergy and laity, missionary work, interchurch relations, social questions, the care of church buildings, education and recruitment and training for the ministry. Measures passed by the General Synod are scrutinized by Parliament's ecclesiastical committee, which consists of members drawn from both Houses. However, the committee can only accept or reject the measures placed before it, it does not have the power to amend them. The Church of England is part of a worldwide communion of Anglican churches. These are similar in organization and worship to the Church of England and originated from it. Links between the components of the Anglican Communion are

maintained by the Lambeth Conference of Anglican bishops held every ten years, and the Anglican Consultative Council, on which lay people and clergy are also represented, which meets every two to three years. There are three of these sister churches in the other parts of the British Isles, the Church of Ireland, the Scottish Episcopal Church and the Church in Wales. The first and last of these were disestablished in 1869 and 1921 respectively, and there is now no established Church in either Wales or Northern Ireland. Each of these Churches is governed separately by its own institutions, as are the other Churches in the Anglican Communion. This has led to a number of differences developing between them, of which the most obvious example is in attitudes to the ordination of women. A number of Anglican churches around the world now ordain women as priests. The Church of Ireland, has ordained women since 1991. The Church of England's General Synod voted in 1992 to allow the ordination of women, and the first such ordinations took place in Spring 1994.

The Church of Scotland and the Free Churches

The Reformation in Scotland led to the replacement of the medieval church by one which is presbyterian in form. That is, it has no bishops but is governed by its ministers and elders. While it is an established Church, the State has always recognized the complete freedom of the Church in all matters of doctrine, worship and church government. Both men and women may join the ministry, which is, as in the Church of England, exercised through a network of parishes across the country. There are about 1,600 of these parishes, which are governed locally by Kirk Sessions, consisting of ministers and elders. Above the Kirk Session are 47 Presbyteries. These select a number of ministers and ruling elders, varying according to the size of the Presbytery, to sit on the General Assembly. This meets annually under the presidency of an elected Moderator who serves for one year. The Sovereign is usually represented at the General Assembly by the Lord High Commissioner. There are a number of Presbyterian churches which are independent of the Church of Scotland, particularly in parts of the Highlands and Islands. There are also

Presbyterian churches elsewhere in Britain. The Presbyterian Church of Ireland is the largest Protestant church in Northern Ireland, and there are a number of smaller Presbyterian bodies in the Province. The Presbyterian Church of Wales (also known as the Calvinistic Methodist Church) is the largest of the Free Churches in Wales. The Presbyterian Church of England is now part of the United Reformed Church. The term "Free Churches" is used to describe those **Protestant** churches in Britain which, unlike the Churches of England and Scotland, are not established churches. While their historical experience has given these churches a shared sense of identity, they vary greatly in doctrine, worship and government. All the major Free Churches, Methodist, Baptist, United Reformed and Salvation Army, allow both men and women to become ministers. The largest of the Free Churches is the Methodist Church with about a million members, followed by the Baptist church and United Reformed Church

Topics for credit

- 1. 4000 BC to 1500 BC Stone Age man and the first farmers.
- 2. Age of Hill Forts and Hill Tribes in Britain.
- 3. The Romans in Britain.
- 4. 410 to 1066. Anglo Saxon Britain. Viking raids. The Norman invasion.
- 5. The Norman kings consolidate their hold on Britain.
- 6. Wars in France, revolt in England, Civil War in England.
- 7. The Tudors Henry VII, Henry VIII, Mary & Elizabeth.
- 8. James I, Charles I and the descent into Civil War, the King executed, Cromwell rules.
- 9. Restoration Charles II, James II, William III and Anne.
- 10. The House of Hanover ruled Britain 1714 1815.
- 11. Power, Peace and Prosperity 1815 to 1914.
- 12. The First World War 1914 to 1918.
- 13. UK Britain Between the Wars 1918 to 1945.
- 14. The Second World War 1939 to 1945.
- 15. Britain since 1945.
- 16. Scotland a separate nation.
- 17. Wales a Celtic land of mountains and coal.
- 18. Ireland a short guide to the British in Ireland.

TESTS

ВАРИАНТ 1.

Translate into English: назначать за личные заслуги, провиант для армии, задолженности по зарплате, полк, избирательное право, верхушка подпольной организации, резня, партизанская война, раздор, парламентская чехарда, бунт, увековечить память.

- 1. What sources are there at the disposal of historians that allow to reconstruct Anglo-Saxon period?
- 2. Explain: Who are 'Roundheads', 'Cavaliers', 'Ironsides'? What is 'Short Parliament'? 'Long Parliament'? 'Pride's Purge'?
- 3. Enumerate reasons for the Hundred Years' war: a) political; b) economic.
- 4. Speak of social life of Restoration period. Which innovations are worth mentioning? What made this period so dissimilar to Interregnum?
- 5. Find on the map cities of Roman origin. Do they form any pattern? What word-building element is common for them? What about Saxon settlements?
- 6. Enter the grid on the first American colonies:

Name and	Type of	Leaders and	Main	Achievements
date of	settlers	governers	events	
foundation				

7. Why is Elizabethian era considered Golden Age in England? Name as many reasons as possible.

8. Why are the names of George Villiers, Oliver Cromwell, William Laud, John

Pym important for the Personal Rule period?

10. Henry V became the subject of a play by Shakespeare; what do you think

made the character attractive to the playwright?

ВАРИАНТ 2.

Enumerate political, economic and religious reasons for the Irish war. Speak about its

consequences.

1. Speak about the Viking influence on the English language; which cases of

borrowings are unique?

2. Give English equivalents for: единое политическое пространство,

размещение на постой (о войсках), военно-полевой суд, взимать налоги,

репрессии, лишение гражданских прав, браться за оружие, прекращение

огня, просить политического убежища, эшафот.

3. Explain: What is 'Domesday book'?

What is Normandy?

What is a 'crusade'?

Why is the dynasty called 'Plantagenet'?

4. Where did the title 'Prince of Wales' spring from?

5. Sum up Clarendon Code; what was its effect?

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- 6. In which way are names *Llewelyn, Robert Bruce, Joan of Ark* important for the Plantagenet period?
- 7. The names Gaius Julius Caesar, Emperor Claudius, Boudicca, Suetonius Paullinus, Emperor Hadrian, Emperor Honorius: what makes them important for the period?
- 8. Dwell in details on the relations of King James I and the Parliament; what caused increasing conflict?
- 9. Why did Mary I earn the title 'Bloody Mary'?

ВАРИАНТ 3.

- 1. In which way are names of General Monck, Gerard Winstanley, Charles II important for the Republic period?
- 2. Find English equivalents for: племя, престолонаследие, грабить, регулярная армия, военная добыча, расширение территории, перемирие, потомок, историческое свидетельство (подтверждение).
- 3. Comment on Charles I's attempts to 'do good' to the nation. Why were they not appreciated?
- 4. Comment upon the influence of the Black Death year on reshaping the economic relief of England. Do you have an impression that the economy of the country was undermined by the war and the epidemic? Or that the war in France was a lucrative business? Why?

- 5. Which political parties sprang up at Resoration? What was it connected with?
- 6. Explain what is: a) a longbow; b) a guild; c) a 'Stone of Destiny'?
- 7. Comment upon the use of coinage and pottery for archeologists. What conclusions about the Roman period were made with their help?
- 8. In which way are names of *Pym*, George Villers, Earl of Salisbury, John Rolfe important for the United Crowns period?
- 9. Enlarge upon the statement: "Henry VII formed a new monarchy based upon a new relationship in the society..." What made it possible?

