South Valley University
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مقرر الفرقة الثانية قسم اللغة الإنجليزية

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The Stuarts

Union of Scottish and English Crowns

The Stuarts were the first kings of the United Kingdom.

Scotland provided England with a new line of kings, the Stuarts. They were to bring disaster to the nation for, coming from Scotland where royal power had not been restricted by Parliament, they had no understanding of the democratic ways that had developed in England.

- James I 1603 - 1625
- Charles I 1625 - 1649
- Charles II 1660 - 1685
- James II 1685 - 1688
- William III 1688 - 1702 and Queen Mary II 1688 - 1694
- Queen Anne 1702 – 1714

James I 1603 - 1625

- **Age** 36-59
- **Great-great-grandson of** Henry VII
- **Born**: 19 June1566 at Edinburgh Castle, Scotland
- **Parents**: Mary, Queen of Scots, and Henry Stewart, Lord Darnley
- **Ascended to the throne:** 24 March 1603 aged 36 years
- **Crowned:** 25 July 1603 at Westminster Abbey, also as James VI of Scotland at Stirling Castle
- **Married:** Anne, Daughter of Frederick II of Denmark and Norway

- **Children:** Three sons and five daughters, of whom three survived infancy; Henry, Elizabeth and Charles
- **Died**: 27 March 1625 at Theobalds Park, Hertfordshire, aged 58 years
- **Buried at**: Westminster
- **Succeeded by**: his son Charles

King of England from 1603 and Scotland from 1567. When James became King of England, he was already a king - King James VI of Scotland. He was the first monarch to rule both countries and the first to call himself 'King of Great Britain'. However it was not until 1707 that an act of Parliament formally brought the two countries together. James had been King of Scotland for twenty-nine years when he acceded to the English throne.

Charles I 1625 - 1649

- **Age** 24-49
- **Born:** 19 November 1600 at Dunfermline Palace, Scotland
- **Parents:** James I (VI of Scots) and Anne of Denmark
- **Ascended to the throne:** March 27, 1625 aged 24 years
- **Crowned:** 2 February 1626 at Westminster Abbey
- **Married:** Henrietta Maria, Daughter of Henri IV of France
- **Children:** Four sons and five daughters
- **Died:** 30 January 1649 at Whitehall, London (executed), aged 48 years
- **Buried at:** Windsor

- **Succeeded by:** his son Charles II

Charles became heir to the throne on the death of his elder brother Henry in 1612. Charles tried to rule without Parliament. Fought against the Parliament leading to civil war. In the Civil War between his party and Parliament, he was captured and was executed in 1649.

The English Civil War (1642 - 51)

The war began in 1642 when, after seeing his rights as king slashed by Parliament, Charles miscalculated by rushing into the Palace of Westminster with several hundred soldiers to arrest five Members of Parliament and a peer he accused of treason. They all escaped, but London was scandalized and the king was forced to flee the city. The war between the Roundheads (supporters of parliament) and the Cavaliers (supporters of the King) began.

The Civil War led to the trial and execution of Charles I, the exile of his son Charles II, and the replacement of the English monarchy with first the Commonwealth of England (1649–1653) and then with a Protectorate (1653–1659), under the personal rule of Oliver Cromwell, the Lord Protector.

England became a Republic for eleven years from 1649 - 1660. At first England was ruled by Parliament, but in 1653, Oliver Cromwell, commander of the army, became Lord Protector of England. He held his post until his death in 1658 (when his son briefly took over). Cromwell did not want to be king and refused the crown when it was offered to him.

- The Commonwealth - declared 19 May 1649
- Oliver Cromwell (1653-58)
- Richard Cromwell (1658-59)

➔ *The Stuarts line Restored (The Restoration)*

Charles II 1660 – 1685

- **Age** 30-55
- **Born:** 29 May 1630 at St. James Palace
- **Parents:** Charles I and Henrietta Maria
- **Ascended to the throne:** 29 May 1660 aged 30 years
- **Crowned**: 23 April 1661 at Westminster Abbey, and at Scone as King of Scots, 1 January 1651, aged 20
- **Married:** Catherine of Braganza
- **Children:** Three children who died in infancy, and about 17 illegitimate children by at least 8 different mistresses
- **Died:** 6 February 1685 at Whitehall Palace, London, aged 54 years
- **Buried at:** Westminster
- **Succeeded by:** his brother James II

Charles was crowned King of Scotland in 1651. When Richard Cromwell lost the confidence of Parliament and abdicated, Charles returned to London in time for his thirtieth birthday and to rule Great Britain (Scotland, England and Wales).

Charles was called the Merry Monarch. In his reign occurred the Plague, The Fire of London, and the Dutch Wars. Having suffered a

stroke, Charles converted to Catholicism on his death-bed and passed away a few hours later.

James II 1685 - 1688

- **Age** 51-55
- **Younger brother of Charles II**
- **Born:** 14 October 1633 at St. James Palace
- **Parents:** Charles I and Henrietta Maria
- **Ascended to the throne:** February 6, 1685 aged 51 years
- **Crowned:** 23 April 1685 at Westminster Abbey
- **Married:** (1) Anne Hyde, (2) Mary, Daughter of Duke of Modena
- **Children:** Eight by his first wife Anne, of whom only Mary and Anne survived, and Five by his 2nd wife Mary of whom only a son James (Old Pretender) and Louise Maria survived.
- **Died:** 6 September 1701 at St Germain-en-Laye, France, aged 67 years.
- **Buried at:** Chateau de Saint Germain-en-Laye, Near Paris,
- **Succeeded by:** his daughter Mary and son-in-law William of Orange

King of England and Scotland (as James VII) from 1685. James was 15 when his father was executed. He escaped to France in 1648, disguised as a girl. As his brother, Charles II, had no children James succeeded him.

Whilst king, James tried to force people to follow his Roman Catholic faith. He was very unpopular because of his persecution of the Protestants, and he was hated by the people. He was forced to give up

the crown in the **Glorious Revolution** of 1688. Parliament asked William of Orange, who was married to James' daughter Mary, to take the throne. She was a Protestant.

William III 1688 - 1702 and Queen Mary II 1688 – 1694

- **Age:**
  William 39-52
  Mary 27-32,
- **Born:**
  William: The Hague, Netherlands;
  Mary: St James Palace, London
  Parents:
  William: William II of Orange and Mary Stuart;
  Mary: James II and Anne Hyde
- **Ascended to the throne:** 13 February 1689
- **Crowned:** 11 April 1689 at Westminster Abbey, when William was 38 and Mary was 26
- **Married:** William married Mary, daughter of James II
- **Children:** Three stillborn
- **Died:** 8 March 1702 at Kensington Palace (William), aged 51 years.
  Mary died 1694,
- **Buried at:** Westminster (both)
- **Succeeded by:** Mary's sister Anne

Mary, daughter of James II and her Dutch husband were invited to be King and Queen following James abdication. King of Great Britain and Ireland from 1688, the son of William II of Orange and Mary, daughter

of Charles I. He was offered the English crown by the parliamentary opposition to James II. He invaded England in 1688 and in 1689 became joint sovereign with his wife, Mary II.

Queen Anne 1702 - 1714

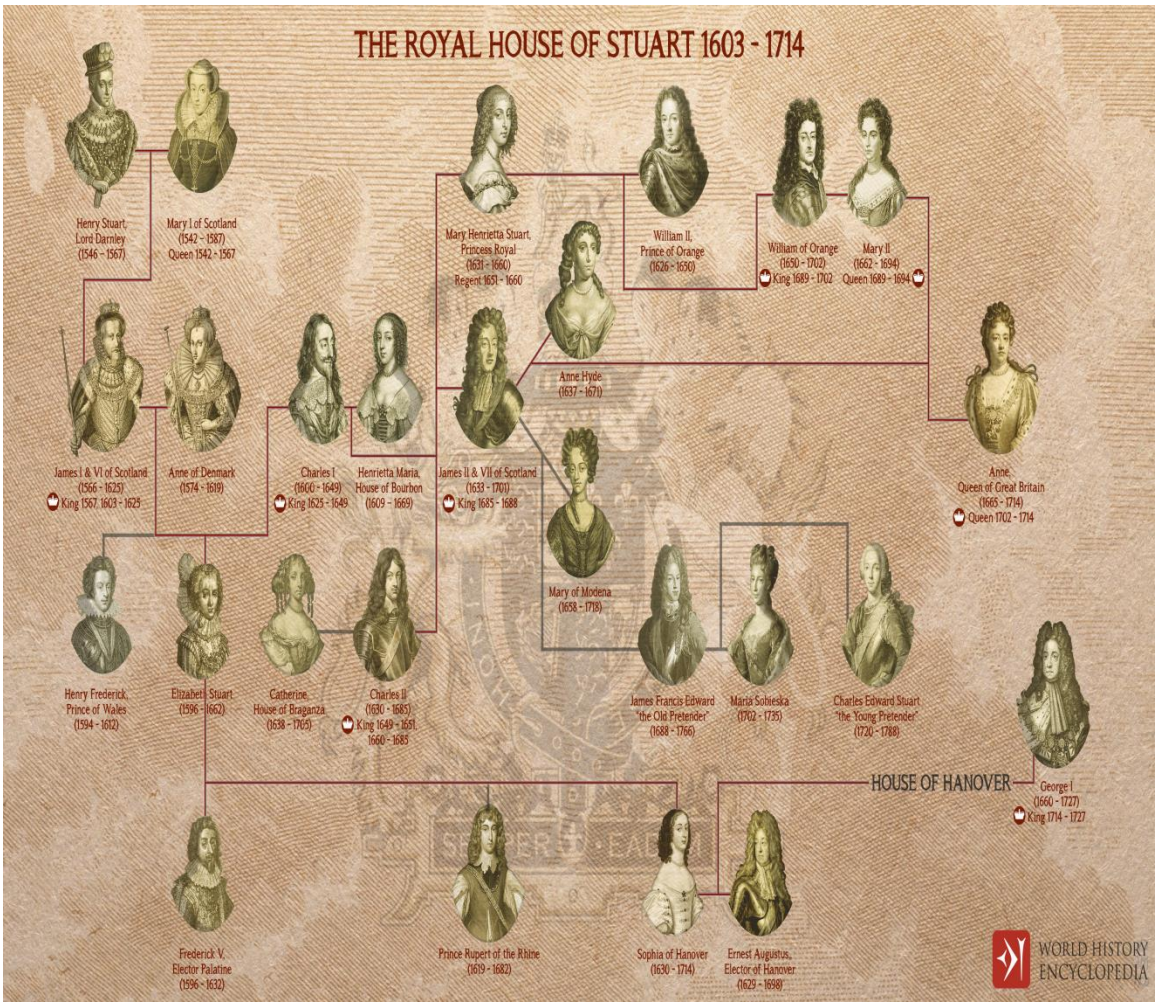
- **Age** 37-49
- **Sister of** Mary II
- **Second daughter of** James II
- **Born**: February 6, 1665 at St. James Palace, London
- **Parents**: James II and Anne Hyde
- **Ascended to the throne**: March 8, 1702 aged 37 years
- **Crowned:** April 23, 1702 at Westminster Abbey
- **Married**: George, son of Frederick III of Denmark
- **Children:** Eighteen, including miscarriages and still-born, of whom only one William survived to age of 12
- **Died:** August 1, 1714 at Kensington Palace , aged 49 years
- **Buried at:** Westminster
- **Succeeded by:** her 3rd cousin George of Hanover

Queen of Great Britain and Ireland 1702–14. Her nickname was Brandy Nan because of her alleged taste for fine French brandy. In 1707 Act of Union between Scotland and England was declared and formed Great Britain.

All of her 18 children died. Anne, the last Stuart monarch, died at Kensington Palace in London aged 49. As none of her children survived her, under the terms of the Act of Succession of 1701 she

was succeeded by George, Elector of Hanover, who was proclaimed as George I. He was the first of the Hanoverian monarchs.

After Anne's death the succession went to the nearest Protestant relative of the Stuart line. This was George of Hanover, grandson of James I.



Chapter 1

The Reign of King James I

(The Jacobean Era)

James I of England (r. 1603-1625), who was also James VI of Scotland (r. 1567-1625), was the son of Mary, Queen of Scots, and he unified the thrones of Scotland and England following the death of Queen Elizabeth I of England (r. 1558-1603) who left no heir. For the first time, there was a single monarch for England, Scotland and Ireland.

The king's eventful reign witnessed the adoption of the Union Jack flag in 1606, the failed Gunpowder Plot of 1605, publication of the Authorized Version of the Bible in 1611, and the voyage of the Mayflower to North America in 1620. James was convinced of his divine right to absolute power and this, along with his high-spending, brought him into frequent conflict with the English Parliament. A member of the royal house of Stuart, James would reign until his death in 1625; he was succeeded by his son Charles I of England (r. 1625-1649).

