

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

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Institute of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of Foreign Languages

English Section



Handout Title

Civilisation Courses for Third Year Students

Prepared by Dr. Djafri Leila

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General Presentation of the Course

This course of civilisation is designed for third year students of English at the University Centre Si El Houes, Barika. It is an attempt to provide them with various details about the British History starting from the early Inhabitants of Great Britain until the time when political power has shifted overwhelmingly to the sitting government and to the Prime Minister within the cabinet.

Aims and Objectives

The overall aim of the course is to help students understand the origins of the British people, consequently the origin of the English language they are studying. Furthermore, many detailed guidelines to the British History and to the various dynasties who ruled Great Britain are presented to the students in a well-structured manner.

By the end of the academic year, students are expected to:

- 1-know that the British people are an amalgam of many races who came from different countries.
- 2-Understand how the English throne passed from one dynasty to another.
- 3-Be aware of the so many religious struggles Britain witnessed and the impact they had on its monarchs and citizens as well.
- 4- Be familiar with the evolution of the British political institutions through history.



5-Have an idea about the times of prosperity and the times of depression in Britain.

As for the long-term objectives, students need to:

1. Learn how to be passionate about history.
2. Be motivated to gain more knowledge about historical events through further readings.
3. Develop their critical thinking in a way they will read history with a critical eye.



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1. The Inhabitants of Great Britain

Introduction

The history of the population of Britain could be traced back to twelve thousand years ago. Ever since, Britain was occupied by an amalgam of races and peoples who have been continuously settling and mixing with existing residents. They have, in the end, contrived, somehow, to live together.

1.1. The Iberians

The Iberians are a group of people who inhabited the Iberian Peninsula. They were the first men to arrive to Britain from the Eastern landmass. They were the Old Stone Age hunters. Other immigrants followed over the centuries during periods when the country was linked to Europe by a land bridge. The final inundation of this causeway did not take place until the melting of the ice drove a permanent seaway through it about 5000 BC. By the New Stone Age (Neolithic times), the cave dwellers and semi-nomadic hunters had given way to more settled farming communities in several camps.

The language of the Iberians was classified as a non Indo-European language. It became extinct by AD 1/ AD 2 and it was gradually replaced by Latin.

1.2. The Celts

The Celts are a collection of Indo-European people who settled in central Europe and shared the same culture. They were victims of the harassment of the Germanic tribes, so they resorted to seizing territories in the South or retreating

westwards. Between 1000 and 500 BC they began to seek refuge in Britain; first in isolated groups causing little trouble to their neighbours, and then in more aggressive formations. They established tribal centres in Yorkshire and Northumberland, across southern England and as far west as Wales. In some areas, there was intermarriage with the people they were supplanting.

Celtic farmers imposed great changes on the face of the countryside. In place of small areas cultivated by their predecessors, they laid out large rectangular fields and terraces. The boundaries of these Celtic fields, or Lynchets, were marked by double ditches or by rough-dry stone walls.

Industry also flourished. From a country corresponding to modern Syria and Lebanon, came the Phoenicians in search of tin, rare in the eastern Mediterranean and now being mined in south-west Britain.

By the time the Roman greed for conquest and colonisation was threatening the westernmost rim of Europe, iron was more in demand than tin. Britain was rich in iron ore also, but this was not the main reason for the first Roman assault in the country.

The language of the Celts was an Indo-European language . It was divided into two main dialects: Gaelic which was spoken in Scotland and Ireland, and Brythonic which was spoken in England and Wales .

1.3. The Romans

Among those continuing to seek land in Britain were the Belgae, one of the most warlike of the Celtic tribes. In Gaul, they had fought bitterly against

the Romans and when Julius Caesar finally subdued them, he decided to teach a sharp lesson to those Kinsmen who had helped them from Britain.

In 55 B.C a force of 10.000 men landed in Kent. Although the Celts were no much for the Romans, Caesar was forced to withdraw, a storm had wrecked many of his beached ships, and he sailed for France as soon as he had carried out repairs. He spent a year in further preparation and tried again. In perfect weather, he sailed from Boulogne and made an unopposed landing. Again his ships were badly damaged in a storm while at anchor, but this time he did not retreat but marched on Wheat Hampstead the hill fort of Cassivellaunus, most powerful of the Celtic kings. After savage fighting, the Britons asked for peace. Caesar demanded guarantees of a regular tribute to be paid to Rome; promised protection to other tribes oppressed by the Belgae; and he took a number of prisoners back as hostages.

The campaign had been little more than a gesture; during the ensuing century, the only Romans who visited Britain were peaceful traders. The serious business of bringing the country completely under Roman rule did not begin until A.D 43 when an army sent by Claudius landed near Rich borough. After years of war, the Romans occupied both England and Wales. By AD, 78they began to advance into Scotland. However, the Picts made continual attacks for a number of years over the frontier into Roman Britain until the Emperor Hadrian decreed the building of a barrier ten feet thick across the country (AD121 or122). This wall was a castle every mile, and sixteen larger forts.

In A.D 368 the Picts, Scots, Saxons and Franks joined forces to invade Roman Britain, and the wall was overrun, it was restored with some of its buildings the following year, but in A.D 383 the wall was again overwhelmed and then abandoned, and Rome was never again able to re-establish full control in Britain.

During their occupation to Roman Britain, the Romans' Latin language dominated and supplanted much of the Celtic language. So very little is left of the Celtic language in current English.

The language spoken by the Iberians, the Celts and the Romans is referred to as Proto-English.

1.4. The Anglo-Saxons

Into the power vacuum left by the Romans, there came new tribes eager to take permanent possession of fertile lands: the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes.

The Jutes are said to come from Northern Holland and North-Western Germany. They came to Kent, by invitation from the Welsh king Vortigern who was alarmed by the anarchy in the north and the growing danger from the Picts .He offered the Jutes a grant of land in return for their military services.

The Angles also came from Germany (Schleswig-Holstein) and *the Saxons* from the Rhine arrived in force. They established themselves in Essex, Middlessex, Wessex, Sussex while the Angles occupied Norfolk and Suffolk. They established themselves on the abandoned lands of the Romans. The

Angles gave their name to the country. Angle-land (England) and with the Saxons and the Jutes shared a common background and culture. The Picts offered only scattered, uncoordinated resistance and were pushed to Wales to be called Welsh (strangers).

The Anglo-Saxons quarrelled among themselves for supremacy. The Britons were prepared to accept the Anglo-Saxons way of life. The Anglo-Saxons were by custom lowland farmers. Kings depended on the allegiance and physical strength of followers who gave their services in return for gift of land. The king maintained his prestige and prosperity by ensuring that his own share was always the largest. He led hunting expeditions, supervised the administration of laws and of military ventures, collected rents and dues and offered hospitality in his royal hall. However, the king was not an absolute monarch. The advisory council had the power to choose one member of royal family rather than another if this seemed better for the future of the kingdom.

There was no large standing army. Many leaders relied on small, highly trained, well-equipped war-bands for immediate action at any time, when a more substantial force was needed; it was supplied by the part-time services of able-bodied men working the land. Nevertheless, every freeman knew that in emergency such as an invasion, he would be expected to down his tools and pick up weapons for service in the fighting forces. In case of defeat, it meant slavery for himself and his family.

The language of the Anglo-Saxons was Germanic in origin. After they invaded the region, they supplanted the Latin language imposing the use of their own language. It was spoken in non-Danelaw England until the Norman Conquest.

1.5. The Vikings

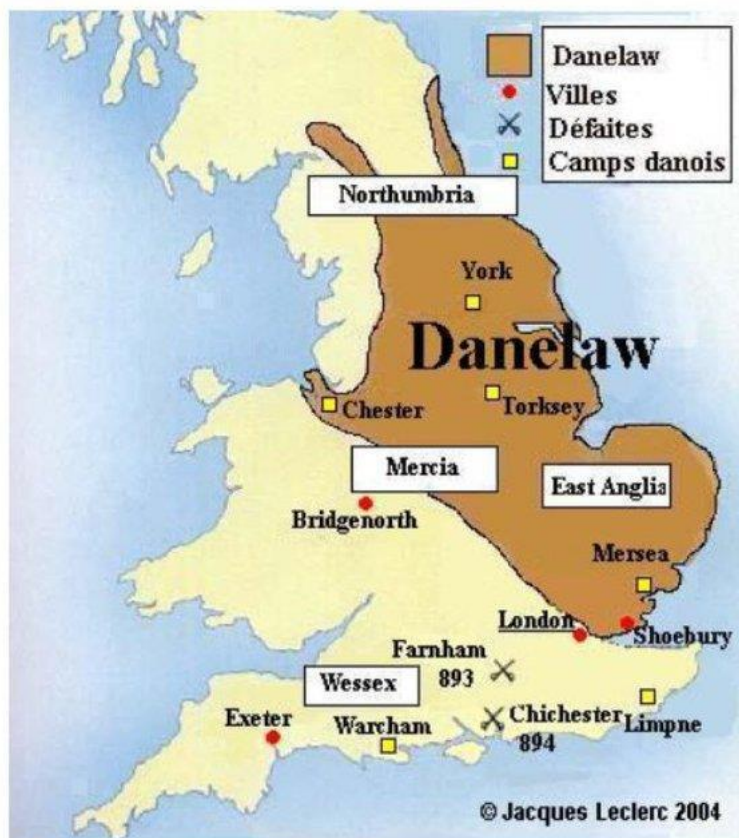
Most of the early attacks were private enterprise forays made by Petty chieftains who, unable to provide well enough for their families on their bleak Scandinavian lands, sought easy loot from prospering England. Then larger forces, greedy for the land itself were launched in more sustained assaults. The Danes, Swedish and Norwegians robbed and traded as far as the Mediterranean and Constantinople. In 839 a Norwegian chieftain called Turgeis founded Dublin (capital of Ireland) and proclaimed himself king of all foreigners in Ireland.

From 851 onwards; the Danes had been making regular sallies up the Thames and during the next two decades used Thanet and Sheppey as bases for penetration. Northumbria fell, and from York the great army marched into Mercia. In 870 the pious young king Edmund of East Anglia was defeated; he was offered his life if he would recant his Christian beliefs and swear fealty to the Danish king and his god. He refused and he was beheaded.

The Vikings' rule ended when they were defeated by Alfred the Great in the battle of Edington in May 878.

The Vikings spoke Old Norse , an ancient Indo-European language . It did not affect much the structure of the existing language which remained unchangeable until the invasion of the Normans.

The language used by the Anglo-Saxons and the Vikings is referred to as Old English.



Danelaw Detailed Map. The Vikings took the city of York, called "Jorvik" by the Vikings in AD 866. See York on the map.

Activities about the Inhabitants of Great Britain

1- Who were the Iberians and which language they spoke?

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2- Why did the Celts of Central Europe immigrate to Great Britain and what was their native language?

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3- The Romans invaded both England and Wales, but they could not penetrate into Scotland. Explain more.

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Who were the Anglo-Saxons? What was their Language?

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4- Which regions were invaded by the vikings and what do you know about the Danelaw?

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6-The Inhabitants of Great Britain are a mixture of many races who invaded the region for different reasons. Discuss.

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2. The Middle Ages

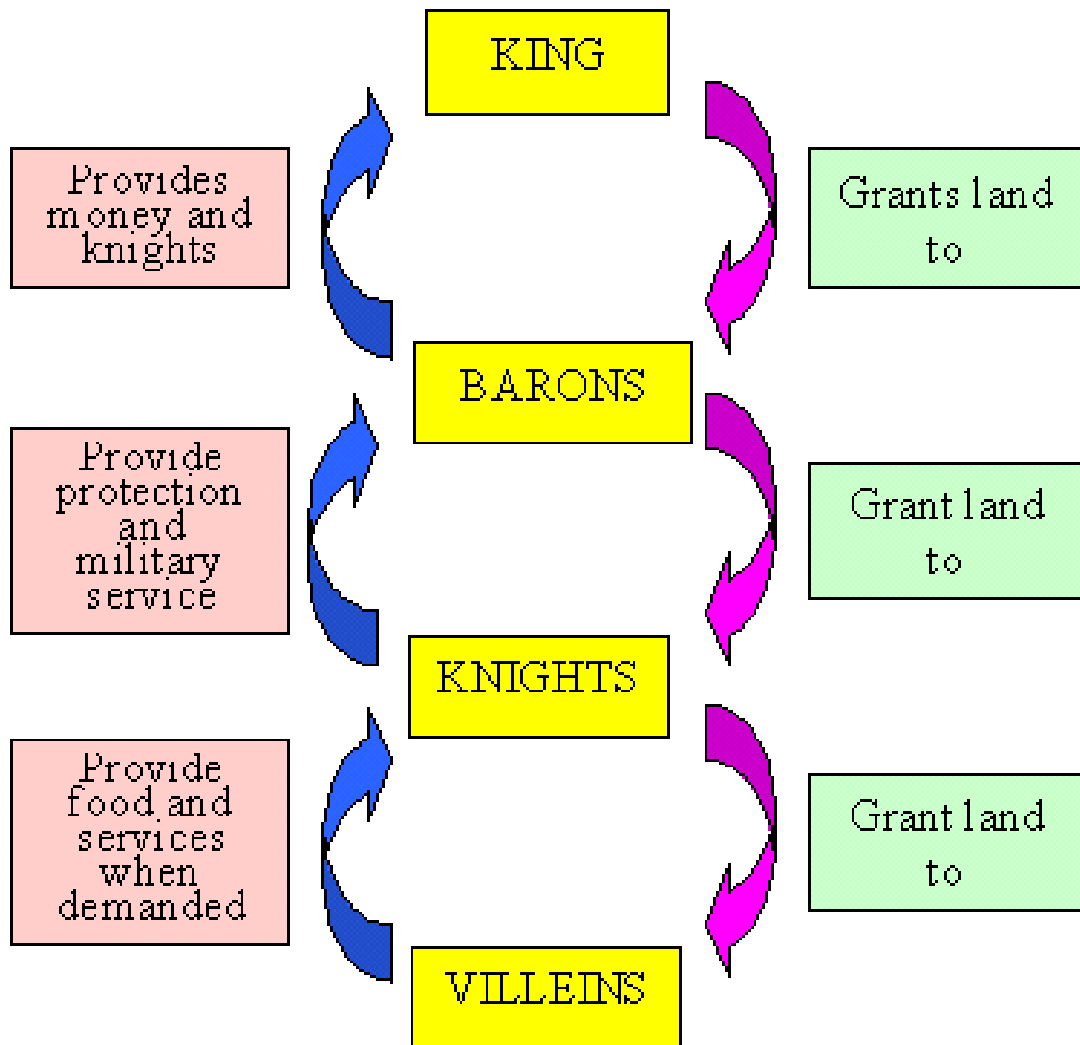
2.1. The Dukes of Normandy

When King Edward the Confessor died (1042-1065), the members of the Witan were unanimous in nominating Harold as his successor. In 1064 Harold met Duke William of Normandy when he was caught in a storm in the channel. His ship was wrecked on the Norman coast and he was taken to the court in Rouen where he became a favoured prisoner; feasting and hunting with his host and even fighting beside William in his conflict with the king of France. Hospitably treated as he was, he nevertheless fretted to get back to England before power should fall into other ambitious hands. Playing on this, William offered him his liberty in exchange of an oath to support his own candidacy when the King of England would die. Harold swore allegiance, but later declared that he had not known that the boxes over which he had been tricked into taking the oath contained holy relics. He even pledged himself to marry William's daughter, but conveniently forgot this once he was safely away from Rouen. When the time came to honour his pledge; Harold accepted the Kingship for himself instead well aware that this was inviting an invasion. He also prudently married the sister of the earls of Mercia and Northumbria. William and his army landed near Provençy and then marched on Hastings. Harold left London and reached Caldbec Hill, a few miles from Hastings. There was a fight, Harold was killed and William the Conqueror was crowned king of England in Westminster Abbey on Christmas day in 1066.