10. Explain: Who are 'Roundheads', 'Cavaliers', 'Ironsides'?

ВАРИАНТ 4.

- 1. Speak about social situation during Protectorship. Would you like to live in that sort of society?
- 2. Explain: What is 'Heptarchy'? What is 'wergild'? What is 'Danegeld'?
- 3. In which way are the names of Edward the Confessor, King Harold of Norway, Henry I, Stephen and Matilda (Maud), Thomas Becket, King John important for the Norman Conquest period?
- 4. Find English equivalents for the following: (не)платежеспособность, стычка, уступчивый, отречься от престола, осадить (осада), снять осаду, низложение монарха, регулярная армия, лишения, подушный налог,

отмена крепостного права, переговоры, перемирие, наемники, порох, пушки..

- 5. Comment upon the circumstances of creating *Magna Charta*; why is this document crucial for British history?
- 6. Why are the names: George Monck, Clarendon, Nell Gwynn, Sir Christopher Wren, the 1st Earl of Shaftesbury, Duke of York important for the Restoration period?
- 7. Speak about the trace of Roman colonization in the English language.
- 8. James I was: a) Tudor; b) Stuart; c) Plantagenet. Which is correct?
- 9. Enumerate notable events during Henry VIII' reign.
- 10. Why were the English so suspicious of 'Papists'?

imelines of British History

This section presents the sweep of British history in chronological form, broken down into discrete time periods. Select the time period below that interests you most

· Prehistoric Britain (5000 BC - c. 100 BC)

Britain before the Romans came: stone, bronze, iron ages, construction of stonehenge, earthworks, Druids, the Celts.

· Roman Britain (55 BC - 410 AD)

From Julius Caesar's first attempt at conquest to the final days of Roman administration in Britain: rebellion, subjugation, advent of Christianity, barbarian invasions, withdrawal.

• Early British Kingdoms (410 - 598)

After the Roman influence ceased, the activities of the British people: westward movement, intrigues & alliances, power struggles, explosion of missionary activities, plague, Saxon invasions.

• Early British Kingdoms (599 - 937)

Continuing activities of the British people: further westward movement, more intrigues & alliances, more power struggles, more Saxon invasions, religious strife with Roman Catholicism.

· Anglo Saxon England (597 - 687)

The coming of St. Augustine, triumph of Rome-oriented Christianity, Saxon control of island, rise of Mercia, Offa's Dyke.

· Anglo Saxon England (688 - 801)

Rise of Wessex, King Ine establishes his law, Venerable Bede, Viking invasions.

· Anglo Saxon England (802 - 898)

Triumph of Egbert, development of Wessex dynasty, Viking wars, Alfred the Great, St. Swithun, Peace of Wedmore, the Danelaw.

Anglo Saxon England (899 - 977)

Athelstan, St. Dunstan, growth of monasteries, more Viking wars, Battle of Brunanburh

· Anglo Saxon England (978 - 1066)

Aethelred the Unready, Danegeld, Danes gain English crown, Edward the Confessor, rise of the Godwins, Westminster Abbey, Harold and William at Hastings.

• *Medieval Britain* (1066 - 1487)

Conquest, consolidation, feudal system, Magna Carta, codification of laws, individual rights, Welsh & Scottish wars, murder of a king, Black Plague, Hundred Years War, Peasant's Revolt, religious unrest, Princes in the Tower, Wars of the Roses.

· Life and Reign of Queen Elizabeth I (1533 - 1603)

The life and dramatic reign of a woman who must be considered to be in the top rank of English monarchs.

• The Reformation & Restoration Period (1486 - 1689)

Emergence of Britain into modern era: rise of Tudors, Dissolution of Monasteries, religious struggles, discovery, Elizabeth 1, unification of Scottish & English crown, overthrow and restoration of monarchy.

• The Age of Empire (1689 - 1901)

Bill of Rights, limits on monarchy, political awakening, war with colonies, expansion of empire, Gothic revival, industrial revolution, scientific development, literary & artistic golden age.

· Arthurian History & Legend (63 AD - 1090)

History of Arthurian (5 & 6th century) Britain and beginning of development of the legend: Saxon wars, Ambrosius, Vortigern, Mt. Badon, Mordred, Camlann, heroic poems, British chronicles, adoption of Arthur by Saxons.

· Arthurian History & Legend (1125 - 1485)

Expansion of legend, more fuel for the fire: French romancers, burial cross, William of Malmesbury, Geoffrey of Monmouth, Holy Grail, growth of Joseph of Arimathea legend, Malory.

· Arthurian History & Legend (1533 - 1998)

Explosion of legend in more modern times: skepticism over Geoffrey of Monmouth's history, Leland, Spenser, pre-Raphaelite painters, Victorian poets, films, books, TV, scholarship, new age figure.

Britain from 1900: Dates

1900 Feb 28: Relief of Ladysmith

May 17: Relief of Mafeking

June/July: Boxer rising in Peking

School leaving age in Britain raised to 14 years

Central Line opens in London: underground is electrified

Max Planck proposes the Quantum Theory

Escalator shown at Paris exhibition

First transmission of human speech by radio waves

1901 Commonwealth of Australia founded

Jan 22: Queen Victoria dies Edward VII king

Mar 31: Seventh full British Census (available for inspection Jan 2002)

June: Denunciation of use of concentration camps by British in Boer War

Oct 2: Britain's first submarine launched

Dec 12: First successful radio transmission across the Atlantic, by Marconi Morse code

from Cornwall to Newfoundland

Ragtime introduced into American jazz

Trans-Siberian Railway opened

Rachmaninoff Piano Concerto No.2

Kipling Kim

1902 Balfour's Education Act provides for secondary education

Cremation Act cremation can only take place at officially recognised establishments, and with two death certificates issued

May 24: Empire Day (later Commonwealth Day) first celebrated

May 31: Treaty of Vereeniging ends Second Boer War

Marie Curie discovers radioactivity

USA acquires perpetual control of Panama Canal (not yet completed, see 1913)

Discovery by physicist Heaviside of atmospheric layer which aids conduction of radio waves

Times Literary Supplement appears for first time

1903 Workers' Education Association (WEA) formed in Britain

Women's Social and Political Union formed in Britain by Emmeline Pankhurst

First flight of Wilbur & Orville Wright

Henry Ford sets up his motor company

Bertrand Russell Principles of Mathematics

Shaw Man and Superman

Chekov The Cherry Orchard

1904 Leeds University established

Barrie Peter Pan (legend says he invented the name Wendy for this, but the name exists in census records as early as 1880)

Puccini Madame Butterfly

1905 Aliens Act in Britain: Home Office controls immigration

Germany lays down the first Dreadnought battleship

Einstein publishes theory of relativity

Picasso begins his 'Pink Period' in Paris

Lehar The Merry Widow

Debussy La Mer

1906 Labour Party formed

Free school meals for poor children

Launching of HMS Dreadnought, first turbine-driven battleship

Freud and Jung begin their association San Francisco earthquake and fire: 400 dead Amundsen traverses the north-west passage HW Fowler The King's English

1907 School medical system begins

New Zealand becomes a Dominion

Imperial College, London, is established

First airship flies over London

Pavlov begins his studies on conditioned reflexes

Lumiere develops a process for colour photography

Diaghilev begins to popularise ballet

First 'Cubist' exhibition in Paris

Mahler Symphony No.8

1908 Coal Mines Regulation Act in Britain limits men to an eight hour day

Separate courts for juveniles established in Britain Lord Baden-Powell starts the Boy Scout movement

