

2025 Wesley & Methodism Heritage Tour to Great Britain

STUDY SESSION #2

Sun., Jan. 5 (12th Day of Christmas), 2024 from 12:15-2:15p (Zoom)

A. Welcome

Overview of our session

B. Study session #2: History of England (Middle Ages through 21st century)

1. Review: Introduction to Great Britain & British History Time Line
2. Review: History of Great Britain up until the Middle Ages
 - a. Pre-Roman Empire: Celts and Picts (both from central Europe - first Celts and then Picts) migrated, settled down, intermarried. Very little known/survived about them. Romans considered them “barbarians” - no writing, violent, clan-based, human sacrifice. Religion was Druid - trying to control and appease angry and chaotic gods.
 - b. Roman Empire comes to Great Britain (55 BC - AD 426), except present day Scotland
 - c. Dark Ages (AD 449-1066): Anglo-Saxons, Conversion to Christianity (Celtic vs Roman), “King Arthur,” Vikings
 - d. Norman Conquest (AD 1066 (Battle of Hastings) - 1215 (King John signs *Magna Carta*))
3. Medieval Britain
4. Tudor Britain (

C. Introductions

1. Name
2. Town and Local Church
3. Share either: Christmas purchase or gift that will help your travel.
Some way you engaged British culture over the Holidays.

D. Tour Logistics:

1. Remember: Tour dates are March 18-31, 2025 (and arranging your own airport transitions)
2. Payments: 2nd payment (\$1,500) due now
Last payment (\$1,200) plus cash requests due March Study Session (3/2/25)
3. Study:
 - 2 remaining Zoom Study Sessions: Sun., Feb. 2 and March 2, from 12-2p
 - Reading: Handouts for each Study Session (emailed out)
 - 2 Books: Read *John Wesley* by Feb. 2 and *Three Simple Rules* by March 2.
Three Simple Rules: A Wesleyan Way of Living by Bishop Rueben P. Job
John Wesley: His Life and Thought by Timothy J. Crutcher (2015)
 - Radicle Methodism (optional): 4-module course offered by the GCAH of the UMC
Intro plus 4 study sessions: By Zoom or individually.
Weekly, Jan. 20 - Feb. 16
Approx. one hour each - with reading downloads homework
Pastor David will email the Zoom link.

4. Updates on the Tour Itinerary

Still working out details with the bus company.

We will have some of our British friends join us for a day or two during our tour!

Other

5. Planning:

Passports numbers - give to Reese if not yet done so (waiting on 7 of them)

Questions/Concerns:

Travel Insurance

Travel Medical Insurance

Medical Planning & Prescriptions (No shots required to travel to GB)

Credit Cards

Spending \$ - Cash and credit card; what is not covered in price of tour.

Cell phone plans

Scheduling: transport to and from airport

Flights: **Departing:** Tues., March 18 from Minneapolis (MSP) Lindbergh at 6:00 p.m. on Delta #010.

Return: Mon., March 31 into Minneapolis (MSP) Lindbergh at 3:05 p.m. from London Heathrow (LHR) on Delta #009.

Electronics planning: The electronic circuit in Britain is 220-240 volt (compared to 110-120 in the US). *Be careful when choosing plug-in adapters!* Most recharging devices can handle either, but you will need an adaptor to the 3 FLAT prong British adaptor (two horizontal and one vertical prongs).

Weather and Packing: Chilly spring days (temps in 50s); dress in layers; rain likely. Other?

E. Worship

1. New Year's with John Wesley: Watch Night Service

John Wesley believed that Methodists and all Christians should reaffirm their covenant with God annually, so he created a service in which an individual renews his/her covenant with God. In 1755 Wesley held his first covenant service using words by the Puritan Divine Richard Alleine. Wesley published this service in a pamphlet in 1780, and this service has been used by Methodists ever since, with some modifications and modernizations.

2. Hymn: "Come, Let Us Use the Grace Divine" by Charles Wesley (1761) for the Covenant Service.

- 1. Come, let us use the grace divine, and all with one accord,
in a perpetual covenant join ourselves to Christ the Lord;
Give up ourselves, thru Jesus' power, His name to glorify;
and promise, in this sacred hour, for God to live and die.**
- 2. The covenant we this moment make be ever kept in mind;
we will no more our God forsake, or cast these words behind.
We never will throw off the fear of God who hears our vow;
and if thou art well pleased to hear, come down and meet us now.**
- 3. Thee, Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, let all our hearts receive,
present with thy celestial host the peaceful answer give;
to each covenant the blood apply which takes our sins away,
and register our names on high and keep us to that day!**

3. Sharing: Participants share testimony of how they have experienced God’s faithfulness in their lives over the past year.

4. “A Covenant Prayer in the Wesleyan Tradition” (*UMH #607*) (from Wesley’s Covenant Service)

I am no longer my own, but thine.

Put me to what thou wilt, rank me with whom thou wilt.

Put me to doing, put me to suffering.

Let me be employed by thee or laid aside for thee,

Exalted for thee or brought low for thee.

Let me be full, let me be empty.

Let me have all things, let me have nothing.

I freely and heartily yield all things to thy pleasure and disposal.

And now, O Glorious and blessed God,

Father, Son, and Holy Spirit,

Thou art mine, and I am thine. So be it.

And the covenant which I have made on earth,

Let it be ratified in heaven. Amen.

F. Closing:

1. Usual “grace” used among British Methodists

“The grace of our Lord Jesus Christ, the Love of God, and the Fellowship of the Holy Spirit, be with you all. Amen.”

2. Upcoming Sessions:

-Radicle Methodism, weekly, starting Jan. 20, by Zoom. (Watch for link!)

-Study Session #3: Sun., Feb. 2 from 12:15 - 2:15p by Zoom. “See” you then!

“History of Methodism and the Wesleys” - Read through the book *John Wesley*
Finalized itinerary (handout)

-Study Session #4: Sun., March 2 from 12:15 - 2:15p by Zoom.

“John Wesley’s Theology” and Final Planning - Read *Three Simple Rules*

INTRODUCTION TO GREAT BRITAIN



DEFINITIONS:

BRITISH ISLES: All of the islands associated with England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland, and the Irish Republic (South Ireland).

GREAT BRITAIN: The one major island containing Scotland, Wales and England, as well as all the smaller islands that are part of these countries.

BRITAIN: Synonymous with Great Britain.

IRELAND: The island west of the Isle of Britain, now containing North and South Ireland.

UNITED KINGDOM: The official state including England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. It's capital is London.

SOUTHERN IRELAND: The country on the southern half of the Island of Ireland.

TIME LINE OF BRITISH HISTORY

BC:	Note: many dates are approx.	1054	Christian Church splits into East & West
	Jurassic Period: Dinosaurs roam tropical England	1066	William the Conqueror takes England
4004	Biblical creation of the world	1154	Henry II begins Plantagenet Line
3100	Egypt civilization begins	1189	Richard Lionhearted launches crusades
3000	Castlerigg Stone Circle in Cumbria, Engl.	1215	King John signs Magna Carta
2700	Pyramids in Egypt	1250?	Oxford University founded
2670	Ur established	1280	Edward I builds castles in Wales
2335	King Sargon I in Mesopotamia	1337	Begin 100 Years War in France
2200	China civilization begins	1455	Begin War of the Roses
2000	Aubery Circle at Stonehenge	1492	Columbus "discovers" America
1900	Abraham	1509	Henry VIII begins rule
1700	Ancient Babylon	1517	Martin Luther begins Reformation
1500	Sarsen stones at Stonehenge	1600	Shakespeare
1400	Moses	1603	James I (James VI of Scotland)
1000	King David in Israel	1611	King James Version of the Bible
776	Greek civilization begins	1649	Charles I beheaded
753	Rome founded	1653	Oliver Cromwell is Lord Protector
722	Israel falls to Assyria	1660	Monarchy restored
586	Judah falls to Babylon	1689	Glorious Revolution w/William & Mary
323	Alexander the Great dies	1690	Steam engine invented—beginning of the Industrial Revolution
200	Great Wall of China		
150	Macabees in revolt in Israel	1703	John Wesley born
146	Roman Empire begins (Corinth defeated)	1707	United Kingdom established joining England, Wales and Scotland
55	Julius Caesar invades Britain	1727	Sir Isaac Newton dies
44	Julius Caesar killed	1776	American Colonies declare independence
4	Jesus Christ is born in Bethlehem	1784	Methodist Episcopal Church in America
0 AD	From now on, most dates are exact	1791	John Wesley dies
30?	Jesus crucified	1795	British Methodism separates from CofE
43	Claudius I conquerors England	1800	French Revolution
79	Romans subdue Wales	1812	Napoleon defeated at Waterloo
122	Hadrian's Wall	1837	Queen Victoria begins reign
325	Council of Nicea	1861	American Civil War
410	Visigoths sack Rome	1907	First English car: Rolls Royce
426	Roman legions recalled to Rome	1914	WWI begins
449	Anglo-Saxons raid Britain	1932	Current British Methodist Church formed
452	Council of Chalcedon	1936	WWII begins
500	Setting for King Arthur	1939	Methodist churches in America merge
563	St. Columba establishes Iona, Scotland	1946	E.U.B. Church formed
596	Augustine brings Xnity to S England	1952	Queen Elizabeth II begins reign
632	Muhammad dies	1968	UMC formed
635	St. Aidan establishes Lindisfarne Priory	1994-5	David & Reese live in England
800	Charlemagne in Germany	2022	Charles III begins reign
870s	Danish Vikings invade Britain	2025	Wesley Heritage Tour of Britain
871	Alfred the Great begins Anglo-Saxon rule		

A HISTORY OF BRITAIN



I. PRE-HISTORIC TIMES (Before written history)

Generally, Britain developed later than in the Middle East and Africa. What is provided here is an approximation of civilization in Britain.

A. The Stone Age / Ice Age (The beginning of human culture until about 3,000 BC)

There are stone circles in Great Britain dating to this time. For example, Castlerigg Stone Circle in Cumbria, England, has been dated 3,700-3,000 BC.

II. ANCIENT TIMES (From the beginning of written history until the rise of Greece.)

A. The Bronze Age (About 3,000 BC until about 1000 BC) *The time of Abraham and Moses.*

Very little is known about these original inhabitants, known as the Picts.