➔Family & Reign in Scotland

James was born in Edinburgh Castle on 19 June 1566; his father was Henry Stewart, Lord Darnley (1545-1567), and his mother was Mary, Queen of Scots (r. 1542-1567).

Mary's reign was far from smooth with scandals from two marriages and two murder plots, including one which led to the death of Lord Darnley in February 1567. Mary was in no way helped by her steadfast promotion of Catholicism in a kingdom which had shifted markedly towards Protestantism. In short, Mary was obliged to abdicate on 24 July 1567 in favor of her son, who became James VI of Scotland. James was crowned on 29 July 1567 in the church of the Holy Rude in Stirling. James was barely one year old, and so, given a Protestant education, he could be easily manipulated by the barons who ruled in his name, a situation which saw four successive regents before James reached adulthood.

In 1578, the government led by the regent the Earl of Morton (in office since 1572) was dissolved and James began to rule in his own right, at least nominally since he was still only 12 years old. Unfortunately, this did not last long and James Stewart, the Earl of Moray (l. 1531-1570) took over the kingdom as regent. The young king became a pawn in the religious battleground of Britain where French Catholic monarchs supported Catholics in Scotland, and England's Protestant queen, Elizabeth I, supported followers of her faith across the border. James was even abducted by Protestant English lords in August 1582, an event known as

the Raid of Ruthven after its ringleader William Ruthven, Earl of Gowrie. In the process, the Earl of Moray was driven out of Scotland. The takeover was short-lived, though, and the king was released after 10 months, and the Earl of Moray was back in power again from June 1583. Ruthven was hanged. Meanwhile, the English Protestant conspirators did not give up, and supported by an ever-more Protestant population, by October 1585 the Catholic cause was finally dead in Scotland. A peace treaty, the Treaty of Berwick, was signed between England and Scotland in July 1586. James himself seems to have been keen for peace and sided with neither religious side.

On 23 November 1589, James married Anne of Denmark (b. 1574), the daughter of Frederick II of Denmark and Norway (r. 1559-1588). This union was a good way to strengthen the important commercial ties between Scotland and the Baltic states. Anne died in March 1619, but the couple had seven children, only three of whom survived infancy: Henry (b. 1594), Elizabeth (b. 1596), and Charles (b. 1600). Unfortunately, Henry died of typhoid fever in 1612; he was only 18 and so the less-promising Charles became heir to the throne. Elizabeth, meanwhile, went on to marry the King of Bohemia, and her grandson would rule England

as George I of England (r. 1714-1727), the first of the Hanoverian Dynasty.

James' reign in Scotland settled down as he pursued a middle way and tried to keep Catholics and Protestants content and free from persecution. Significantly for later events, the king wrote his *The True* Law *of Free Monarchies* (1598) and *Basilikon Doron* (1599), both of which strongly supported the idea of the divine right of kings - that monarchs were only accountable to God and could not be removed from office. James was a keen scholar and writer, and he also worked on poems, ecclesiastical commentaries, a translation of the Book of Psalms, and treatises against witchcraft and smoking.

Over the 1590s, there were squabbles with the king's most powerful nobles, but no significant challenge came to his rule, and 1598 finally saw the nobility acquiesce to royal justice in matters of dispute between themselves. The one bone of contention remained the cost and increasing debt of the royal purse, but this was about to be solved by James shifting his entire court to London.

➔Succession to the English Crown

Mary, Queen of Scots had fled Scotland for England and protection from her cousin Elizabeth I. The English queen,

though, did not trust her cousin and, as it turned out, was perhaps justified as during her 19-year confinement in various English country houses, Mary was found guilty of plotting treason against Elizabeth and conspiring with the Spanish Crown. Mary was executed on 8 February 1587. James made a formal complaint to Elizabeth concerning the death of his mother but did no more than that, and his attempts to have himself nominated as Elizabeth's heir came to nothing. Given a handsome annual payoff and content enough to remain king and at peace with England, James bided his time and pursued his great passion for hunting. Perhaps crucially, England would presently have its hands full with a full-on Spanish invasion: the Spanish Armada fleet of 1588.

Elizabeth's navy saw off the Spanish Armada, and her throne remained secure. However, with no children and not having nominated an heir, when Elizabeth died on 24 March 1603, a succession crisis began. As her closest relative, James was invited to become the next king of England as James I. He did have English royal blood in his veins, for James was the great-great-grandson of Henry VII of England (r. 1485-1509). Consequently, it was the end of the House of Tudor and the beginning of the House of Stuart

in England (James' mother Mary had changed the spelling from Stewart). There seems to have been very little opposition to James as first choice, and it may be that Elizabeth nominated him as her heir on her deathbed, although scholars do not agree on this point. Certainly, Elizabeth’s most important councilors supported James.

James was crowned the King of England and Ireland on 25 July 1603 at Westminster Abbey, he was, then, the first monarch to rule over England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland together. Following a proclamation on 20 October, James styled himself as the ‘King of Great Britain’. As a final touch indicating a new order had begun, James moved his mother's remains from Peterborough to a magnificent new tomb in Westminster Abbey. He now settled down to his new court in England, and he would only once, in 1617, ever return to Scotland. The governing institutions north of the border remained as they were before, and James governed through the Privy Council and Scottish Parliament via correspondence, as he put it himself, he governed by the pen, not the sword.

There seems to have been no objection from the ordinary people of England to the change of ruling dynasty, and the new king had even been cheered in his procession

to London. One small group of English nobles did take exception, though. This group of rebels was led by Sir Walter Raleigh (c. 1552-1618) and Lord Cobham, and their aim was to put James' cousin Lady Arabella Stuart on the throne. The ringleaders were arrested and the plot came to nothing.

➔European Affairs

The accession of a Scottish king finally ended the cross-border raiding that had been going on for centuries between northern England and southern Scotland. James' reign also saw the end of the costly and unpopular war with Spain that had blighted Elizabeth's reign. A peace treaty was signed by both countries in London on 18 August 1604. Relations with France were peaceful, but there was not much respect for the uncouth Scottish monarch. Henry IV of France (r. 1589-1610) once described James as "the wisest fool in Christendom" (Philips, 140) over the seeming paradox of a king with no tact or manners who still seemed to manage his own position as monarch well enough. James's son Charles at least gained greater favour in French eyes, and a marriage was arranged for him in 1624 to Henrietta Maria, the young sister of the new king, Louis XIII of France (1610-1643). In Ireland, meanwhile, Protestants were dispatched to set up 'colonies' in what was a catholic country, particularly

in the north of the island but not only. The process of ‘plantation’ as it became known, began with the king’s approval in 1608, saw the confiscation of the estates of Catholic landowners, and caused untold and lasting resentment between England and Ireland.

➔ **Parliament**

James' reign in England was typified by a lack of formality in terms of court etiquette and protocol, something English nobles found odd. For example, any visitor could see the king at mealtimes, not a privilege ever given by his Tudor predecessors. The king’s Scottish speech often caused confusion, and he was also deemed a little uncouth, although his manners were likely not as bad as later writers have sometimes described them. The king has been described as having weak legs, an odd walk, and a tendency to slobber because of a large or loose tongue. All of these characteristics may point to a mild case of cerebral palsy.

Other habits which did not endear him to his English nobles were James’ love of spending and an undisguised pursuit of handsome young men who then gained undue power at court. The prime example of such a favorite is George Villiers, a very minor noble whom James made the Earl of Buckingham in 1617 (later upgraded to Marquis and

then Duke) and who very often controlled who had access to the king in his final decade of rule.

Despite the culture shock, James' reign was at least moderate in terms of dealing with the mixed religious factions in his kingdom of Protestants, Puritans, Catholics, and those who cared for none of these. The king's real problem was politics. James was utterly convinced of his divine right to rule his kingdom with absolute authority, and this position brought him into frequent conflict with the English Parliament, even if he did in practice sometimes display a sense of compromise with his nobles. James' Tudor predecessors had well understood the need to accommodate powerful nobles through Parliament, but James, used to a weaker commons institution in Scotland, did not perhaps grasp the differences in the two systems of government in Scotland and England. Matters of finance were a particular cause of trouble, with James dissolving a Parliament in 1611 and another in 1621. The Parliament of 1614 could not break an impasse over money and passed no legislation at all. In addition, the king's attempt to politically unify Scotland and England was rejected by Parliament, although the Union Jack flag, which combined the flags of the two nations, was adopted by ships from 12

April 1606. There was, too, prolonged wrangling over the king's need to raise funds for his lavish lifestyle as raising taxes was the domain of Parliament.

➔The Gunpowder Plot

Although Parliament and the king rarely saw eye-to-eye, there was one group of conspirators that did not like either. Early on in his reign, sometime in 1605, a group of Catholic rebels, angered by a new wave of laws in the Anglican Church against practicing Catholics, decided to take drastic measures. The conspirators, led by Sir Robert Catesby, were certainly ambitious and they began tunneling under Westminster Palace where Parliament met. This tunnel was abandoned when the conspirators realized it was easy enough to rent an empty chamber, actually a coal cellar, under that part of the building they required. In this chamber, they deposited a massive quantity of gunpowder with the express intention of blowing up the building when the king opened Parliament on 5 November. All the most powerful nobles would be present, and their deaths would have caused chaos in England, a situation pro-Catholic forces might then exploit to their advantage.

Fortunately, the plot was discovered before it was too late after one of the conspirators, one Francis Tresham, sent

an anonymous letter to his brother-in-law, Lord Mounteagle, who would have been present on the fateful day and who was a noted Catholic peer; Mounteagle duly passed on news of the plot, and the king was eventually informed. When the chamber below the Palace was investigated at midnight on the 4th of November, a man was apprehended who had been guarding 35 barrels of gunpowder, one Guy Fawkes. Fawkes was a Catholic soldier of fortune and explosives expert who had recently come to England. Fawkes was taken to the Tower of London where, after a good deal of torture, he revealed the names of the conspirators who were ultimately hanged, drawn, and quartered, the terrible punishment reserved for traitors.

To celebrate the foiling of what became known as the Gunpowder Plot, the authorities encouraged commoners to light bonfires on the evening of the 5th of November, and this they did, starting a tradition which continues to this day.

- ***List of Important Facts***

1. The Gunpowder Plot is the name of a foiled effort in England in 1605 by Catholic rebels to kill the non-Catholic king and many members of parliament by blowing up the House of Lords.

2. The plot was scheduled to take place on the opening day of the House of Lords, ensuring the presence of the king and most if not all of the members of Parliament.

3. The hostility and bitter history between the Catholics and the Church of England protestants dates back to the reign of Henry VIII, who instituted the legality of divorce by separating from the Catholic church.

4. The leader of the rebels was Robert Catesby, a Catholic whose father had been imprisoned for his beliefs. After the plot and explosives were discovered, Catesby was shot and killed, holding a picture of the Virgin Mary.

5. The most famous of the rebels was Guy Fawkes, a Catholic convert, mercenary and explosives expert, who was in charge of – and captured with – the gunpowder. After being tortured, Fawkes gave up the plot and the names of his co-conspirators.

6. Fawkes avoided being hanged, drawn and quartered by leaping from the scaffolding leading up to the gallows, breaking his neck and dying.

7. 36 barrels of gunpowder were kept in the cellar right below parliament while opening day kept being postponed.

8. An anonymous letter was sent to Lord Monteagle warning of the impending attack.

9. It took two searches of the cellar to discover the gunpowder.

10. Guy Fawkes Day is celebrated in England every year on November 5 all across England with bonfires, fireworks and hanging effigies of Fawkes.

➔ The Bible, Americas, & Other Events

James' eventful reign continued, and 1611 saw the publication of the first Authorized Version of the Bible, thereafter known as the King James Version or the Authorized Version because the king had permitted the massive undertaking. This version was a product of a conference involving Anglicans and Puritans at Hampton Court in 1605, held to decide on a definitive version of the sacred book. At that time, there were three major existing versions: the 1539 Great Bible of William Tyndale, the 1560 Geneva Bible, and the 1572 Bishop's Bible. James' version, compiled by a team of 47 scholars, translators, and bishops over seven years, proved to be an enduring one and became the standard interpretation for centuries thereafter in English-speaking countries.

In 1606, the king granted a royal charter to found colonies on the east coast of North America. In May 1607, Jamestown, named after the king, was founded in

Virginia, and in 1616, Pocahontas (l. c. 1596-1617), famed daughter of Chief Powhatan (1547 - c. 1618) travelled to England and met James I at court. In 1620 the *Mayflower* sailed for North America with the pilgrim Puritan colonists who established the Plymouth Colony. Oddly, the *Mayflower* had received royal backing despite James' stance against religious freedoms that caused the pilgrims to leave in the first place. The king had famously stated that his policy towards anyone not obeying standard church practices would be harsh: "I shall make them conform or I will carry them out of the land or else do worse" (Philips, 137). In 1624, Virginia became the King's Royal Colony.