First 'Model T' Ford

Grahame The Wind in the Willows

1909 Jan 1: Old Age Pensions Act came into force

Jul 25: Bleriot flies across the Channel (36 minutes, Calais to Dover)

Beveridge Report prompts creation of labour Exchanges

Peary reaches the north pole

First commercial manufacture of Bakelite start of the plastic age

1910 Constitutional crisis in Britain

Railway strike and coal strikes in Britain

Union of South Africa formed Botha first Prime Minister

May 6: Edward VII dies George V king

Crippen caught by radio telegraphy

Madame Curie isolates radium

Halley's comet reappears

Tango becomes popular in North America and Europe

Stravinsky The Fire Bird

1911 Parliament Act in Britain reduces the power of the House of Lords

British MPs receive a salary

Apr 2 Census: Pop. E&W 36M, Scot 4.6M, NI 1.25M

Dec 14: National Insurance in Britain

First British Official Secrets Act

Standard Oil in USA broken up into 33 companies

Rutherford: theory of atomic structures

Amundsen reaches the south pole

GK Chesterton The Innocence of Father Brown

Irving Berlin Alexander's Rag-time Band

1911- Strikes by seamen, dock and transport workers

1912

1912 Irish Home Rule crisis grows in Britain

Apr 14: The 'unsinkable' Titanic sinks on maiden voyage loss of 1,513 lives

Britain nationalises the telephone system

Daily Herald founded lasts until 1964

Royal Flying Corps (later the RAF) founded in Britain

Captain Scott's last expedition he and his team die on way back from the south pole

Discovery of the 'Piltdown Man' hoax, exposed in 1953

1913 Third Irish Home Rule Bill rejected by House of Lords threat of civil war in Ireland formation of Ulster Volunteers to oppose Home Rule

Suffragette demonstrations in London Mrs Pankhurst imprisoned

Trade Union Act in Britain establishes the right to use Union funds for political purposes

Panama Canal opened (1914?)

Geiger invents his counter to measure radioactivity

Stravinsky The Rite of Spring

DH Lawrence Sons and Lovers

Shaw Pygmalion

1914- First World War (the "Great War")

1918

1914 Jun 28: Archduke Ferdinand assassinated in Sarajevo

Aug 4: Britain declares war on Germany, citing Belgian neutrality as reason

Aug 5: British cableship Telconia cut through all five of Germany's undersea telegraph

links to the outside world

Oct-Nov: Battle of Ypres beginning of trench warfare on western front

First Zeppelin air raid on England

Irish Home Rule Act provides for a separate Parliament in Ireland; the position of Ulster to

be decided after the War

James Joyce The Dubliners

Chaplin and De Mille make their first films

Burroughs Tarzan of the Apes

Vaughan Williams London Symphony

1915 Feb: Submarine blockade of Britain starts

Apr-May: Second Battle of Ypres poison gas used for first time

Apr 25: Gallipoli campaign starts

May 7: Lucitania sunk by German submarine off coast of Ireland 1,198 died

Junkers construct first fighter aeroplane

Coalition Government formed in Britain under Asquith

First automatic telephone exchange in Britain

Einstein General Theory of Relativity

Buchan The Thirty-nine Steps

1916 Feb-Dec: Battle of Verdun appalling losses on both sides, stalemate continues

Apr 24: Easter Rising in Ireland after the leaders are executed, public opinion backs independence

Macpenachee

May 31-Jun 1: Battle of Jutland only major naval battle between the British and German

Jun 5: Sinking of HMS Hampshire and death of Kitchener

Jul: Battle of the Somme first use of tanks by Britain, but of limited effect over 1 million casualties

Dec 7: Lloyd-George becomes British Prime Minister of the coalition

Compulsory military service introduced in Britain

Kafka Metamorphosis

Holst The Planets

Jazz sweeps through America

1917 February revolution in Russia; Tsar Nicholas abdicates

USA declares war on Germany

Battle of Cambrai first use of massed tanks, but effect more psychological than actual

May 26: George V changes surname from Saxe-Coburg-Gotha to Windsor

Jul-Nov: Battle of Passchendaele little gained by either side

Oct 17: Trans-Australian railway line completed

October Revolution in Russia Bolsheviks overthrow provisional government; Lenin

becomes Chief Commissar

Balfour Declaration: Britain will support a Jewish state in Palestine

Dec 9: British forces capture Jerusalem

Ministry of Labour is established in Britain

Daniel Jones English Pronouncing Dictionary

1918 Jul-Aug: Second Battle of the Marne: last major German offensive

Nov 11: Armistice signed

Vote for women over 30, men over 21 (except peers, lunatics and felons)

Civil war in Ireland

World-wide 'flu epidemic

1918- Art Deco Period (Art & Antiques)

1939

1919 Treaty of Versailles

First woman in House of Commons (Viscountess Astor)

Britain adopts a 48-hour working week

Irish MPs meet as Dail Eirann

Alcock and Brown fly Atlantic

Sir Ernest Rutherford publishes account of splitting the atom

Keynes The Economic Consequencies of War

Sassoon War Poems

HL Mencken The American Language

1920 First meeting of the League of Nations

Further civil war in Ireland

Feb: First roadside petrol filling station in UK opened by the Automobile Association at

Aldermaston on the Bath Road

Regular cross-channel air service starts

Oxford University admits women to degrees

Marconi opens a radio broadcasting station in Britain

Thompson patents his machine gun (Tommy gun)

DH Lawrence Women in Love

1921 Jun 19 Census: Pop. E&W 37.9M, Scot 4.9M, NI 1.25M

Dec 6: Irish Free State and Northern Ireland formed

Irish Regiments of British Army disbanded

Railway Act in Britain amalgamates companies only four remained

First birth control clinic

Chaplin The Kid, first full-length film

Prokofiev The Love for Three Oranges

1922 Fall of Lloyd-George coalition

BBC established as a monopoly, and begins transmissions

Tomb of Tutankhamen discovered in Egypt

TS Eliot The Waste Land

Joyce Ulysses published in Paris

1923 Mussolini becomes dictator of Italy

Massive inflation in Germany leads to collapse of the currency

Canberra made Federal Capital of Australia

First publication of Radio Times

First Wembley cup final (West Ham 0, Bolton 2) "I'm Forever Blowing Bubbles" popular

song of the time, became the West Ham anthem

Hubble shows there are galaxies beyond the Milky Way

First American broadcasts heard in Britain

Freud The Ego and the Id

PG Wodehouse The Inimitable Jeeves

Gershwin Rhapsody in Blue

1924 Jan 4-Nov 4: First Labour government, headed by Ramsay MacDonald

Death of Lenin; succeeded by Stalin

British Imperial Airways begin operations (became BOAC in 1940)

Forster A Passage to India

1925 Britain returns to gold standard

Adolf Hitler writes Mein Kampf

Fitzgerald The Great Gatsby

Noel Coward Hay Fever

Charleston dance becomes fashionable

1926 Apr 26: General Strike begins, till May 12 (mine workers for 6 months more)

First public demonstration of television (TV) by John Logie Baird

Adoption of children is legalised in Britain

Byrd makes flight to north pole

Kodak produces 16mm movie film

Walt Disney arrives in Hollywood

HW Fowler Dictionary of Modern English Usage

1927 German economy collapses on 'Black Friday'

Lindbergh makes solo flight across the Atlantic

Release of the first 'talkie' film (The Jazz Singer)