2.2. The Feudal System

With all major resistance crushed. William I (1066-1087) began to set up castles to guard all towns and important junctions so that future rebellions could be contained. He allowed those barons considered most trustworthy to build their own castles from their own resources.

All land now belonged officially to the crown. A quarter of it was treated by William as personal property, the rest was leased out under some stringent conditions; all landowners had to swear fealty to the king. The feudal system exacted various dues and above all military service from a Baron and his attendant knights in return for the land bestowed to him. The Baron kept as much of his demesne as he wished and distributed the rest among knights who thereby bound themselves to his needs for fighting men when he or the king called for them. In their turn, the Knights allocated sections of their manorial demesnes to Villains who, at the bottom of the chain of command, had to provide free labour and seasonal dues in the way of food or service whenever, with or without warning, they might be demanded .A serf could not even allow his daughter to marry without his lord's permission for her to marry outside the manor was almost impossible, since it depleted the labour force.



2.3. The Domesday Book

In 1086, William decided to check and double check his assets, comparing the population and possessions of the manorial estates with those at the time of his accession. This nationwide inquisition was so searching that its victims spoke of the day of judgement, and the final assembly of documents as Domesday Book. The operation was described as it follows:

a-A survey was made of all England that is of the lands of the several shires of England. This was done concerning plough lands and habitations and of men

bound and free; both those who lived in cottages and those who have their homes and held lands in the fields and concerning horses and other animals.

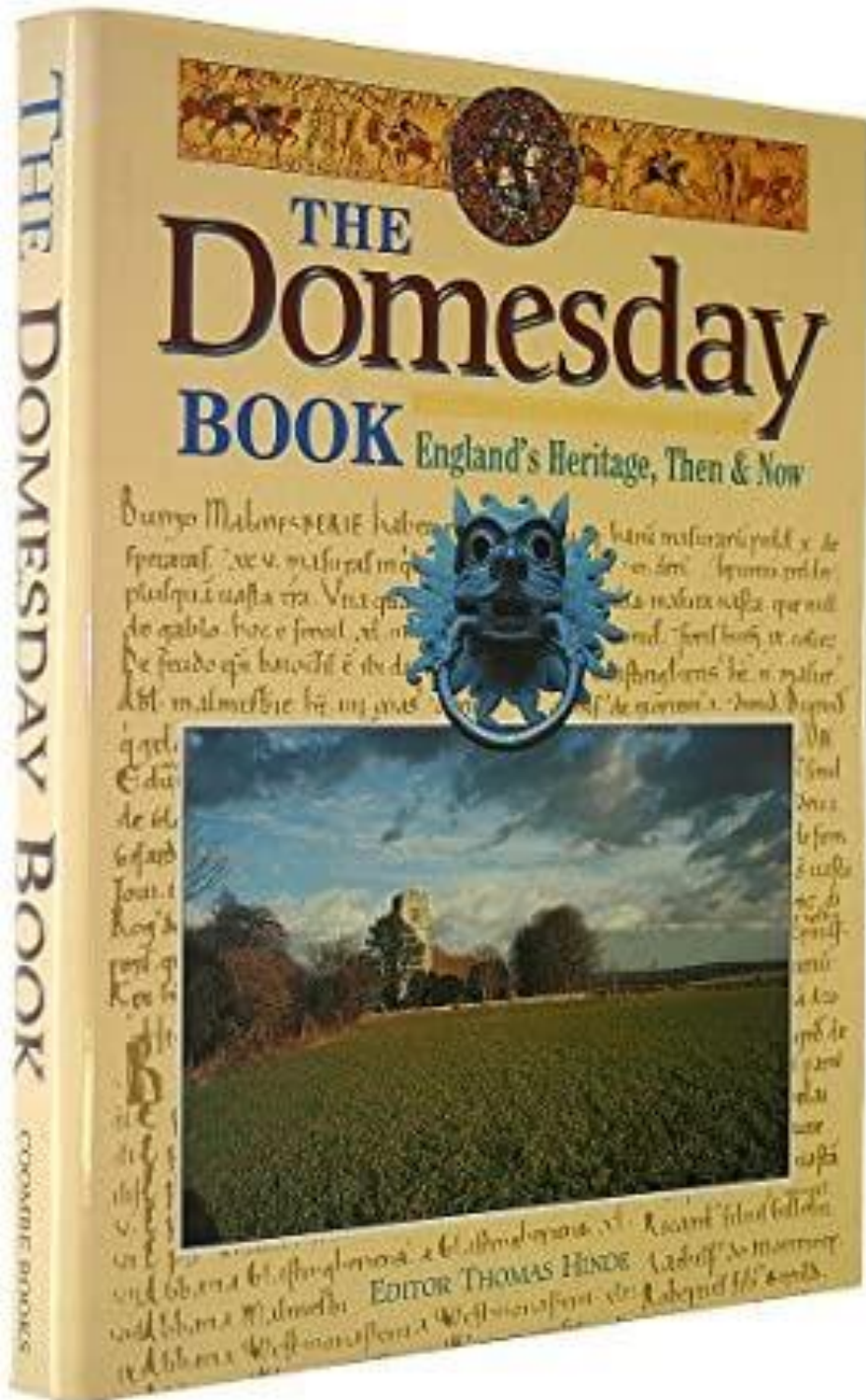
b-Other commissioners followed the first, men were sent into areas they did not know and where they were unknown, in order that they might have an opportunity to check the first survey and if necessary to denounce its authors as guilty to the king.

The final analysis showed that since the conquest, the holdings of Saxon nobles had been so eroded that there were only two left as tenants in chief. William wiped out all the English nobility, his Norman and French supporters were rewarded with the lands and titles of the English nobility. Over a quarter of the country belonged to the King and his family, the barons shared about 2/5 and the church held the rest in addition to other levies and service obligations. The populace had to pay 1/10 of annual increases in profit and productivity for the upkeep of the church.

William I was a sternly religious and a great benefactor of the church. He filled places in abbeys as they fell vacant by death, or were vacated under his pressure with Norman appointees. On his death bed (1087), he wept and prayed, made many gifts to the church and gave Normandy into the care of his oldest son Robert, but his sword and the English crown and sceptre to his second son William.

The Invasion of the Normans to England, imposed great changes on the language spoken. The French language was the official language, soon it

became the language of high society. It influenced greatly the Germanic dialect that was only a language of popular uses. Radical changes occurred in terms of vocabulary which was enriched by thousands of French words, and in terms of structure which was deeply modified. It was referred to as Middle English.



Activities about the Norman Conquest:

1- How did William the conqueror invade England?

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2- Discuss ,in brief, the main characteristics of the era of the dukes of Normandy in England.

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3. King John and Magna Carta

King John (1199-1216) was selfish, cruel and extremely unpopular. But he was respected by common people as a fair judge when sitting in his own courts. He antagonised the always restive barons by his arrogance and his habit of giving the most coveted jobs to foreign favourites. He also, like many of his family, contrived a head-on collision with the pope. On the death of the archbishop of Canterbury, he nominated a reliable friend of his "John Grey". Pope Innocent III denied the validity of this choice and ordered John to accept Stephen Longton as archbishop. John refused and the pope placed the whole England under the interdict in 1208. Celebration of the Mass was prohibited, and the dead had to be buried in unconsecrated ground. John remained defiant until 1213, when the threat of a French invasion with the pope's blessing forced him to capitulate, not only accepting Longton but offering the pope temporal as well as spiritual sovereignty over England.

In 1214, a group of northern barons joined by some from Essex and East Anglia raised the standard of revolt against the king in support of baronial rights and liberties. Longton was called to mediate, with a number of wise lords, convinced the king to accept the barons' demands and persuaded the barons to insert into their demands clauses that would benefit others than themselves. A document supporting purely baronial interests was thus transformed into the Great Charter to which, John affixed his seal at Runnymede, near Windsor, in June 1215.

Magna Carta guaranteed fewer freedoms for the ordinary citizen than we sentimentally imagine. The barons only wished to safeguard their own privileges. But certain clauses found way into judicial thinking and eventually into the accepted principles of English life and legislation. First and foremost was that *the king himself was not above the law*. Sooner John sought ways of repudiating this document and persuaded the Pope to annul it. When the barons tried to impose their will on the king, he decided to use force and plunged the country into civil war. John died suddenly in 1216 and his son Henry III was only 9 years old. He succeeded to the throne but failed to defeat the barons and their charter.

Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, came to the forefront of the barons' rank when he married the king's sister Eleanor in 1238 and for a while was one of the royal favourites. He urged Henry that the principles embodied in Magna Carta should be implemented.

The lords met in small groups more frequently, not just when summoned by the king but when they felt matters of state warranted discussion. County and city representatives were invited to represent local interests at meetings with the barons or with the king. Although it must be admitted that these meetings were usually convened in order to find ways of raising taxes; they equally fostered the idea of a nationally representative assembly and may be regarded as the first steps towards a true parliament.

Strained relations between the headstrong king and his nobles snapped when he demanded financial support .A council summoned at Oxford in 1258 imposed upon Henry a committee whose advice he agreed henceforth to follow; but with the pope's approval he soon decided to defy and rule as he chose. A number of barons thereupon went to war against him under the leadership of Simon De Montfort. At the battle of Lewes in 1264 both the king and his son, Edward, were captured. De Montfort called a parliament including a number of commoners to administer the country. But his fellow barons were not satisfied with the members of this parliament and they started to find the earl himself too dictatorial. Edward exploited these quarrels to escape and raise a loyal army .He defeated and killed Simon at the battle of Evesham in 1265.

Released, Henry was content to allow his son to run the realm. Edward I was the first king to create a representative institution which could provide the money he needed. This institution became the House of Commons (a mixture of gentry and merchants).

Edward I went on a crusade and did not return until 1274, for his own coronation two years after his father's death.



By the late 15th century, there was a spread of the Chancery Standard language which ended the use of Middle English. The language defined its physiognomy, so modified and enriched by literary experiences of Renaissance and and Shakespeare's works. It was referred to as Modern English.

Activities about king John and Magna Carta

1-Who was King John?

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2-King John suffered from frequent disputes during his reign, discuss.

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3-The reign of King John was a turning point in the English history. The barons, successfully, forced him to agree on the terms of Magna Carta in 1215. Discuss.

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4-The Tudors (1485-1603)

This period is often considered as the most glorious in English history. The feudal power of the lords and the church had been destroyed. Henry VII set the foundations of a wealthy nation and a powerful monarchy. His son, Henry VIII made the church in England truly English by breaking away from the Roman Catholic Church. Queen Elizabeth I brought glory to England by defeating the powerful navy of Spain.

During the Tudor age, there was an educational development. Many rich men had been giving their money to build schools instead of giving it to the church. New grammar schools gave free education to the poor people so a new force in society was to lead the public opinion. English kings and queens were very sensible and took great interest in education, art and science. In 1564, two playwrights were born to transform the English Theatre: William Shakespeare and Christopher Marlowe.

4.1. Henry VII

Conspirators were eager to create problems since Henry VII's early years of reign but the Tudors' dynasty was capable of defying all threats. Population growth started to speed up, trade expanded vigorously and a new sense of nationhood was growing. Henry started by reforming the legal system by the revival of *the Court of Star Chamber* which was able to sort out many problems effectively and halted the lawlessness rife after the wars of roses. Henry created a new nobility from merchants and middle class gentry. A number of great old

families had lost fathers and sons as well as their lands and fortunes. The remaining barons' ambitions had always been a threat to the throne and the stability of the country, but later on, they mixed freely with the commercial and professional families.

Henry VII encouraged the weaving industry, ship building and exploration. He made little use of parliament but instead, he ruled through his council. As a good business man he made enough money from, taxes, customs, Lands and also from court punishment. So he greatly improved the country's financial position. He believed that wars were bad for business and business was good for state.