The flourishing of the arts continued as they had under Elizabeth I. James honored William Shakespeare's acting company by granting them the title of the 'King's Men', and a significant number of the famous playwright's works like *King Lear*, Macbeth, and *The Tempest*, were performed at the royal court. In another event with long-lasting repercussions, the game of golf was invented.

➔ Death & Successor

James suffered various ailments in his later years, including arthritis, kidney problems, and gout. The king died,

probably of a stroke, at the age of 58 on 27 March 1625 at Theobalds Park in Hertfordshire. The king was buried in Westminster Abbey alongside his Tudor predecessor Henry VII. James was succeeded by his surviving eldest son Charles who would reign until 1649. Unfortunately for everyone, including himself, Charles was even less accommodating to his nobles and political institutions than his father had been, and a crisis of the monarchy developed into a full-blown civil war. Charles was executed in 1649 and replaced by a republican system headed by Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658). The monarchy was eventually restored in 1660 when Charles' son became Charles II of England (r. 1660–1685). The Stuarts would continue to rule until 1714.

➔ **Quotes:**

- 'Kings are justly called gods for they exercise a manner or resemblance of divine power upon earth'

Timeline for King James I

Year	Event
1603	James VI of Scotland becomes King James I of England, Scotland, and Ireland after the death of Elizabeth I uniting the thrones of Scotland and England.
1603	The Millenary Petition is presented to James I. It expresses Puritan desires for reforms to the Church of England.

Year	Event
1603	Plot against James to set his cousin Arabella Stuart on the throne. Sir Walter Raleigh is implicated and imprisoned.
1604	The Somerset House Peace Conference results in peace between England and Spain.
1604	The Hampton Court Conference fails to settle the doctrinal differences between the Anglican Church and its Puritan critics.
1604	James proclaims that smoking is harmful to the lungs and imposes a tax on tobacco
1605	Guy Fawkes and other Catholic dissidents attempt to blow up King and Parliament in The Gunpowder Plot. They are betrayed and arrested.
1606	The Gunpowder plotters are executed. 120 colonists sail for America.
1607	The Earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel end their rebellion against English rule of Ireland and flee to Europe; Ulster is colonized by Protestant settlers from Scotland and England.
1607	The English Parliament rejects Union with Scotland.
1607	Common citizenship of English and Scottish persons is granted to those born after the accession of James VI of Scotland to the English throne.
1607	Jamestown found in America by the Virginia company
1609	Scottish and English Protestants are encouraged to settle in Ulster
1609	Shakespeare completes the Sonnets.
1611	The King James Authorized Version of the Bible is published.
1611	Dissolution of the first Parliament of James I.
1611	Arabella Stuart secretly marries William Seymour. When James finds out Seymour is imprisoned but escapes with Arabella. They are captured on the way to France and imprisoned in the Tower of London. Arabella starves herself to death there in 1615.
1612	Henry, Prince of Wales, dies of typhoid. His younger brother, Charles, becomes heir to the throne.
1612	Heretics are burned at the stake for the last time in England.
1613	James' daughter Elizabeth marries Frederick V, Elector of Palatine. Their descendants in House of Hanover will eventually inherit the British Throne.
1613	The Globe Theatre in London burns during a performance of Henry VIII
1614	Second Parliament of James I meets.

Year	Event
1614	Scottish mathematician John Napier publishes his theory of logarithms simplifying calculations for navigators.
1615	George Villiers becomes James's favorite.
1616	Playwright William Shakespeare dies.
1616	Raleigh is released from prison to lead an expedition to Guiana in search of El Dorado
1617	George Villiers becomes the Earl of Buckingham.
1618	Raleigh fails in his expedition and on his return is executed for alleged treason at Westminster.
1620	The Pilgrim Fathers set sail for America in the Mayflower. They land at Cape Cod and found New Plymouth.
1625	Death of James I, aged 58.

Chapter 2

The Reign of King Charles I

(The Caroline Era)

Charles I of England (r. 1625-1649) was a Stuart king who, like his father James I of England (r. 1603-1625), viewed himself as a monarch with absolute power and a divine right to rule. His lack of compromise with Parliament led to the English Civil Wars (1642-51), his execution, and the abolition of the monarchy in 1649.

King Charles grew tired of wrangles with Parliament over money and so decided to do without that institution for eleven years. Then between 1640 and 1642, Charles was obliged to call Parliament to raise cash for his campaigns against a Scottish army, which had occupied northern England, and a full-blown rebellion in Ireland, both fuelled by religious differences and the king's high-handed policies. Parliament attempted to guarantee its own future, and when the king broke his promises of reform, war broke out. The English Civil War was largely fought between 'Roundheads' (Parliamentarians) and 'Cavaliers' (Royalists) in over 600 battles and sieges in England alone. Ultimately, the professional New Model Army won the day for Parliament and Charles I was tried and found guilty of treason to his

own people and government. The king was executed on 30 January 1649. Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658) ruled the 'commonwealth' republic as Lord Protector, but his death was soon followed by the restoration of the monarchy in 1660. The new king was Charles' son, Charles II of England (r. 1660–1685).

➔ **Family & Early Life**

Charles was born on 19 November 1600 in Dunfermline Palace, Scotland. His father was James I of England (who was also James VI of Scotland, r. 1567-1625), and his mother was Anne of Denmark (l. 1574-1619), the daughter of Frederick II of Denmark and Norway (r. 1559-1588). Charles' grandmother was Mary, Queen of Scots (r. 1542-1567). James I was of the royal Stuart line, and he had unified the thrones of Scotland and England after Elizabeth I of England (r. 1558-1603) left no heir. Charles was the second son of King James, but his elder brother Henry died of typhoid fever in 1612 and so he became the heir apparent. Charles' elder sister Elizabeth (b. 1596) married the King of Bohemia, and her grandson would rule England as George I of England (r. 1714-1727), the first of the Hanoverian Dynasty.

Charles did not enjoy robust health as a child, he was shy - perhaps because of his stammer, and he always came second-best when compared to his more favoured brother Henry. Reaching maturity, Charles spent a lot of time with King James' hated courtier George Villiers, the Duke of Buckingham. The duke was seen as a talentless social upstart who had enjoyed a meteoric rise only thanks to the king's infatuation with him.

In 1624 it was arranged for Charles to marry Henrietta Maria (1609-1669), the young sister of Louis XIII of France (1610-1643). The French royal obviously did not mind the small stature of her betrothed - a mere 1.6 meters tall (5ft 4 in) or his reputation for being rather stubborn, dull-witted, and a complete stranger to a sense of humor. The couple went on to have nine children, the two eldest sons being Charles (b. 1630) and James (b. 1633), both of whom would one day become king.

➔Succession

Charles inherited the crown when his father died of illness on 27 March 1625. He was now the king of England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland. James I had run into problems with Parliament over his high spending, and relations with the English nobility were not helped by the king's favouring

Scotsmen and ill-chosen advisors like Villiers. Charles proved to be even more sure of his divine right to rule than his father. That his troublesome reign was ill-fated was indicated by three odd occurrences at his coronation on 2 February 1626 in Westminster Abbey: the dove on his royal scepter snapped off, the gem in his coronation ring fell out, and there was an earthquake.

There were more concrete and disheartening episodes to follow such as bad military defeats to both the Spanish and French. An attack on Cadiz in mid-1626 was a humiliating disaster, and an attack on La Rochelle in June 1628 was equally unsuccessful. Both military defeats had been masterminded by the Duke of Buckingham, by now the singularly most hated individual in England. Villiers was killed by an assassin outside a public house in August 1628 much to Parliament's delight. Peace with France was signed in 1629 and with Spain in 1630.

Regarding more peaceful pursuits, Charles was a keen student of art and he bought a collection of 'cartoons' (drawings) by Raphael (1483-1520). The king appointed Anthony van Dyck (1599-1641) as his court artist from 1632, and a famous work he produced is the c. 1635 triple portrait with three different views of Charles (Queen's Drawing

Room, Windsor Castle). Other favored artists included Andrea Mantegna (c. 1431-1506), Titian (c. 1487-1576), and Peter Paul Rubens (1577-1640), as the king spent heavily on accumulating a formidable collection of paintings. Many of these works are now in the National Portrait Gallery in London. Charles' other cultural interests included chess, tennis, and hunting, as well as attending plays and masques.

➔ Clashes with Parliament

Charles' royal policies meant that he frequently clashed with Parliament over finances since that body was responsible for passing new tax laws and deciding matters of budget. Charles thought he could well do without a parliament and rule as an absolute monarch, like his counterpart in France, with a divine and unquestionable right to rule. Compromise and concession were not in the king's nature, and this deficiency, above all others, would be his undoing. The English king once stated:

Accordingly, Charles repeatedly dismissed and then recalled Parliament. Charles even attempted to bypass the institution altogether by acquiring money by other means. Cash was extracted from merchants and bankers, customs duties were increased, and archaic forest laws revived (even

in areas where the forests had long since disappeared) so that fines could be applied to fill the royal coffers. Charles also widened the Ship Money, a tax originally designed to fund the navy and applied only to coastal areas but now extracted from inland communities, too.

Aside from these new financial burdens, the king miscalculated badly when he thought that the English elite would give up their hard-won rights to participate in the governance of the country. As it happened, the king could not find sufficient funds from private sources, and in 1628 he was obliged to make concessions to Parliament such as only raising money via Acts of Parliament and not imprisoning his subjects without legal justification. Collectively, these new rights of Parliament were known as the Petition of Right.

However, Charles had a rethink and decided to dissolve Parliament in March 1629. For a few years, the king seemed to have been right in his claim that Parliament was unnecessary. The annual budgets were balanced and there was even a reduction in corruption within the government. Then in 1637 things began to go wrong, especially concerning his religious policy. Charles had appointed William Laud as the Archbishop of Canterbury, head of the Church of England, in 1633. Laud was detested by the

Puritans who remained a rich and powerful section of English society who had had a strong presence in Parliament. Laud further outraged the Puritans when he reintroduced certain Catholic practices into the Anglican Church. Laud also upset Scottish church leaders by trying to install bishops and by introducing a new prayer book in 1637. Far from being a problem of ecclesiastical debate, these issues boiled over onto the battlefield in what became known as the Bishops' Wars.

A Scottish army took the field against the king, crossing the border into England in 1638 and again in 1640, occupying Newcastle, vital for its coal. The absence of Parliament now proved crucial and the king could only muster an army of inexperienced militia troops to meet the threat. The two forces met but Charles, realizing his poorly-trained army was likely to lose the day, decided to concede to Scottish demands. Scotland was permitted its religious freedom, and the leaders on the battlefield were promised a handsome sum in cash to stand down. The king then had the practical problem of where exactly to get this money from without Parliament, the body which would normally have acted to raise it. Without much choice in the matter, Parliament was recalled in spring 1640, the first time in

eleven years. A three-week wrangling achieved nothing, and then a second defeat to a Scottish army required the king to call another Parliament in November. These two Parliaments were known as the Short and the Long Parliament, and their names give some indication of the breakdown of government between the monarch and Commons.

The Members of Parliament seized their opportunity with the Long Parliament and the king's military predicaments to guarantee their future survival. Money would be raised for another army but only on the condition that a law was passed which meant a Parliament must be called at least once every three years, that it could not be dissolved by the monarch's wishes alone, and royal ministers now had to be approved by Parliament. The king agreed but then Charles ignored his promises. The consequence was a civil war, or rather a series of them often called the Wars of the Three Kingdoms since Ireland and Scotland were involved too.

➔Civil War

In 1641 a major rebellion broke out against English rule in Ireland, fuelled by grievances over English land confiscation and the exclusive employment of English and Scottish immigrants on many large estates. Ulster was a particularly bloody battleground while Charles and the

English Parliament wrangled over the formation of an army necessary to quell the rebellion. The latter was anxious that the king use such a force in Ireland and not against themselves. These fears were perhaps not unfounded and the king's attempted arrest of five Members of Parliament in January 1642 hardly instilled confidence. The group, who included one John Pym, had written the Grand Remonstrance listing the king's abuses of power and which was passed by Parliament in November 1641. In retaliation for the arrests, the Parliamentarians locked the gates of London, preventing Charles from entering his own capital. The king relocated to Nottingham, but he was far from satisfied. A royal army was formed, and the fighting stage of the English Civil Wars began in November 1642, the so-called First English Civil War (1642-6).

Although the vast majority of people did not particularly care about the matter, large swathes of the country were controlled by one side or the other. The two sides were called the Royalists or 'Cavaliers' and the Parliamentarians or 'Roundheads' (because the first troops were London apprentices who had short hair). The western and northern parts of England remained loyal to the king with the exception of a handful of isolated centers which included

Gloucester, Plymouth, and Hull. These cities, London and the southeast quarter of England were controlled by Parliament. In terms of people, the king had the support of the House of Lords and some Members of Parliament. The Parliamentarians had control of the navy and the merchant class. This meant the king was very limited in his ability to pay his army, a situation which led to significant desertions and unpopular looting raids by the ‘Cavaliers’. The opposition, meanwhile, was able to call Parliament and raise taxes to pay for their army; not a popular move with ordinary people but a big advantage in the war.