1928 Women over 21 get vote in Britain same qualification for both sexes

Teleprinters start to be used

Walt Disney begins his 'Mickey Mouse' pictures

Turkey adopts Roman alphabet

DH Lawrence Lady Chatterley's Lover

Ravel Bolero

Brecht and Weill The Threepenny Opera

1929 Abolition of Poor Law system in Britain

Minimum age for a marriage in Britain (which had been 14 for a boy and 12 for a girl) now 16 for both sexes, with parental consent (or a licence) needed for anyone under 21

Sir Alexander Fleming accidentally discovers penicillin

Wall Street crash on 'Black Tuesday'

BBC begins experimental TV transmissions

Einstein Unified Field Theory

Hemingway A Farewell to Arms

1930 First Nazis elected to the German Reichstag

Oct 5: R101 airship disaster British abandon airship construction

Youth Hostel Association (YHA) founded in Britain

Discovery of planet Pluto by Tombaugh

Film All Quiet on the Western Front

1931 Apr 26 Census: Pop. E&W 40M, Scot 4.8M, NI 1.24M (but details destroyed by fire during WW2)

Statute of Westminster: British Dominions become independent sovereign states

Oct 21: National Government formed to deal with economic crisis Britain comes off gold standard

Collapse of the German banking system; 3,000 banks there close

Unemployment in Germany reaches 5.66M

Empire State Building completed in New York

1932 Great Hunger March of unemployed to London

Moseley founds British Union of Fascists

Roosevelt elected President of USA

Slump grows worse in USA; 5,000 banks close, unemployment rises

Cockroft and Walton accelerate particles to disintegrate an atomic nucleus

Sir Thomas Beecham established the London Philharmonic Orchestra

Huxley Brave New World (see 1963)

1933 Jan 30: Hitler becomes chancellor of Germany

Roosevelt launches his 'New Deal'

Oxford Union: "This House will in no circumstances fight for King and Country"

ICI scientists discover polythene

Only 6 pennies minted in Britain this year

1934 Hitler becoms Fuehrer of Germany

Mao Tse-tung's 'Long March' starts in China

Graves I, Claudius

Flying Down to Rio first Rogers/Astaire film

1935 Italy invades Abyssinia

London adopts a 'Green Belt' scheme

Hore-Belisha introduces pedestrian crossings and speed limits for built-up areas in Britain

Land speed record of 301.13 mph by Malcolm Campbell

TS Eliot Murder in the Cathedral

1936 Jan 20: George V dies; Edward VIII king

First public TV transmission

Jet engine first tested

Queen Mary makes maiden voyage

Jesse Owens wins 4 gold medals at Berlin Olympic Games

Jul 18: Spanish Civil War starts

Dec 5: Edward VIII abdicates (announced Dec 10) popular carol that Christmas: "Hark the

Herald Angels sing, Mrs Simpson's got our King"

Duke of York becomes George VI

Chaplin film Modern Times

Prokofiev Peter and the Wolf

1937 Chamberlain becomes Prime Minister in Britain policy of appeasement towards Hitler

German planes bomb Guernica in Spain

Japanese forces invade China

Alan Turing publishes outline of his 'Turing Machine'

Largest ocean liner ever built Oueen Elizabeth launched on Clydebank

Zeppelin Hindenburg destroyed by fire in USA after lightning struck it at the landing tower

Billy Butlin opens his first holiday camp

Steinbeck Of Mice and Men

Carl Orff Carmina Burana

Picasso Guernica

1938 Germany invades and annexes Austria

Chamberlain visits Hitler in Munich promises 'peace in our time'

Principle of paid holidays established in Britain

HMS Rodney first ship to be equipped with radar

Nylon invented (name derives from New York-London)

First practical ball-point pen produced by Hungarian journalist, Lajos Biro

1939- Second World War (the "Peoples War")

45

1939 Germany annexes Czechoslovakia

Sep 1: Germany invades Poland

Sep 3: Britain and France declare war on Germany at 5pm

Sep 6: First air-raid on Britain

Sep 11: British Expeditionary Force (BEF) sent to France

Oct 14: HMS Royal Oak sunk in Scapa Flow with loss of 810 lives

Dec 7: 'First flight' of Canadian troops sail for Britain 7,400 men on 5 ships

Start of evacuation of women and children from London

Coldest winter in Britain since 1894, though this could not be publicised at the time

1940 May 11: National Government formed under Churchill

May 24: Germany invades France

May 27-Jun 4: Evacuation of British Army at Dunkirk

Jun 25: Fall of France

Sep 7: Germany launches bombing blitz on Britain

Sep 15: Battle of Britain in the air ends with British victory

Trotsky assassinated on Stalin's orders

First successful helicopter flight

Prehistoric wall paintings found at Lascaux Caves in France

Films: Fantasia, The Great Dictator Hemingway For Whom the Bell Tolls

1941 No census total British population estimated at 48.2M

June 22: Germany invades Russia

July 1: First Canadian armoured regiments arrive in Britain Sunday Dec 7: Japan attackes US fleet at Pearl Harbour

Dec 8: USA enters the War

Dec: Canadian forces given operation role in defending south coast of England

Manhatten Project of nuclear research begins in America

Britain introduces severe rationing

First British jet aircraft flies, based on work of Whittle

Bailey invents his portable military bridge

First use of antibiotics

Film Citizen Kane

1942 May 30: Over 1,000 bombers raid Cologne

Aug 19: Abortive raid on Dieppe, largely by Canadian troops

Sep 6: Germans defeated at Stalingrad

Oct 3: The world was blessed with me!

Oct 23-Nov 4: Battle of El Alamein Montgomery defeats Rommel

Invention of world's first programmable computer by Alan Turing in co-operation with

Max Neumann used to crack German codes

Beveridge Report Social Security and National Insurance

Gilbert Murray founds Oxfam

Film Bambi

1943 'Dam Buster' raids on Ruhr dams by RAF

Allies invade Italy

Round-the-clock bombing of Germany begins Antibiotic Streptomycin isolated by Waksman

1944 Jun 4: Allies enter Rome

Jun 6: D-Day invasion of Normandy

Jun 12: First V1 flying bombs hit London

Sep 8: First V2 rocket bombs hit London

Sep 11: Allies enter Germany

Dec 16: Battle of the Bulge: German counter-offensive

Butler Education Act: Britain to provide secondary education for all children

1945 Feb 4: Yalta Conference between Churchill, Roosevelt and Stalin

Apr 25: Berlin surrounded by Russian troops

Apr 30: Hitler commits suicide

May 8: VE Day

Jun 26: UN Charter signed

Aug 6: Atomic bomb dropped on Hiroshima

Aug 9: Atomic bomb dropped on Nagasaki

Aug 15: VJ Day

Sep 2: Japanese surrender was signed aboard USS Missouri

Orwell Animal Farm

Britten Peter Grimes opera

Brecht The Caucasian Chalk Circle

Flora Thompson Lark Rise to Candleford

1946 First session of new United Nations Organisation held

Churchill first uses the term 'Iron Curtain' in a speech in Missouri

Transition to National Health Service starts in Britain (came into being 5th July 1948)

US starts nuclear tests at Bikini Atoll hence the name adopted for the garment which

'reveals the most potent forces of nature'!