4.2. Henry VIII

Henry VIII became popular because of his understanding of his common people. He ruled through the House of Commons without army. His chief minister was Thomas Wolsey who was a clever archbishop. Henry's policy of keeping a balance of power in Europe had been England's official goal. However, his ambitions led Spain to become strong enough to present a real threat to England. Henry's great wisdom led him to realize that the safety of the country depended on sea power rather than politics.

a. The Reformation

Henry and Wolsey had a strong hold on church affairs and they didn't leave the pope to interfere with their affairs. He got permission from the pope to marry **Catherine of Aragon**, the wife of his dead brother Arthur. Catherine

gave him a daughter, later **Mary I**, but all her sons died at birth. The marriage was not a fruitful one because in 20 years she only got one daughter. Henry became more concerned with the future problem of the Tudor line so he asked the pope to pronounce the divorce, but the pope refused. In 1534, Henry decided to break with the pope and made himself supreme head of the new Protestant Church of England. So the **Reformation** was mainly a result of the divorce.

Archbishop Cranmer accepted the divorce and Henry's new wife was to be **Anne Boleyn**. They had a daughter, later **Elizabeth I**. So Anne failed to present the king with the male heir he was craving for. Having disposed of one queen, why should he scruple to dispose of another? Henry had Anne executed for adultery. His third wife was **Jane Seymour** who died giving birth to a son, later **Edward VI**. Henry married his fourth wife, **Anne of Cleves**, for political reasons seeking a strong link with the Protestant Germany, but soon divorced her. **Catherine Howard** was Henry's new wife. She too was executed for adultery. Henry's sixth and last wife was the Protestant **Catherine Parr** who was very kind with his children from previous marriages.

b. The Dissolution of Monasteries

Cranmer worked on an English prayer book and believed that Henry's church should move towards Protestantism. Monks who had been coming into England from the continent since the time of William the Conqueror were establishing religious houses with funds supplied by grateful nobles. Over the years austerity gave way to a more relaxed and even luxurious way of life. The

monasteries owned and exploited vast acres and the involvement of many clerics in political matters gave them an appetite for both power and pleasure.

Cranmer put into Henry's head the idea of disciplining those who were reluctant to accept his ecclesiastical authority and filling a depleted treasury. They started by smaller foundations sending royal inspectors to prepare reports on these houses.

'The suppression act' of 1536 transferred all buildings and possessions to the crown, but made allowance for pensions to be paid to displaced abbots and abbesses and for humbler monks and nuns to take up residence in larger surviving houses. That closure was a loss to many ordinary folk because they had provided food, shelter and even a rudimentary education to their lay employees and the faithful in the neighbourhood.

A protest march, **'the Pilgrimage of Grace'** began in the north in 1536, provoked not only by the hardship brought to certain areas by the abandonment of the monasteries but by other grievances over taxation and arbitrary land enclosures. Robert Aske led the Pilgrimage to York and on to Doncaster, where the marchers were promised full consideration of their problems by the king. However, the Pilgrimage was brutally crushed by Henry's military forces (public hangings) and Aske himself was executed.

Henry VIII was described as *'a despot under the law'*, but he was least concerned with the form of the law, and much of his despotism might be due to personal arrogance. He encouraged the construction of faster ships, reinforced

the professionals of his navy by a crowd of conscripts in time of emergency; but once a crisis was over these auxiliaries would go back to their usual jobs.

4.3 Edward VI

Henry VIII died in 1547, his son Edward was only nine years old. So regents governed on his behalf. The duke of Somerset was one of them and he was a staunch protestant who completely dominated the young king. The Duke's plans for the spread of Protestantism and the demotion of his catholic opponents were readily acceded to. Edward VI had been sickly from birth, and at the age of fifteen it was obvious that he had not long to live. His successor would be his half-sister Mary Tudor, a devout catholic who would have no compunction in dealing with the Protestants such as the Duke. Relying on the support he might expect from those many lords and commoners unwilling to see a rebirth of catholic power in the land, the Duke staked everything on a supposed succession of the protestant lady Jane (daughter of Mary; Henry VIII's sister). However this plan failed when Mary executed all the conspirators. She became queen in 1553

4.4. Mary I

Mary's marriage to Philip II of Spain was a clear warning to the English that they were to be steered back towards Rome. An attempt was made to restore monasteries, but the rich lords who had shared out monastic lands between them fought manfully against this. She ordered hundreds of Protestants to be burned to death, for which she became known as 'Bloody Mary'. She had

no children, and after her death in November 1558, she was succeeded by her half-sister Elizabeth.

4.5. Elizabeth I

Daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn. Elizabeth set herself to win her subjects' devotion as no other monarch had deigned to do. She travelled throughout the country and established her flesh and blood reality in people's minds. She was an extremely strong and clever woman who controlled the difficult political and religious situation of the time with great skill. During her reign the country's economy grew very strong, the arts were very active, and England became firmly protestant.

Among John Hawkins' officers was Francis Drake. When Hawkins was appointed treasurer of the navy and applied himself to rooting out corruption and incompetence, Drake set up on his own and harried the West Indies, returning each time with shiploads of plunder. This was a tantamount of slap in King Philip's face. It made nonsense of Elizabeth's denials of complicity in the privateer trade of which Drake was known to be the most relentless exponent. The Spanish ruler began to prepare for an inevitable war.

4.6. Mary Queen of the Scots

She was the daughter of King James V of Scotland and became queen shortly after her birth (1542-1567). She was a Roman catholic who was involved in many religious disputes with Scottish Protestants. She was deposed in 1567 in favour of her infant son James, and imprisoned in Lochleven castle.

From there a loyal servant helped her to escape and she tried to raise an army, but was defeated and forced to flee to England where she appealed to Elizabeth for aid. Elizabeth provided shelter but no support. Mary was a dangerous guest; as a direct descent of Henry VII through a line unattained by charges of illegitimacy, she was in catholic eyes the rightful queen of England as well as of Scotland. A large minority of Catholics also, looked to her as the person most likely to restore the old faith. Even if she genuinely wished at the start to be no embarrassment to Elizabeth, Mary's desire to recapture her Scottish throne involved her in many interchanges of secret and often ambiguous letters. Walsingham's spies brought many details of so many papist plot that Elizabeth had to order a string of execution. Elizabeth procrastinated, even when presented with evidence that Mary had condoned a plot to assassinate her, but at last signed a death warrant and Mary's head was cut off.

4.7. The Spanish Armada

Mary's execution was to Philip of Spain the last straw. Plans went ahead for the assembly of a vast armada, which should wipe the English from the seas and allow the Spanish troops invade their country. All catholic Europe was agog, and the Pope gave his blessing to the venture. The operation was delayed when Drake imprudently sailed in Cadiz in 1587 and burnt many of the galleons assembled there. By 1588 all seemed auspicious, but again there was a delay, this time of two weeks, because of unfavourable wind. Not until 15th of July did the mighty armada, under the command of the Duke of Medina Sidonia, reach the western approaches to the English Channel. The defending fleet was commanded by lord Howard of Effingham, Drake and Frobisher served under him. With Drake's backing, Hawkins had urged the queen to produce more of these faster ships which her father had favoured. Longer-range guns were installed on continuous gun-decks. Howard sent eight fire ships into the Spaniards congested ranks. The fast ships dodged in and out between the ungainly galleons and the Spaniards who had been used to the formal tactics of grappling and the fighting hand to hand were faced not with seaborne soldiers but by fighting sailors. The Spanish Armada was defeated more by bad weather than by English guns. About sixty three ships and twenty thousand men had been lost. England had lost not a single vessel and only about a hundred men. For England it was a glorious moment, but it did not lead to an end of the war with Spain. Peace was only made once Elizabeth died.

Elizabeth's life drew to a close in March 1603. The favourites of her youth were dead. In the early years her ministers had been perturbed by her lack of a husband and an heir. But she had survived all plots and perils, and given forty-five of her seventy years to her country. Now, with neither son nor daughter to follow her, she was implored to designate her successor. Bereft of speech, she made a sign which was interpreted as signifying assent to the nomination of King James VI; the son of Mary of Scotland who had once seemed such a menace to her life and realm. He became King James I of England.

Activities about the Tudors

1- Discuss in brief the main characteristics of the reign of King Henry VII .

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2- Discuss the main reasons of the Reformation.

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3- Discuss the main reasons and consequences of the dissolution of monasteries.

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4- Discuss the religious status of England during the reign of King Edward VI.

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5. The Stuarts

The succession of the Scottish dynasty of the Stuarts to the Welsh Tudors was achieved without bloodshed. The Stuart monarchs, from James I onwards, were less successful than the Tudors. They quarrelled with parliament and this resulted in civil war. The only King of England ever to be tried and executed was a Stuart.

5.1. James I

King James I believed in the divine right of kings. He kept his church in midway between Catholicism and Protestantism, and obliged his people to use only one authorised version of the Bible. No Catholic might celebrate the Roman Mass and no Puritan might worship God in his own austere way.

On the 5th of November 1605, a group of Catholics planned to blow up the Houses of Parliament and kill King James I. They placed a number of barrels of gunpowder in the cellars before the opening of Parliament. As the time drew near, one of the conspirators began to worry about catholic friends among Lords. He sent a letter warning one of them not to attend the parliament on the fateful day. The recipient passed the warning on, and the explosion was avoided. The conspirators were tried and hanged.

The Puritans, who had many supporters in the House of Commons, were a great nuisance for the king. They were starving him of money. A good many Catholics were driven to European countries where they could live with folk of

their own persuasion. Far more Puritans were driven by persecution in quite the opposite direction.

The House of Lords had far less effective power than merchants and landowners in the House of Commons. If the king wanted money, he had to prove that it was for the benefit of the country as a whole. Tired of financial persecution, King James dissolved the parliament. And when he died, he left the entire chaotic situation to his son Charles I, who inherited all the troubles of his father as well as a close war with Spain.

5.2. Charles I

He married the daughter of the King of France, Henrietta Maria to keep France friendly. When he asked parliament for money to carry with the war against Spain, parliament members refused, so he dissolved parliament. The French refused to provide any kind of help because of their internal troubles; protestant rebellion, which led the powerful French minister Cardinal Richelieu to sign a peace treaty with Spain. This was enough to make of him England's enemy. Money for a campaign against France was raised without parliament sanction. The French expedition of 1627 returned with no little dishonour to the nation, excessive charge to the treasury, and great slaughters of English men. The exchequer was now empty, there remained many outstanding bills to be paid and more money would have to be raised if another army was to be sent to France. Charles I faced a hostile parliament that he had humbly to recall. Before they would contribute, the Commons formed a Committee of Grievances and

presented the king with a Petition of Right in 1628, designed to protect the subjects from any further taxation unauthorised by parliament, and from imprisonment without a due process of law. Charles I signed reluctantly.

In 1629, the members of the commons refused to accept royal guards in the parliament while discussing religious and economic matters and the King considered this as a calculated defiance. He dissolved parliament again. It was not recalled for 11 years. Meanwhile, Charles had resorted to many shifts to raise money (illegal levies).

In 1640, King Charles I found it inevitable to call another parliament since ship money did not meet his needs. The new assembly survived for so many years that it came to be known as the Long parliament. However, its opposition to the king led him to recognize that it had already sat too long. His friend and adviser, Archbishop Laud, was impeached; his Star Chamber was abolished and his supposedly dutiful Commons asserted their power over all customs dues and other taxes; plans for undermining the Church of England and his own spiritual supremacy took ominous shape. The two factions have been driven too far apart to meet amicably again.

Parliament members called for a new constitution recognizing their own supremacy. Ministers and judges must be appointed by parliament, and all the church and military matters must come under their control. Charles I gathered his faithful lords and officers about him, together with some dissident members

of the Commons. The remaining Lords and Commons set up a Committee of Safety and conscripted an army under the command of the earl of Essex.

5.3. The Civil War

The Civil War divided the English people and caused great suffering. Its major clash was in the battle of Edgehill (1642). Many Parliamentarians (Roundheads) were horrified by the idea of fighting against their own king; on the other hand, many Royalists (Cavaliers) had more sympathy towards the parliament than the king. In the long run, Charles was about to lose. Parliament controlled London, the customs and the key-ports; which meant money. However, the encounter at Edgehill was not an auspicious beginning for the parliamentarians. Their amateurish foot soldiers had little chance against the skilled royalist cavalry under their leader Prince Rupert, nephew of Charles. Yet, it was that same leader who spoiled the chance of ending the war in its early stages. Having got so many of his enemies on the run, he gave chase instead of using his superior forces to finish off the main battle. The result was that the parliamentary foot soldiers defeated the royalist foot soldiers; which counterbalanced the royalist superiority in cavalry. So neither side really won.

By 1645, the parliament passed an ordinance for the formation of a New Model Army under the command of Sir Thomas Fairfax. Within few months, came the decisive engagement at Naseby. Prince Rupert, started well with a devastating cavalry, and Fairfax was in danger of collapse, when Oliver Cromwell routed one wing of the royalists and threw all his weight against their

centre. Rupert repeated his Edgehill mistake by allowing his men to pursue the parliamentarians as they scattered, and found he could not round them up.

Unable to reassemble an army capable of giving battle anywhere, Charles was held prisoner for more than two years. Cromwell associated himself with the demand for a Republic. Members of the parliament showed hesitant and the council of the army sent Colonel Thomas Pride to deal with them. As a result of Pride's Purge in December 1648, ninety six members were forcibly ejected from parliament and the sixty left were known as the Rump Parliament. On Sunday 30th January 1649, King Charles I was beheaded and the Commonwealth was declared (1649-1660). For the first four years, the country was ruled by the House of Commons. Then in 1653 the army gave power to Oliver Cromwell with the title of Lord Protector. The Commonwealth ended with the Restoration of King Charles II in 1660.

Activities about the Stuarts

1-Discuss the main characteristics of the reign of king James I.

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2-Discuss the main reasons and consequences of the English Civil War.