B. The Iron Age: (About 1000 BC - 336 BC) *The time of King David.*

From the 6th to 1st centuries BC, the Picts were invaded regularly by European Celts, who intermarried with the Picts. These peoples were clan-based, warriors and lived in fear of weather, nature and their chaotic gods.

III. CLASSICAL TIMES (Including the Greek and Roman Empires.) *The time of Jesus Christ.*

A. Hellenistic Period (336 BC - 146 BC) *Greek Civilization in the West*

European Celts continued to invade and settle among the Picts in Britain. There were remains of Greek tools unearthed during excavation of Stonehenge.

B. Roman Period (146 BC - AD 464) *The Roman Empire*

Julius Caesar invaded Britain and in 56 BC defeated the native Picts/Celts, who agreed to pay tribute. Claudius I conquered Britain in AD 43. In AD 61 the last rebellion was crushed, and Britain became an imperial province of Rome, called Britannia. About AD 79, Roman legions subdued the tribes in Wales and pushed all the way up to Scotland. In AD 122 Emperor Hadrian had a wall constructed 73 miles along the northern (Scottish) boarder. The wall marked the northern Roman frontier during the next 200 years, a period of relative peace. After AD 410, Roman withdrew the last of its legions from Britain, and Celtic and Roman cultures mixed.

IV. THE DARK AGES: ANGLO-SAXON BRITAIN (AD 464 - 1066)

A. Anglo-Saxon England (464-850)

After the Roman soldiers were recalled to Rome, Germanic tribes from northern Europe began to invade Britain. The native Picts/Celts retreated back into to Wales and Scotland. The Angles and Saxons intermarried and established their culture across Angle-land, or England.

Local warlords ruled small, unstable kingdoms and continued some Roman traditions of governance. They lacked written language and depended on mixed economies of agriculture, hunting, and animal husbandry. Later legends about a hero named Arthur were placed in this period of violence. Christianity came into England both from the south (Roman) and the North (Celtic). At the Synod of Whitby (AD 664) England was placed under Roman Christianity.

B. Viking England (850-950)

Danish Vikings began to raid the English coasts in the late 8th century, but soon gave up their primary goal of plunder and set on conquering England for themselves. They gained massive victories over the local Anglo-Saxon kingdoms scattered over England. They established their capital in York and moved south. Soon they captured all of England except the south-western part, namely the kingdom of Wessex. Wessex withstood the Viking attacks and maintained their own culture. Yet even Wessex was threatening to fall, when Alfred became King of Wessex.

C. Anglo-Saxon Monarchy (871-1016)

Anglo-Saxon Alfred "The Great" (871-899) became King of Wessex and then all non-Viking/Danish England (Danelaw). He led the campaign to push back the Vikings through military advances (like taking back London) and spiritual means (converting Danish king Guthrum). Under his rule a primitive English language was first written. He framed laws and civilized the people. Alfred is considered the first king of all the English, establishing the royal British line. York (the last Viking stronghold) was finally conquered in 937. Education and religion flourished (churches and abbeys built), and illuminated manuscripts became prevalent.

D. Viking Rule: (1016-1042)

The Viking king Canute re-conquered England (1016-1035). He was a powerful ruler and maintained good order in England. He was also a devout Christian.

E. Anglo-Saxon Rule Resumes (1042-1066)

Anglo-Saxon Edward "The Confessor" (1042-1066) became king. He was a devout Christian, peace loving and unmarried. He offered the English crown to his cousin Duke William of Normandy (France). He then gave many important posts to his Norman friends. Before his death, however, Edward changed his mind and offered the English Crown to Harold of the Godwin family.

F. Godwinson (1066)

Harold II (Godwin) was elected king in 1066. As he was winning a glorious victory over the invading Norwegians in the north, William the Conqueror of Normandy invaded England in the south. Without rest, Harold marched south to meet William, but he and his army were too exhausted to gain victory. William defeated and killed Harold at the Battle of Hastings, in southern England, in 1066.

V. THE MIDDLE AGES (AD 1066 - 1485)

A. Norman (French) Rule (1066-1154)

Things we will see from this period on our tour include Clifford's Tower in York, Durham Cathedral, Lindisfarne Priory, and The White Tower in the Tower of London.

The year 1066 was a turning point in English history. William I “the Conqueror” and his sons gave England vigorous new leadership. Norman feudalism became the basis for redistributing the land among the conquerors, giving England a new French aristocracy and a new social and political structure. England, it could be said, turned away from Scandinavia (Viking influence) toward France, an orientation that was to last for 400 years.

William the Conqueror (1066-1087) (cousin to Edward the Confessor) was a hard ruler, punishing England, especially the north, when it disputed his authority. He brutally crushed all English (Anglo-Saxon) rebellion and imposed the medieval feudal system. He replaced Anglo-Saxon nobles with Norman barons, and subjected the English (Anglo-Saxons) as peasants (fiefs) under the Norman lords. He introduced the Norman style of castles (motte & bailey) and architecture. He also built the White Tower of the Tower of London. Further, he promoted church reform, especially by the creation of separate church courts, but retained royal control (serving as the head of the church).

William II (Rufus) (1087-1100) (son of William the Conqueror) was a ruthless and harsh ruler. Unlike his father, he was not a Christian. He often left bishoprics vacant and pocketed the income. However, once when he was ill and thought he was dying, he did appoint the pious Anselm to be archbishop of Canterbury, with whom he continually quarreled. William was then mysteriously killed by arrow while hunting in 1100. Anselm (canonized) was an important figure in Anglicanism.

Henry I, known as “Beauclerc” (1100-1135) (son of William the Conqueror) was nasty, greedy, cruel and ambitious—not to mention treacherous toward his brothers. He was suspected of murdering his brother, William II, and then made war on his other brother, Robert Duke of Normandy. He defeated Robert and kept him in prison until his death 28 years later. He did manage to keep peace in the kingdom and introduced a fair tax counting method: the chequerboard (hence “exchequer”—the royal treasury). He also created the King’s Court to try legal cases in an official manner. Henry I used his feudal court and household to organize the government.

Henry wanted his daughter, Matilda, to succeed him, but in 1135 his nephew (his sister Adela’s son), **Stephen of Blois (1135-1154)** (grandson of William the Conqueror) seized the throne (but he was too kind to punish or imprison his cousin Matilda). His reign was marked by civil war and strife. The royal government Henry had built fell apart, and the feudal barons asserted their independence. The church, playing one side against the other, extended its authority.

B. The Plantagenet Line (1154-1399)

Things we will see from this period on our tour include the Inn in Nottingham, Caerphilly Castle in Wales, York city walls and The Tower of London. Also, the Gothic cathedrals, including York Minster, Westminster Abbey, and other Gothic churches. Oxford University was founded as well.

The Plantagenets get their name from Geoffrey of Anjou, the father of Henry II and husband of Matilda (the daughter of Henry I; granddaughter of William the Conqueror). Geoffrey wore a sprig of broom in his hat. The broom shrub’s Latin name, *Planta genista*, gave rise to the nickname Plantagenet, which was adopted by later monarchs.

Henry II (1154-1189) (Henry I’s grandson) became king of all England and most of France. He ended the anarchy of Stephen’s reign by strengthening the government created by Henry I, banishing mercenaries and destroying private castles. Most importantly, he developed the common law, administered consistently across England by royal courts. It created the grand jury and limited

the feudal courts' jurisdiction over land cases. He abolished the barbarous "trial by ordeal," in which people plunged their hands into boiling water or grasped red-hot iron bars to prove their innocence.

When the Church refused to submit to his legal system, he appointed his close friend, Thomas Becket, as archbishop of Canterbury. Unexpectedly, Becket fiercely defended the church's rights to its own lawcourt. In desperation, the king yelled in a fit of anger, "Oh how I wish to be rid of that troublesome bishop." Four of his attending knights, misunderstanding this as an order, immediately went and killed the Archbishop (1170). Becket became England's most famous martyr.

Richard I "The Lionheart" (1189-1199) (son of Henry II) is one of England's most romanticized kings. He embarked on Crusades to recapture the Holy Land from the Arabs. (Note: The surcoat covering the knight's horse as well as the famous white Crusader tunic with a red cross were introduced to reflect the hot sun off the knight's armor and horse in the deserts of the Holy Land.) On his return from one of his crusades he was captured in Germany and was held in prison until a huge ransom was paid. During his absence on the Third Crusade (1189-1192), his brother, "Prince John," attempted to usurp his power. This was also the time of the legendary Robin Hood. Richard was rarely in England! Even during his absences, however, the government built by Henry II continued to function, collecting taxes to support his wars and to pay his ransom.

Ironically, Prince **John** became king of England (nicknamed "**Lackland**") (1199-1216) (son of Henry II) on Richard's death. He was treacherous, greedy and cruel—he enjoyed having his enemies tortured and starved. He quarreled with and robbed the Church. In battle, he lost most of his father's kingdom in France (hence the name "lack-land!"). The barons of England lost patience and forced him to sign the famous Magna Carta—a list of their rights, privileges and land ownership—in 1215. This showed he admitted his errors and promised to respect English law and feudal custom. He died the next year, still at war with the barons.

Although the loss of Normandy seemed a disgrace at the time, it left England free to develop its unique institutions without outside interference. England prospered in the 12th and 13th centuries. Land under cultivation increased; sheep raising and the sale of wool became extremely important. London and other towns became vital centers of trade and wealth, and by royal charters they acquired the right to local self-government. The universities of Oxford and Cambridge were established. The population probably doubled from about 1.5 million to more than 3 million.

The monasteries, especially those of the Cistercians, expanded into the countryside and became wealthy in the process. More than a dozen cathedrals were built, as well as scores of abbeys and parish churches, all attesting to the wealth of England and of its Church. In the 1220s the friars, Franciscans and Dominicans arrived in England, improving the quality of preaching and becoming the leading scholars in the universities. Gothic architecture was introduced from France and became the dominant style for churches until the 1600s.