Russell History of Western Philosophy

O'Neill The Iceman Cometh

First Cannes Film Festival held

1947 Most severe winter in Britain for 53 years at start of the year heavy snow and much flooding later

Jan 1: Coal Mines nationalised

Apr 1: School leaving age raised to 15 in Britain

India gains independence: sub-continent partitioned to form India (Secular, Hindu

majority) and Pakistan (Islamic)

Dead Sea Scrolls found

First British nuclear reactor developed

Chuck Yeager first to break the sound barrier

Tennessee Williams A Streetcar Named Desire

1948 Jan 1: British Railways nationalised

UN sanctions the creation of the State of Israel first Israel/Arab war

Gandhi assassinated

Policy of apartheid starts in South Africa

Jul 1: Berlin airlift starts (to 12 May 1949)

Jul 5: National Health Service (NHS) begins in Britain

British Citizenship Act : all Commonwealth citizens qualify for British passports

Transistor radio invented

Long-playing record (LP) invented by Goldmark

Kinsey Report in USA Sexual Behaviour in the Human Male

World Health Organisation (WHO) established as part of UN

200 inch reflecting telescope constructed at Mount Palomar, California

'Steady State' theory of the Universe proposed by Bondi and Gold

Mailer The Naked and the Dead

1949 NATO formed

Russians explode their first atomic bomb

Russians lift the Berlin blockade

De Haviland produces the Comet first jet airliner (see 1952)

Mar 15: Clothes rationing ends in Britain

Orwell 1984, (written in 1948, for which the title in an anagram)

Arthur Miller Death of a Salesman

Film The Third Man

1950 May 19: Points rationing ends in Britain

May 26: Petrol rationing ends in Britain

Jun 25: Korean War starts (to 27 Jul 1953)

Sep 9: Soap rationing ends in Britain

McCarthy begins Enquiry into Un-American Activities

China invades Tibet

UN Building completed in New York

1951 Census: Pop. E&W 43.7M, Scot 5M. NI 1.37M

May 3: Festival of Britain opens on South Bank, London

Electricity first produced by nuclear power (see 1962)

Salinger Catcher in the Rye

Britten Billy Budd

1952 Feb 6: George VI dies; Elizabeth II queen, returns from Kenya

Feb 21: Identity Cards abolished in Britain

Mar 17: Utility furniture and clothing scheme ends

May 2: First commercial jet airliner service launched, by BOACComet between London and Johannesburg

Jul 5: Last tram runs in London (Woolwich to New Cross)

Sep 6: DH110 crashes at Farnborough Air Show, 26 killed

Oct 3: End of tea rationing in Britain

Oct 8: Harrow & Wealdstone rail crash, 112 killed

Nov 5: Eisenhower sweeps to power as US President

Nov: US explodes Hydrogen Bomb

Nov 25: Agatha Christie's The Mousetrap opens in London

Britian explodes her first atomic bomb, in Australia

Contraceptive pill invented (see 1961)

Radioactive carbon used for dating prehistoric objects

Bonn Convention: Britain, France and USA end their occupation of West Germany

Becket Waiting for Godot

Hemingway The Old Man and the Sea

Steinbeck East of Eden

1953 Feb 5: Sweet rationing ends in Britain

May 29: Everest conquered by Hillary and Tensing

Jun 2: Coronation of Elizabeth II

Sep 26: Sugar rationing ends in Britain (after nearly 14 years)

Death of Stalin: Malenkov becomes Premier of USSR

End of the Korean War

USSR explodes Hydrogen Bomb

Structure of DNA discovered by Watson, Crick and Wilkins

Arthur Miller The Crucible

1954 May 6: First sub 4 minute mile (Roger Bannister, 3 mins 59.4 secs)

Jul 3: Food rationing officially ends in Britain

Sep 30: First atomic powered sumbmarine USS Nautilus commissioned

First comprehensive school opens in London

Dylan Thomas Under Milk Wood

Golding Lord of the Flies

Tennessee Williams Cat on a Hot Tin Roof

British Top 20 begins: first No.1 was Hold My Hand by Don Cornell

1955 Royal Commission on Common Land started led to 1965 Common Land Registration Act

Commercial TV starts in Britain

Anthony Eden becomes Prime Minister

Anti-polio vaccine developed by Salk

Pop music: Bill Haley Rock Around the Clock

1956 Jun3: 3rd class travel abolished on British Railways

Sep 25: Submarine telephone cable across the Atlantic opened

Oct 31: Britain and France invade Suez

Nov 16: Suez canal blocked for a few months (see also 1967)

Britain constructs world's first large-scale nuclear power station in Cumberland

First anti-nuclear protest march to Aldermaston (emergence of CND)

Emergence of the Angry Young Men in English literature

1957 Jun 1: Premium Bonds first prizes drawn

Oct 4: Sputnik I launched by Soviet Union first artificial satellite

Oueen's first Christmas TV broadcast

Harold Macmillan becomes Prime Minister

Treaty of Rome to create European Economic Community (EEC) of six countries: France.

West Germany, Italy, Belgium, Holland and Luxembourg became operational

Jan Britain explodes her first hydrogen bomb, at Christmas Island

1958 Britain introduces parking meters

Pop music: Elvis Presley All Shook Up

1958 Feb 25: CND launched

Jul 26: Charles created Prince of Wales

First life peerages awarded

Charles de Gaulle establishes Fifth Republic in France

Race riots in Britain, at Notting Hill and in Nottingham

Munich air disaster Manchester United team members killed

USS Nautilus travels under the polar ice cap

USA begins to produce Inter-Continental Ballistic Missiles (ICBMs)

USA launches its first satellite space race with the USSR begins

Electronic computers begin to be used in research, industry and commerce

Van Allen radiation belt round the earth detected

Stereophonic records come into use

Boeing 707 goes into airline service

The Beatles pop group formed

Beckett Krapp's Last Tape

Pasternak Dr Zhivago

Pop music: Jerry Lee Lewis Great Balls of Fire; Everly Brothers All I Have to do is Dream

1959 May 24: Empire Day becomes Commonwealth Day

Aug: BMC Mini car launched

Sep 5: Introduction of Subscriber Trunk Dialling (STD) in Britain

Oct 3: Postcodes introduced in Britain

Nov 1: First section of M1 motorway opened

Charles de Gaulle becomes French President

European Free Trade Association (EFTA) established as an alternative to the EEC

Hawaii becomes 50th State of the USA

USSR lands unmanned Lunik on the moon

Leakey discovers 600,000 year-old human remains in Tanganyika

Films Some Like it Hot and La Dolce Vita

Anouilh Becket

Pop music: Buddy Holly It Doesn't Matter Any More; Cliff Richard Living Doll; Adam

Faith What Do You Want

1960 Feb 3: Macmillan 'wind of change' speech in South Africa

Seventeen African colonies become independent this year

Sharpeville Massacre in South Africa

Mar 17: New 1 notes issued by Bank of England

Mar 18: Last steam locomotive of British Railways named

Sep 12: MoT tests on motor vehicles introduced

Oct 1: HMS Dreadnought nuclear submarine launched

Russian Sputnik orbits carrying two live dogs

First lasers demonstrated

International Agreement to reserve Antarctica for scientific research

Pinter The Caretaker

Film Psycho

Pop music: Eddie Cochran Three Steps to Heaven; Shadows Apache

1961 Jan 1: Farthing ceases to be legal tender

Mar 8: First US Polaris submarines arrive at Holy Loch

Mar 13: Black & White 5 notes cease to be legal tender

Mar 14: New English Bible (New Testament) published

Apr 12: Yuri Gagarin first man in space followed shortly afterwards by Alan Shepard

Apr 23: Census: Pop. E&W 46M, Scot 5.1M, NI 1.4M

May 1: Betting shops legal in Britain

Oct 10: Volcanic eruption on Tristan da Cunha whole population evacuated to Britain