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6. The Years of Revolution

6.1. Britain before the Industrial Revolution

Only a few towns existed in England and they were very small. Most people lived in the countryside and worked in agriculture and up to 1750, the population grew very slowly. London was the largest town which existed at that time (500.000 to 700.000 inhabitants). The towns in the 1700 were spacious and there were no houses built back to back. The rich lived in large houses and the poor lived in squalid houses and in some areas as many as 12 poor men lived in one room. Only a few towns began to make improvements in sanitary arrangements, but these were rudimentary and related to drainage. Most of the town streets were narrow two metres wide with no lighting at night.

Death rate was very high because of wars and diseases. Children under five were particularly exposed to diseases which ravaged society in towns and countryside. The low level of life expectancy was one of the characteristics of the pre-industrial society; it was about 30years, there was also a high level of infant and children mortality.

There was little or no education for the poor. Some grammar schools were founded by private charity but they existed only in few areas. The children of the wealthy people went to the public schools and to the very few universities, in general there was a little interest in study or learning.

In the 1700, agriculture was the main occupation of the people and their methods of cultivation were still primitive. The open field system prevailed over

most of the country and the main crops were cereals. Food production was poor and only for internal consumption. The most prosperous farmers kept poultry and pigs. They had gardens for growing vegetables. The farmers carried for the land which was scattered into Strips and open fields. They were either free holders (those who owned their land) or tenants (those who had a lease), but there were men with no land at all (landless). The most important person was the squire; a nobleman who lived with his family in the hall. He owned most of the land.

The towns of England were cut off from each other. Those who travelled, doctors and businessmen, went on horseback. By 1700 the large wheeled wagons were being used, however, they could only travel from 2 to 3 miles/hour and on hill travellers had to go out to push the coach. Winter conditions were so difficult that the coach did not run. Most goods were carried by land at very high cost; whenever possible goods were moved through water.

In the early 18th century, local trade was the most important, because articles could easily move from town to town. Abroad, Europe was the chief market and wool was the main export. Corn was equally exported, but only in years of good harvest.

The only industry which existed was of domestic type. Different areas were specialised in different kinds of manufacturing. Wool was the most important industry. Silk could be found in South Lancashire and the highlands.

Iron goods in Sussex, copper could be found in Cornwall. Ship building in towns near the sea: Bristol, South Hampton, Newcastle.

Power was provided by men muscles or by animals. Horses walked around to wind cobbles or to haul coal, water power was to work mills, and wind mills were equally a source of power.

6.2. The Industrial Revolution

The years between 1750 and 1830 are generally spoken of as the crucial years of the Industrial Revolution. However, this term may be misleading because it has been a continuing process throughout history. In 1750, most English people lived in villages and by 1830 England became an urban society. Later on Arnold Toynbee gave the name of Industrial Revolution to show the changes from an agricultural country to an urban one.

6.2.1. The Factors that Contributed to Change

Britain was not the richest nor the strongest country in Europe, but later on by its going through the first stages of the Industrial Revolution, it became the strongest and it was capable of increasing its markets when:

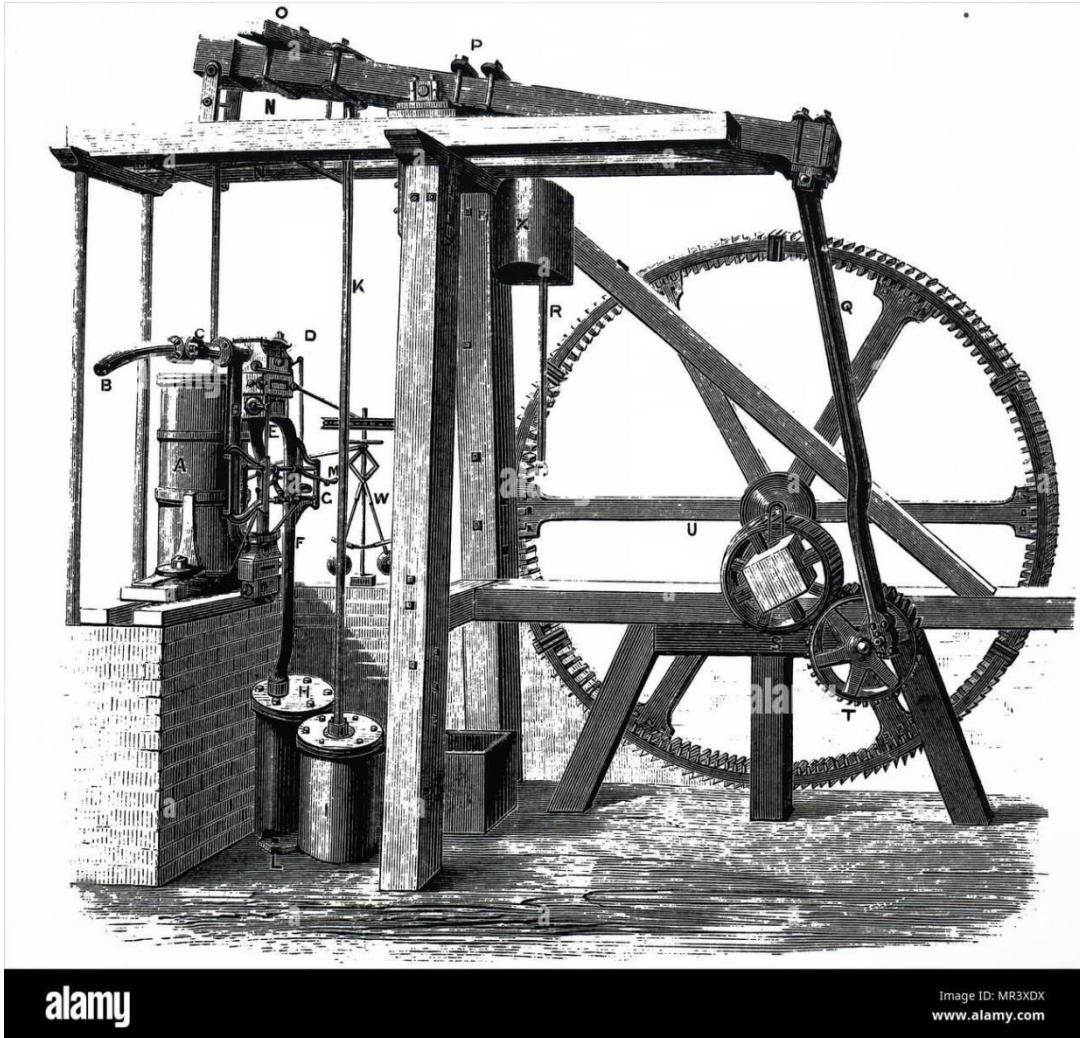
1. The English were able to win in their wars (7 years wars in India, Canada and the West Indies (1756-1763); so the growth of the population led to increase the demand for goods and that demand had to be satisfied.
2. Britain was helped by the flexibility of its laws, which allowed the British people to experiment without fear to be arrested; this gave scientists the chance to invent and produce new machines
3. There were many rich people in Britain who had been investing their money in their government stocks. Scientists, whenever they wanted to invent anything were helped by rich people.
4. The influence of Puritanism and Calvinism which taught people that indulgence in worldly pleasure was condemned. They did not spend their money

on grand houses, splendid clothes or luxury living, so their money would be invested in industrial development. At the same time, their religious belief taught that God will approve of success in business.

5-Great Britain was fortunate in raw materials mainly coal and iron. The coal industry was the old industry, but the demand for coal in the iron as well as in the textile industry led to many changes:-Men had to go deeper down to get coal. They faced the danger of flooding which created the need for new efficient pumps to get water out from the mines. In the deeper areas, there was the danger of firedamp, which led to the invention of 'the safety lamp' by Sir Humphrey Davies.

6.2.2. The Steam Engine

Thomas Savery invented a steam pump to get water from coal mines and copper mines. It was developed into a more efficient machine that was used by the Darby family. James Watt's first experiments with the steam engines involved attempts to repair the old machine and by 1775 he had invented a more efficient steam engine with less fuel and more power. In 1783, Watt discovered a way of using the engine to turn other machinery, then Sir William Murdoch showed him how to build a series of logs and wheels which Watt called 'sun and planets system', this changed the machine into a rotator one that was used by the end of the century in the textile factories, in iron work, in corn mills, in flour mills and other industries which made of the steam engine the royal start of industrialisation.



6.2.3. The Textile Industry

The woollen industry was the most important one; the British woollen cloth was spread all over the world. The old woollen industry was under a domestic system. Merchants bought the raw material from farmers and took it to small cottages where the country workers worked on it. They started by sorting the long strands from the small ones, then washing it to get the dirt out, combing it so that all the fibers lay the same way, then spinning it on a simple wheel. This work was done in small cottages and there were no factories. Not all jobs were done in the same cottage; there were workshops and mills under the

control of merchants where dyers used plants to dye which gave each cloth a special colour. There were plenty of workers within cottages and machinery was less needed than in cotton industry.

6.2.4. The Spinning Sector

Most of the early inventions were in the spinning sector. James Hargreaves' Spinning Jenny (1764) could work a number of spindles at once (120 spindles by 1775). These Jennies were at first simple machines, which could be used in cottages. Richard Arkwright's Water Frame was able to produce stronger thread than that produced by its predecessors. Because it was too heavy, it was of no use to cottages, but had to be installed in a factory close to running water. Arkwright was able to make profit from his own invention by running his own mills. He won the title of 'father of the factory system'

6.3. The Agricultural Revolution

The British Agricultural Revolution occurred over a period of several centuries (more akin to an evolution than a revolution). Farm workers using more productive tools and machinery produced more crops with fewer workers. Without increasing amounts of food to feed the increasing city populations the Industrial and Scientific Revolutions could not have proceeded. Each so called "Revolution" supported and advanced the other revolutions—they were (and still are) intricately linked together.

It appeared mainly because of:

1. The increased demand for food for the increasing population.

2. The falling in the prices thanks to good harvests, so the farmers had to produce more to cut the costs.
3. Many of the landowners sold off their estates to successful businessmen who wanted country estates. They made their money in commerce, and they brought the habit of money making to agriculture.
4. The emergence of new ideas about farming; some of which were brought from other countries such as Holland (stock breeding).
5. The growth in scientific knowledge. The Agricultural Revolution would not have been possible unless farmers learned, for instance, how to maintain and restore the fertility of the soil.

6.3.1. The Open Field and Commons

In 1700, throughout the midlands and eastern England, each farmer and tenant farmer had a number of strips in scattered fields (pieces of lands). In this way, every one shared in the land be it good or bad; but the system was wasteful:

-They used to plant only one kind of crop so every farmer had to follow and was not allowed to experiment with a new crop.

-There were no hedges between the strips; and the animals could wonder freely and eat the crops.

-Because of the lack in fertilisers, 1/3 of the land was unproductive.

But the most serious and important defect of this farming system was 'the commons'. Each village had its common (40000 acres) in which there were

woods, forests, and the grazing land for animals. For businessmen, these commons were huge areas which could be ploughed up and made to produce benefits.

6.3.2. The Enclosures

From 1760 onwards, a movement grew up; it supported the ideas of turning the separate strips into compact holdings. Those who led the movement believed that it would save land and time. They also wanted to divide up the commons. Sometimes, such enclosures were carried out by agreements between the people concerned and when arrangements were not possible, they had to go to parliament and get an Enclosure Act. Before this act would be passed, certain steps had to be taken:

1. -3/4 of the owners of the land involved had to agree to the enclosure.
- 2- For 3 Sundays, a notice had to be put on church doors telling the other farmers about the proposals. Sometimes, people who feared the change pulled down the notice.
- 3- The proposals in a form of parliament bill were presented to a committee in the House of Commons. This committee heard evidence for and against the proposals. The poor could not go to London to give evidence so the committee heard only the rich.
- 4- When the committee was satisfied, the bill went to the House of Commons to become an act.

5-The Parliament appointed a number of commissioners to go to villages to map out the land dividing it and settling all the arrangements about farming.

As a result of enclosures, some of the farmers could not prove to the commissioners that they had any legal claim to their strips, because they had inherited them from their families. Some who got a compact holding could be offered their share, but the cost of hedging was very high, so they sold their farms if they were the owners, and if they were tenants, they had to hand it back to the owners. Some less efficient farmers found that they could not produce food charged by more efficient and rich farmers. The loss of commons affected everyone except the most prosperous farmers.

6.3.3. The New Farming

Most enclosures took place in eastern England; it was there that new system of farming was seen. For this reason, it was known as the Norfolk System .It consisted of:

- 1-Granting tenants a long lease (21 years) so they might be encouraged to do the draining, hedging and other works.
- 2-Allowing farmers to experiment different crops each year.
- 3-Building new roads in order to transport the crops to markets.
- 4- Using a number of new machines produced in the 18th century, however, they were limited to richer farmers.
- 5-There was a royal encouragement for such New Farming with king George III who had been given the title of 'Farmer George'.

6.4. The Transportation Revolution

The main means of transportation were roads and water. However, transportation by canals proved to be safer and cheaper than roads. The roads then in existence were quite inadequate to bear the weight and bulk of iron and coal shipments. The great pioneer of canal building in England was the duke of Bridgwater, with his engineers, John Gilbert and James Brindley. He devised a waterway from his coalfields at Worsley to Manchester. There came a time where no town of any size in England was more than 15 miles from a canal. Thomas Telford who worked on canals played an important role in road improvement. From the time of the Romans, it had been taken for granted that a highway carrying regular heavy traffic must have deep solid foundations. John Mc Adam introduced a surfacing of hard stone shipping, which were weather resistant, and could bear its load better than the less resistant solid construction, and was strengthened rather than weakened by the constant pressure of wheels and horse hoofs.

The most adventurous development in transport, however, was that of the iron road. In his later years, James Watt considered the feasibility of using steam as a method of propulsion as well as powering static engines, but he did not follow it up. Robert Trevithick was the first to construct a steam locomotive and displayed its running round a circular track at Easton in 1809. In 1829 George Stephenson and his son won a competition sponsored by the Liverpool

and Manchester Railway, with their rocket capable of travelling at almost 30 miles an hour.