The Royalists won the first major battle at Edgehill in Warwickshire on 23 October 1642, but the war became one of indecisive engagements and lengthy sieges. Half of the large-scale battles ever to be fought on English soil occurred during this bloody decade of civil war. Neither was the carnage restricted to the military; it is estimated one in ten people in urban areas lost their homes. Even for those who escaped direct action, taxes were crippling, there was a slump in trade, and on top of everything, there was a run of bad harvests. Both sides used conscripts in their army, but the Parliamentarians had the advantage of a gifted commander, one Oliver Cromwell. A country gentleman,

Cromwell turned out to be a visionary military leader who believed in the importance of a well-trained army. This he formed and called the New Model Army. A further advantage was that Charles' use of Irish Catholic troops alienated the king from his own subjects. The Crown was about to take a tumble and the king's head with it.

➔ **Execution**

The Parliamentarians, with the help of Scottish troops, won the battle of Marston Moor near York on 2 July 1644. At the Battle of Naseby in Northampton shire on 14 June 1645 Charles led his army against the Parliamentarians led by General Fairfax. Oliver Cromwell commanded the army's right wing. The Parliamentarians won the day, and the king fled in disguise to find safety in the arms of a Scottish army in the north of England. It was a temporary evasion as the Scots would not harbor a monarch who did not favor Presbyterianism or being accountable to the people.

After lengthy political negotiations which included a change of heart by the Scots, Charles was handed over to the English in January 1647 and so was taken prisoner in his own kingdom. The king's prison was not a bad one: house arrest at Hampton Court Palace. On 11 November 1647, the king made an escape and managed to reach the Isle of

Wight where he spent the next year in effective exile in Carisbrooke Castle. On 1 December 1648, a force of Parliamentary officers was finally sent to the island, and they took the king to Hurst Castle. Charles had unwisely encouraged the Royalists to fight on, and a Scottish army was raised to come to his aid, but this was defeated at the battle of Preston in 1648 during the so-called Second English Civil War (Feb-Aug 1648).

The burning question was what to do with a deposed king. The majority of Parliament and the people wanted to reinstate Charles but permanently reduce his powers while a number of extremist Puritans were calling for Charles' execution. In the end, might was right, and the moderate Members of Parliament were removed, leaving Parliament with only 53 of the more extreme Parliamentarians. Charles was put on trial on 20 January 1649 and found guilty of tyranny, treason, and making war on his own people. Charles made no defense since he did not consider the court to have any authority over him:

> *I would know by what power I am called hither…I would know by what authority, I mean lawful…Remember, I am your king, your lawful king…a king cannot be tried by any superior jurisdiction on earth. (Ralph Lewis, 160)*

The king, called merely Charles Stuart before the court, was sentenced to death by beheading. The document, carrying the seals of the court commissioners involved, survives today and shows that only 59 of the 159 dared to put their seal to it. Charles I was executed on 30 January 1649. The king had met his fate with dignity, even wearing two shirts so that he would not shiver in the cold January air and the crowd think that he trembled with fear: "The season is so sharp as probably may make shake, which some observers may imagine proceeds from fear" (*Ibid*). Then, appearing before the crowd on the scaffold, Charles proclaimed:

> *I must tell you that the liberty and freedom [of the people] consists in having of Government, those laws by which their life and their goods may be most their own. It is not for having share in Government, that is nothing pertaining to them. A subject and sovereign are clean different things.*

Charles I was forbidden a state funeral, and he was quietly buried in Saint George's Chapel in Windsor Castle.

➔From Cromwell to the Restoration

The country became a republic, the title and office of the monarchy was abolished (but not in Scotland), the House of Lords was abolished, the Anglican Church was reformed,

and even the British Crown Jewels were broken up and sold off. Scotland remained loyal to the crown, and Charles I's eldest son Charles was, by right of birth, its king. However, a Scottish army was again defeated by an English one in the so-called Third English Civil War (1650-1), and the would-be Charles II of Britain was obliged to flee to France.

The English Civil Wars were finally over but the Parliamentarians were now split as some wanted radical reforms and others objected to the undue influence of Cromwell's army. Disagreements led to Parliament being dissolved in 1653. Oliver Cromwell was then made Lord Protector but his authoritarian rule, much more so than Charles' had ever been, made many wish for the moderation and tradition of the old monarchy. Not least of Cromwell's popularity gaffes was his decision to abolish both Christmas and Easter and to prohibit the playing of games on a Sunday. Life in Britain was not quite as much fun as it had been. When Cromwell died in 1658, his republic died with him. Ironically for a republican, Cromwell's chosen successor was his son Richard Cromwell, but he did not enjoy universal support. Following a march on London in 1660 and with the support of the army, the monarchy was restored, and all Cromwell's Acts of Parliament were

cancelled. In the same year, Charles I was declared a martyr by Parliament and made a saint by the Anglican Church. Charles I's son became Charles II, and the Stuarts went on to rule Britain until 1714 when they were succeeded by the House of Hanover.

➔ **Quotes:**

- 'Death is not terrible to me; I bless my God I am prepared' (before his execution)

Timeline for King Charles I

Year	Event
1625	Charles I succeeds his father, James I.
1626	Parliament attempts to impeach the Duke of Buckingham and is dissolved by Charles.
1627	England goes to war with France, but at La Rochelle the Duke of Buckingham fails to relieve the besieged Huguenots.
1628	The Petition of Right a declaration of the "rights and liberties of the subject" is presented to the King, who agrees to it under protest.
1628	Physician William Harvey demonstrates the circulation of blood in the body
1629	Charles dissolves Parliament and rules by himself until 1640.
1630	The colony of Massachusetts is founded in America
1633	Work begins on the building which is now Buckingham Palace in London
1637	Charles tries to force new prayer book on Scots, who resist by signing the National Covenant.
1639	Act of Toleration in England established religious toleration
1640	Charles summons the Short Parliament, which he dissolves three weeks later when it refuses to grant him money.
1640	Long Parliament summoned, which lasts until 1660. It can only be dissolved by its members.

Year	Event
1641	Abolition of the Star Chamber and Court of High Commission.
1642	Charles fails in his attempt to arrest five MPs.
1642	Outbreak of Civil War. Charles raises his standard at Nottingham. The Royalists win a tactical victory the Parliamentary army at the Battle of Edgehill but the outcome is inconclusive.
1643	Royalists defeat Parliamentary army at Chalgrove Field, and take Bristol. Battle of Newbury is indecisive.
1644	York is besieged by Parliamentary army until relieved by Prince Rupert. Royalists defeated at Marston Moor.
1644	Oliver Cromwell and the Puritans enforce and Act of Parliament banning Christmas Day celebrations
1645	Parliament creates New Model Army, which defeats the Royalist army at Naseby on 16 June.
1646	Charles surrenders to the Scots, who hand him over to Parliament.
1646	Negotiations take place between King and Parliament. King conspires with Scots to invade England on his behalf.
1647	Charles escapes to the Isle of Wight but is captured. He is tried by Parliament and found guilty of high treason.
1648	A Scots army supporting Charles is defeated at Preston.
1649	Charles I is executed. There follows 11 years of rule by Parliament as the Commonwealth under Cromwell.

The English Civil War in The 17th Century

- ***A Very Uncivil War***

Have you heard the expression "civil war"? Historians use this term to describe a war which splits a nation into opposing sides.

The English Civil War during the 17th century probably ranks as one of England's most important civil wars. This article examines its background and events.

- ***I. Background Events Leading to War***

Historians today still disagree about how long the English Civil War really lasted. Organized fighting broke out for the first time in 1642. Some people consider the war ended with the execution of King Charles I in 1649. Others argue the war actually continued until 1653, when Parliament appointed Oliver Cromwell to head the government as Lord Protector.

- ***Two Central Figures in The English Civil War***

Two people played especially important roles during the civil war. Charles Stuart became King Charles I in 1625 at the age of 25. He inherited his position from his father.

A member of Parliament named Oliver Cromwell rose to power during this English Civil War. Just one year older than King Charles I, he lived in Huntingdon in Eastern England as a country gentleman. (He came from a well-known family, however. He was related through his father to a royal advisor named Thomas Cromwell who had served King Henry VIII nearly 100 years earlier.)

- ***The Royal Family***

King Charles I had a very interesting background. Born in Fife, Scotland, he belonged to the Stuart family. His ancestors ruled Scotland, a nation located just north of England. When Charles reached the age of 3, his father, King James VI of Scotland inherited the throne of England from his cousin, the last Tudor. Charles' father became King James I of England.

The Stuart family moved to England soon afterwards. Charles, a frail child who had difficulty walking, spent most of his childhood away from his family, living in England in the household of Sir Robert Carey and his wife. English Kings during this period often asked loyal members of the nobility to help raise their children.

- ***A New Ruling Family***

When the Stuart monarchs took power, their rule helped unify England and Scotland. However, the Stuarts had not won popularity with many of their English subjects. King James I governed between 1603 and 1625. As the King of England, he served as the official Governor of the Church of England.

Charles' father often quarreled with Parliament. King James I survived several plots against him in England, including an

attempt by a man named Guy Fawkes to blow up Parliament in 1605!

- ***Religion as a Political Issue***

Religion in fact played a very important role in society in England during this period. Today people in the UK choose whether to attend religious services, or not. England in the modern era maintains religious tolerance. That was not the case at all throughout Europe during much of the 1500s and 1600s. Religious practices became controversial during the 1600s. The English frequently did not respect one another's beliefs in that period. This situation likely contributed to the outbreak of the English Civil War.

- ***"Religious" Wars***

In 1618, warfare arose in several European nations between Catholics and Protestants. This complex "Thirty Years' War" lasted until 1648. It continued throughout the reign of Charles I.

A number of English left the Church of England, a Protestant denomination, to join newly created Protestant sects. Many became Puritans. They frequently sympathized with Protestant factions fighting in the Thirty Years' War.

- ***An Unpopular Marriage***

In 1625, King James I died. Charles inherited his father's kingdoms. The same year, he married. The young man wed a French princess named Henrietta Maria. The couple enjoyed a very happy relationship. They eventually raised seven children. (Two of their sons would become English monarchs: King Charles II and King James II.)

However, despite his happy family life, King Charles I's marriage displeased some members of Parliament. His advisors had selected a Catholic princess as his bride. England during the days of the Tudors had witnessed a lot of religious discord. Many Protestants and Catholics in the nation still feared and distrusted one another as a result. Charles I's marriage did not cause the English Civil War, but it likely did contribute to resentment against the King on the part of some Puritans.

- ***Religious Strife in Tudor England***

Why did religion become such an important issue during the English Civil War of the 17th Century? A complicated history underpins this subject.

Queen Elizabeth I became the last member of the Tudor family to rule England. Her grandfather, Henry Tudor from Wales, ended a long and bitter period of civil war. This

conflict, called "the War of the Roses", concluded when he became King of England in 1485. Henry Tudor (as King Henry VII), his son King Henry VIII, and his three grandchildren (King Edward VI, Queen Mary and Queen Elizabeth I) ruled in succession over England and Wales during the Tudor Period (1485-1603).

The Tudor rulers did not always share the same religious views. For example, Henry Tudor, like the vast majority of his subjects, adhered to the Catholic Church. His son, King Henry VIII, raised as a Catholic, became a Protestant later in life. He eventually seized a lot of property from Catholic monasteries. At one point, King Henry VIII required everyone in England to recognize him as the Head of the Church of England (instead of the Pope in Rome) or risk treason charges. The next Tudor ruler, King Edward VI, persecuted some Catholic clergymen. Queen Mary, who followed her brother to the throne, persecuted some Protestant clergymen. Finally, Queen Elizabeth, a tolerant Protestant, became the ruler of England for many years. By the time she passed away, large numbers of the English population had become Protestant. However, older people likely remembered the earlier periods of terrible violence between Catholics and Protestants.

- ***The Path Towards The English Civil War***

As the Governor of the Protestant Church of England, King Charles I disagreed with Puritan religious views. He favored returning to church ceremonies which more closely resembled Catholic services. His position placed him in conflict with several outspoken members of Parliament. Some English Puritans also deeply distrusted the King's marriage to a Catholic.

The King aroused the concern of Puritans in 1628. He made changes to the Church of England's religious services. He selected a conservative cleric named William Laud to serve as the Archbishop of Canterbury, a very influential post.

- ***Conflicting Views About Parliament's Role***

Just like his father, King James I, Charles quarreled with Parliament frequently. The King and Parliament disagreed strongly over whether Charles I should have the right to pass new taxes without Parliament's support.

Finally, in March, 1629, after members of Parliament passed a resolution opposing several Catholic religious practices, the King angrily dispersed the legislative body. He ordered 9 members of Parliament imprisoned in the Tower of London.