Berlin Wall built

Oral contraceptive launched

John F Kennedy becomes US President

Joseph Heller Catch-22 Film West Side Story

Pop music: Helen Shapiro Walking Back to Happiness

1962 May 25: Consecration of new Coventry Cathedral (old destroyed in WW2 blitz) Britten War Requiem

Jun 15: First nuclear generated electricity to supplied National Grid (from Berkeley, Glos)

Jul 10: First live TV between US and Europe (Telstar)

US Ranger 4 lands on the moon

Oct 24: Cuba missile crisis brink of nuclear war

Dec 22: No frost-free nights in Britain till 5 Mar 1963

Britain passes Commonwealth Immigrants Act to control immigration

Molecular structure of DNA discovered

Thalidomide withdrawn after it causes deformities in babies

Britain and France agree to construct Concorde (see 1969)

John Glenn first American in orbit (3 circuits in Friendship 7)

Film Jules et Jim

Solzhenitsyn A Day in the Life of Ivan Denisovich

Pop music: Beatles Love Me Do

1963 Jan: Cold weather forces cancellation of most football matches (only 4 English First

Division matches in the month) the first 'pools panel' created

Mar 27: Beeching Report on British Railways (the 'Beeching Axe')

Aug 1: Minimum prison age raised to 17

Aug 8: 'Great Train Robbery' on Glasgow to London mail train

Sep 17: Fylingdales (Yorks) early warning system operational

Sep 25: Denning Report on Profumo affair

Nov 18: Dartford Tunnel opens

Nov 22: President Kennedy assassinated in Dallas, Texas; Aldous Huxley died the same

Valentina Tereshkova first woman in space

France vetoes Britain's entry into EEC

Pop music: Beatles achieve international fame release of Please Please Me, From Me to

You, She Loves You, I Want to Hold Your Hand

Rachel Carson Silent Spring, on the effects of chemical pesticides on the environment

Film The Birds

1964 Apr 9: First Greater London Council (GLC) election

Apr 21: BBC2 TV starts

Sep 4: Forth road bridge opens

Harold Wilson becomes Prime Minister

China explodes an atomic bomb

US Ranger 7 sends back 4,000 photos from the moon

The Sun newspaper founded in Britain

McLuhan Understanding Media

CP Snow Corridors of Power

Films Dr Strangelove and A Fistful of Dollars

Pop music: Beatles Can't Buy Me Love, A Hard Day's Night, I Feel Fine; Rolling Stones It's All Over Now, Little Red Rooster; Animals House of the Rising Sun; Chuck Berry No

Particular Place to Go

1965 Feb 7: First US raids against North Vietnam

Apr 6: Launch of Early Bird commercial communications satellite

Aug 1: TV ban on cigarette advertising in Britain

Sep 21: Oil strike by BP in North Sea (or natural gas?)

Oct 28: Death penalty abolished in Britain for murder [some say 18 Dec 1969]

Nov 11: Declaration of UDI in Rhodesia

Dec 22: 70mph speed limit on British roads

Winston Churchill dies

Post Office Tower completed in London

Britain enacts first Race Relations Act

Common Land Registration Act people who thought they still held common rights had to register them

First astronauts 'walk' in space

Pop music: Beatles Ticket to Ride, Help!, Day Tripper; Rolling Stones The Last Time;

Kinks Tired of Waiting for You; Byrds Mr Tambourine Man

1966 Feb 3: Soft landing on moon by unmanned Luna 9 followed by Surveyor 1

Feb 14: Australia converts from to \$

Mar 23: Archbishop of Canterbury meets Pope in Rome

May 16: Seamen's strike (ended 1 Jul)

Jul 30: World Cup won by England at Wembley (4-2 in extra time v West Germany)

Sep 8: First Severn road bridge opens

Oct 21: Aberfan disaster slag heap slip kills 144, incl. 116 children

Dec 1: First Christmas stamps issued in Britain

Eighteen new universities were created in Britain between 1961-1966

Hovercraft in commercial service

Pop music: Sinatra Strangers in the Night; Beach Boys Good Vibrations

1967 Jan 27: Three US astronauts killed in fire during launch pad test

Mar 18: Torrey Canyon oil tanker runs aground off Lands End

May 28: Francis Chichester arrives in Plymouth after solo circumnavigation in Gipsy Moth

IV (he was knighted 7th July at Greenwich by the queen using the sword with which

Elizabeth I had knighted Sir Francis Drake four centuries earlier)

Jun 5-10: Six Day War in Middle East closes Suez Canal for 8 years (until 1975)

Jul 1: First colour TV in Britain

Jul 13: Public Record Act records now closed for only 30 years (but the census is still closed for 100 years)

Jul 18: Withdrawal from East of Suez by mid-70s announced

Sep 3: Sweden changes rule of road to drive on right

Sep 20: QE2 launched on Clydebank

Sep 27: Queen Mary arrives Southampton at end of her last transatlantic voyage

Oct 5: Introduction of majority verdicts in English courts

Dec 3: First human heart transplant (in South Africa by Christiaan Barnard)

Che Guevara killed in Bolivia becomes a cult hero

Leakey discovers fossil remains which are 20M years old

Donald Campbell dies attempting to break his world water speed record on Conniston

Water his body and Bluebird recovered in 2002

Russian spacecraft Venus IV makes soft landing on Venus

McLuhan The Medium is the Message

Film The Graduate

Stoppard Rosencrantz and Guildenstern are Dead

Pop music: Monkees I'm a Believer; Beatles All You Need is Love; Procul Harem A

Whiter Shade of Pale

1968 Feb 18: British Standard Time introduced Summer Time became permanent [which I remember thinking was a great idea!], but arguments prevailed and we reverted to GMT in October 1971:

Apr 23: Issue of 5p and 10p decimal coins in Britain

May 6: Enoch Powell 'Rivers of Blood' speech on immigration

May 10: Student riots in Paris

Jul 29: Pope encyclical condemns all artificial forms of birth control

Sep 15: Severe flooding in England

Sep 16: Two-tier postal rate starts in Britain

Oct 5: Beginning of disturbances in N Ireland

Commenwealth Immigration Act further restricts immigrants

London Bridge sold and moved to Arizona

Soviets crush freedom movement in Czechoslovakia

Martin Luther King and Robert Kennedy both assassinated in USA

Apollo 8 orbits the moon with a crew of 3 and returns to earth safely

Ryle discovers Pulsars, radio stars emitting regular pulses of energy

Film 2001

Pop music: Rolling Stones Jumping Jack Flash; Beatles Hey Jude

1969 Mar 2: Maiden flight of Concorde

Mar 7: Victoria Line tube opens in London

Apr 17: Voting age lowered from 21 to 18

Jul 1: Investiture of Prince Charles as Prince of Wales at Caemarfon Castle

Jul 20/21: First men land on the moon (Neil Armstrong & Buzz Aldrin)

Jul 31: Halfpenny ceases to be legal tender in Britain

Oct 14: 50p coin introduced in Britain (reduced in size 1998)

Civil disturbances in Ulster Britain sends troops to support civil authorities

Open University established in Britain, teaching via radio and TV

Labour Government issues White Paper In Place of Strife attempts to reform the Trades

Union movement

Roth Portnoy's Complaint

Films Easy Rider and Midnight Cowboy

Pop music: Marvin Gaye I Heard it on the Grapevine Woodstock Music Festival in USA attracts 300,000 fans