6.4.1. Reformers

Improvements of roads made travel easier and cheaper. The railways too found there were profits to be made from cheap excursions and bulk transport of human beings in third class 6 accommodation. There was a big drift from the land into industrial areas. Parliament passed a series of acts to replace the allotments and small holdings of which the agricultural worker had been deprived by the various forms of enclosure, but families continued to leave the village, and few came back. However, exploited they were, they were still better off than in their villages. There was also a temptation of self advancement; a farm labourer stood little chance of becoming lord of a manor, but in the new towns, there were many stories of self-made men climbing to the top. However, a lot of this climbing was over the bodies of women and children; they provided the cheapest labour and worked in stifling atmosphere for 12 or more hours a day in cotton mills.

In 1815, Peel tried to carry a bill limiting children's working hours to 10 hours, but it failed. Employers claimed that children were better occupied doing useful work all day than running out getting mischief. Robert Owen the Welshman, refused to employ young children and instead, he set up an infant school for them. He provided further education for the older ones, and showed how an enterprise such as his cotton mills could improve working conditions,

wages, and the overall welfare of the community, and still make profit. He introduced a co-operative store in contrast to those employers who forced workers to take part of their wages in the form of overpriced goods from a 'tommy shop' on the premises. Owen urged the government to apply his principles throughout the country. He lent his weight to the factory act of 1819 forbidding the employment of children under 9 in cotton mills. This and other legislation allowed too many loopholes for employers skilled in the evasion of regulations in 1833 Althorp promoted a factory act known as the Althorp's act. It appointed inspectors to ensure that its stipulations would be observed. In 1840 Shaftesbury pushed through the act with a Mines Act forbidding the employment of women and children underground, with reforms in the poor law, schools were opened at night for free instruction of all comers, children or adults. Other educational work, for women was done by Elizabeth Fry, wife of a Quaker banker and tea merchant. Edwin Chadwick, aroused a great deal of resentment among local authorities about the miserable conditions in towns, and his determination resulted in the Public Health Act of 1848: Towns overcrowding, however made legislation easier. Imposing health or employment regulation on scattered farming communities was a daunting task. It was easier to inspect factories than it would ever have been to inspect the old system of domestic work as observed by Trevelyan. The Ballot Act of 1872 Public vote led to corruption, because of that, the government passed this act to avoid corruption and encourage the parties to rely on their programmes. The Corrupt

practice Act of 1832 Candidates used to give alcohol and food to voters, in order to put an end to this, the government passed this act. The Reform Act of 1832 97 towns lost their right to elect an M.P because they had less than 15000 inhabitants, further towns were divided into single number of constituencies, in this way half of the male population got the right to vote. Women got no role in society during the 18th century. Middle class women were taught that their own role was to catch a man from a middle class and form a middle class family.

By the end of the 19th century and beginning of the 20 th century, many movements asked for women rights. Among the leaders of these movements, John Stuart Mill who was for women's vote, but he failed. Women got the right to vote after the First World War in 1918, but at the age of 30. In 1929 at the age of 21, and in 1969, at the age of 18

6.4.2. The Operation of the New Poor Law

All relief in money and provisions was abolished. The only relief allowed was admission to the workhouses. The regulations for these workhouses, or, as people call them, Poor Law Bastilles, were such as to frighten away everyone who has the slightest prospect in life without this form of public charity. To make sure that relief be applied for only, in the extreme cases, and after every other effort had failed, the workhouse had been made the most repulsive residence, which the refined ingenuity of a man can invent. The food is worse than that of the most ill paid working person, while employed and the work harder, otherwise, they might prefer the workhouse to their wretched existence outside. Meat, especially fresh meat was rarely furnished; chiefly potatoes, the worst possible bread and oatmeal porridge, little or no beer. The food of criminal prisoners was much better, as a rule, so that the paupers frequently commit some offence for getting into jail. For the workhouse is a jail too. He, who does not finish his task, gets nothing to eat. He, who wishes to go out must ask for permission, which is granted or not, according to his behaviour or the inspector's whim. Tobacco is forbidden, also the receipt of gifts from relatives or friends outside the house. The paupers used to wear a workhouse uniform, and are handed over to the caprice of the inspectors. To prevent their work from competing with that of outside concerns, they were set to rather useless tasks; the men break stones, the women, children and aged men pick oakum for an insignificant use. To prevent the wretched people from multiplying, and

demoralised parents from influencing their children, families were broken up: the husband was placed in one wing, the wife in another, the children in a third. They were allowed to see each other only at stated times after long intervals, and only when they had, in the opinion of the officials, behaved well. In order to save the external world from contamination by pauperism, from within these bastilles, the inmates were permitted to receive visits only with the consent of the officials, and in the reception rooms; to communicate in general with the world outside by leave and under supervision.

Activities about the Years of Revolution

1- Discuss the main characteristics of pre-industrial Britain.

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2- Discuss the main reasons of the Industrial Revolution.

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.....3-How
did Enclosures contribute to change in the agricultural field?

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7. Trade Unionism

There were many restrictive measures against unions, but gradually it was accepted even by their opponents that they were there to stay. In Manchester in 1868 a Trades Union Congress was attended by 34 delegates, representing some 118000 union members. It resolved to use its influence:

- 1 -to amend the law in regard to picketing
- 2- to secure legal protection of trade societies' funds
- 3- to organise an annual congress of the Trade Unions
- 4- to bring the trade unions into closer alliance in order to take action in parliamentary actions pertaining to the general interests of the working classes.

In 1871 Gladstone's administration passed a Trade Union Act to define allowable methods of collective bargaining, to permit unions to hold property and have legal protection for their funds, and to clear up vagueness which has made conflicting judgements possible in the courts. A Criminal Law Amendment Act which virtually prohibited picketing under Disraeli was replaced. Peaceful picketing was legalised and was laid down that a combination of strikers could not be persecuted on grounds of criminal conspiracy if the act they were committing was one which was not illegal for a single person to commit.

The really alarming act came from employers in South Wales; the Taff Vale railway company brought a claim against the rail way men's union for financial loss and damage to railway property during a strike. The court ruled

that the union was legally responsible for the conduct of its individual members, and awarded the company £ 23.000. It was obvious that if such actions could succeed, Union funds would always be at risk, and even a successful strike could prove financially disastrous in the long run. Neither of the main political parties (Whigs and Tories) offered sympathy, let alone any indication of steps to amend the law. Trade Unionists wishing to press for certain acts of parliament needed their own spokesman in that parliament. The seeds of the labour party were being sown.

8. The Labour Party

The labour party appeared as a result of the failure of the working class to send to the parliament candidates who would defend them via the liberal party, which was for a long time known as a social reform party. The liberal party was, nonetheless unable to deal with the working class aspirations for dignity and respect. The working class conditions were very bad, and the trade unions started to realise the way the industrial life of Britain was organised was wrong. Workers had no real security. Their employment was in the hands of owners of big business; the Capitalists as they were called. They had the profits from the manufacture. Some workers who, by their labour, had made the capital, called themselves Socialists. They said that neither the Liberals nor the Conservatives could cure the ills of the society; they could only patch up things here and there. What was wanted was a system in which individual men did not own the factories and machines.

Keir Hardie was one of the first socialist leaders in his country. He was a Scottish miner who had started work at the age of ten. His family had a long tradition of Trade Union work. One of his ancestors, Andrew Hardie, had been hanged in 1820 after a strike. He said that a new party was needed, a party of workers, not just a few Trade Unionists who hang on the tail of the Liberals. In 1893, a small group founded the independent Labour Party, and put up five candidates in the election. Keir Hardie in the House of Commons was something the members had never experienced before. They were used to

violent debates where the two parties attacked each other with vigour. But these arguments were couched in educated language. Keir Hardie broke in with brutal frankness and told the House of Commons to turn their attention to the 1.300.000 unemployed.

In the year 1894, there was a terrible mining disaster, in which 260 miners were killed. The following day, the president of the French republic was assassinated. Parliament sent a message of condolence to France, but did not think it was necessary to send one to Cilnydd in Wales. It was enough said the government spokesperson, if they just expressed their sympathy in the House of Commons. Keir Hardie was so enraged that when Edward VIII was born to the duchess of York, he voted against a message of congratulations. The House of Commons had been used to quiet and respectful Trade Union members this was something new because the Labour Party remained a small group and made a little head way, Keir Hardie realised that it must have the backing of the Trade Unions before it could really be effective. This was debated at the Trade Union Congress and it was finally decided to form a parliamentary representation society, which should work to get its own members elected to parliament. There was at first a good deal of doubt about the wisdom of this policy: The Labour Party was born as a result of the Taff Vale decision. It was a Trade Union Party formed to fight for the rights of Trade unions. The old tradition of two parties opposing each other; Roundheads and Cavaliers, Whigs and Tories, Liberals and Conservatives was broken, a third party had entered the list.

Activities about Trade Unionism and the Labour Party

1-How did the Labour Party appear in Britain?

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9. The Victorian Period

Queen Victoria reigned over England for 64 years from 1837 to 1851. Politically, it was the age of the middle class with their belief in the Laissez-Faire theory. Economically, following the Industrial Revolution, there were periods of Depression and periods of Prosperity. Socially, there was much agitation with the chartist movement, which lasted ten years (1839-1849). Chartism was a working class movement demanding the right to vote and enter parliament. It appeared as a reaction to the reform act of 1832, which gave political power to the middle class only. Chartism was a very popular movement) but it failed because there was much disagreement between its leaders and also because of the lack of education and political maturity of the workers. With the failure of Chartism to obtain political rights, social harmony prevailed in England from 1851 to the beginning of the 20 Century.

9.1. Victorian Prosperity

1851 is a basic date of the 19th Century because it was the symbol of great achievements. Chartism had died, great inventions were encouraging industrial production/ medicine was developing, particularly with the use of chloroform. The railway was cheap (holidays by the sea were a possibility for many people). In the towns, main streets were paved and better cleaned. In London for example, life at night was safer because there was street lighting (using gas and petroleum), and travel was easier as there were more horse driven carriages and the omnibus. All this material prosperity was demonstrated

by the great exhibition of 1851 where people from the entire world came to see the high level of development England had reached. More than 7000 British producers brought their goods to the exhibition. This exhibition revealed the tact of the middle class or Victorian Britain. There was in all the articles (even every day articles) no simplicity; on the contrary, there was an over ornamentation. In fact, the Victorians gave more importance to comfort, solidity, heaviness and security than to beauty and elegance. Even the amusements were more moderate and quiet than in the early 19th Century. For example, cock-fighting as a game had totally disappeared. The prosperity of Victorian England started in 1851 and ended in 1873. Those twenty-two years were also marked by population growth, increasing production in industry and agriculture and the colonisation of India. The problem was that England was more successful in economic affairs and trade than in social justice. Behind peace and wealth, there still existed great misery, ignorance, poverty, degradation although some laws were passed by the Middle Class concerning work in the factory or education of the children. The period of Victorian prosperity, was a period of harmony in the sense that all the classes believed in two virtues or qualities: thrift and self-help. All the country believed in these Victorian values and their most famous defender was Samuel Smiles with his book *Self-Help* (1859). He said that to progress and improve its conditions, the Working Class in particular should adopt Victorian values as saving, self-help, hard work, competition and religious virtues. These values had made of England a great and wealthy country. It is also by practising these

values that the Middle Class raised into power and prosperity, according to Smiles. Belief in Victorian values especially self-help led to the emergence of various associations such as the Savings Banks where small sums of money could be deposited and people receive a small interest. In this, the government encouraged people to save and practise thrift. In addition to Savings Banks there were Friendly Societies. Their aim was to provide help in times of trouble (sickness, accident, unemployment, old age, and death). They also provided enjoyment through friendly clubs where the members could meet to eat or drink. It is clear that the members of Friendly Societies saved out of their wages, therefore, these societies concerned people who were working. They existed and functioned in England until the beginning of the 20th Century when social security became the responsibility of the government. Finally, Victorian England was famous for its cooperative societies for consumers. Money was collected from the workers, then, a place was rented in which goods like butter, eggs or tea were sold at a low price. The goods went directly from the producers to the consumers. All these solutions were a demonstration of the spirit of solidarity that was developing among the working class especially with the Laissez-faire policy which meant that no help could come from the government. In addition to that, the working class social organisation was proof that people accepted industrialism and adapted themselves to it.

9.2. Depression

Prosperity ended in 1873 and the Depression, which started was mostly due to the competition of America and Germany. Although the British production was still high, the American and German production was much higher. This was particularly obvious in industries like iron, coal and steel. For example German coal production increased by 53% between 1873 and 1883 while that of Britain increased by 29%. In addition, the enormous demand of foreign countries for British iron and steel to build the railway, of the preceding years decreased because America and Europe could now produce great quantities of their own iron and steel. Finally and most importantly, England did not understand that the energy of electricity. Unlike the Germans and Americans who very early used electricity as a source of power, heat and source of light. England, still interested in steam power, was too slow to change her way. When she finally came to use electricity for tramways and thus replace the horse, and when she came to use the telephone (an American invention) or use the car (a German invention) in the very last years of the 19th century, Americans and Germans were far ahead. As a conclusion, we may say that England at the end of the 19th Century was prosperous especially as she had been colonising India, Egypt and South Africa, but she was no longer the leader. When the WWI started in 1914, England, who used to be predominant, now stood among equals.

Activities about the Victorian Period

1-Discuss the two main periods of the reign of queen Victoria.

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10. The British Political Institutions

The term Britain is normally used for the sake of brevity. Britain's full political title for international purposes is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. It is part of that group of islands, described geographically as the British Isles, which lie off the Northwest coast of continental Europe. The main lands of England, Scotland, and Wales form the largest island, and are known politically as Great Britain. Northern Ireland shares the second largest island with the republic of Ireland (or Eire) which is politically independent and not part of the United Kingdom. Other smaller Islands such as Anglesey, the Orkneys, the Shetland s, Hebrides, the Isle of Wight and the isles of Silly, are also included in the British political union. But islands like the Isle of Man in the Irish Sea and the Islands off the French coast are not part of the UK although they are members of the commonwealth. They are self-governing Crown Dependencies which have a special relationship with the British Crown but possess their own legislatures, legal systems, and administrative structures. However, the British government as a royal representative is responsible for their defence and international relations and could interfere if good administration is not maintained.