When John died in 1216, the barons accepted his nine-year-old son as **King Henry III (1216-1272)**. They assumed control of the government and confirmed the Magna Carta in 1225, thus establishing the idea that it was the fundamental statement of English law and of limited government. Henry III was not an able king, however. He quarreled with the barons, who thought that they, rather than the king's appointees, should have the major offices. Civil war broke out in 1264 and the baronial leader Simon de Montfort briefly assumed power. He was subsequently killed in battle in 1265, and power returned to Henry. The barons then continued to fight among themselves for power during the rest of his reign, while he tended one of his favorite projects: the rebuilding of Westminster Abbey as a proper shrine for his favorite saint, Edward the Confessor.

Edward I, nicknamed "Longshanks" (1272-1307) (son of Henry III) restored royal control and made several reforms: He limited the barons' right to hold their own courts of law; he curtailed the vassals' right to release land from the feudal lords; and he gave English common law the

direction it was to take for centuries to come. Most importantly, he used and developed Parliament, which was essentially the king's feudal council with a new name and an enlarged membership. In 1297, to get money for his wars, Edward agreed that taxes levied must have consent from Parliament. In the following century, Parliament divided into two houses, Lords and Commons, and made good its claim to control taxation and to participate in the making of statutes.

Edward waged war against Wales (1277-1282) and Scotland (1296-1307), in an attempt to secure all of Great Britain under his reign. He successfully conquered the Welsh, ending the rule of its native princes, and maintained peace by a chain of massive castles. His son, Edward II, was born at Caernarvon Castle, whom he named the Prince of Wales (the first-born son of the king ever since has been the "Prince of Wales"). He also adopted the Welsh longbow as an English weapon, which became so effective against the French for years to come.

He intervened in Scottish affairs, even claiming the Scottish throne. He died fighting Scotland, waging such a ferocious campaign that he came known as "the hammer of the Scots." Even so, he died in 1307 without gaining victory over the Scots. One consequence of this war was the long-lasting enmity of Scotland, which appealed to France as an ally against England.

Edward's son, **Edward II (1307-1327)**, gave up the campaign against the Scots. He preferred the luxuries of court life rather than the rule of the crown. As a homosexual, he neglected his wife to favor Piers Gaveston. The barons finally had Piers murdered, but Edward's new favorite, Hugh Despenser, helped him break the power of the barons. Edward's wife, Isabella of France, went to France and plotted with Hugh's enemy, Roger Mortimer, who became the queen's lover. In 1326 they invaded England and defeated the king's armies. Edward was put into prison and was finally murdered with a hot iron at Berkeley Castle.

Edward III (1327-1377) (son of Edward II) seized control from his mother, Queen Isabella, and her greedy, ambitious lover, Roger Mortimer. He set up a magnificent court ruled by ideals of comradeship and chivalry. He modeled his court after the legendary court of King Arthur. He replaced chain mail with plate armor as the standard armor. Edward III got on well with the barons by keeping them busy in France, where England continued to hold extensive territory. He and his son, The Black Prince (named for the black armor he wore) were very successful in battle, and in 1337 he initiated the Hundred Years War with France to reinstate England's claim to the French throne. The English had some initial success at Crécy (1346) and Poitiers (1356), where they used the English longbow with deadly effect against the French, (who outnumbered them at times four to one). This war literally decimated France, and inflicted great suffering there.

In 1347 the Black Death (bubonic plague) ravaged Europe and left one third of the population of England dead. The Statute of Laborers (1351) tried to freeze wages and prevent serfs and workers from taking advantage of the resulting labor shortage. The Peasants' Revolt in 1381 reflected the continuing unrest, leading to economic and social change, such as peasants being paid wages (causing the manorial service of serfdom to slowly fade away).

The move of the popes from Rome to Avignon in France (1309-1376) and the Great Papal Schism (1378-1417, with rival popes claiming the papacy) led to a declining influence of the papacy in England. Statutes were passed that limited the power of the Pope to appoint church officers in England. John Wycliffe (of Wycliffe Bible Translators), an Oxford professor, criticized corruption in the church and had ideas similar to those of the later Protestant reformers. In 1382 he was removed by an ecclesiastical court to the country parish at Lutterworth, and his ideas were declared heretical. His followers, the Lollards, were persecuted but not stamped out.

Charles V of France waged war against the English in France, and he regained almost all of the English victories. The expense of the war repeatedly forced Edward to go to Parliament for taxes, enabling it to bargain for concessions and to establish its rights and privileges.

Sadly, the famed Black Prince died one year before his father. His son, **Richard II (1377-1399)** (son of the Black Prince and grandson of Edward III) became king. He devoted himself to his court favorites, passing over the great leaders of his kingdom. He believed that kings were appointed by God and could do as they pleased. He demanded that anyone who caught his eye had to kneel to him. When his uncle, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, died, King Richard seized the lands that rightfully belonged to the Duke's exiled son, Henry Bolingbroke. In 1399 Henry Bolingbroke, Duke of Lancaster, invaded England and not only retrieved his lands but also seized Richard's throne, forcing him to abdicate and leaving him to starve in Pontefract Castle. Henry Bolingbroke then became king in his place as Henry IV.

C. The War of the Roses / The Lancastrian and Yorkist Kings (1399 - 1485)

Things we will see from this period on our tour include Warwick Castle, the Tower of London and St. Giles in Edinburgh.

Since 1216 the royal succession had always gone to the king's eldest son. By this rule Henry Bolingbroke, who was Edward III's grandson via Edward's *fourth* (son John of Gaunt), was not heir to the throne. That was Edmund, Earl of March, who was descended from Edward's *third* son.

Because of the irregularity, **Henry IV (1399-1413)** (grandson of Edward III, son of John of Gaunt, Duke of *Lancaster*) and his successors (known as the House of Lancaster, or Lancastrians) were not secure in their claim to the throne. He made concessions to Parliament and to the church as well as in his wars with powerful and rebellious families in Wales and the north to maintain his claim to the crown. He was plagued by rebellion in Wales, wars in Scotland, monetary struggles with Parliament, plots against his life and local revolts. He was struck by a paralyzing illness.

Henry V (1413-1422) (son of Henry IV) was a magnificent warrior-king. He asserted his claim to the French throne and so continued the 100 Year War in France. Through effective use of famous English archers (longbow men), his victories forced French king Charles VI (who slipped in and out of madness) to recognize Henry V as his heir. He even gave his daughter to Henry V in marriage. Thus Henry V assumed control of the French government, although not the entire country, and could expect a son of this marriage to inherit both kingdoms.

In 1422 both Henry V of England and Charles VI of France died, making the nine-month-old **Henry VI (1422-1461 & 1470-1471)** (son of Henry V) king of both countries. For a time, Henry's able uncles held things together in both England and France. In 1429, however, Joan of Arc appeared in France and inspired French resistance to English rule. Although Joan was captured and burned (wrongly) as a heretic in 1431, the English position in France became increasingly precarious. Henry VI grew up an incompetent ruler. He was peace-loving, deeply religious and went in and out of madness. During his reign, control of the kingdom passed from one noble faction to another. The losses in France only mirrored his inability at home. A popular rebellion swelled in France, leading to the loss of everything but Calais in 1453.

In 1453 Henry's wife gave birth to a male heir to the throne as Henry slipped into madness. Richard, Duke of *York* (great-grandson of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, *third* son of Edward III) seized this opportunity to lead rebellion against Henry VI. Too long had the Yorkist line, rightful heirs to the throne, been overlooked (Parliament, the Church and many nobles had backed Henry VI as their king). Richard's rebellion exploded into civil war, known as "The War of the Roses" (1455-1485) (the white rose was the emblem of the House of York and the red rose was the emblem of the House of Lancaster). Richard, Duke of York, defeated and imprisoned Henry VI, who was very content to let the Duke run the country as Lord Protector as the king slipped in and out of bouts of madness. Henry VI's courageous Queen Margaret, however, raised an army and in 1460 defeated the Yorkists, killing the Duke of York. Henry VI was released from prison.

Richard's son, Edward, assisted by his cousin, the powerful Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, routed Margaret's forces in 1461 and took Henry VI captive. Margaret fled to France with her son, Prince Edward. Henry VI returned to prison, much to his relief, in the Tower of London. Edward so overawed Parliament that in 1461 it declared him king as **Edward IV (1461-1470 & 1471-1483)** (great-great-great-grandson of Edward III).

Richard, Earl of Warwick, "Kingmaker," became enraged when Edward IV did not marry the French princess the Earl had chosen but rather secretly married "a commoner" Englishwoman. Richard joined forces with Margaret when she re-invaded from France. They were successful, and Henry VI was restored to the throne in 1470. Edward IV, however, regrouped and soon smashed their army. In the battle, the great Earl of Warwick and Margaret's son, Prince Edward, were both killed. Margaret was sent to the Tower of London, and that same night King Henry VI was mysteriously murdered, possibly by Edward IV's brother Richard Duke of Gloucester (later Richard III).

With the War of the Roses officially over, Edward IV resumed the throne and restored a steady government. He also built his riches and estates until he owned one-fifth of England!

When Edward IV died in 1483, the throne went to his 12-year-old son, **Edward V (1483)**. His reign was immediately contested due to his parent's marriage. Three months later, the crown was given to Edward IV's brother, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, who became king as **Richard III (1483-1485)**. The month after he was crowned, Edward V and his younger brother, the Duke of York, suddenly disappeared. Some suspected Richard III had them killed, others suspected Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, now the Lancastrian leader. (In 1674, the bones of two children were found in the Tower of London, and presumed to be the young princes. The Tower then came to be known as "The Bloody Tower.") Richard III justly operated the courts and respected the Church, but He was suspected of murdering two kings (Henry VI and Edward V). Henry Tudor, asserting a weak Lancastrian claim, led rebellion against him. During the battle, Lord Stanley suddenly deserted Richard and sided with Henry. Richard died in the battle. Legend has it that Lord Stanley found Richard's crown hanging from a thorn bush and gave it to Henry Tudor, who became Henry VII.

The 15th century was a time of trouble and change. The country was ravaged by war and plague, and the population did not begin to increase again until near the end of the century. The weakness of the royal government allowed a breakdown of law and order. Local (feudal) barons asserted strong control. England's once great export of wool declined sharply but was gradually replaced by woolen cloth, the product of a new cottage industry. Landowners enclosing land with walls and fences in order to raise more sheep, disrupting the old economy of the countryside. What England needed was a leader who could organize the kingdom efficiently. Henry VII was that leader!