- ***The Eleven Year "Tyranny"***

King Charles I then governed England for a period of 11 years without calling a single Parliament. Histories sometimes refer to this period as a time of "tyranny".

To support his government, the King found creative ways to extract money from the public. For example, the Crown fined some wealthy landowners for failing to attend the royal coronation years earlier. His officials also levied fees called "ship money" from vessels. His efforts to raise funds made him widely unpopular.

- ***Border Problems***

In the late 1630s, King Charles I ordered the Church of Scotland to begin using a the Church of England's prayer book. This decision displeased large numbers of Scots, and irate churchgoers drove away bishops appointed under King James I. Rebellion spread through Scotland during 1639.

Without obtaining funds from Parliament, King Charles I summoned an army and ordered his troops to re-capture a key border town. He soon discovered the Scottish army appeared much larger than his force. Instead of fighting, the King tried to negotiate for the return of several fortresses. He returned to England after signing a truce, deeply humiliated by this "Bishop's War". One of the King's military

commanders, Thomas Wentworth, the Earl of Strafford, urged him to summon a new Parliament to raise funds to support a military campaign against Scottish rebels.

- ***The Short Parliament***

Reluctantly, the King convened Parliament for the first time in many years in the spring of 1640. Instead of voting for new taxes, the Members asked the King to discontinue several unpopular levies and fees.

King Charles I dismissed Parliament after just three weeks. However, the Crown needed money for military campaigns.

- ***The Long Parliament***

Meanwhile, rebellious Scots took control of Newcastle. This action forced King Charles I to summon another Parliament during the fall. Dubbed "the Long Parliament" it provided an opportunity for concerned members of Parliament to complain to the King.

By this point, many Members deeply disliked several royal advisors, especially the Earl of Strafford and Archbishop Laud. Parliament voted to arrest both men.

- ***Funding For The Crown***

Charles I accepted Parliament's new recommendations in February, 1641 in order to obtain funding approval. Parliament ordered the Earl executed in May, 1641.

To prevent the King from ruling without calling a Parliament again, members passed a Triennial Act requiring him to convene Parliament every three years. They also forbade the King from collecting ship money. These actions undoubtedly displeased the King.

- ***An Important Year***

The Long Parliament continued during much of 1641. Late in the summer, a rebellion broke out in Ireland (a separate kingdom claimed by England). Parliament and the King came into conflict again over the control of the army sent to suppress the Irish revolt. Parliament drew up a list of grievances called "the Grand Remonstrance" in November. It outlined several proposed reforms.

- ***The King Responds***

King Charles I apparently decided Parliament had overstepped its authority. Early in 1642, the King tried to repeat a strategy he had used successfully years earlier. He ordered the arrest of several Members of Parliament. However, these individuals fled before the King's officers could locate them.

Fearing a revolt, the King himself departed from London in January, 1642. He sent his wife and eldest daughter to safety overseas, where the Queen sought to obtain money

for her husband. (She returned to England in 1643.) Meanwhile, the King worked to form an army.

- ***II. The English Civil War***

Across England, people during the spring of 1642 began choosing sides. They aligned themselves with either the King or Parliament. Many Protestants (but not all of them) chose to support Parliament. People frequently found themselves in conflict with their neighbors. Participants in the English Civil War sometimes switched sides.

When the English Civil War began, the King enjoyed the strongest backing from northern and western areas and the Midlands. Parliament drew most support from London and the eastern and southern regions of England.

A Scottish Civil War occurred in Scotland during this same time period. Historians sometimes refer to the opponents of the King in Scotland as "Covenanters".

- ***Warfare During The 1700s***

Soldiers in England in the early 1600s typically did not belong to full time armies. Men would leave their shops and farms for several weeks or months at a time and join neighbors to form regiments of foot soldiers (called "infantry") or riders (called "cavalry" if they fought on horseback and "dragoons" if they dismounted to fight).

Purchasing suitable horses and weapons involved considerable expense. Educated gentlemen during this period received training in horseback riding and, usually, fighting.

Armies required support from local people wherever they traveled. Convoys of wagons and carts carrying supplies trailed behind the marching soldiers. Called "supply trains" or "baggage trains", they sometimes carried valuable goods seized by the troops. When armies marched through a community, the commanders usually compelled the population to provide food and other supplies. Warfare imposed great hardship.

- ***Weapons***

Soldiers in armies during this period possessed primitive guns called "muskets." These long, heavy weapons loaded directly through the muzzle. Muskets required a long time to load and re-load. Sometimes the barrels exploded instead of firing correctly. Other common weapons included swords, knives and heavy wooden staffs.

Since the cavalry posed a serious threat to anyone fighting on foot, most armies included units of foot soldiers carrying long pikes. A pike somewhat resembled the poles used by modern athletes. Members of the infantry used their pikes to

protect musketeers against cavalry soldiers wielding swords. If they could afford it, soldiers wore metal armored chest plates and helmets as added protection during battles.

- ***The Forces of King Charles I***

King Charles I traveled to York. He then headed south to Nottingham in the Midlands and began actively recruiting a royal army during August, 1642. He received important support from some leading English and Scottish landowners. Soldiers who fought for the Crown became known as "Cavaliers".

The King selected his cousin Prince Rupert, the Duke of Cumberland, as one of his military commanders of the cavalry. Just 23 years old in 1642, the young man already possessed extensive combat experience fighting in Europe. He eventually became one of the King's chief military advisers. An experienced military officer named Lord Astley of Reading commanded the royal infantry during the first few years of the conflict.

- ***Parliament's Forces***

Parliament also assembled an army during this period. People called the soldiers fighting for Parliament "Roundheads" because most of them wore unusually short haircuts, a popular Puritan hairstyle for men.

Sir Thomas Fairfax became the leader of an army opposing King Charles I. Parliament selected his father, Lord Fairfax, to command its forces in the northern part of the country. Sir Thomas Fairfax initially led the cavalry forces under his father's command. Both men had previously fought for the King before the outbreak of the civil war. Other officers fighting for Parliament included Philip Skippon, Oliver Cromwell, Sir William Waller and Sir William Brereton.

- ***A Popular Commander Gains Political Power***

Oliver Cromwell commanded a cavalry unit for Parliament during the English Civil War. As the war progressed, his fame spread. He would eventually become the most prominent military leader.

Although he lacked formal battlefield experience before the outbreak of the fighting, he enjoyed considerable success. He became popular with his troops. Oliver Cromwell eventually persuaded Parliament to fund and train a "New Model Army" which eventually formed the basis for a permanent professional English military.

- ***The Course of Civil War***

Too many military campaigns occurred during the English Civil War to possibly describe all of them here. The fighting fell into three broad phases:

- ***Phase One (1642-1646)***

Fighting broke out simultaneously in many parts of England during the spring and summer of 1642. The King tried to recapture London.

Parliament sent a force to intercept his army. The first pitched battle of the civil war occurred without a clear winner at Edgehill in Warwickshire on October 23, 1642. Parliament stopped the King's army at Turnham Green outside London on November 13, 1642. King Charles I then headed to Oxford, which became his temporary headquarters.

In 1643, the King's supporters regained control of much of northern England. At the Battle of Adwalton Moor Cavaliers captured most of Yorkshire. Royal commanders also scored important victories over Parliament in the west at the Battle of Stratton in May and Battle of Roundway Down in early July. The King unsuccessfully tried to regain the city of Gloucester. Parliament's retreating forces successfully avoided capture at the First Battle of Newbury on September 20, 1643, a fight causing heavy losses on both sides.

In January, 1644, Scottish Covenanters invaded northern England. They attempted to help Parliament recapture York that spring. Prince Rupert led a royal army to help defend

the city. However, he engaged the large enemy force and sustained a serious defeat at the Battle of Marston Moor in July, 1644. York and most of northern England fell under Parliament's control. A Second Battle of Newbury in October did not produce a clear winner.

Early in 1645, Oliver Cromwell persuaded Parliament to fund the New Model Army. On June 14th, this well-equipped force soundly defeated the royal army at the Battle of Naseby. It recaptured Bristol in September. (The King's supporters never really recovered from heavy losses at the Battle of Naseby.) In November, Scottish Covenanters attacked Newark.

Then in February, 1646, Parliament enjoyed another victory in Devon at the Battle of Torrington. Parliament regained control of most of western England. The Prince of Wales fled from England to Europe. Parliament's army defeated the royal forces at Stow-on-the-Wold. King Charles I surrendered to Covenanters at Newark on May 5th.

- ***Phase Two (1648-1649)***

Early in 1647, the Covenanters returned the King to Parliament's control. He remained under arrest. An escape attempt made by him in November failed.

In May, 1648, a royalist rebellion broke out to restore the King to power. The New Model Army defeated the uprising at the Battle of Preston on August 17th.

When negotiations failed to change the King's opinion about his power to rule without Parliament's consent, a "Rump" Parliament placed him on trial in January, 1649. Specially appointed commissioners convicted him of treason. On January 30th, an executioner beheaded Charles I.

- ***Phase Three (1649-1651)***

Later in 1649, Oliver Cromwell suppressed a revolt in Ireland. He defeated Scottish Covenanters at the Battle of Dunbar in 1650. His victory over the Prince of Wales in 1651 at the Battle of Worcester ended the English Civil War.

- ***Results of The War***

Most historians agree when Charles I became King of England, English monarchs governed with limited input from Parliament. The English Civil War of the Seventeenth Century greatly increased the importance of Parliament in government.

Chapter 3

The Age of Cromwell

(The Commonwealth of England)

Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658) was an accomplished cavalry commander, then head of Parliament's New Model Army, and finally Lord Protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland. The latter title was awarded to Cromwell for life after the bloody conclusion of the English Civil Wars (1642-1651) and the execution of King Charles I of England (r. 1625-1649).

Cromwell was a Puritan and a radical whose long string of victories on the battlefield across the British Isles led him to believe he had been charged by God to rid the people of a wicked king. Cromwell remains a divisive figure, seen variously as a political visionary, military genius, religious fanatic, callous invader, and regicidal despot. Whatever he may have been, by the time his reign as Lord Protector ended with his death in 1658, England's political, religious, and military landscapes had all changed forever.

➔Early Life

Oliver Cromwell was born on 25 April 1599, his father was Robert Cromwell, a modest country gentleman, and his mother was Elizabeth Steward. Oliver spent his childhood in

Huntingdon before attending Cambridge University for one year. Cromwell married Elizabeth Bourchier on 22 August 1620, and they went on to have seven children, the most famous being the eldest, Richard (b. 1626). In 1628, he represented a Cambridge shire borough as a Member of Parliament. In the 1630s, Cromwell, earning his living as a yeoman farmer near St. Ives in East Anglia, underwent a religious conversion. Thereafter, it was rare that he spoke or wrote without liberally seasoning his often fervent speech with the religious language typical of a zealous Independent or Congregationalist, that is one who called for more inclusion in the Church and greater freedom for 'independent' congregations that assembled according to the individual believers' consciences.

As a committed Puritan, Cromwell lived plainly, dressed soberly, and enjoyed modest and traditional pursuits like hunting and hawking. In the mid-1630s, his fortunes rose following the death of an uncle and the inheritance of an estate near Ely, Cambridge shire. In 1640, Cromwell was back in Parliament as MP for Cambridge.

The historian R. Starkey gives the following summary of Cromwell's character:

He was a big, bony, practical, rather awkward man – hands-on, sporty, unscholarly despite his Cambridge days, but with

the gift of the gab and a knack for popular leadership. Fearless, with no respect for persons however grand or institutions however venerable, Cromwell was a man waiting for God to reveal Himself to him in actions. (342)

➔ **Cavalry Commander**

In July 1642, England finally descended into civil war after years of political wrangling and empty promises between Parliament and King Charles I. The two sides had disagreed over money, religion, and how political power should be distributed. The opposing sides became known as the 'Roundheads' (Parliamentarians) and 'Cavaliers' (Royalists). During the early years of war, most Parliamentarians merely wanted to force the king to see the error of his ways and have some of his powers curbed by Parliament. It was not, as yet, an objective to abolish the monarchy.

From 1642, Cromwell was a captain in the cavalry of Parliament's Eastern Association army led by Edward Montagu, Earl of Manchester (1602-1671). He commanded his own troop, which he expanded thanks to the wealth of his Ely estates.

Cromwell rose to become a cavalry commander thanks to his success as a leader and the victories he won on the battlefield. Cromwell was a strict disciplinarian, and he

believed he was God's instrument against a wicked king. As the historian T. Hunt notes:

His biblical literalism was joined to an awesomely fiery temper and out it spewed in his letters and speeches. He warned his fellow Roundhead commanders, 'I had rather have a plain russet-coated captain who knows what he fights for, and loves what he knows, than that which you call a gentleman and is nothing else.'. (xiii).

Cromwell's personal heavy cavalry regiment, unusually strong with 14 troops, was known as the 'Ironsides' after the nickname given to Cromwell by the Royalist cavalry commander Prince Rupert, Count Palatine of the Rhine and Duke of Bavaria (1619-1682).