10.1. Historical Evolution

The history of British politics over the 800 past years has been one of curbing monarch's former supreme power, and vesting that authority in parliament as the legal voice of the people. This struggle has produced bitter

conflicts as well as slowly evolving political institutions. The original structures were inevitably monarchical, aristocratic, and non-democratic. These have been gradually adapted to the requirements of parliamentary sovereignty, changing social conditions and the mass democracy of today. However, the roles of the institutions are still vigorously debated in contemporary Britain. British governments are frequently accused of being too secretive, too centralized, and insufficiently responsive to the wider needs of the country. It is usually argued that parliament is executive. It is felt that political power has shifted overwhelmingly to the sitting government and to the Prime Minister within the cabinet. This view suggests that authority in the British governmental system now rests with the prime minister, as it had once belonged exclusively to the monarch. Let us have a historical retrospective of the development of British politics.

In Anglo-Norman England, between 1066 and 1215, the monarch had absolute power until the French-Norman barons united against the dictatorial rule of King John. They forced him to sign Magna Carta in 1215. Although this document was initially intended to protect the aristocracy it is one of the few British constitutional papers that came to be regarded as a corner stone of British liberties. It restricted the monarch's powers, forced him to take advice, promoted a non-royal influence in national affairs, stipulated that no citizen could be punished or kept in prison without a fair trial. Later monarchs tried to

ignore Magna Carta, but could not succeed initially against the military strength of aristocracy.

In 1265, Simon de Montfort called England's first parliament which was composed of the nobility and commoners. This was followed in 1295 by the model parliament which was to serve as an example for future structures. Its two sections consisted of the Lords and Bishops who were chosen by the monarch and the commons which comprised elected male representatives. These two units gradually moved further and eventually evolved into the present parliamentary division between the House of Lords and the House of Commons. However, the combined parliament of aristocrats and commoners was too large in the thirteenth century to rule the country effectively.

A large Privy Council was created which was really an expansion of the succeeding centuries. This body was to become the dominant ruling government outside parliament until it also gave way to the present structures in the late-18th and early 19th centuries. Although, these early developments did give parliament some limited powers against the monarch, there was return to royal dominance in Tudor England from 1485. The nobility had been weakened by wars and internal conflicts, and Tudor monarchs deliberately chose non-aristocratic landed gentry as members of their privy councils. The nobility were often excluded from policy-making and the landed gentry became dependent upon royal patronage. Consequently, Tudor monarchs summoned Parliament only when they needed to raise money.

Parliament began to show more resistance to the monarchy under the Stuart succession from 1603 by using its weapon of financial control. It was influenced by the gentry who had now become more independent, had expanded economically, and had a majority in the House of Commons. Parliament began to refuse royal requests for money and eventually forced Charles I to sign the petition of Rights in 1628 which further restricted the monarch's powers and was intended to prevent him from raising taxes without Parliament consent. Charles I tried to ignore these developments until he was obliged to summon Parliament for finance. Parliament again refused the request.

Realizing that he could not control parliament, Charles next failed in his attempt to arrest parliamentary leaders in the House of Commons itself. Because of this episode, the monarch was in future prohibited from entering the House of Commons. Charles' rejection of developing political ideals provoked anger against the Crown and eventually a Civil War broke out in 1642. The mainly protestant Parliamentarians under Oliver Cromwell won the military struggle against the largely catholic Royalists. Charles I was beheaded in 1649, the monarchy was abolished and England was made a republic under the Cromwell's (1649-60). During the republican period, Parliament consisted only of the House of Commons, which met every three years.

However, Cromwellian military rule was harsh and increasingly unpopular, so that most people wanted the restoration of the monarchy. The two houses of parliament were re-established, and in 1660 they restored the Stuart Charles II to the throne. Initially, Charles co-operated with parliament, but eventually his financial needs, his belief in the divine right of kings to rule without opposition, and his support of the Catholic cause lost him popular and parliamentary backing. Parliament, then, ended his expensive wars, forced him to sign the Test Act of 1673 which excluded Catholics and Protestant dissenters from holding public office and passed the Habeas Corpus Act in 1679 which stipulated that no citizen could be imprisoned without a fair and speedy trial.

In addition to this growing power of parliament against the monarch, the seventeenth century also saw the beginning of more organized political parties. These derived largely from the ideological and religious conflicts of the civil War. Two groups dominated the political scene. This new situation gave rise to the future British two-party system, in which political power, like the pendulum, shifted between two main parties. The Whigs were mainly Cromwellian Protestants and gentry who refused to accept the Catholic James II as successor to Charles II and who wanted religious freedom for all Protestants. The Tories generally supported royalist beliefs namely the divine right of kings and helped Charles II to secure James's right to succeed him.

But James II did little to appease the political tensions raised by successors. He ruled without parliament, ignored its laws, and tried to repeal the Test Act.

His manipulations forced his Tory allies to join the Whigs in inviting the Protestant William of Orange to intervene. Supported by Dutch military help, William arrived in England in 1688. James fled to France and William succeeded to the throne. Since no bloodshed was involved, this event has been called the Glorious or Bloodless Revolution. William's arrival at the head of the British State, as some modern historians have thought, brought some remarkable changes to British Constitution and politics. Indeed, William III became Britain's first constitutional monarch, and because of conditions imposed upon him, it was in future practically impossible for the monarch to reign without the consent of parliament.

A series of Acts at this time laid the foundations for later political and constitutional developments. The Declaration of Rights in 1689 tried to establish basic civil liberties, and prevented the monarch from the making of laws or raising an army without parliament's approval. The Act of Settlement in 1701 gave religious freedom to all protestants, and stipulated that all future English monarchs had to be Protestant. A Triennial Act established that parliament was to be called every three years.

The Glorious Revolution effectively abolished the Monarch's claim of divine right. It also attempted in practice to arrange a division of powers

between an executive branch (the monarch through the government of the Privy Council) a legislative branch (both houses of parliament and formally the monarch), and the judiciary (a legal body independent from monarch and parliament). This division of power in which the legislature was supposed to control the executive, evolved slowly into its modern counterparts.

Parliamentary power continued to grow gradually in the early 18th century, initially because the Hanoverian George I lacked interest in English affairs of state. He also mistrusted the Tories with their Catholic sympathies and appointed Whig ministers such as Robert Walpole to his privy council. Eventually, Walpole became Chief Minister, Leader of the Whig Party, and head of the Whig majority in the Commons, which was composed of wealthy land and property owners. Walpole's control of political power enabled him to increase parliamentary influence, and he has been called Britain's first Prime Minister. But, such control was not absolute and later monarchs sought a return to royal dominance.

However, the American Revolution and its Declaration of independence in 1776 resulted in the weakening of both personal and royal authority of King George III who was obliged to appoint William Pitt the Younger as his Tory Chief Minister and it was under Pitt that the office of Prime Minister really developed. But, although parliamentary control grew in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, there was still no widespread

democracy in Britain. Political authority was now in the hands of land owners and merchants in Parliament, and the vast majority of the people did not possess the vote. Bribery and corruption were common, with the buying of those votes which did exist and the sale of public offices. The Tories were against electoral reform, as were the Whigs initially. But the country was now rapidly increasing its population and developing economically and industrially, so that it became imperative to undertake reforms. The Whigs extended voting to the rising middle class in the First Reform Act 1832. The Tory Disraeli later gave the vote to men with property and a certain income. The large majority of the working class were consequently unrepresented in Parliament because they had no votes. It was only in 1884 the Whig Gladstone gave the franchise to all male adults. But most women had to wait until 1928 for full democracy to be established in Britain.

The main elements of modern British government developed somewhat haphazardly in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and were based on the 1688 Revolution and its division of powers. Ministers gradually became responsible to the Commons rather than to the monarch. A growing collective responsibility meant that they all shared joint responsibility for policies and acts of government, in addition to their individual responsibility. The prime Ministership developed from the monarch's Chief Minister as First among equals to eventually the leadership of all ministers. The ministers and the government belonged to the majority party in the House of Commons. The

largest minority party became the official opposition striving, by its party manifesto and its performance in the Commons and the country, to become the next government chosen by the people.

The growth of more sophisticated and organized political parties in the nineteenth century was conditioned by changing social and economic factors. These produced the modern struggle between opposing political ideas as represented by the political parties.

The Tories, who also became known as the Conservatives around 1830, had been a dominant force in the British politics since the eighteenth century. They believed in established values and the preservation of traditions, supported business and commerce, had strong links with the Church of England and the liberal professions, and were opposed to what they perceived as radical ideas. The Whigs, however, were developing into a more progressive force. They wanted social reform and economic freedom without government restrictions. In the period following the parliamentary reforms of 1832, the Whigs were changing into what later became the Liberal Party. They were to create an enlightened programme of liberalism in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The Liberal Party has always been a mixture of people and ideas, often held together by the basic principle of utilitarian reform (or the greatest happiness for the greatest number of people).

A more radical wing had emerged during the nineteenth century. It had formed links with the growing Labour movement, and wanted greater social,

political and economic reform. A split within the Liberal Party occurred at the end of the nineteenth century, and many radicals left the party. In 1906, some of the m helped to form the new Labour Party, which was to play an increasingly important role in British politics after the First World War (1914-18). However, the Liberal Party grew less and less popular. This decline was visible during the early inter-war after 1918. The Labour Party became, therefore, the main opposition party to the conservatives, and continued the traditional two-party system in British politics. It grew rapidly, and was supported by the trade unions, the majority of the working class, and some middle-class voters. The first Labour government was formed in 1924 under Ramsay Mac Donald, but only achieved real majority power in 1945 under Clement Attlee. It then embarked on a radical programme of social and economic reform, which was to lay the foundations of the modern welfare and corporate state. Meanwhile, in this lengthy period of changing politics and the eventual triumph of the House of Commons in the parliamentary system, gradual reforms had been made to the House of Lords.

The Parliament Acts of 1911 and 1949 effectively diminished much of the Lords political authority, leaving them with only a slight delaying and amending power over parliamentary bills. They could no longer interfere with finance bills. These reforms finally demonstrated that political and financial matters were now decided by the members of the Commons as elected representatives of the people. Other acts have allowed the creation

of non-hereditary titles which supplement the old tradition in which most peerages were hereditary.

The British system of government has been stable over the centuries albeit the Civil War and the 1688 Revolution. Rather, existing institutions have been pragmatically adapted to new conditions. This accounts for the fact that Britain, unlike many other countries, has no written constitution contained in any one document. Instead, the British use a mixture of statute law, Acts of Parliament, common law, ancient judge-made law and conventions (or practices and principles of government which, although not legally binding, are generally accepted as having the force of law). Since Parliament is for most purposes the supreme legislative power, law and institutions can be created or changed by a simple Act of Parliament. Conventions can be altered, formed, or abolished by general agreement. Once a problem has been solved satisfactorily in the British system, this solution tends to be used again in similar situations and becomes a precedent to govern future governmental actions. Precedents are vital devices in the operation of Parliament, the administrative bodies, and the courts of law. These elements which together with some ancient documents make up a largely unwritten constitution are said to be flexible and simple enough to respond quickly to new conditions. This non-fixed constitutional system, which is largely dependent upon conventions and observing the rules of the game, has been admired in the past. The arrangements were said to combine stability and adaptability, so that a successful balance of authority and

toleration was achieved.

Most British governments tended to follow a pragmatic line in their domestic policies in spite of very ideological party manifestos at election time. Indeed, their emphasis was on whether a particular policy worked and was acceptable by the voters. But the system has been increasingly criticized in recent years. Governments have become more radical in their policies, and have been able to implement them because of strong majorities in the Commons. There has been concern as the apparent absence of constitutional safeguards for the individual citizen against state power, especially since there are few legal definitions of civil liberties in Britain. There also appear to be few effective parliamentary restraints upon a strong government such as Thatcher's whose economic and social policies were often opposed with much anger and bitterness. The lack of adequate constitutional definitions in the British system has been seen as potentially dangerous. The British governments and their administrative bodies have a reputation for being too secretive. Therefore, various campaigns for more effective civil protection have been undertaken. They have come in the form of a bill of rights, a written constitution, greater judicial scrutiny of the merits of parliamentary legislation, a Freedom of Information Act, and the incorporation of the European Convention on Human Rights into British domestic law. But none of the suggested reforms has been achieved, and there is considerable opposition to the various proposals. Critics argue that the British political system is archaic. They maintain that its

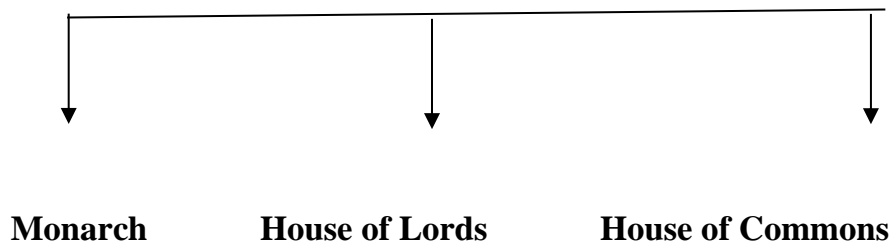
institutions are too centralized and that the traditional bases are no longer adequate for the organisation of a complex, mass society. It is felt that political policies have been conditioned by politics at the expense of consensus. Fundamental reform of the existing political institutions is felt necessary as to reflect contemporary diversity. However, changes continue to be introduced in the old system in order to adapt the ancient principles to new demands and conditions.

The government model that operates in Britain today is usually described as a ‘constitutional monarchy’, or parliamentary system. While the monarch still has a role to play, it is Parliament which possesses the essential political power. The correct constitutional definition of Parliament is the ‘Queen-in-parliament’ because the monarch retains a position in the British system. All state and governmental business is therefore carried out in the name of the monarch by the politicians and officials of the system. In constitutional theory, the British people hold the political sovereignty to choose the government, while Parliament, consisting partly of the elected representatives in the Commons, possesses the legal sovereignty to make laws.