VI: TUDOR ENGLAND / "The English Renaissance" - The English Reformation and the Height of the English Monarchy (1485-1603)

Things we will see from this period on our tour include Clifford's Tower in York, The Tower of London, Bath Abbey and Stratford-upon-Avon.

The nobility of England had virtually destroyed themselves during the War of the Roses, and the stage was set for a strong monarchy. The pragmatic Tudors gave England the government it was willing to follow. Under the Tudors, England would have its "Golden Age."

Henry Tudor became **Henry VII (1485-1509)**. Although he was the head of the Lancastrian family, he had a weak claim to the throne. His grandfather had married the widow of Henry V, and his father had married Margaret Beaufort, who was descended illegitimately from Edward III. Henry's only real claim to the throne was his victories and success.

Henry VII got rid of his Yorkist rivals, including some impostors. He was very brutal to all who threatened his power, hunting down, killing or exiling them. He secured his claim to the throne and effectively settled the War of the Roses by marrying Elizabeth of the House of York, Edward IV's daughter. He also settled the Welsh unrest, for he was of strong Welsh ancestry. The Welsh saw in him a Welsh king on the English throne.

He imposed heavy taxes to keep the nobles subdued and wisely appointed commoners as his advisors rather than nobility. These common advisors had only the power the king granted them. He stepped around the power of Parliament by creating a new source of income by taxing imports of the new and flourishing trade, stabilizing international relations with Spain, France, the Netherlands, and Scotland. He restored strong, efficient government and saved money by avoided foreign wars.

Under Henry VII the monarch's role changed. The king or queen was no longer a warrior or lawgiver but instead an international businessman, arranging the economy and trade with foreign countries. International trade and commerce became the new source of wealth. (Note: in 1497 John Cabot of England "discovered" North America, only 4 years after Columbus!)

Henry VIII (1509-1547) (son of Henry VII) is perhaps the most famous and powerful monarch of England. He was handsome, charming, a scholar and a musician. In battle he beat the French and Scottish. He exhausted his inherited wealth, but won fame and discovered the talents of Cardinal Thomas Wolsey, who as chancellor and archbishop of York dominated the years 1514 to 1529. Beneath all this, however, lay a cruel despot who soon revealed himself.

Henry's biggest concern was producing a male heir. Although his wife, Catherine of Aragón, bore him six children, only one (who became Mary I) survived infancy. Wanting a son, as well as being smitten by Anne Boleyn, Catherine's lady-in-waiting, Henry appealed to the pope in Rome for a divorce. The Pope, however, refused. The enraged Henry VIII then charged Cardinal Wolsey—who had virtually run England for Henry for 20 years—with treason when he failed to get the Pope to change his mind. Death in 1530 saved Wolsey from execution.

Henry then began to mistreat Catherine and their daughter, Mary, to force her to declare their marriage illegal. Catherine refused and Henry finally solved his "problem" by dissolving the Roman Church in England and setting up a state Church of England (or Anglican Church) with the monarch as its head (instead of the Pope). Thus Henry VIII is credited with implementing the Protestant Reformation in England. He promptly pronounced his own divorce; the Pope excommunicated him and all the English people who followed him. Henry tapped Thomas Cromwell, his next administrative genius, to implement the Protestant Reform in England. Henry's priority for the Reformation was not religious reform but extracting wealth from the Church's holdings in England. He closed all the monasteries and seized all their land and wealth for the Crown. He threw out the monks and nuns, many of whom had to beg to survive.

Anne Boleyn, whom Henry was now free to marry (1533), gave birth to a daughter, Elizabeth. Anne soon lost the king's favor and was beheaded at the Tower of London for alleged adultery. Henry's third wife, Jane Seymour, died giving birth to Edward, his only surviving son. Yet this did not stop Henry's wife-hunting. Three later wives (Anne of Cleves, Catherine Howard and Catherine Parr), one of whom he divorced and another he had beheaded, had no children.

Thomas Cromwell, meanwhile, oversaw the revolutionary changes of the 1530s. Cromwell tried to appease the king by breaking with Rome and dissolving the monasteries. He also renewed the power of Parliament—especially the House of Commons—and created out of the old King's Council a new bureaucratic structure including the Privy Council and the prerogative courts, which were controlled by the Crown. Yet walking the tightrope of the king's favor became impossible, and Cromwell followed Anne Boleyn to the Tower of London where he, too, was beheaded. By the time of his death in 1547, Henry VIII was regarded with terror and dread.

Edward VI (1547-1553) (son of Henry VIII and Jane Seymour) was only nine when he acceded to the throne. He was a weak and sickly child, and powerful men near him took advantage of him. His uncle, Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset, soon overthrew the Regency Council Henry VIII had set up to rule for him until he came of age, and made himself Lord Protector. In 1551, however, Somerset was overthrown by John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, and made himself the new Lord Protector. He was even more despotic than his predecessor. He used force to make people change from following the Roman Church to being part of the Church of England. Thomas Cranmer, a brilliant Protestant theologian, wrote the first prayer book of England (*The Book of Common Prayer*), one of the great books of Christianity and which is still used in the Church of England today, although revised. As King Edward became more and more ill, Dudley grew fearful that Mary, Edward's oldest sister, who was a staunch Roman Catholic, would soon succeed to the throne and undo all the Protestant reforms. So he devised a plot to arrange a marriage between his own son and Edward's second cousin, Lady Jane Grey. He then forced the dying king to disinherit Mary and name Lady Jane as his successor. The king died at the age of 15 after dreadful suffering.

Mary I (1553-1558) (daughter of Henry VIII and Catherine of Aragon) was proclaimed queen when the English people refused Dudley's bazaar plot with Lady Jane Grey. Dudley was promptly executed for treason. Mary was determined to fully undo all the Protestant reform implemented under her father and half-brother and to reintroduce Roman Catholicism. She used force to do it: simply executing all Protestant leaders, and even had a mass burning of some 300 Protestant "heretics," most of whom were ordinary people. Thus she soon received the title of "Bloody Mary" (later to become the name of a popular alcoholic mixed drink!). She married the Catholic Prince Philip of Spain and allowed Spaniards virtually to control the government. Many Protestants left England during this time and went to Europe, where they were introduced to the teachings of John Calvin of Switzerland. Then, to the relief of England, she suddenly died in 1558).

Elizabeth I (1558-1603) (daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn) was a Protestant and "All English" unlike Mary, whose mother was Spanish. She was a wise, moderate and tolerant ruler. She was one of England's greatest sovereigns; she had her grandfather's frugality and care paired as well as her father's authoritarian manner and his ability to charm and overwhelm. She had a sense of what people wanted and would allow, and she had the judgment to pick able and devoted ministers. She chose her advisors with great care and handled Parliament with tact. She passed moderate legislation that enforced the Protestant religion without alienating the Catholics: her policies, which became known as "The Elizabethan Settlement," required everyone to be publically a member of the Church of England (church attendance was required!), but people were allowed to practice their faith privately however they chose. Protestants who had fled to Europe under her older sister returned to England. They brought with them the teachings of John Calvin and tried to "purify" the Church of England from all Roman Catholic influence. Hence they became known as the "Puritans." She won the hearts of her people when she chose to be married not to a husband but rather to her country and people, although she wooed many among the nobility as possible suitors. She secured her power against her rival, Mary Queen of Scots, by having her imprisoned for 19 years before she was wrongly executed for treason. During her rule England flourished and rose in power and influence. The English defeated the Spanish Armada in 1588 giving England command of the seas. Ireland, increasingly rebellious and vulnerable as a possible point of foreign attack, was finally conquered in 1603. Sir Francis Drake sailed around the world and John Hawkins designed and built ships in Devon that were the best and fastest in the world. Culture spread as literature and art flourished under William Byrd, Nicholas Hilliard, Sir Walter Raleigh, William Shakespeare and Christopher Marlowe. (Sir Walter Raleigh introduced tobacco and potatoes in England from America during Queen Elizabeth's reign.) Elizabeth I presided over England's rise to glory abroad and to prosperity and literary achievement at home, justifiably giving her name to England's golden age.

VII. THE STUARTS / “Early Modern Period in England” (1603 - 1714)

Things we will see from this period on our tour include The Tower of London, Stratford-upon-Avon, Scrooby Parish Church and St. Paul’s Cathedral.

A. The Early Stuarts (“The Jacobeans”) (1603 - 1649)

Queen Elizabeth I, as well as the Tudor family line, left no heir to the throne. Thus the crown reverted back through Henry VII’s daughter, Margaret, who had married King James IV of Scotland. Margaret was the mother of King James V of Scotland, who was in turn the father of Mary, “Queen of Scots.” Queen Elizabeth had Mary killed to ensure her own rule. Yet Mary’s son King James VI of Scotland, was still alive but in hiding. Upon Elizabeth I’s death, Parliament sought out James and declared him rightful heir to the English throne.

James VI of Scotland was crowned James I of England (1603-1625) (great-great-grandson of Henry VII). Finally, at long last, the kingdoms of England and Scotland were united. It finally took marriage to do what wars could not!

James I persecuted both Catholics and Puritans. He wanted a pure English Bible, and commissioned the famous King James translation in 1611. The Catholics responded with many plots against him, one being the famous although unsuccessful Gunpowder Plot to blow up Parliament in 1605. To escape from James, a group of Puritans, The Pilgrim Fathers, escaped first to the Netherlands and then to America in 1620.

The 1600s was a century of domestic conflict, due in part to the personalities of the Stuart kings, but more to the problems inherited from the previous reign. The Puritans, or extreme Protestants, who had already been unhappy under Elizabeth, grew increasingly dissatisfied with the Church of England, which they felt was still too Catholic. Religious unrest reached its height when the anti-Puritan William Laud became archbishop of Canterbury in the 1630s.

The major conflict was between king and Parliament: between James’ belief (passed on to his son, Charles) in the Divine Right of Kings. He believed that kings were appointed by God and had to answer to no one on earth. Parliament, on the other hand, insisted on its own independent rights. Chief Justice Sir Edward Coke, after being dismissed by James for advocating an independent judiciary, backed Parliament’s claim of its right to impeach the king’s ministers (1621). James simply dissolved Parliament and ruled on his own.