➔Marston Moor to Preston

The result of the first major engagement of the Civil War at the battle of Edgehill in Warwickshire in October 1642 was indecisive, a lack of progress that would become typical of the long-drawn-out conflict. The First Battle of Newbury in Berkshire in September 1643 ended in another draw. Parliament had the bulk of resources and control of both the capital and the Royal Navy, so the lack of progress was disappointing, to say the least. The Roundheads did win the Battle of Marston Moor near York in July 1644, the largest battle of the entire conflict and one which first saw the appearance of Oliver Cromwell. On Marston Moor, a

wing of the Parliamentary cavalry was led with aplomb by Cromwell and Sir David Leslie (c. 1600-1682), although Cromwell was injured in the neck and was obliged to leave the field of action for some time. Leslie and Cromwell had routed the opposition cavalry and turned on the infantry with great and terrible effect. Commanding cavalry and keeping mounted troops in formation after one attack to launch a second in another part of the battlefield was extremely difficult to achieve in practice. It was a tactic Cromwell would repeat again and again as the war progressed.

Despite the loss at Marston Moor, King Charles fought on, and it was the indecisive Second Battle of Newbury in October 1644 that persuaded Parliament they had to ring the changes in their armies if they were to achieve final victory. At Newbury, the Royalists had been outnumbered 2:1, but a lack of coordination between Parliament's commanders brought about the necessity for change. Even Cromwell had not enjoyed his customary success at Newbury. Parliament conducted an official enquiry into the debacle which should have won the war. The Earl of Manchester came in for criticism for not being very proactive in the battle, although he accused Cromwell of disloyalty in a very public spat between the two men.

In Parliament, Cromwell called for a more professional army and general approach to the war in December 1644. February 1645 saw the formation of the New Model Army, funded by taxes. It was a professional army in terms of its paid personnel, training, and a defined hierarchy of leadership. Troops were issued with Bibles and printed catechisms, which outlined the cause they were fighting for. All regiments had chaplains, and there were regular sermons and prayer meetings.

In April, Parliament passed the Self-Denying Ordinance, a motion forbidding any of its members from being a military commander. The effect was to remove commanders who were politically powerful but had no military competence. Manchester was one of the casualties of this policy. Overall command of the Model Army was given to a talented and experienced campaigner, Sir Thomas Fairfax (1612-1671). His second-in-command was appointed at his own insistence regardless of the Ordinance: Cromwell. With a standing army that could take the field wherever their commanders thought best and for however long it took to gain victory, the Parliamentarians had taken one of the most important decisions of the entire war.

The first test of the New Model Army was at the Battle of Naseby, Northampton shire in June 1645. King Charles led his army in person, but the Model Army was superior in numbers and tactics with Cromwell's cavalry once again distinguishing themselves – the commander even lost his helmet in the fray. The Royalist infantry was destroyed, thousands of prisoners were taken, and perhaps most significantly of all, Charles' personal writing cabinet was taken. The king's correspondence proved without a doubt that he had no intention of negotiating an end to the war and that he was willing to strike an agreement with Irish rebels to have his army bolstered by Catholic troops. The king himself, meanwhile, escaped to fight another day. He first fled to the north of England, and then, after being handed over to Parliament by a Scottish army, he escaped his imprisonment to establish himself on the Isle of Wight. From there, he plotted the extension of the war.

➔The Republic

The Battle of Preston in Lancashire (17-20 August 1648) was another great Parliamentary victory. Cromwell led the Model Army against a larger Scottish army that had hoped the restoration of Charles would promote the Presbyterian Church in Scotland and England. Cromwell went on to

recapture Berwick, Carlisle, and Pontefract, securing the north of England for Parliament. For many, Charles could not now be tolerated. He was a 'man of blood', a king who had waged war against his own people.

The creation of the 'Rump Parliament' in December 1648 saw the number of MPs reduced to just 150 more compliant members. It was, in effect, a military coup as the all-powerful New Model Army purged the House of Commons of anyone who stood against it. King Charles was tried, found guilty, and executed on 30 January 1649. Cromwell's signature was third on the death warrant. In March, Parliament formally abolished the monarchy as an institution and the House of Lords with it. The Anglican Church was reformed and the British Crown Jewels sold off. England became a Republic, known as the Commonwealth of England.

Crucially, the monarchy was not abolished in Scotland, where, in February 1649, the late King Charles' eldest son automatically became Charles II of Scotland. The Scots supported Charles as a means to defend the Presbyterian Church in Scotland, and one of their conditions for military support was that the king promised to promote that church in England should he be made king there. There were, too, diehards in England who considered Charles as their rightful

ruler, even if he were in exile in France. The civil wars were not over yet. Round three began, and it was the threat from Scotland that mobilized the Model Army once more.

➔**Ireland & Scotland**

Before Cromwell could deal with the Scots, he first led an army of 12,000 men to Ireland in 1650 to ruthlessly crush a Royalist rebellion there. The Model Army won crushing victories at Wexford and Drogheda. The accusations of extreme violence to captured soldiers and hundreds of unnecessary civilian deaths in the Irish campaign tainted Cromwell's reputation thereafter.

The Scots, meanwhile, continued to rally around Charles II, and they now had a sizeable army in Edinburgh under the command of David Leslie (Cromwell's old cavalry colleague on Marston Moor). Parliament decided to send the Model Army into Scotland and remove this threat once and for all. Fairfax did not approve of such a measure and resigned his commission. Cromwell took over as commander-in-chief and led the army in person. He twice tried to take Edinburgh in July-August 1650. Falling back to his base at Dunbar, he was pursued by Leslie who thought he could crush the English while trapped against the coast. As it turned out, Leslie's choice of terrain was poor and Cromwell turned what

looked like a probable disaster into a glorious victory, routing the Scottish cavalry and infantry at the Battle of Dunbar in 1650. Cromwell next took Edinburgh Castle on Christmas Eve.

Still the Scots persisted and formally crowned Charles II at Scone on New Year's Day 1651. In a last desperate throw of the dice, Charles sent Leslie with the remnants of his army to invade England, but local Royalist support was not forthcoming, and, yet again, Cromwell was there to defeat him at Worcester on 3 September 1651. The Kirk in Scotland was dissolved, and, instead, representatives (as with Ireland) were sent to the Westminster Parliament. Cromwell had done what no other English king had ever managed. He had unified Britain into a single political entity. The civil wars were over.

➔Lord Protector

There remained serious cracks in this enforced unity of Britain. Parliament and the army were still at odds, and few could agree on how to proceed without a monarchy. On 20 April 1653, Cromwell entered Parliament and informed its members they were not fit to rule, famously declaring, "You have sat here too long for the good you do. In the name of God, go!" (Phillips, 150). The 'Rump Parliament' was closed

down. On 16 December 1653, Cromwell was appointed the Lord Protector of England, Scotland and Ireland by a new, much smaller Parliament, known disparagingly as the 'Barebones Parliament' (a play on words of one of its members), which then voted to dissolve itself and leave the executive authority in the hands of Cromwell and the Council of State. Rather ironically, Lord Protector was the old title for a monarch's regent, and it meant Cromwell was the military dictator of Britain, a king in all but name.

The Republic was divided into military districts, each led by a major-general, but Cromwell's particular brand of militarism and Puritanism was far from popular. Although there was greater religious toleration (Catholics were excluded from this), there were some unwanted radical developments. The celebrations of Christmas and Easter were abolished, and certain sports were banned on Sundays. There were controls on clothing, swearing, and other areas of life, which people were not at all used to being interfered with. There were still, too, those who sympathized with a system of the monarchy, such as the secret society the Sealed Knot and radical groups like the Levellers who sought to equalize wealth and extend suffrage. Occasionally, there were minor uprisings like the one led by Major-General

Desborough in Devon in March 1655, but these were ruthlessly crushed.

Parliament wanted to make Cromwell king, not to gain his favor but because they could then better control him as a constitutional monarch. Anything was better than a dictator who made up the rules as he went along. The army was adamant they would not support a new king when they had spent so long ridding themselves of the old one. Cromwell himself did not accept the title either, but he did accept to be inaugurated for a second time as Lord Protector, this time with much pomp and ceremony in Westminster Hall. This came about after an assassination plot by a Leveller was discovered in January 1657, which raised the question of who would replace Cromwell after his death. The solution was to allow the Lord Protector to nominate his successor. It seemed in many respects, that day on 26 June 1657, like so many coronations that had gone before. Cromwell was seated on the traditional Coronation Chair and given an imperial purple robe, a sword and a scepter. The gathered dignitaries shouted, "God Save the Lord Protector." The only thing missing was a crown, but this was not omitted on either Cromwell's coins or his Great Seal.

➔Foreign Policy

Foreign rulers looked on at the bloody events in England and the execution of a king with horror, but none offered any practical assistance to the royalist cause after Charles' death. The disharmony in government in England through the 1650s was in no way helped by wars with the Dutch and then Spanish, although Cromwell earned the respect, if not the endorsement, of other European powers for his strong rule and the power he wielded at the head of his formidable army.

Cromwell's policy of attacking the Spanish Empire in the Caribbean in 1654-1655 was not a success, but it did at least secure Jamaica. In 1658, infantry of Cromwell's Model Army joined with the French to attack the Spanish Netherlands, and so Dunkirk was acquired at the Battle of the Dunes on 14 June 1658. This must have been a doubly-satisfying result since Charles II's younger brother, James, led a Royalist force on the Spanish side. The Lord Protector's foreign policy brought mixed results at best, but his investment in the Royal Navy would be fundamental in making Britain one of the great world powers in the next century.

➔ **Death**

At the pinnacle of his powers, higher than any monarch before him, Cromwell suffered from what even he could not control: ill-health. He died of pneumonia at Whitehall Palace on 3 September 1658 (the date of his victories at Dunbar and Worcester). Cromwell received a state funeral worthy of a king, indeed, by the Lord Protector's body in Westminster Abbey was an imperial crown while in his lifeless hands were his orb and scepter.

The army had fiercely resisted any move by Cromwell to nominate an heir and make his office hereditary, but on his deathbed, he did just that. His son Richard was chosen as Lord Protector, but he did not have the personality to sit astride the two snarling tigers of state: the Army and Parliament. In May 1659, a number of lower officers broke ranks and sided with Parliament in voting for the abolition of the Protectorate. The army could do little because it was divided and without a single authoritarian figure who could pull the factions together. The next year, faced with a stark choice between a monarchy or another civil war, Parliament voted for the Restoration of the Monarchy under pressure from General George Monck (1608-1670). Charles returned in May 1660 to become Charles II of England (r. 1660-1685),

and he was invited to rule alongside the House of Lords and the House of Commons. All of Oliver Cromwell's Acts of Parliament were cancelled; the Republic was dead. To make doubly sure, Cromwell's remains were exhumed from Westminster Abbey in 1661 to receive treatment as if executed as a traitor, that is the corpse was hanged and beheaded, and the remains were put on public display as a warning for those who would be king without a crown.

Chapter 4

The Reign of King Charles II

(Restoration)

Charles II of England (r. 1660-1685) was the king of Scotland (1649-1685) before the Restoration in 1660 also made him king of England and Ireland. Charles was a charming and easygoing monarch who took a keen interest in sports, science, and the arts. From the acquisition of New York to the Great Fire of London, his reign was certainly eventful.

Charles returned the monarchy triumphantly to the apex of British politics and society with a magnificent coronation bedecked in the new British Crown Jewels. There were wars with the Netherlands, alliances with France, divisions at home over religion, and significant expansions overseas, particularly in India and North America. He died in 1685 and was, since he had no heir, succeeded by his younger brother, who became James II of England (r. 1685-1688).

➔ Early Life

When Elizabeth I of England died in 1603 without an heir, James VI of Scotland (r. 1567-1625) was invited to also become the king of England as James I of England (r. 1603-1625). James was the first of the Stuart kings, and he was

succeeded by his son Charles I of England (r. 1625-1649). Charles' battles with Parliament over religion, finances, and the power of the monarchy led to the English Civil Wars (1642-1651) and his ultimate execution on 30 January 1649.

Charles I's eldest son, also called Charles, was born on 29 May 1630 in St. James' Palace, London. His mother was Queen Henrietta Maria (1609-1669), the young sister of Louis XIII of France (1610-1643). Charles spent most of his childhood at Richmond House, where he most enjoyed horse riding. After his father lost the Battle of Naseby in 1645, Charles was shipped off to the safety of France along with his mother. He "grew up tall, swarthy, and saturnine" (Cannon, 293), reaching an impressive height of 1.88 meters (6 ft 2 in). Charles seems to have been the very opposite of his rather straight-faced father. The younger Charles was charming, witty, and easy-going, and his passion for romantic encounters began with Lucy Walter (d. 1658), who bore him the first of many illegitimate children, James Scott who became the Duke of Monmouth (b. 1649).