1970 Mar 16: Publication of complete New English Bible

Jun 17: Decimal postage stamps first issued for sale in Britain

Jul 30: Damages awarded to Thalidomide victims

Nov 20: Ten shilling note goes out of circulation in Britain

Edward Heath becomes Prime Minister

Boeing 747 (Jumbo jet) goes into service

Film MASH

Pop music: Simon & Garfunkel Bridge Over Troubled Water

1971 Jan 1: Divorce Reform Act (1969) comes into force

Jan 3: Open University starts

Feb 15: Decimalisation of coinage in Britain

Aug 9: Internment without trial introduced in N Ireland

Oct 28: Parliament votes to join Common Market (joined 1973)

Sunday becomes the seventh day in the week as UK adopts decision of the International

Standardisation Organisation (ISO) to call Monday the first day

'Greenpeace' founded

Rolls-Royce declared bankrupt

Film A Clockwork Orange

Pop music: Led Zeppelin Stairway to Heaven

1972 Feb 9: Power workers crisis

Oct 5: United Reformed Church founded out of Congregational and Presbyterian Churches in F&W

Britain imposes direct rule in Northern Ireland

Strict anti-hijack measures introduced internationally, especially at airports

Duke of Windsor (ex-King Edward 8) dies in Paris

Cevlon changes its name to Sri Lanka

1973 Jan 1: Britain enters EEC Common Market (with Ireland and Denmark)

Jan 27: Vietnam ceasefire agreement signed

Apr 1: VAT introduced in Britain

Yom Kippur War precipitates world oil crisis

Dec 31: Miners strike and oil crisis precipitate 'three-day week' (till 9 Mar 1974) to

conserve power

1974 Aug 8: President Nixon resigns over Watergate scandal

Several new 'counties' formed in Britain

US Mariner satellite transmits detailed pictures of Venus and Mercury

India becomes the sixth nation to explode a nuclear device

1975 Feb 11: Margaret Thatcher becomes leader of Conservative party (in opposition)

Apr 30: End of Vietnam war

Jun 5: Suez canal reopens (after 8 years closure)

Nov 3: First North Sea oil comes ashore [some say 11 June]

Dec 27: Equal Pay Act and Sex Discrimination Act come into force

Unemployment in Britain rises above 1M for first time since before WW2

First personal computers (PC) introduced [see 1981]

Charlie Chaplin knighted

Film One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest

Pop music: Pink Floyd Wish You Were Here

1976 Jan 21: Concorde enters supersonic passenger service [see 2000]

Aug 6: Drought Act 1976 comes into force the long, hot summer

'Cod War' between Britain and Iceland

Deaths exceeded live births in E&W for first time since records began in 1837

James Callaghan becomes Prime Minister

Death of Mao Tse-tung

Viking 1 & Viking 2 landed on Mars

National Theatre opens in London

1977 Mar 23: Lib-Lab pact

Jun 1: Road speed limits: 70mph dual roads; 60mph single

Jun 7: Queen's Silver Jubilee celebrations in London

Red Rum wins a third Grand National

Astronomers observe rings round Uranus

Elvis Presley dies

Pop music: Wings Mull of Kintyre; rise of Punk bands such as 'The Sex Pistols'

1978 Apr 8: Regular broadcast of proceedings in Parliament starts

May 1: First May Day holiday in Britain

Jul 25: World's first 'test tube' baby, Louise Browne born in Oldham

Oct 15: Pope John Paul II, first non-Italian for 450 years

Nov 30: Publication of The Times suspended industrial relations problems (until 13 Nov 1979)

Film The Deer Hunter

Pop music: Fleetwood Mac Rumours

1979 Feb 1: Ayatollah Khomeini returns to Iran

Mar 1: 32.5% of Scots vote in favour of devolution (40% needed) Welsh vote

overwhelmingly against

Mar 31: Withdrawal of Royal Navy from Malta

May 4: Margaret Thatcher becomes first woman UK Prime Minister

Aug 27: Lord Mountbatten killed in bomb blast off coast of Sligo, Ireland

Sep 18: ILEA votes to abolish corporal punishment in its schools

Nov 13: The Times returns to circulation

1980 May 5: SAS storm Iranian Embassy in London to free hostages

Dec 8: John Lennon assassinated in New York

Death of President Tito of Yugoslavia

'Solidarity' formed by unions in Poland

'Stealth' bomber developed by USA

Film The Elephant Man

1981 Jan 25: Launch of SDP by 'Gang of Four' in Britain

Mar 29: First London marathon run

Apr 5: Census day in Britain

Apr 12: US Space Shuttle (Columbia) launched

Apr 25: Worst April blizzards this century in Britain

Jul 29: Wedding of Prince Charles and Lady Diana Spencer

IBM launches its PC starts the general use of personal computers

Brixton riots in South London 30 other British cities also experience riots

Film Chariots of Fire

1982 Jan 26: Unemployment reached 3 million in Britain (1 in 8 of working population)

Mar 18: Argentinians raised flag in South Georgia

Apr 2: Argentina invades Falkland (Malvinas) Islands

Apr 5: Royal Navy fleet sails from Portsmouth for Falklands

Jun 14: Ceasefire in Falklands

Jun 21: Birth of Prince William of Wales

Oct 11: Mary Rose raised in the Solent (sank 1545)

Oct 31: Thames Barrier raised for first time

Nov 4: Lorries up to 38 tonnes allowed on Britain's roads

Dec 12: Women's peace protest at Greenham Common (Cruise missiles arrived 14 Nov

Archbishop of Canterbury and the Pope pray together in Canterbury Cathedral

First permanent artificial heart fitted in Salt Lake City

Film ET

1983 Jan 17: Start of breakfast TV in Britain

Jan 31: Seat belt law comes into force

Apr 21: 1 coin into circulation in Britain

Oct 7: Plans to abolish GLC announced

First female Lord Mayor of London elected (Dame Mary Donaldson)

Pop music: Michael Jackson Thriller

1984 Jan 9: FTSE index exceeded 800

Jun 22: Inaugural flight of Virgin Atlantic

Oct 12: IRA bomb explodes at Tory conference hotel in Brighton 4 killed

Oct 24: Miners' strike High Court orders sequestration of NUM assets

Dec 3: British Telecom privatised shares make massive gains on first day's trading George Orwell got it wrong? (in his book '1984', written in 1948)

1985 Mar 3: Miners agree to call off strike

Mar 11: Al Fayed buys Harrods

Jul 13: Live Aid pop concert raises over 50M for famine relief

Sep: Wreck of Titanic found (sank 1912)

1986 Mar 31: GLC and 6 metropolitan councils abolished

Apr 26: Chernobyl nuclear accident radiation reached Britain 2 May

May 7: Mannie Shinwell, veteran politician, dies aged 101

1987 Terry Waite kidnapped in Beirut (released Nov 1991)

Car ferry Herald of Free Enterprise capsizes off Zeebrugge 188 die

Order of the Garter opened to women

Oct: The 'Hurricane' sweeps southern England

Oct: 'Black Monday' in the City of London Stock Market crash

1988 Copyright Act

Dec 21: Lockerbie disaster Pan Am flight 103 explodes over Scotland

1989 Poll Tax implemented in Scotland

House of Commons proceedings first televised

Berlin Wall torn down

Second edition of Oxford English Dictionary published

1990 Poll Tax implemented in England & Wales riots

Margaret Thatcher resigns as Conservative party leader (and Prime Minister) John Major elected

Apr 25: Hubble space telescope launched

Aug 2: Iraq invades Kuwait

Dec 1: Channel Tunnel excavation teams meet in the middle

Nelson Mandela released in South Africa

1991 Poll Tax replaced (by Council Tax)
Robert Maxwell drowns at sea
Helen Sharman is first British Astronaut in Space

1992 Coal industry privatised

1993 Jul: Ratification of Maastricht Treaty, established the European Union (EU)
Betty Boothroyd first woman Speaker of the House of Commons (to 2000)
Elizabeth II becomes first British Monarch to pay Income Tax