Charles I in both England and Scotland (1625-1649) (son of James I of England and James VI of Scotland) also believed in the Divine Right of Kings. He also dissolved Parliament and ruled on his own from 1629 to 1640. His efforts to obtain money without the aid of Parliament by all kinds of extraordinary levies became notorious. He also persecuted the Puritan movement, and the prosecution of Puritan leaders in 1637 led to an outcry against royal courts. Charles’ attempts in 1637 to impose English-style worship in Scotland led to a rebellion, and Charles was forced to summon Parliament in 1640 to ask for money to put down the rebellion.

Puritans, however, dominated Parliament and wanted to remove his unfair taxes and Catholic tendencies. Parliament refused all his requests. Charles demanded obedience and Parliament would not give in. Neither side compromised.

B. Civil War: To Kill a King! (1642-1649)

This Parliament, known as the Long Parliament, used the crisis to get control of the government. It released political prisoners, and it arrested and executed Archbishop Laud and Sir Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, who were blamed for the king's policies. It abolished the royal courts, limited the king’s ability to tax, and established the rule that Parliament should meet every three years. The king then withdrew from Parliament with his supporters, “the Cavaliers.” The

Puritan remainder of Parliament, called Roundheads, then issued a call to arms, and Charles gathered his forces as well. Civil war broke out in October of 1642.

At first the Royalists (Cavaliers) were victorious, but Parliament soon was aided by the Puritan Oliver Cromwell, who raised and trained a “New Model Army” or “Ironsides.” The Parliament army (Roundheads) then crushed the Royalists (Cavaliers). In 1646 Charles surrendered to the Scots, but they handed him over to Parliament. Charles escaped and made a deal with the Scots, thus beginning the second civil war in 1648. Cromwell and the New Model Army won again and then purged Parliament of all but a “Rump” of members conformable to army control. The Rump Parliament convened a trial charging the King with treason for his Catholic faith and making war on his own subjects. During the trial, Charles refused to address Parliament, stating that as a king with Divine Right, he did not have to answer to any person or body except God. In a vote of 68 to 67 he was sentenced to death on January 30, 1649. Parliament abolished both the monarchy and the House of Lords and declared Great Britain a commonwealth.

C. Puritan Commonwealth (1649-1660)

When Parliament declared Great Britain a commonwealth, it did not create the organizational structure for a permanent government. The new Council of State (1649-1653) had to depend on the force of the army and the scant legitimacy of the Rump Parliament. Cromwell was the dominant individual. From 1649 to 1651 he brutally subdued Ireland and Scotland and brought them into the Commonwealth. As troubles continued in England, Parliament turned to Cromwell for leadership, even offering him crown on two different occasions! Cromwell refused. As unrest continued, Cromwell was forced to maintain peace and stability through the use of his army.

In 1653 Cromwell dissolved the Rump Parliament, tired of its inability to function, criticism against him and refusing him money. In December 1653 he accepted the Instrument of Government, England’s only attempt at a written constitution. The Protectorate, which it created, was governed by a House of Commons and Cromwell as Lord Protector (1653-1658). Parliament challenged the restrictions of the Instrument and then proposed the so-called Humble Petition and Advice to amend it. Cromwell accepted a second house of Parliament and the right to name his successor, but refused the title of king.

Under Cromwell the army and navy were strengthened, and the English Navy gained many victories over the Dutch. This is also when many of the great schools were founded. Cromwell, however, also implemented Puritan ideals on the nation. Theaters and public houses were closed. People were fined for playing games or traveling on Sundays. Colorful dress and merrymaking were much frowned upon. Soon England grew tired of such a gloomy lifestyle and yearned for the glory days of a monarch. After a Royalist uprising in 1655, Cromwell divided England into 11 military districts commanded by major generals. This, perhaps even more than the killing of Charles, turned people against Cromwell, instilling a hatred of the Puritans and standing armies.

In 1658, Cromwell died, and his son and successor, Richard, could not control either the army or the Parliament. The army and Parliament quarreled bitterly and chaos erupted. In the ensuing confusion, General George Monck, the commander in Scotland, marched to London, recalled the Long Parliament, and set in motion the return of the dead king’s eldest son from exile.

D. Stuart Monarchy Restored (1660-1688)

England and Scotland invited **Charles II (1660-1685)** (son of Charles I) back from hiding in France in May 1660 and attempted to restore things to what they had been in 1642. Seeking healing and pursuing moderation, only a dozen men were executed for their role in the treasonous execution of Charles I. Yet the issue of sovereignty (and the Divine Right of Kings) remained to be

resolved. Parliament restored bishops to the church and expelled Dissenters (Protestants who did not conform to the Church of England), restricting their worship and political activity.

The Restoration was a reaction against Puritanism - in behavior, literature, and drama. In 1662 Charles chartered the Royal Society, to promote the study of natural science. Charles worked with Parliament, asking for and heeding their advice. Nevertheless, the Puritans and Catholics were grimly persecuted. Charles kept hidden two of his beliefs: the Divine Right of Kings and his attraction toward Roman Catholicism. He even ruled without Parliament from time to time, and Parliament, terrified of another Civil War, let him. In 1665 the Plague broke out in London, fueled by dirty streets and filthy hygiene. It ran rampant until in 1666 the Great Fire broke out burning down much of London (but also effectively wiped out the Plague!). This fire allowed London to be rebuilt in renaissance beauty and grandeur, particularly under architect Christopher Wren.

James II/VII (1685-1688) (son of Charles II) was a Roman Catholic and intended to make England a Catholic country again. He made known his intentions, as well as his belief in the Divine Right of Kings. He announced that he would simply ignore any law he did not like, and when Parliament protested, he simply dismissed it. He put Catholics in positions of power and canceled the laws against Catholicism. When the Archbishop of Canterbury and six other Bishops protested, James II had them arrested and put on trial. The English people were furious with him, but they chose to put up with him because his oldest daughter, Mary, was a Protestant and would one day succeed him. Then, suddenly, James' second wife, the Catholic Mary of Modena, gave birth to a son (named James) and that meant a long line of Catholic monarchs!

E. The Glorious Revolution (1688)

The former Bishop of London and a few other important Protestants secretly invited James II's protestant daughter Mary and her protestant husband, William III of Orange (in the Dutch republic) to come to England and save it from the Catholic threat. William arrived with an army in November 1688, and James II soon found to his dismay that many of his own troops deserted him and joined the invaders! Fearful that he would have his head chopped off like his grandfather, he fled to France. This revolution was called the Glorious Revolution because, unlike that of 1640 to 1660, it was bloodless and successful: Parliament was sovereign and England began to prosper.

For a few weeks, England was without a monarch. Then in 1689, parliament gave the English Crown jointly to William and Mary, **William III (1689-1702)** (grandson of Charles I) and **Mary II (1689-1694)** (daughter of James II/VII and granddaughter of Charles I) provided that they affirm the Bill of Rights listing and condemning the abuses of James. Parliament imposed many limitations on the monarch's authority. They abolished the Divine Right of Kings, regulated the monarch's expenditures and would not allow him to dismiss judges or employ an army in peacetime without Parliament's consent. They also established that a new Parliament would be established every three years, and every future monarch had to be a member of the Church of England. In effect, this established a Constitutional Monarchy, in which the monarch acted as advisors to and as partners with Parliament. A Toleration Act gave freedom of worship to Protestant dissenters.

Those who would not swear allegiance to the new monarchs were called nonjurors or Jacobites (*Jacobus* being Latin for James). The Jacobites were most numerous among the Roman Catholics in the Scottish Highlands and in Ireland. Macdonald of Glencoe, one of the Scottish Highland chieftains formerly opposed to William III, had agreed with others to take an oath of allegiance to him. He was late in doing so, and a massacre of his clan followed in 1692 by loyal Scottish. This led to the first "Jacobite Rebellion." James, the Catholic son of King James II/VII whose birth led to the Glorious Revolution (he became known as "The Old Pretender"), used this

massacre to launch a Scottish revolt to reclaim his rightful crown. At the Battle of Boyne in 1690, James failed to gain victory and fled in defeat.

With William, however, Britain also got William's war with France, the War of the League of Augsburg (1689-1697), and the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1713). William spent his entire life fighting the territorial ambitions of France's Louis XIV. Britain proved once again to be a European force and demonstrated the wealth it had at its disposal (evidenced in Parliament's willingness to levy taxes). In 1693 England created a permanent national debt and in 1694 chartered the Bank of England. These and the developing stock exchange were the basis of London's growing financial position in Britain and in the world, laying the foundation for future prosperity.

When William III died without an heir, Parliament named Mary's younger (Protestant) sister queen: **Anne (1702-1714)** (daughter of James II/VII). (Note: It is this Ann for whom Queen Ann's Lace is named.) Tragically, all 17 of Ann's children died before reaching adulthood! A crisis developed about her heir, as the Catholic Jacobites were still vying for the throne. Parliament then declared the Protestant Electress Sophia of Hannover (in Germany), the granddaughter of James I/VI, as her heir. Scotland's Parliament, angry at its exclusion from trade with the English Empire, hesitated to duplicate the act. The only solution was to combine the two kingdoms politically, which was done by the Act of Union of 1707. This created the Kingdom of Great Britain. Yet Sophia died eight weeks before Ann did.

Queen Ann's reign was full of many brilliant men, such as Sir Christopher Wren (the architect of St. Paul's Cathedral), Sir Isaac Newton (the scientific genius), and John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, (the great military hero and ancestor of Sir Winston Churchill). The publishing of John Locke and Isaac Newton gave Britain a commanding position in philosophy and science, positioning it to lead the upcoming Enlightenment and Industrial Revolution. Britain's growing wealth and military advancements showed that it had not destroyed itself in the internal quarrels of the previous century, but had in fact put its house in order and created the basis of ideas and power by which it would dominate the modern world. (Note: During this time it was fashionable for men to wear wigs and for women to be plump!)

The kingdom of Great Britain was formed by the Act of Union (1707) between England and Scotland. England (including the principality of Wales, annexed in the 14th century) and Scotland had been separate kingdoms since the early Middle Ages, but since 1603 the same monarch has ruled both lands. Only in 1707, however, did London become the capital of the entire island. Great Britain from then on had a single Parliament and a single system of national administration, taxation, and weights and measures. All tariff barriers within the island were ended. England and Scotland continued, however, to have separate traditions of law and separate established churches: the Presbyterian Church in Scotland, the Anglican Church in England and Wales.