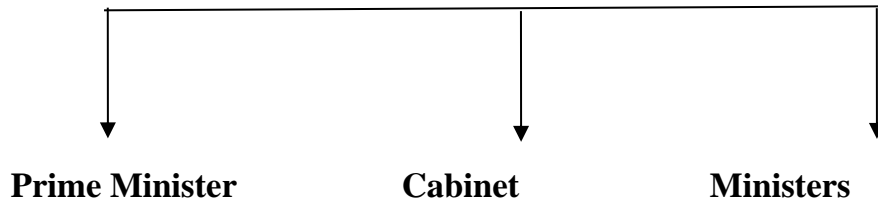
The various branches of the political system, although easily distinguishable from each other, are not completely separate, as in a more absolute separation of powers model like the American one. Indeed, the functions and memberships often overlap. Thus, a Member of Parliament (MP) in the House of Commons and a member of the House of Lords may both be in

the ruling government. A Law Lord from the House of the Lords also serves the House of Lords as the highest appeal court. The legislature, which consists of both Houses of Parliament and formally the monarch, is for most purposes the supreme law-making body. The executive comprises the sitting government and its Cabinet, together with government ministries or departments headed by ministers or secretaries of state. The judiciary is composed mainly of the judges of the higher courts, who determine the common law and interpret acts of Parliament. The judiciary is supposed to be independent of the legislative and executive branches of government. Here is a diagram illustrating the divisions of powers in the British political system:

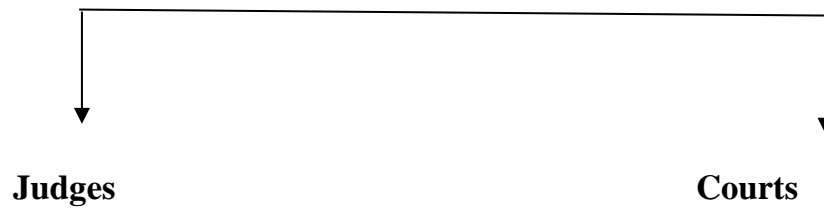
LEGISLATIVE



EXECUTIVE



JUDICIARY



Activities about the British Political Institutions

1-How did Britain move from an absolute monarchy to a parliamentary system?

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2-After the Glorious Revolution, King William III became Britain's first constitutional monarch. Discuss.

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3-How did the two-party system evolve in Britain?

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3- As a result of the Industrial Revolution, the British parliament no longer represented the country properly and it became imperative to undertake reforms .Discuss.

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11. Trade Union Congress

In the 1860's Trades Councils were established in most of Britain's main industrial towns and cities. In 1868 leaders of these Trade Councils met in Manchester to discuss the possibility of forming an organization that would provide a united voice in defence of trade union rights. At the meeting the 34 delegates agreed to establish the Trade Union Congress (TUC) and to hold a meeting every year to discuss issues of importance to the labour movement.

In 1896, Robert Smillie president of the Scottish Miners' Federation helped establish the Scottish Trade Union Congress. His role was recognized when he was elected chairman at its first conference, a post he was to hold until 1899. The Scottish TUC was more radical than the English TUC with many of its leaders being members of the Independent Labour Party.

On 27th February 1900, the Trade Union Congress and representatives of all the socialist groups in Britain (the Independent Labour Party, the Social Democratic Federation and the Fabian Society) met at the Memorial Hall in Farringdon Street, London. After a debate the 129 delegates decided to pass a motion put forward by James Keir Hardie to establish "a distinct Labour group in Parliament, who shall have their own whips, and agree upon their policy, which must embrace a readiness to cooperate with any party which, for the time being, may be engaged in promoting legislation in the direct interests of labour. "To make this possible the Conference established a Labour Representation Committee (LRC). The LRC committee established in 1900

included seven trade unionists and two members from the Independent Labour Party, two from the Social Democratic Federation, one member of the Fabian Society. After the 1906 General Election the LRC became known as the Labour Party.

11.1. Trade Union and Political Legislation

There continued an ebb and flow of restrictive measures against unions, but gradually it was accepted even by their opponents that they were there to stay.

1799 and 1800 Combination Acts

In 1799 and 1800 William Pitt, the Prime Minister, decided to take action against political agitation among industrial workers. Combination Laws were passed making it illegal for workers to join together to press their employers for shorter hours or higher wages. As a result, trade unions were thus effectively made illegal.

1817 Gagging Acts

The Habeas Corpus Act passed by Parliament in 1679 guaranteed that a person detained by the authorities would have to be brought before a court of law so that the legality of the detention may be examined. In times of social unrest, Parliament had the power to suspend Habeas Corpus.

William Pitt did this in May 1793 during the war with France. Parliamentary reformers such as Thomas Hardy and John Thelwall were imprisoned as a result of this action. Habeas Corpus was also suspended in

January 1817 after a missile had been thrown through the glass window of the Prince Regent's coach on the way to the opening of parliament. Supporters of parliamentary reform were blamed for this act of violence and Lord Liverpool and his government rushed through Parliament the Gagging Acts. These measures banned meetings of over fifty people and instructed magistrates to arrest everyone suspected of spreading seditious libel. The Gagging Acts severely hampered the campaign for parliamentary reform. However, as soon as Parliament decided to restore Habeas Corpus in March, 1818, there was an immediate revival in the demands for universal suffrage.

1819 Six Acts

Lord Liverpool and his government responded to the Peterloo massacre by introducing the Six Acts. When Parliament reassembled on 23rd November, 1819, Lord Sidmouth, the government's Home Secretary, announced details of what later became known as the Six Acts. By the 30th December, 1819, Parliament had debated and passed six measures that it hoped would suppress radical newspapers and meetings as well as reducing the possibility of an armed uprising.

a- Training Prevention Act

A measure which made any person attending a gathering for the purpose of training or drilling liable to arrest. People found guilty of this offence could be transported for seven years.

b- Seizure of Arms Act

A measure that gave power to local magistrates to search any property or person for arms.

c- Seditious Meetings Prevention Act

A measure which prohibited the holding of public meetings of more than fifty people without the consent of a sheriff or a magistrate.

d- The Misdemeanors Act:

A measure that attempted to reduce the delay in the administration of justice.

e- The Blasphemous and Seditious Libels Act

A measure which provided much stronger punishments, including banishment for publications judged to be blasphemous or seditious.

f- Newspaper and Stamp Duties Act

A measure which subjected certain radical publications which had previously avoided stamp duty by publishing opinion and not news, to such duty.

These measures were opposed by the Whigs as being a suppression of popular rights and liberties. They warned that it was unreasonable to pass national laws to deal with problems that only existed in certain areas.

1824 Repeal of Combination Acts

The campaign against the Combination Acts was led by the trade union leader, Francis Place. In the House of Commons, Joseph Hume and Sir Francis Burdett led the fight against this legislation. The Combination Laws remained in force until they were repealed in 1824. This was followed by an outbreak of

strikes and as a result, the 1825 Combination Act was passed which again imposed limitations on the right to strike.

1825 Combination Act

The 1825 Combination Act narrowly defined the rights of trade unions as meeting to bargain over wages and conditions. Anything outside these limits was liable to prosecution as criminal conspiracy in restraint of trade. Trade unionists were not allowed to molest, obstruct, or intimidate others. This law worried trade unionists as everything depended on how judges interpreted vague words like obstruct and intimidate.

1867 Masters' and Servants Act

Trade Unions were unhappy with the 1825 Combination Act that narrowly defined the rights of trade unions as meeting to bargain over wages and conditions. Anything outside these limits was liable to prosecution as criminal conspiracy in restraint of trade. In 1867 Benjamin Disraeli and his Conservative government agreed to pass the Masters and Servants Act. Under the terms of this act strikers could only be prosecuted for breach of contract, but criminal action could still be brought for what was described as "aggravated cases".

1871 Trade Union Act

When the head of the Conservative government, Earl of Derby decided to set up a Royal Commission on Trade Unions in 1867, George Potter, writing for the *Bee-Hive*, called for a working man to be included or a "gentleman well known to the working classes as possessing a practical knowledge of the

working of Trade Unions, and in whom they might feel confidence." The government rejected the idea of a working man but they did ask Frederic Harrison to serve on then commission. Harrison was a very useful member of the commission, preparing union witnesses by telling them in advance what question would be asked and rescued them from difficult situations during their cross-examination.

Robert Applegarth, the general secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners was chosen as a union observer of the proceedings. Applegarth worked hard checking the various accusations of the employers and providing information to the two pro-union members of the Royal Commission, Harrison and Thomas Hughes. Applegarth also appeared as a witness and it was generally accepted that he was the most impressive of all the trade unionists who gave evidence before the commission.

Frederic Harrison, Thomas Hughes and the Earl of Lichfield refused to sign the Majority Report that was hostile to trade unions and instead produced a Minority Report where he argued that trade unions should be given privileged legal status.

Harrison suggested several changes to the law:

- (1) Persons combining should not be liable for indictment for conspiracy unless their actions would be criminal if committed by a single person.
- (2) All legislation dealing specifically with the activities of employers or workmen should be repealed.

(3) All trade unions should receive full and positive protection for their funds and other property.

The Trade Union Congress campaigned to have the Minority Report accepted by the new Liberal government headed by William Gladstone. This campaign was successful and the 1871 Trade Union Act was based largely on the Minority Report. This act secured the legal status of trade unions. As a result no trade union could be regarded as criminal.

Although trade unions were pleased with this act, they were less happy with the Criminal Law Amendment Act passed the same day that made picketing illegal.

1875 Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act

After the 1874 General Election, Benjamin Disraeli and the Conservative Party formed the government. As promised, Disraeli passed new legislation concerning trade unions. The Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act established the principle that a trade union could not be prosecuted for an act which would be legal if performed by an individual. For example, it was not illegal for an individual to stop work; therefore a union could not be prosecuted if it organized a strike. Under this act peaceful picketing was allowed to take place during industrial disputes.

1880 Employers' Liability Act

The Employers' Liability Act extended protection to workers concerning accidents caused by the negligence of managers. Railway

companies were also made liable when their employees were injured through the negligence of signalmen, drivers and points men. However, the act did not protect employees against accidents caused by fellow workers.

1906 Trades Disputes Act

In 1901 the Taff Vale Railway Company sued the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for losses during a strike. As a result of the case the union was fined £23,000. Up until this time it was assumed that unions could not be sued for acts carried out by their members. This court ruling exposed trade unions to being sued every time it was involved in an industrial dispute.

After the 1906 General Election the Liberal Government passed the 1906 Trades Disputes Act which removed trade union liability for damage by strike action.

1927 Trade Disputes and Trade Union Act

As a result of the 1926 General Strike, the Conservative Government passed the Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act. This legislation outlawed general strikes and sympathetic strikes, and banned civil servants from joining unions affiliated to the Trade Union Congress. This act also hurt the Labour Party by forcing union members to make a positive decision to pay a levy to a political party. As a result of this legislation, the Labour Party lost about a third of its subscriptions.

Activities about the Trade Union Congress

1-In 1819, the British government passed six measures to suppress radical agitation.

Discuss.

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2-Discuss the circumstances under which the 1871 Trade Union Act was passed.

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3-Discuss the reasons and consequences of the 1926 general stike.

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12. The British Welfare State

12.1. Definition

It is a system whereby the state provides benefits in such areas as employment, medicine, education, housing, and social security. This term was particularly applied in Britain after WW II. It is usually used by those who were hostile to government intervention in these areas. Economically speaking, WS is a system that combines features of Capitalism and Socialism by retaining private ownership while the government enacts broad programmes of social welfare, such as pensions and public housing.

12.2. History of the British Welfare State

It was the product of the Beveridge Report (1942), World War II, and the long-term social and political concerns of the Liberal social reforms of 1905 to 1914. In addition, as the historian Asa Briggs observed in 1961: "The trends and tendencies which led journalists, politicians and historians to apply the label welfare state to Britain may be noted in all individualized communities.

Briggs went on to define a welfare state as one in which market forces were modified in at least three ways:

- 1- By guaranteeing individuals and families a minimum income irrespective of the market value of their work.
- 2- By narrowing the extent of insecurity by enabling individuals and families to meet certain social contingencies such as: sickness, old age, and unemployment) which lead otherwise to individual and family crises.

3- By ensuring that all citizens without distinction of status or class are offered the best standards available in relation to a certain agreed range of social services.(Decent life for all citizens).

Before World War II, most European states had introduced at least certain principles of social Welfare provision, including Bismarck's Germany and even Tsarist Russia.

In Britain, as elsewhere, some employers felt that welfare provision would bring the benefit of a more physically efficient workforce, and some working people had rising expectations of better provision.

12.3. The Development of WS in Britain

In Britain, by the end of the 19th Century, the practical, as well as the intellectual, basis of the Poor Law, as reformed in 1834, was crumbling. There was also greater awareness of the extent and effects of poverty because of a series of late Victorian and early Edwardian social surveys. Notably those conducted by the wealthy liberal businessmen Charles Booth and Seebohm Rowntree, and details of the poor physical state of a high proportion of urban volunteers for the army at the time of the South African Wars (1899- 1902). After the Liberal Party came back to office in 1905, it soon showed a willingness to raise public expenditure within free trade finance and to offer piecemeal (rather than comprehensive) solutions to poverty. The government's measures included:

1-provision for school meals for poorer children (1906).

2- School medical inspections and treatment (1907 and 1912).

3- Old age pensions (legislation, 1908, payments from 1909).

4- Minimum wages for sweated jobs

5- Unemployment and health insurance. 1911

The Poor Law system was ended in 1929, by which time many of the groups previously covered had been moved to specialist care (for example, unfit elderly people to geriatric hospitals). In the inter-war period, health and unemployment insurance and pensions were extended, as were other health provisions, for example in the areas of maternity and child welfare.