➔ The Anglo-Scottish War

While the monarchy was abolished in England after Charles I's execution, Scotland was permitted to choose its

own way. Charles' eldest son was made the king of Scotland as Charles II in February 1649 (formally crowned on New Year's Day 1651 at Scone). Pro-Royalists rallied around Charles as their figurehead, and so began the Third English Civil War or Anglo-Scottish War (1650-1651). The Scots had switched sides since they now considered Charles their best means of preserving the independence of the Presbyterian Church in Scotland and promoting it in England, something the Puritan-dominated Parliament certainly would not do. As it happened, Charles himself had no interest whatsoever in Presbyterianism, which he described as "a religion not fit for gentlemen" (Cavendish, 324).

In 1650, Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658) led Parliament's New Model Army into Scotland to persuade by force that any hope of restoring the monarchy south of the border was futile. The two armies clashed at the Battle of Dunbar in September 1650. Cromwell won yet another crushing victory. The remainder of the Scottish and English Royalist forces met for one last clash with Cromwell at the Battle of Worcester in September 1651. Again, the Parliamentarians won, and so ended the English Civil Wars. Charles was obliged to flee to France, but getting away from the battlefield at Worcester was no easy matter. The Scottish

king had to first hide in an oak tree for a day near Boscobel House in Shrop shire before he could, disguised as a humble servant, escape to the coast and then abroad. This escapade is the origin of the common pub name in England: *The Royal Oak*. Almost penniless, the king without a throne relocated to the Netherlands.

➔The Stuart Restoration

Oliver Cromwell was made Lord Protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland in December 1653, and so he was head of the military state known as the 'Commonwealth' Republic. Cromwell's authoritarian rule and imposition of Puritanism made many wish for the moderation and tradition of the old monarchy. When Cromwell died in 1658, his republic died with him. Cromwell had chosen for his successor his son Richard Cromwell, but he did not enjoy universal support. Following a march on London in 1660 and with the support of a Scottish army led by General George Monck (1608-1670), the monarchy was restored with Parliament's consent on 8 May. There was remarkably little political fuss, helped by Charles' promise of a free Parliament and religious toleration as expressed in the Treaty of Breda of 4 April. On 29 May, his 30th birthday, Charles was escorted to London, where he met cheering

crowds and streets decorated with tapestries and flowers. Trumpets blared, and church bells rang. The monarchy was back. Parliament declared 29 May a public holiday, which thereafter became known as Oak Apple Day in reference to Charles' flight after the civil war.

In 1660, all of Cromwell's Acts of Parliament were cancelled, and Parliament's New Model Army was disbanded. In the same year, Charles I was declared a martyr by Parliament and made a saint by the Anglican Church. Puritan Cromwell received an entirely different treatment. The vindictive king had Cromwell's remains exhumed from Westminster Abbey in 1661 to receive treatment as if executed as a traitor, that is the corpse was hanged and beheaded, and the remains were put on public display. There were a few executions of living men, but, generally, Charles was willing to forgive and forget the sins of the fathers.

There were still, nevertheless, many open wounds within and without the Anglican Church and no sign of reconciliation between the opposing sides of moderate Protestants, various Puritan groups, and the Catholics. Charles favored a lenient approach to Catholicism, but Parliament, on which he depended for finances, took the

opposite view. As so many times since the English Reformation, stories of Catholic and 'Popish' plots abounded, notably one in 1678 propounded by the fantasist Titus Oates (1649-1705), which he said planned to assassinate the king. Evidence was slim for these conspiracy theories, but a wave of persecution of Catholics in one form or another did follow as a result. There was one real regicidal conspiracy, the 1683 Rye House Plot, but it came to nothing. The debate over religion would simmer along right through Charles' reign and boil over in that of his successor.

➔**Coronation & Regalia**

After the Civil War, the British Crown Jewels were broken up and sold off, but Charles II's coronation in Westminster Abbey on 23 April 1661 would have been a drab affair without some glittering baubles. Accordingly, an entirely new set of regalia was created, although some of the old gemstones were recovered and used in the new pieces. The gold St. Edward's Crown was bestowed at the actual moment of coronation and has been so used in ceremonies ever since. The Sovereign's Scepter (aka King's Scepter) has also become a staple part of the coronation, although today it has the added sparkle of the 530-carat Cullinan

diamond. The Sovereign's Orb, symbolic of the Christian monarch's domination of the secular world, was made for Charles and is a hollow gold sphere set with pearls, precious stones, and a large amethyst beneath the cross. Every British monarch since has held the orb in their left hand during their coronation. The new jewels nearly went the way of their predecessors. A villain called 'Colonel' Thomas Blood disguised himself as a priest and tried to steal the regalia from the Tower of London in 1671. Upon hearing of the plot, Charles, impressed with his audacity, pardoned Blood in an example of the king's sympathy with audacious schemes whether they be scientific or criminal.

➔Building an Empire

On 21 May 1662, Charles married Catherine of Braganza (1638-1705) who was the daughter of King John IV of Portugal (r. 1640-1656). The couple had three children, but all died in infancy. Charles had many mistresses. With these women, who included a duchess, an actress, a prostitute, and a spy, the king had 16 illegitimate children. Not for nothing was Charles nicknamed after his favorite stallion in the royal stud: "Old Rowley." Following their recent independence from Spain, the Portuguese were keen to forge an alliance with England. As part of her

impressive dowry, Catherine brought a huge sum of cash and gave England control of Tangiers and Bombay, formerly possessions of the Portuguese Empire.

There were some significant developments, too, across the Atlantic. On 24 March 1663, Charles granted the lands of 'Carolina' in North America to eight noblemen. The colony's constitution was written by the philosopher John Locke (1632-1704). A royal charter was granted to the Rhode Island colony on 8 July 1663. In 1665, British privateers took over from the Netherlands the port of New Amsterdam on the east coast of America, then a major hub of the fur trade. It was renamed New York when it was officially ceded by the Dutch in the 1667 Treaty of Breda. The name was in honor of the king's brother James, Duke of York, while the quarter still known as Queens was named in honor of Queen Catherine. In exchange for New Amsterdam, the British gave the Netherlands Suriname in South America. In 1681, the king granted the Quaker entrepreneur William Penn the territory of Pennsylvania in return for Penn's father cancelling the king's debt to him. All of these actions cemented Britain's control of the eastern seaboard of North America.

Back in Europe, competition for control of global trade brought a trio of wars with the Netherlands. After a bright

start, things did not go well, and the Royal Navy suffered a humiliating defeat at Medway in June 1666. In 1670, Charles signed the Treaty of Dover with Louis XIV of France, which forged an alliance against the Netherlands. A secret clause of this treaty promised that, in return for cash, Charles would promote Catholicism in England, using French military support if necessary. Whether the king ever intended to keep this promise is debatable, certainly, it never became a reality, but the regular cash payments frequently came in handy and allowed the king to avoid calling Parliament more than absolutely necessary. His agreements with Louis were repeated in 1678 and 1681. There were some other consequences to the deals besides Charles' purse gaining weight. In 1672, Charles was obliged to give military assistance for Louis XIV's attack on the Netherlands, but a disappointing naval draw off Southwold in June was followed by failures on land so that the war was abandoned by 1674.

➔Disasters & Achievements

Back in England in the 1660s, Charles, the 'Merry Monarch', was notorious for living it up in his high-spending court and playing all manner of sports (he rode winners at Newmarket horse races and celebrated his Scottish coronation with a round of golf). He was also fond of strolling

through his magnificent gardens pursued by his noisy spaniels. While the king might have been able to elude reality on his aptly named yacht *The Royal Escape*, there were some notable disasters for everybody else. There was another devastating wave of the Black Death plague in the unusually hot summer of 1665. In 1666, there was the Great Fire of London. This terrible blaze began in a baker's shop in Pudding Lane, not far from London Bridge on 2 September. It quickly spread through the narrow streets to engulf a huge swathe of London, then mostly composed of wooden buildings. The king personally supervised some of the firefighting activities, which went on for four days. Saint Paul's Cathedral was one of the architectural casualties; the intense heat from the fire melted the lead of its roof and sent it in a molten stream through the nearby streets. Miraculously, fewer than ten people died in the inferno, which destroyed 87 churches and 13,000 other buildings. It was hoped that a rebuilding program funded by a tax on coal imports might rid London of many of its narrow streets, but landlords were loath to reduce their opportunities for rents, and so only a limited part of the program came to fruition.

Amongst the devastation, the enlightenment of literature at least burned brightly. Charles' reign saw the

publication of the immensely popular Christian allegory *Pilgrim's Progress* by John Bunyan (d. 1688) and the epic poem *Paradise Lost* by John Milton (1608-1674). Theatre, especially comedy plays, was another radiant part of a blossoming artistic scene that sprang anew after the closures imposed by the Puritans during Cromwell's reign. Such was the quantity of new works, the phrase 'Restoration theatre' was coined. The king founded the noted Royal Hospital in Chelsea for retired soldiers; its building was designed by one of the great architects, Sir Christopher Wren (1632-1723). Wren's finest achievement was the new St Paul's, which rose from the ashes of the cathedral destroyed in the Great Fire.

This period also saw the foundation of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich (1675), reflecting the king's keen interest in science and gadgets – he had his own personal laboratory in Whitehall Palace. In April 1662, he had given a royal charter to the research body that became known as the Royal Society, of which Sir Isaac Newton (1642 to c. 1627) was a prominent member.

➔Death & Legacy

Charles died four days after suffering a stroke in London's Whitehall Palace at the age of 54 on 6 February

1685. He was buried in Westminster Abbey. Without a legitimate heir and despite the Duke of Monmouth's attempt to take the throne by force in July 1685, he was succeeded by his younger brother James.

James II of England (also James VII of Scotland) was known as a prominent advocate of Catholicism, and many, who became known as the 'Whigs', had wanted him excluded from the succession during his brother's reign. Indeed, Parliament formally removed James from the succession in 1679, but Charles had him reinstated. The kingdom was divided, there were arguments over who should be monarch if not James, and the 'Tory' MPs were happy enough to keep the Stuart royal line going along its natural path. As it turned out, when James finally got his chance, he reigned for only three years before his pro-Catholic policies provoked the Glorious Revolution of November 1688 when he was deposed. The next king was a Protestant one, William of Orange, who became William III of England (r. 1689-1702). He reigned equally with his queen, Mary II of England (1689-1694) who was the daughter of James II. The Stuarts thus continued to rule Britain until 1714, when they were succeeded by the House of Hanover.

➔ **Quotes:**

- ‘You had better have one King than five hundred’ – King Charles II (speaking to Parliament)

Timeline for King Charles II

Year	Event
1658	Death of Oliver Cromwell. He is succeeded by his son Richard Cromwell
1659	Richard Cromwell is forced to resign. The Rump Parliament is restored.
1660	Charles II returns to England from Holland and is restored to the throne.
1662	Act of Uniformity compels Puritans to accept the doctrines of the Church of England or leave the church.
1662	Royal Society for the improvement of science founded
1664	England seizes the Dutch settlement of New Amsterdam, changing its name to New York.
1665	Outbreak of the Second Anglo-Dutch War.
1665	The Great Plague strikes London and over 60,000 die.
1666	The Great Fire of London rages for four days and three nights. Two thirds of central London is destroyed and 65,000 are left homeless.
1667	The Earl of Clarendon is replaced by a five-man Cabal.
1667	Paradise Lost by John Milton published
1667	A Dutch fleet sails up the River Medway captures the English flagship The Royal Charles and sinks three other great ships
1670	Secret Treaty of Dover, by which Charles agrees to declare himself a Catholic and restore Catholicism in England in return for secret subsidies from Louis XIV of France.
1670	Hudson Bay Company founded in North America
1671	Thomas Blood caught stealing the Crown Jewels
1672	Outbreak of the Third Dutch War. Naval battle of Solebay.
1673	Test Act keeps Roman Catholics out of political office.
1674	Death of John Milton

Year	Event
1674	Peace made with the Dutch
1675	Royal Observatory founded at Greenwich
1677	John Bunyan publishes The Pilgrims Progress.
1678	The Popish Plot is fabricated by Titus Oates. He alleges a Catholic plot to murder the King and restore Catholicism. The Government over-reacts, and many Catholic subjects are persecuted.
1679	Exclusion Bill attempts to exclude James, Charles's Catholic brother, from the succession.
1679	Habeas Corpus act passed which forbids imprisonment without trial
1682	Pennsylvania founded in America by William Penn
1683	The Rye House Plot a conspiracy to kill Charles and his brother James and return to parliamentary rule is uncovered.
1685	Charles is received into the Roman Catholic Church on his deathbed.

The Plague in England

Can you imagine what it would be like if one out of four people that you knew were wiped off the face of the earth in only eighteen months? It is awful to imagine, but this is exactly what happened to people who lived during the Plague in England between 1665 and 1666. It was all because of the Black Death, which is also known as the bubonic plague. Although the plague had struck England a few times before the seventeenth century, this last outbreak would have been very scary for anyone who lived during that time.