1994 Nov: National Lottery starts
Channel Tunnel open to traffic
15 million people connected to the Internet by now

1995 Nick Leeson brings down Barings First Grayshott Literary Festival

1996 BSE beef scare in UK Hale-Bopp comet

1997 May: Labour landslide victory in Britain (Tony Blair replaces John Major as Prime Minister)

June: Bank of England made independent of Government control

Aug: Diana, Princess of Wales killed in car crash

Mars landing by American Rover

Land speed record breaks sound barrier for first time

Scientists in Scotland clone a sheep (Dolly)

Hong Kong returned to China

1998 Good Friday peace agreement in Northern Ireland effectively implemented when separate N Ireland parliament created in Dec 1999

1999 Jan 1: European Monetary Union begins UK opts out by the end of the year the Euro has approximately the same value as the US Dollar

Nov 11: Hereditary Peers no longer have right to sit in House of Lords

Dec: Separate parliaments created for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland (but not for England)

World population reaches 6 billion (estimate)

2000 Jan 1: Millennium celebrations postponed due to widespread computer failures! only joking!! The year in Britain started with a 'flu bug rather than a millennium bug Millennium Dome at Greenwich got off to a bad start when Press and celebratories were left queuing for tickets in the rain, and they never forgave it the project was dogged by problems all year and became the butt of jokes

Mar: London Eye opens, late but popular

Millennium footbridge over the Thames opens, but wobbles and is quickly declared dangerous and closed finally reopened Feb 2002

Aug: A chartered Air France Concorde crashes on take-off at Paris with loss of all lives debris on the runway blamed for causing fuel to escape and catch fire, and all Concordes grounded until 7 November 2001

Sep: 'People Power' emerged suddenly as protestors against high Road Fuel Tax used mobile phones and the Internet to co-ordinate blockades on fuel depots resulted in nationwide panic buying of fuel and service stations running out across the country Oct: Derailment at speed on the main London-North eastern line at Hatfield caused by a broken rail Railtrack put restrictions on the rest of the network while all other suspect locations were checked

Oct/Nov/Dec: Heavy rains cause worst flooding since records began (1850s) in many parts of Britain

Nov 14: New Prayer Book introduced in Anglican Church the way this year's going, we need it!

Dec: US Presidential election goes to a penalty shoot out!

Jan 1: Real millennium celebrations begin!! 2001

> Feb: Outbreak of Foot & Mouth disease in UK lasted until October caused postponement of local and general elections from May to June

Mar 23: Mir space station successfully ditched in the Pacific

Apr 29: UK Census Day

May 12: FA Cup Final played at the Millennium Stadium in Cardiff first time away from Wemblev since 1922

June 7: General Election Labour returned again with a large majority, the first time they had succeeded in gaining a second term but turnout lowest since 1918

Sep 1: New-style number plates on road vehicles in UK [eg. AB 51 ABC]

Sep 11: Massive terrorist attack on the United States commercial planes hi-jacked and crashed into the twin towers of the World Trade Centre (destroying it) and the Pentagon

Nov 7: Concorde flights resume after modifications to tyres and fuel tanks

UK Christmas stamps self-adhesive for the first time (self-adhesive 1st & 2nd class definitives already on sale)

2002 Jan 1: Twelve major countries in Europe (Austria, Belgium, Holland, Irish Republic, Italy, Luxembourg, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Spain, Portugal) and their dependents start using the Euro instead of their old national currencies; the UK stays out the Euro worth 62p at this time

Jan 2: UK 1901 census details available see http://www.census.pro.gov.uk/

Feb 22: Millennium Bridge over the Thames in London finally opens

Mar 30: The Queen Mother dies, aged 101 years

Jun 3&4: Two Bank Holidays declared in UK to celebrate the Queen's Golden Jubilee

Where Are They Now?

Burial Places of the Kings & Queens of Britain

House of Wessex

- Egbert (802-39) Winchester Cathedral
- · Alfred, the Great (871-99) Winchester Cathedral
- Edward, the Elder (899-925) Hyde Abbey, Winchester
- Edmund I (940-6) Winchester Cathedral
- Eadred (946-55) Winchester Cathedral
- Eadwig (Edwy) (955-59) Winchester Cathedral
- Edgar (959-75) Glastonbury Abbey
- Edward, the Martyr (975-78) Woking, Surrey
- Edmund II, Ironside (1016) Glastonbury Abbey

Danish Line

- Svein, Forkbeard (1014) Roskilde Cathedral, Denmark
- · Canute, the Great (1016-35) Winchester Cathedral
- · Harald, Harefoot (1035-40) St. Clement Danes, London
- · Hardicanute (1040-42) Winchester Cathedral

House of Wessex, Restored

- Edward, Confessor (1042-66) Westminster Abbey
- Harold II (1066) Waltham Abbey

Norman Line

- · William I, the Conqueror (1066-87) Waltham Abbey
- William II, Rufus (1087-1100) Winchester Cathedral
- · Henry I, Beauclerc (1100-35) Reading, Berkshire
- Stephen (1135-54) Faversham Abbey, Kent
- Empress Matilda (1141) Rouen, France

Plantagenet, Angevin Line

- · Henry II (1154-89) Fontevrault Abbey, France
- · Richard I (1189-99) Fontevrault Abbey, France
- John, Lackland (1199-1216) Worcester Cathedral
- · Henry III (1216-72) Westminster Abbey
- Edward I (1272-1307) Westminster Abbey
- Edward II (1307-27) Gloucester Cathedral
- · Edward III (1327-77) Westminster Abbey
- Richard II (1377-99) Westminster Abbey

Plantagenet, Lancastrian Line

Henry IV (1399-1413) - Canterbury Cathedral

- Henry V (1413-22) Westminster Abbey
- → Henry VI (1422-61, 1470-1) Windsor

Plantagenet, Yorkist Line

- Edward IV (1461-70, 1471-83) Windsor
- Edward V (1483) Westminster Abbey
- Richard III, (1483-85) Leicester Cathedral

House of Tudor

- · Henry VII, Tudor (1485-1509) Westminster Abbey
- · Henry VIII (1509-47) Windsor
- Edward VI (1547-53) Westminster Abbey
- · Lady Jane Grey (1553) Tower Hill, London

Mary I, Bloody Mary (1553-58) - Westminster Abbey

• Elizabeth I (1558-1603) - Westminster Abbey

House of Stuart

- James I (1603-25) Westminster Abbey
- · Charles I (1625-49) Windsor

The Commonwealth

- · Oliver Cromwell (1649-58) Cambridge
- Richard Cromwell (1658-59) Hursley, Hampshire

House of Stuart, Restored

- · Charles II (1660-85) Westminster Abbey
- James II (1685-88) Edinburgh

House of Orange and Stuart

· William III, Mary II (1689-1702) - Westminster Abbey

House of Stuart

- Anne (1702-14) - Westminster Abbey

House of Brunswick, Hanover Line

- George I (1714-27) Hanover, Germany
- · George II (1727-60) Westminster Abbey
- George III (1760-1820) Windsor
- George IV (1820-30) Windsor
- · William IV (1830-37) Windsor
- · Victoria (1837-1901) Windsor

House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha

- Edward VII (1901-10) - Windsor

House of Windsor

- George V (1910-36) Windsor
- . Edward VIII (1936) Windsor
- George VI (1936-52) Windsor
- · Elizabeth II (1952-present)

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