In the early 1700s, Louis XIV of France, ruling then the most populous and powerful European state, extended its power and influence in Spain. He appeased the British by ceding to them the North American areas of Hudson Bay, Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, Gibraltar and the Mediterranean island of Minorca, while granting to British merchants a limited right to trade with Spain's American colonies (including the *asiento*—the right to import African slaves into Spanish America). The colonial expansion and exploitation by Western Europe drove their economies and wealth. Britain made significant expansions in India, the Americas and Africa through the East India Trading Company, colonization and military victories over competing European nations.

VIII. THE HANOVERIANS / “The English Enlightenment,” “The Industrial Revolution” and Early Methodism (1714 - 1917)

A. Georgian Britain (1714 - 1837)

Things we will see from this period on our tour include all the sites associated with Wesley, as well as the Royal Crescent and Circus in Bath.

With no surviving children, Queen Ann was succeeded, according to the Act of Settlement, by her nearest Protestant relative. Therefore the throne went to George, the Elector of Hannover (Germany). In 1714 he reluctantly immigrated from Germany (hence “Hanoverian”) and was crowned **King George I (1714-1727)** (son of Sophia; great-grandson of James II).

George could not speak English nor did he bother to learn. He disliked being a constitutional monarch and thought Parliament was a nuisance. He preferred his Electorate of Hanover, Germany, where he was absolute ruler. Therefore, his place at British meetings of government was eventually taken over by a “Chief” or “Prime” Minister.

Although the first years of George I’s reign were marked by two major crises—the Jacobite Rebellion of 1715 (by followers of Queen Anne’s half brother, James Stuart), and the South Sea Bubble (a stock market crash of 1720)—Britain enjoyed two decades of relative peace and stability. Local government was left largely in the hands of country gentlemen owning large estates. As justices of the peace, they settled the majority of legal disputes. They also administered roads, bridges, inns, and markets and supervised the local operation of the Poor Law: aid to orphans, paupers, the very old, and those too ill to work. At the national level, many Britons came to take pride in their mixed government, which effectively combined monarchical (the hereditary ruler), aristocratic (the hereditary House of Lords), and democratic (the elected House of Commons) elements while also providing an independent judiciary.

Although the king could appoint whomever he wished to his government, he found it convenient to select members of Parliament, who could exercise influence there. Such was the case of Robert Walpole, who was appointed first Lord of the Treasury (and came to be known as Prime Minister) in 1721. Walpole was able to build up and dominate an effective government machine. He presided over an informal group of ministers that came to be known as the cabinet, and he controlled Parliament by his personality, his policies and his use of patronage. During his administration, Walpole kept Great Britain out of war, and even English-French relations remained cordial.

George II (1727-1760) (son of George I) also preferred his Electorate of Hanover. The monarch’s influence continued to diminish as the emerging British government functioned well. Industry and commerce produced a growth of wealth, science, arts and learning. George II’s reign also saw the rise of the Methodist Movement under John Wesley. This was the time of the “First Great [Religious] Awakening” in both Great Britain and America. Further, the iconic bell towers were added to Westminster Abbey in 1735. (Note: Men powdered their wigs and women wore hooped petticoats.)

Between 1739 and 1763, Great Britain was continually at war, against Spain, Prussia and France. There was also growing unrest in the American colonies. In 1745, the Scots invaded England for the last time, hoping to put Charles Stewart, “Bonnie Prince Charlie,” (the son of James “The Old Pretender” and the grandson of James II/VII) on the throne. Charles had a stronger ancestral claim to the throne than did the Hanoverians, but Parliament had intervened in order to keep a Protestant monarch. The rebellion failed, and the Scots never tried again. It is said that George II was so frightened during the rebellion (they came south within a hundred miles of London) that he had his bags packed and was ready to return to his electorate in Hanover. The Highland Scottish who supported Prince Charlie were cruelly punished.

During the mid-1750s the British found themselves fighting an undeclared war against France both in North America (the French and Indian War) and in India. In 1756 formal war broke out again. The Seven Years' War (1756-1763) pitted Britain, now allied with Prussia!, against France in alliance with Austria and Russia. For Britain the war began with a series of defeats in North America, in India, in the Mediterranean and on the Continent. King George II then appointed the fiery William Pitt the Elder as the minister to run the war. He was an expert strategist and conducted the war with vigor, eventually winning the war in 1763. In the Treaty of Paris of 1763, all French claims to Canada and to lands east of the Mississippi River were ceded to Britain, as were most French claims to India. Spain, which had entered the war on the French side in 1762, ceded Florida. The Treaty of Paris established Britain's 18th century empire at its height.

George III (1760-1820) (son of George II) was the first English-born Hanoverian and the first to speak English properly. The British led The Enlightenment and was transformed by the First Industrial Revolution. Methodism in England grew to great proportions; Wesley died in 1791 and the Methodists separated from the Church of England in 1795. Significantly, under George III, the Kingdom of Ireland was united to the kingdoms of England and Scotland in 1801.

George III formed his own political party, the "Kings' Party," and through this ruled as a "minister" in his government. He and his minister, Lord North, tried to tap the English subjects in the American colonies for taxes. The colonies had a somewhat unique status of not paying the same level of taxes but also not having direct representation in Parliament. The colonists eventually rebelled in what became known as "The American War of Independence" (or to Americans "The Revolutionary War"). The British army was overextended and failed to subdue the American rebellion. In the Treaty of Paris in 1783, the 13 colonies were recognized as independent states and were granted all British territory south of the Great Lakes. Florida and Minorca were ceded to Spain, and some West Indian islands and African ports were ceded to France.

In 1789 revolution broke out in France, and under Napoleon, France was victorious throughout Europe. Britain alone remained unconquered. A great navel battle ensued, of which the British under Admiral Nelson, won a stunning victory over the vastly larger French navy. Then under The Duke of Wellington, the British also defeated Napoleon on land at the Battle of Trafalgar. Britain led the final battle against Napoleon in 1815, when he was defeated at Waterloo. The War of 1812 with the United States was for Britain a sideshow that brought no territorial changes. During this time, despite the loss of the American colonies, Britain became the greatest world power. George III, however, went mad (insane) from time to time, and his son, then Prince Regent George, ruled for him from 1811 on. He reigned for 60 years, the third-longest British rule.

Beginning in the 1700s, population in Great Britain began to increase rapidly. The reasons include a decline of deaths from infectious diseases (especially smallpox), an improved diet made possible by more efficient farming practices and the large-scale use of the potato, and larger families especially in those areas where new industries were starting up. In the 1780s James Watt perfected the steam engine as a new source of power, which transformed industry. New inventions mechanized the spinning and weaving of imported cotton. Between 1760 and 1830 the production of cotton textiles increased twelvefold, making the product Britain's leading export. At the same time, other inventions comparably raised the production of iron, and the amount of coal mined increased fourfold. By 1830 this Industrial Revolution had turned Britain into the "workshop of the world."

The towns based on factory work spread across northwestern England, lowland Scotland and southern Wales. The advantages were more regular hours and higher wages than those received by handicraft workers or farm laborers. Machines—able to be run by women and children—began replacing manual labor. For several decades, however, civic amenities like water and sewage systems did not keep pace with the growth of population. London remained Britain's largest city, a center of

commerce, shipping, justice and administration more than of industry. Its population, estimated at 600,000 in 1701, had grown to 950,000 by 1801, and to 2.5 million by 1851, making it the largest city in the world. By then, Britain had become the first large nation to have more urban than rural population.

King George IV (1820-1830) (son of George III) succeeded his father. He returned polish and elegance to the British court. Even before succeeding to the throne, the prince regent became unpopular because of his gluttony and his personal immorality. He had a taste for beautiful clothes, fine furnishings, splendid houses and great banquets. His coronation was the most superb and spectacular yet. He was a patron of the arts (hence “Regency” style and architecture). His attempt to divorce his wife, Caroline of Brunswick, provided much cause for scandal. George IV left no legitimate heirs. (Note: In 1825, Stephenson built the first public railway using steam engines).

Despite an early 19th-century religious revival (“The Second Great Awakening”), especially among Methodists and other non-Anglican Protestants, Tory (formerly “The King’s Party”) leaders remained reluctant to challenge religious and political fundamentals. In 1828, however, Parliament agreed to end political restrictions on Protestant dissenters.

William IV (1830-1837) (son of George III) was the opposite of his brother’s splendid extravagances (he even suggested that he could do without a coronation!). Although he was an able king, during the 1830s many reforms were introduced in Parliament that weaken the influence of the monarch and the House of Lords. The Factory Act of 1833 limited the working hours of women and children and provided for central inspectors. Slavery was finally abolished that year as well.

B. Victorian Britain (1837 - 1901)

Things we will see from this period on our tour include Westminster Parliament in London, Windsor Castle remodelings and The Tower Bridge and Buckingham Palace in London.

In 1837 the elderly William IV was succeeded as monarch by his 18-year-old niece, **Victoria (1837-1901)** (granddaughter of George III). She and her husband, Prince Albert, came to symbolize what are termed “Victorian virtues,” including a close-knit family life, a sense of public duty, morality, an industrial work ethic, personal improvement, integrity and respectability. These were molded by the revival of earnest and evangelical religion (the “Third Great Awakening” led by Charles Spurgeon in England) and by utilitarian notions of efficiency and good business practice.

Victoria restored respectability to the British monarchy. She and her beloved husband strongly disapproved of all immorality. She adored her husband, and wore black continually after his death in 1861. She took interest in the poor and the working class of her subjects. She saw herself as a mother to her subjects and committed herself to guide and protect without giving them too much freedom. She disapproved of radical or liberal ideas, such as granting the right to vote to working class people or women.

The Great Exhibition of 1851 in London symbolized Britain’s industrial world supremacy. The 6,600-mile railroad network in 1850 more than doubled during the mid-Victorian years, and the number of passengers carried annually went up by seven times. The telegraph provided instant communication. Inexpensive steel was made possible by Henry Bessemer’s process (developed in 1856 in Sheffield), and a boom in steamship building began in the 1860s. The value of British exports tripled, and overseas capital investments quadrupled. Working-class living standards improved also, and the growth of trade unionism among engineers, carpenters, and others led to the founding of the Trades Union Congress in 1868. British banking stabilized international commerce.