The greatest criticism of social welfare during this period was that its various provisions covered only certain groups of people and that many of those most in need did not gain assistance. There was a strong case for universal coverage of social welfare and a more even provision of hospitals across the country. In the straitened economic conditions of the 1930s, however, there was little political will to find the money.

The political determination to provide a wider-ranging social welfare system came during World War II. The massive bombing of civilian targets led to expectations of equality of the treatment for those injured - similarly, in a time of national shortages, rationing was deemed to be a fair solution, with priorities given to such groups as mothers, infants, and school children, and not those with the greatest purchasing power.

The Beveridge Report of 1942 provided the main foundations of social

policy for the next decades. Though later there was greater emphasis placed on education and housing, as well as on local welfare services (often known as personal social services), Beveridge set the main criteria for at least until the 1980s.

12.4. The Beveridge Report 1942

William Beveridge, a former journalist, civil servant, and senior academic, was appointed in 1941 as chairman of an inter-departmental group of civil servants to undertake "a survey of the existing national schemes of social insurance and allied services including workmen's compensation" and to make recommendations. The resulting report, published in December 1942, was entitled *Social Insurance and Allied Services*.

It set social welfare in a broad context. Beveridge characterized his aim as being to attack 'Five Giants': want, disease, ignorance, squalor, and idleness. It envisaged that in the post-war period the economy would be run so as to avoid mass unemployment and that there would be a comprehensive health scheme. It also assumed that there would be a system of family allowances, to eliminate child poverty and to provide an incentive for any unskilled person with a large family to work and not to rely on unemployment and other benefits. Beveridge's social insurance proposals were to provide universal benefits "from the cradle to the grave". They would cover all the normal risks of life: providing maternity, widows' and orphans', medical sickness, industrial injury, unemployment, old age, and funeral benefits. To

pay for these, people would take a flat-rate contribution (that is, one that did not vary according to income), which was intended to be affordable by all those in employment

The Beveridge Report was embraced by the Labour Party but was received coolly by the then Prime Minister Winston Churchill, who was reluctant to pledge the government to implementing it. Churchill was fearful of too lavish promises (as when, in 1918, Prime Minister David Lloyd George spoke of "a fit land for heroes to live in"). However, in 1944 the government introduced a major Education Act and in 1945 and Family Allowances Act.

12.5. Medical Services

5th July 1948, was the day where both the national health service (NHS) and the National insurance Scheme came into operation Attlee declared that the government's measures were comprehensive and available to every citizen and gave security to all members of the family The NHS was the achievement of the left wing welsh politician Aneurin Bevan Minister of Health and Housing (1945-1951). He was faced with a mixture of support and opposition from the medical profession and local authorities. He secured the support of the medical profession during long negotiation and, likewise, he was able to secure very substantial resources for the NHS at a time of economic austerity.

Money for the NHS was gathered from general taxation, with limited national health insurance contributions (only 10 % or less in the early years)

The cost of Health service was very high, but could be justified since it had the task to deal with inter-war ill-health and the underfunding of the health services.

The NHS followed Beveridge's ideal of a universal service available to all. However, the great demand for its services led to prescription charges for drugs.

In 1951 the decision to make changes for dental and ophthalmic services led to the resignation of Bevan from the Cabinet.

1951 - 1952 - the NHS received £494 million, (23% of public expenditure on social services).

12.6. Education

1944, Churchill's wartime coalition government (1940-1945) brought in the Education Act, which established a framework for education that lasted for some 3 decades.

Butler (conservative) introduced a Bill of reforms that met Churchill's determination not to permit controversial measures to be advanced during WWII

12.7. Housing

Both building and land were firmly regulated at the end of WWII, with licenses required for business and private construction.

-1/2 million houses were destroyed by enemy action and 3 million had been damaged with little new construction taking place.

-Slums had to be cleared and new houses had to be constructed

-Aneurin Bevan, as housing Minister, observed in 1946: 'We propose to start to solve, first, the housing difficulties of the lower income groups'.

-The Attlee government also controlled land usage through the provisions of the Town and Country Planning Act of 1947. This gave local authorities the right to control planning.

-With the New Towns Act of 1946, 14 new towns were designated near London, Newcastle, Glasgow, and in South Wales.

-1949 the National Parks Act was passed, where 10 national parks were created and several areas of outstanding natural beauty were designated.

12.8. Employment

For 30 years after WWII there was a general political commitment to avoid high unemployment.

- The Labour government (1945-1951) used state intervention to remove restrictive practices, by setting the Monopolies Commission in 1948 to run the nationalized industries efficiently.

- By the late 1940's near full-employment was being facilitated by the boom in international economy (1950 to 1973) 'Golden Age'.

12.9. Imperfections of the Welfare State

Not all entitled people did receive benefits. The system was too complicated due to bureaucracy.

- Various provisions covered only certain groups of people and many of those most in need did not gain assistance.

- People were subjected to a means-test which is an official investigation, considered by many, as an invasion of their private life.
- There were many people who realised they can earn much more money thanks to the dole (from which they can receive unemployment benefits) than by working
- The whole security system was under pressure because of the increase in pensions and pensioners.

Activities about the Welfare State

1-How did the welfare state appear in Britain?

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2-What were the strengths and weaknesses of the British welfare state?

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13. Education in Britain

13.1 The 1810 Education Act

This act was drafted by William Forster and it stipulated that : the country should be divided into 2500 school districts where school boards are elected by the taxpayers. These school boards had the responsibility of examining the provision of elementary education in their district.They could make their own laws by charging fees or letting children in free. This act allowed women to vote for the school boards and even be members in the school boards.

13.2. The 1880 Education Act

- It allowed school boards to examine the provision of elementary education in their district. If the school boards realize that there were not enough school places, they had permission to build and maintain schools out of the rates.

-Government realised that there were not enough schools attendance compulsory for children up to the age of 10

13.3. The 1902 Education Act

The 1810 Education Act led Socialists and conformists to have control over local school. In 1902, the Conservative Government introduced a new education act which abolished all 2568school boards and handed over their duties to local borough or county councils.

-The new Local Education Authorities LEAS were given powers to:

1-Establish new Secondary and technical schools

2-Develop the existing system of Elementary schools.

Non conformists and socialists campaigned against the Education act of 1208.

-The National Passive Resistance Committee was formed by John Clifford.

-In 1906,170 men had gone to prison for refusing to pay their school taxes.

The education act of 1902 was a major reason that led the Liberals to win in the general election of 1906

13.4. The Provision of School Meals Act

-Introduced by Margaret McMillan and Fred Jowett in Bradford, but it was illegal and Bradford had to stop it.

-They wanted to convince parliament that school attendance needs proper nourishment of the children.

-1889 report stated that over 50.000 pupils in London were attending school "in want for food".

-1906 general election won by the liberals with Jowett (Labour MP), the parliament was convinced that hungry children had trouble learning and passed in 1906 the Provision of School Meals Act.

-The act permitted local authorities to provide school meals, but many were slow to respond to this legislation (only 50% by 1939).

13.5. The 1918 Education Act

-It increased the school compulsory attendance age to 14

-It included additional services:

1- Medical inspections

2-Nursery schools

3-Centres for pupils with special needs etc...)

13.6. The 1944 Education Act

-State education entirely free

-Provided free school milk

-Free school meals

-Introduced free medical inspections

-Revised the school leaving-age upward to 15 years.

-Clearly divided primary from secondary education at the age of 11

-Provided universal free schooling in 3 different types of schools: Grammar, secondary modern, and technical (11+examination).

-Education policy was standardized under a ministry of education, but implementation was the responsibility of county boroughs and councils

- The main criticism of the education Act of 1944 was that it did not bring about a more radical education settlement

-The Act failed to ensure the expansion of technical education, or to deal with such issues as the secularization of education, the unification of secondary education, or the raising of the school-leaving age to 16 (only brought into effect in 1972).

13.7. The 1946 School Milk Act

-After the 1906 Education Act, local authorities were empowered to provide free school meals.

-In 1921, this was extended to free milk.

-Ellen Wilkinson (1946) managed to convince parliament to pass the school milk act .This act ordered the issue of 1/3 of pint of milk free to all pupils under 18.

14. Educational Developments

14.1. Public Schools

In the 18th century, sons of the rich people were the only ones to afford attending expensive public schools such as Eton, Harrow, Rugby, Charterhouse, Westminster and Winchester. The curriculum was around Greek and Latin using traditional teaching methods. Non-conformists were not accepted in public schools. Consequently, they founded dissenting academies where the main themes of study were business, science and accountancy. There were some attempts to reform the public schools in the 19th century by the introduction of mathematics, history, geography, and foreign languages. In the 1850s Frances Buss and Dorothea Beale began to establish new types of public schools for girls.

14.2 Dame Schools

‘These were small private schools that provided an education for working class children before they were old enough to work. They were run by elderly women, who taught the children to read and other useful skills such as sewing. The quality of education varied enormously. Whereas some teachers provided a good education, others were no more than child-minders.

14.3. Sunday Schools

In the 16th Century, the world's first Sunday Schools were established in and in the 1770s the Unitarian minister Theophilus Lindsey provided free lessons on Sunday at his Essex Street Chapel in London. However, it is Robert

Raikes, the owner of the Gloucester Journal who started a Sunday School at St. Mary le Church in Gloucester, who usually gets the credit for starting the movement. Although not the first person to organize a school in a church, Raikes was able to use his position as a newspaper publisher to give maximum publicity for his educational ideas. In 1801 there were 2,290 Sunday schools and by 1851 this had grown to 23135.

14.4. Mechanics Institutes

Mechanics institute first emerged in Scotland at the end of the 19th century. Birkbeck founded the London mechanics institute. The publication of observations upon the education of the people (1825) by Henry Brougham helped to popularize improving working people's adult education colleges, which were often funded by wealthy local industrialists.

14.5. University Settlements

The Toynbee Hall was established in the East End of London, to celebrate the life and work of the social reformer Arnold Toynbee. The settlement was run by Samuel Augustus Barnett, canon of St. Jude's. Toynbee Hall was Britain's first university settlement. It was a place where students from Oxford University and Cambridge University could work together to improve the lives of the poor during their holidays. Most residents were doing vocational training, and gave up their weekends and evenings to do relief work. It ranged from visiting the poor and providing free legal aid to running clubs for boys and holding university extension lectures and debates. Toynbee Hall

served as a base for Charles Booth and his group of researchers working on the life and labour of the people in London. Other individuals who worked at Toynbee Hall include Richard Tawney, Clement Attlee, Alfred Milner and William Beveridge. Lenin attended a debate at Toynbee Hall, Guglielmo Marconi held one of his earliest experiments on radio there, and Pierre de Coubertin , founder of the modern Olympic Games , was so impressed by the mixing and working together of so many people from different nations that it inspired him to establish the games. the white chapel Art Gallery had its roots in the art.

The 1926 General Strike came to an end at Toynbee Hall, the employers and the union leaders met there to discuss their terms. In 1888 Jane Addams and Ellen gates star visited Toynbee Hall and were so impressed with what they saw that they returned to the united states and established a similar project Hull House, in Chicago the settlement movement grew rapidly both in Britain, the united states and the rest of the world. the settlements and social action centres work together through the international federation of settlements.

Toynbee Hall works today to solve social problems and develop practical and innovative solutions to export them to wider society. The residents, like those in the nineteenth century, work during the day or study for postgraduate degrees or to train for careers in social work or the legal profession and give up their spare time to help elderly people, disadvantaged children and teenagers, the legal

advice centre, and many others more than ever society needs new solutions for new social problems.

14.6. Grammar Schools

Grammar schools became popular in the 16th century. These schools were usually established in towns and in most cases provided places for non-fee-paying scholars. Some of these schools became fee-paying public schools in the 19th century. Others were gradually absorbed into the state system. After the passing of the 1944 Education Act, the name grammar was applied to those schools that provided an education for children who had passed the 11+ examination.

14.7. Ragged Schools

Ragged schools were developed in 1818 by a Portsmouth shoemaker, John Pounds, who began teaching poor children without charging fees. His idea of free schooling was later developed by Thomas Guthrie who opened a ragged school in Edinburgh and Sheriff Watson established another in Aberdeen. Lord Shaftesbury formed the ragged School Union in 1844 and over the next eight years over 200 free schools for poor children were established in Britain. 350 ragged schools were established thanks to charity from wealthy people. By the time of the 1870 Education Act was passed, ragged schools were gradually absorbed into the new board schools.

14.8. Monitorial Schools

Developed by Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster in the 19th century, the monitorial system consisted of the grouping pupils by ability. The children in the top group were taught by a qualified teacher but would also spend time teaching children in the lower groups. Bell used to say : " Give me twenty-four pupils today and I will give you twenty-four teachers tomorrow" . This system, not only proved low-cost education, but helped to train working-class children for responsible jobs in the future.

14.9. Board Schools

The education act of 1870 established board schools under the control of local elected school Boards. The act stated that any area which voted for it could have a school board. Board schools could charge fees but they were also eligible for government grants and could also be paid for out of local government rates. Board schools provided an education for the five to ten age groups. In some areas, board school pioneered new educational ideas. For example, the London school board introduced separate classrooms for each age group; a central hall for whole-school activities and specialist rooms for practical activities. In Bradford freed Jowett and Margaret McMillan pioneered the idea of free school meals for working-class children and in Brighton Catherine Ricketts developed the idea of increasing attendance rates by hiring women to visit mothers in their homes to explain the benefits of education.

14. 10. Comprehensive Schools

The 1944 Education Act provided universal free schooling in three different types of schools; grammar; secondary modern and technical. The comprehensive schools were hoped to cater for the different academic levels of children. Entry to these schools was based on the 11+ examination.

Activities about Education in Britain

1-Discuss the main British educational legislation.

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2-How did the different types of schools in Victorian England contribute to the development of Education?

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3-How did the mechanic institutes contribute to the Industrial Revolution in Britain?

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