Britain maintained a difficult neutrality during the American Civil War (1861-1865). It encouraged the unification of Italy, but witnessed with apprehension Prince Otto von Bismarck’s creation of a German Empire under the rise of Prussian domination.

Due largely to agricultural depression, the mid-Victorian boom gave way to an era of deflation, falling profit margins, and occasional large-scale unemployment. Both the United States and Germany overtook Britain in the production of steel and other manufactured goods. At the same time, Britain remained the world's prime shipbuilder, shipper, and banker, and a majority of British workers gained in purchasing power. The number of trade unionists grew, and significant attempts were made to organize the semiskilled. Social investigators and professed socialists discovered large pockets of poverty in the slums of London and other cities, and the national government as well as voluntary agencies were called on to remedy social evils. Despite a high level of emigration to British colonies and the United States—more than 200,000 *per year* during the 1880s—the population of England and Wales doubled between 1851 and 1911 (to more than 36 million) and that of Scotland grew by more than 60 percent (to almost 5 million). Both death rates and birth rates declined somewhat, and a series of changes in the law made it possible for a minority of women to enter universities, vote in local elections and keep control of their property while married.

Under Victoria, the British Empire grew to a vast size, ultimately including one quarter of the Earth's surface and one quarter of its population! Britain was THE world power! Britain's empire included the Middle East, the Indian frontier and large portions of Africa. Hong Kong and Singapore served as centers of British trade and influence in China and the South Pacific. The completion of the Suez Canal in 1869 led indirectly to a British protectorate over Egypt in 1882. Queen Victoria became empress of India in 1876, and both Victoria's golden jubilee (1887) and her diamond jubilee (1897) celebrated imperial unity.

When celebrated her diamond jubilee of reign (60 years) in 1897, the English displayed deep their love for her with great festivities. She reigned almost four years more, making her reign the second-longest ever in English history. (Note: Bowler hats were introduced during this time, and Nottingham lace became the fashion the world over).

C. Edwardian Britain (1901 - 1917)

Things we will see from this period on our tour include Methodist Central Hall.

Under **Edward VII (1901-1910)** (son of Queen Victoria) peace was established on nearly all fronts, hence he became known as "Edward the Peacemaker." He made efforts to foster friendships between nations, and he was able to use family ties to foster peace in Europe (nearly every monarch in Europe was directly related to Victoria!). Edward was likeable, never aloof or haughty, and always concerned about the feelings of others, especially the poor. (Note: The first Rolls Royce was built in 1907).

Most Britons, however, were more concerned with domestic matters. Driven by a push against Victorian conservatism, there was a popular demand for national efficiency and the beginnings of a national system of secondary education. The general election of 1906 gave the Liberals an overwhelming majority. Union influence led to the appearance of a small separate Labour Party. The Liberal government gave domestic self-government to the new Union of South Africa and partial provincial self-government to British India in 1909-1910. Under the inspiration of David Lloyd George and Winston Churchill, it also laid the foundations of the welfare state. Its program, from 1908 to 1912, included old-age pensions, government employment offices, unemployment insurance, a contributory program of national medical insurance for most workers and boards to fix minimum wages for miners and others.

George V (1910-1936) (son of Edward VII) succeeded his father in 1910. As a scholar and navel officer he was known as the "Sailor King." He was a well-loved king who devoted himself to his royal duties and the welfare of his country and empire.

Early in his reign the Conservatives made a comeback. Although the economy seemed to be booming, wages scarcely kept up with rising prices, and the years 1911-1914 were marked by divisive strikes by miners, dock workers and transport workers. Suffragists led violent demonstrations for the rights of women. A crisis in the Balkans exploded into World War I.

IX. THE HOUSE OF WINDSOR / “The 20th Century,” “The 21st Century” (1917 - present)

Things we will see from this period on our tour include aircraft in the Royal Air Museum, post-war reconstruction and subsequent construction.

A. World War I (1914 - 1918)

George V (1910-1936) (son of Edward VII) was the last of the Hanover line and the first of the Windsor line. He changed the royal family name in from Hanover to Windsor during WWI (1917) to remove the German name and show solidarity with the English against the Germans.

Although the competitive naval buildup between Britain and Germany is often cited as a cause of World War I, Anglo-German relations were actually cordial in early 1914, and Britain was Germany’s best customer. It was Germany’s threat to France and its invasion of neutral Belgium that prompted Britain to declare war. WWI began.

Fighting in France on the Western Front soon became mired in a bloody stalemate amid muddy trenches, barbed wire, and machine-gun emplacements. Battles to push the Germans back failed repeatedly at the cost of tens of thousands of lives. Efforts to outflank the Central Powers (Germany, Austria, and Turkey) in the British Balkans failed also. At the Battle of Jutland (1916), the British prevented the German fleet from entering into the North Sea and beyond, but German submarines threatened Britain with starvation early in 1917; merchant-ship convoys guarded by destroyers helped avert that danger.

By 1918 the British annual budget was 13 times that of 1913! Tax rates had risen fivefold, and the total national debt fourteenfold.

Although many Britons welcomed the end of czarist rule in Russia (1917), they saw the Communist decision to make a separate peace with Germany as a sellout. Only the entry of the United States into the war made possible General Douglas Haig’s successful tank offensive in the summer of 1918 and the German surrender in November.

Prime Minister Lloyd George represented Britain as one of the Big Three (together with France and the United States) at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919. The resulting treaties added former German colonies in Africa and Turkish holdings in the Middle East to the British Empire as British mandates. At the same time, Britain’s self-governing dominions (Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa) became separate treaty signatories and separate members of the new League of Nations.

The Reform Act of 1918 granted the vote to men over the age of 21 and women over 30.

B. The Formation of The United Kingdom (1922)

Irish-British relations had never been warm, and Ireland’s inclusion into the British kingdom (1801) had been uneasy. Intermittent civil war in Ireland (between the pro-British and Protestant “North” and pro-Republic and Catholic “South”) led to a treaty negotiated by Lloyd George in 1921. It created the independent Republic of Ireland (encompassing the southern three-fourths of the island) and the British-aligned Northern Ireland (comprised of six counties of north-east Ireland). The Republic of Ireland was largely Roman Catholic whereas Northern Ireland was Protestant. Northern Ireland was represented in the British Parliament as well as also having their own

provincial parliament. Thus the current political entity “The United Kingdom” was officially established in 1922, made up by the countries of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland.

C. Inter-War Britain (1918-1936)

The end of the war drove an economic boom marked by rapid demobilization and labor strife. By 1922, however, the boom had petered out. During the early 1920s a major political shift took place in Britain. The general election of 1922 left no party with a clear majority. As a consequence, Ramsay MacDonald, the leader of the new Labour Party, became the first professed socialist to serve as prime minister of Great Britain. When he began in 1924, his early introduction of liberal agenda items brought a strong reaction. In less than a year conservatives, led by Stanley Baldwin, were restored. The Baldwin ministry reinstated the gold standard and enacted several social-reform measures, including the Widows’, Orphans’, and Old Age Contributory Pensions Act, a national electric power network and a reform of local government. In 1928 women were given voting rights that were equal to those of men.

The Labour Party again gained a majority in 1929. Yet between 1929 and 1932 the international depression more than doubled an already high rate of unemployment. In the course of three years, both the levels of industrial activity and of prices dipped by a quarter, and industries such as shipbuilding collapsed almost entirely. The Labour government found itself unable to cope with the depression, and in 1931 it gave way to a government that combined the three Labour, Liberal and Conservative parties. It took Britain off the gold standard, restored protective tariffs and subsidized the building of houses. Between 1933 and 1937, the economy recovered steadily with the automobile, construction and electrical industries leading the way. Unemployment remained high, however, especially in Wales, Scotland, and northern England. Interwar society was influenced by the radio (monopolized by the British Broadcasting Corporation (“The BBC”), which was begun in 1927) and the cinema, but British life was little affected by the continental ideologies of communism and fascism. The empire remained intact, even though the Statute of Westminster (1931) proclaimed the equality of Commonwealth nations such as Canada and Australia. Religious attendance declined, but King George V maintained the prestige of the monarchy. In 1932, the major branches of the Methodists in Great Britain joined to form the British Methodist Church.

Edward VIII (1936) (son of George V) did not like being king and felt suffocated by his royal duties. He fell in love with an American woman, Mrs. Wallis Simpson, and because she was twice divorced, the Church of England would not approve of the marriage. So Edward chose to abdicate the throne and marry Mrs. Simpson. All of Britain was shocked.

George VI (1936-1952) (son of George V) became king upon his brother’s abdication. His birth name was Albert, but he took the name George VI to restore respect for the monarchy. He connected with the people through regular radio broadcasts.

D. World War II (1939-1945)

Memories of World War I left Britons with an overwhelming desire to avoid another war. The UK played a leading role in the League of Nations and at interwar disarmament conferences such as those in Washington, D.C. in 1921 and 1922 and London in 1930 that limited naval size. Conscious that Germany might have been unfairly treated at the 1919 peace conference, the UK government followed a policy of appeasement in dealing with Adolf Hitler’s Germany after 1933. Germany’s decisions between 1934 and 1936 to leave the League of Nations, rearm and remilitarize the Rhineland in defiance of the Treaty of Versailles were not challenged. So was the German annexation of Austria in 1938. In his efforts to keep the peace at all costs, Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain also acquiesced to the Munich Pact of 1938, which gave Germany the Sudetenland

portion of Czechoslovakia. Only after the German annexation of Prague in March of 1939 did the UK pledge to honor its alliances with Poland and Romania.

When Hitler invaded Poland in September 1939, Britain and France declared war. World War II began. The defeat of Poland and half a year of relative quiet (“the phony war”) were followed in the spring of 1940 by the German invasion of Denmark, Norway, Holland, Belgium, and France. In May, Winston Churchill, a leading opponent of appeasement who had rejoined the cabinet in 1939, replaced Chamberlain as head of a war cabinet that again included all three parties.

France surrendered in June 1940 and the UK stood alone against Germany. Intriguingly, largely out of defiance to the UK, the Republic of Ireland joined the Axis powers! Churchill mobilized and retooled Britain for the war effort in an astonishing and comprehensive transformation. Although a German invasion plan was foiled by British air supremacy (“The Blitz”), large parts of London and other industrial cities were destroyed and some 60,000 civilians were killed. During the London bombings, George VI chose to keep his family in London to show solidarity with his subjects. The Palace was struck with a bomb, and the royal family were nearly killed. They toured London after the raids, as well as British units of the armed forces overseas.

Beginning early in 1941, the still-neutral United States (framing it as “a European matter”) granted lend-lease aid to Britain. The nature of the war changed with the German invasion of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) in June 1941 and the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in December 1941. Churchill then forged the “Grand Alliance” with Soviet leader Joseph Stalin and U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt against Germany, Italy and Japan. In the initial Japanese offensive much of the British Empire in southeast Asia was overrun, but late in 1942 the tide turned. The British contribution included the Battle of the North Atlantic against the German submarine menace and the campaign led by General Bernard Montgomery against the German army in North Africa. Churchill corresponded continually and met often with Roosevelt, and when Eisenhower was chosen as the Supreme Allied Commander, he was given headquarters in the Salisbury Cathedral. British forces joined American in the 1943 invasion of Sicily and Italy, the invasion of France in 1944 (D-Day) and the ultimate defeat of the Axis powers in 1945.

E. Post World War II (1945 - 1953)

The general election of 1945 gave the Labour Party (for the first time) a majority of the popular vote and an overwhelming parliamentary majority. The result was that Churchill was ousted. The hope was that the party would bring relief to the war-time austerity and foster prosperity. During the years that followed, the Labour Party sought to build a socialist Britain, bring relief to the common person, dismantle the empire and respond to a cold war with the USSR. The Bank of England, the coal industry, gas and electricity, the railroads and most airlines were nationalized. The national debt had tripled, and for the first time since the 18th century, Britain had become a debtor nation. With the end of U.S. lend-lease aid in 1945, the British import bill rose abruptly long before military demobilization and reconversion to peacetime industry had been accomplished. Wartime regulations, therefore, were maintained; food rationing in 1946 and 1947 was more restrictive than during the war and then continued until 1954!

Postwar Germany was divided into occupation zones among the USSR, the United States, the UK, and France. Efforts to reach agreement on a peace treaty with Germany, however, broke down as it became clear that the USSR was converting all of Eastern Europe into a Soviet sphere. The UK, assisted by the U.S.-sponsored Marshall Plan (1948-1952), joined other Western powers in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in 1949 in order to counter the Soviet threat. The UK government felt less able, however, to play an independent role in world affairs. The Labour government granted independence to India and Pakistan in 1947 and to Burma (now known as

Myanmar) and Ceylon (now Sri Lanka) in 1948. It also relinquished its Palestinian mandate in 1948. This prompted the creation of the modern State of Israel and the subsequent First Arab-Israeli War.

F. New (or Second) Elizabethan Era (1952-2022)

Queen Elizabeth II (1952-2022) (daughter of George VI) came to the throne in 1952. Britain was still recovering from WWII, and memories of her staying in London during the War gave her a warm reception as a queen “of the people.” Her simplified coronation was televised. She addressed the public directly by radio, and commoners were invited into the palace for audiences with the queen and royal family. She also embarked on extensive “goodwill” tours of foreign countries.

Most of the British colonies were granted independence. During her reign there was a shift from the British Empire (politically controlled) to the British Commonwealth (trade and commerce based). Although technically she held governmental power, the monarchy was largely symbolic as she relinquished most governing power to Parliament. The British monarch is the head of state but not the head of government.

Other events in Britain during her reign include many years of Conservative Prime Ministers (1951-64, 1970-74, 1979-97, 2010-19), , the “permissive society” in the 1960s, “The Troubles” in Ireland (Southern Ireland and the IRA seeking to unite all of Ireland as part of The Republic of Ireland), economic woes in the 1970s (which led to the decline of heavy industry in northern England, such as the collapse of the steel industry in Sheffield), the Thatcher Decade (Conservative), eras under John Major (Conservative), Tony Blair (Labour), Gordon Brown (Labour), David Cameron (Conservative), Theresa May (Conservative Party) and Boris Johnson. The United Kingdom also has been involved extensively in the War on Terror across the Middle East and has remained a steady ally of the United States.

Elizabeth remained a popular queen during her reign as she stayed connected to the people, exemplified restraint, compassion and duty and epitomized British character. In 1977 her Silver Jubilee was celebrated with great enthusiasm, as were her Golden (2002), Diamond (2012) and Platinum (2022) Jubilees. She gracefully negotiated the Royal Family through many national and international changes, shifting attitudes toward the royal family and many public events, including the wedding of Prince Charles and Princess Diana, the birth and raising of their children, their divorce, Di’s death, Charles’ marriage to Camilla, the royal marriages of Prince William and Kate (Duke & Duchess of Canterbury, now Prince and Princess of Wales) in 2011 and Prince Harry and Meghan in 2018, Queen Elizabeth II’s Diamond Jubilee (60 years of rule) in 2012, London hosting the summer Olympics in 2012, the birth of Prince George to William and Kate in 2013, and the celebration of her Platinum Jubilee (70 years of rule) in 2022. She became the longest reigning British monarch in history and the second-longest reigning monarch in history (second only to France’s King Louis XIV, “The Sun King”).

G. The Carolean Era (2022 - present)

King Charles III (2022) (son of Elizabeth II) began ruling in 2022. Although Charles’ popularity plummeted after his separation and divorce from the wildly loved Princess Di, he slowly regained favor by his commitment to Camilla, his extensive involvement in humanitarian and environmental causes, his restrained lifestyle and the belief that since his mother reigned for so long, his reign would likely be short! Attention has shifted to his son, William, wife Kate and growing family. William is widely liked and is seen as helping to shift the royal family to a more relatable and contemporary image. Interestingly, the drama with Prince Harry and family is actually followed more closely in America than Britain!

The British Methodist Church has experienced steady decline over the past decades, and there are current discussions about merging back into the Anglican Church.

A QUICK GUIDE TO BRITISH CHURCH ARCHITECTURE

Most of the great churches and cathedrals took hundreds of years to build. Over this time of construction, building styles changed. The architects took pride in developing and using the latest stylistic and technical advances, and often they incorporated the new styles onto the older style already present in the completed part of the structure. Further, as additions and repairs were made, sometimes they were done in different styles as well. Thus, in many great churches and cathedrals, different styles can be detected all within the same structure. Canterbury Cathedral is a perfect example of this. Part of the fun of church/cathedral exploring is identifying the dominant style of different churches and cathedrals as well as the different styles within each structure

There are two basic church plans: 1) Centralized, with a circular layout and a round sanctuary, and 2) Basilica, with a layout in the form of a Latin cross.

1. Roman: AD 100 – 450

Example: Circular: Church of the Holy Sepulchre in Jerusalem.

Basilica: Old St. Peter's in Rome.

These are churches built after Roman Emperor Constantine became a Christian. Circular are characterized by massive walls several feet thick; Roman arches, vaults and domes; and tiny windows. Basilicas have long naves with a transept crossing the nave, giving the floor plan a shape of a cross. As Christianity did not reach England until after this period, no Roman churches can be found in England.

2. Byzantine AD 450 – Present

In the East (Greece, Turkey, Russia, etc.) the Circular style with domes had remained the preferred style. A popular variation was to construct five domes in the form of a cross. Perhaps the most famous example of this is the Church of the Hagia Sophia in Constantinople (present-day Istanbul). Again, no historic examples are found in Britain.

3. ANGLO-SAXON: AD 450 – 1066

These were small churches built in the basilica plan, with very thick walls and tiny windows. Yet unlike the Roman style, square edges were preferred over arches. Very few examples remain, as most churches were later remodeled and expanded.

4. NORMAN (Called Romanesque in France): AD 1066 – 1200

Example: Durham Cathedral

This style is quickly identified by the use of the rounded arch, which was developed and used extensively by the Romans. This style made possible the building of huge churches. Yet walls remained very thick and massive round columns held up the roof. Windows were small. This style can be characterized as massive, heavy and dark.

5. GOTHIC: AD 1200 – 1550

With the invention of the pointed arch and external supports (buttresses), church sizes were able to reach dazzling and heretofore unimaginable proportions. Vast open spaces were now possible, and huge stained glass windows were implemented. This style can be characterized as light, airy and spacious.

Gothic architecture was “fine tuned” over the years, and thus can be broken down into three distinct stages in England.

A. Early English: AD 1200 – 1300

Example: Salisbury Cathedral, Westminster Abbey & York Minster transepts

Characterized by long, stepped windows and small, thin columns.

B. Decorated Gothic: AD 1250 – 1400

Example: York nave, west front and chapter house; the chapter house of Salisbury

Characterized by fine window tracery as well as windows sub-divided by mullions (vertical stone bars) into narrow glazed openings. At the place where the arch begins to curve upward to a point, the mullions are twisted into graceful circles and other beautiful patterns to form tracery.

C. Perpendicular Gothic: AD 1350 – 1550

Example: Henry VII’s Chapel at Westminster Abbey, the choir at Christ Church in Oxford, Bath Abbey.

Characterized by rectangular windows without much tracery. Stained glass with pictures on it became fashionable, so panes of glass were kept free of tracery in order to have paintings on them. Vaultings on the ceilings became even more elaborate in fan vaulting.

6. English Renaissance: 17th Century

Example: St. Paul’s Cathedral in London

Architectural advances made possible the adapting of the Roman styles of antiquity on a larger scale. Domes, rounded arches, square windows, vaulting and stately columns all replaced familiar Gothic design. St. Paul’s Cathedral in London, built in this style, is one of the largest and greatest buildings in the world.

7. Baroque and Rococo: 17th- 19th Centuries:

Example: St. Peter’s Basilica, The Vatican

Embellishing and decorating the Renaissance architecture led to the development of first the baroque and then even more lavish rococo styles. This style became popular the Continent (in Italy, France and southern Germany) although it does appear occasionally in Great Britain. Parts of St. Paul’s Cathedral, for example, are in the Baroque style.

8. Modern: 20th Century

Example: The New Coventry Cathedral

Over the last two hundred years, churches have been built in every style imaginable, although in Britain Gothic still remains a favorite.