- **The Bubonic Plague – Why Hygiene Matters**

How did all of this happen? Well, there are a number of reasons why so many people were infected with this horrible disease. Nowadays, we are all very focused on staying clean. We take frequent baths and showers, and many of us wash our hands often in order to avoid picking up colds or other illnesses. Some of us even carry hand sanitizer around so that we can kill any harmful bacteria before it has a chance. In the era of the global pandemic, this is more true now than ever before.

To put it mildly, the people living in London during the 1600s were not as clean as we were. At the time, they didn't know about all of the microscopic organisms that can wreak havoc on the human body. Human beings would not understand what caused the Black Death until over two hundred years after the 1665-1666 epidemic.

Perhaps this was why sanitation was not kept up to a high standard. If you were walking down the streets of London in 1665, chances are that you would have to hold a piece of cloth under your nose in order to keep out the stench. London streets were notoriously filthy, and the fact that people were throwing human waste out of their windows

certainly didn’t help the situation. In this environment, it is not hard for us to see how all kinds of diseases could spread.

- **Not Just A British Problem**

It was in 1664 that reports began to spread about other parts of Europe that had been afflicted by the Black Death. Officials at the time scrambled to figure out some way to keep it out, so they decided to start quarantining and inspecting ships from other areas, especially those that had been known for recent outbreaks. However, this was not enough to stop the terrible disease from making its way to London.

At the time, people had no idea that the ships were carrying rats that hosted infected fleas. It was these fleas that carried the bacteria, and they are the ones who passed the awful disease onto humans. However, once the person was infected, it would take up to a week for them to start feeling sick. During this time—and after they became sick—they would often unknowingly pass the disease on to family and friends. People who were already sick or old would often be the first to fall prey to the terrible disease.

- **An Awful End**

For those who were infected by the Plague in England, the symptoms were unbearable—and doctors had no idea

how to properly treat it. The first signs of plague were similar to a cold or a flu; then symptoms would move on to include very badly swollen lymph nodes and necrosis of certain body parts. Since necrosis is what turns the skin black, this is probably why people started calling the disease the Black Death. People who suffered from the plague would experience terrible fevers and chills, and it was an excruciating way to die. During the advanced stage of the disease, many would vomit blood.

Whenever family members or priests would touch someone infected with the plague, they ran the risk of picking up the disease as well. Because the city was filled with muck and dirt, it's easy to see why people living in the suburbs didn't get the plague as much as those living in the city. Also, it affected more poor people than it did rich people. After all, a rich person trying to escape the sickness in the city would just go to their country home. Those who were poor did not have these kinds of options.

- **Impact Of The Plague In London, England**

Although there wasn't an official census at the time, it has been estimated that perhaps up to 200,000 people could have died as a result of the plague in London alone. This is well over the 68,596 logged in city records during the

epidemic. There were so many people dying that it was difficult to find a place to bury all of the corpses. This is why, to this day, scientists are still discovering burial pits of plague victims and identifying the cause of these mass deaths. By examining the teeth of skeletons in the pits, researchers could see that they contained hints of DNA from the bacteria that caused bubonic plague.

By the end of an eighteen-month period, the city had been ravaged by death and disease. After the outbreak finally stopped, rich merchants who were coming back into the city had to bring their own staffs from the country. This was because the plague had diminished the workforce. The king himself came back into the city with his court, and it seemed as if everything was going to be normal again. However, this happened to be one of the unluckiest years that the city of London has ever experienced.

Just as residents were beginning to pick up the pieces and recover from all of the destruction, a great fire engulfed the city. As a result of both issues, the entire city would end up being rebuilt.

The Great Fire of London

- **A Dangerous Setting**

September 2, 1666—one of the most infamous days in the history of London, England. The long, dry summer was nearing its end, and the city was left parched from the excessive heat. At the time, London was known for narrow streets and tight-packed rows of houses made mostly of wood and tar pitch. Town officials had already issued fire hazard warnings, but the people did little to prepare. The combination of dry wood, flammable tar, and close quarters would prove deadly.

London had already suffered a recent tragedy. According to an article on the Great Fire by Bruce Robinson, England had lost 68,000 of its people to the plague in two years. With these losses hanging over the city, London faced a diminished and exhausted population. The summer of 1666 had already been a lengthy one—and would become even longer.

- **The Fire Begins**

On September 1, 1666, Thomas Farynor (sometimes spelled Farrinor), the King's royal baker, put out the coals in his bakery oven on Pudding Street and went to bed. Then, in the early hours of Sunday morning, disaster struck. Embers

from the stove sparked a small fire in the bakery, which soon spread to the rest of the building, and then to Farynor's home. Once he realized what was happening, Farynor took his family and fled, as did all but one of the bakery workers—who soon became the first casualty.

At first, the fire was small and nonthreatening. In the early morning, not many people were worried. Firefighting methods of the time included bucket brigades, which were slow and required many people to be successful. Another technique involved tearing down houses in an attempt to stop the fire from spreading to fresh material. Neighbors and other residents tried bucket brigades first, but this soon proved useless. As the fire grew, the citizens abandoned their attempts and instead ran to collect their families and evacuate the area.

One reason the fire advanced so quickly was the tremendous wind that grew during the night. Combined with flammable houses and squashed quarters, the flames soon became an inferno. Within hours, an entire sector of London had been consumed. Citizens fled. Some ran to awaken the mayor, Thomas Bloodworth.

Mayor Thomas Bloodworth has become famous as the man who did nothing, or very little. Multiple records show he

did not help prevent the fire at first, despite his responsibility as mayor. When people asked for help in the fire's early stages, Bloodworth stated that the blaze was no threat and could easily be put out. By the time he realized his mistake, it was too late.

- **Eye Witness Accounts**

Most notably among these eyewitness accounts is the diary of Samuel Pepys, a businessman and civil servant in London who kept a detailed journal from 1660 to 1670. His entries on the Great Fire of London are remarkable and present a thorough description of the disaster. The day of the fire, one of Pepys' maids woke him at three o' clock in the morning to alert him. Pepys went to the window, determined it was nothing worry about, and then went back to bed.

Later that same day, Samuel Pepys would go to the Tower to alert the officials. Afterwards, he and some acquaintances roamed the streets to examine the city. His diary entry from September 2, 1666 describes his interactions with Mayor Thomas Bloodworth,

"At last met my Lord Mayor in Canningstreet, like a man spent, with a handkercher about his neck. To the King's message he cried, like a fainting woman, "Lord! what can I

do? I am spent: people will not obey me. I have been pulling down houses; but the fire overtakes us faster than we can do it." … So he left me, and I him, and walked home, seeing people all almost distracted."

The people needed the mayor's authorization to start pulling down buildings, and he did not give it to them until the fire had already progressed to an unstoppable rate. The entire city of London was now in considerable danger.

- **The Fight Continues**

The people of London spent the next two days battling the great fire. Officials and townspeople alike did all they could to defeat the flames. Meanwhile, thousands of others evacuated the city with as many belongings as they could carry or fit into carts. Together, they left the heart of London and headed toward St. Paul's Cathedral. They jammed the streets and slowed progression.

The following day, Tuesday September 4, Samuel Pepys recorded in his diary "Now begins the practice of blowing up of houses in Tower-streete, … [which] stopped the fire where it was done… and then it was easy to quench what little fire was in it…" This technique of "blowing up houses" carried the same logic as tearing them down. If there was nothing for the fire to burn, it would slowly die. The people of London

continued using gunpowder to explode houses into the following day.

On Wednesday morning, the blustering winds which had fanned the great flames finally dwindled. The fire changed direction and went toward the Thames River. With the houses on all other sides demolished and the river in front of it, the fire was at last contained. The people of London fought viciously and at last, after four days of tireless effort, they put the great fire out.

- **Destruction From The Great Fire Of London**

The aftermath was devastating. Numbers vary according to sources, but The Great Fire, as it would come to be called, destroyed roughly 13,000 homes, 85 churches, and 50 company halls. Among these was St. Paul's Cathedral and a third of the London Bridge. Overall, the Great Fire burned most of the entire city from the east side to the west, and spared little.

Records also vary regarding the death toll, but it was surprisingly low for such a disaster. Only between four and sixteen people are officially recorded to have perished in the flames. About 100,000 people were left homeless, however, making up the majority of London's population at the time. It was a blow that would take decades to overcome.

- **Reconstruction and Trials**

King Charles II started plans for rebuilding within a week of the fire. The architect Sir Christopher Wren oversaw the rebuilding of St. Paul's cathedral—a fourteen-year process—as well as a large portions of other churches across London. He and another architect, John Evelyn, drew up plans including a new layout for London with wider streets and houses made from stone instead of wood. Unfortunately, these designs proved to be too expensive, and the new London remained much the same as the old one.

Not long after the fire, Samuel Pepys encountered another friend who "hopes we shall have no publique distractions upon this fire, which is what everybody fears, because of the talke of the French having a hand in it." During the time spent fighting the fire, the English fell into panic. They formed mobs and blamed it on the French and any other foreigners who happened to be in the city. Other eyewitnesses describe brutal mobs terrorizing anyone who did not speak English fluently enough. Accusations flew. They needed someone to blame.

Over the following months, Parliament held investigations to find the cause of the fire. In January 1667, they officially declared "nothing hath yet been found to argue

it to have been other than the hand of God upon us, a great wind, and the season so very dry." In other words, it was a natural disaster. However, the people of London sought to hold someone accountable. During the 1670s and 1680s, various officials blamed the fire on the Papists, a Catholic movement. As a result, the Great Fire memorial bore a plaque reading "the City of London was burnt in the year 1666 by the Papists… to introduce arbitrary power and Popery into this Kingdom." It remained there until 1831.

In the end, after centuries of blame-shifting, false accusations, and fruitless investigations, the bakers of London gathered in 1986 to formally apologize to the city and its mayor. They presented the city with a plague which officially stated that Thomas Farynor was solely responsible for the Great Fire of London in 1666. After over three hundred years, it was a fitting end to the misled debate—the fire began with a baker, and so it also ended.

The official Monument to the Great Fire of London can be found on the corner of Monument Street and Fish Street Hill in London, England.

Chapter 5

The Reign of King James II

(Glorious Revolution)

James II of England (r. 1685-1688) reigned briefly as the king of England, Scotland, and Ireland until he was deposed by the Glorious Revolution of November 1688. James, also known as James VII of Scotland, was the fourth Stuart monarch. His pro-Catholic policies were not popular, and his short reign ended when he was forced into exile. James was succeeded by Protestant William of Orange as king, and he ruled equally with his queen, Mary II of England (r. 1689-1694), the daughter of the exiled James.

➔ A Troubled Monarchy

The British monarchy had been formally abolished during the English Civil Wars (1642-1651) when James II's father Charles I of England (r. 1625-1649) was charged with treason and making war against his own people, found guilty, and executed on 30 January 1649. During the troubled conflict, Charles I had sent his family to the safety of France. Charles had married Henrietta Maria (1609-1669), the young sister of Louis XIII of France (1610-1643). The couple had nine children, the two eldest sons being Charles (b. 1630) and James, born on 14 October 1633 at St.

James' Palace in London. James was made the Duke of York in 1643, and he returned to England.

Ultimate victory in the Civil War went to the Parliamentarians led by Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658) who ruled the new republic as Lord Protector. Supporting his father, James had been captured during the conflict at Oxford in 1646. The duke was then confined to St. James' Palace but, disguised as a girl, he managed to make his escape to the Netherlands in 1648. From there he visited his mother residing in Paris, and in 1650, he joined the French army.

The British monarchy was restored in 1660 shortly after the death of Oliver Cromwell. The Great Restoration saw Charles I's eldest son Charles take the throne as Charles II of England (r. 1660-1685). James accompanied his brother back to England and took charge of the navy as the Lord High Admiral. This was an important role given the ongoing war at sea with the Netherlands, and James was in command for a famous victory off the coast of Lowestoft in 1665. The duke was well-known for his love of hunting, horse racing at Newmarket, and his extravagant second court at St. James' Palace. It was well he had other pursuits since Parliament passed the Test Act in 1673, which

effectively prohibited any Catholic from holding a public office (the 'test' was to take communion in an Anglican church and renounce the importance of the bread and wine as manifestations of Christ's body and blood, respectively). James, who had converted to Catholicism in 1668, was obliged to resign from the navy. In 1680, the king sent his brother to take charge of royal affairs in Scotland, but within two years he was back in London.

On 6 February 1685, Charles II died with no legitimate heir, and the kingdom was divided over who should succeed him. It was Charles' brother James who was ultimately chosen to continue the monarchy. He was not an entirely popular choice. Already during Charles' reign, many nobles were uneasy with James' support of Catholicism. Some politicians, who became known as the 'Whigs', called for James to be excluded from the succession, and they achieved their aim when Parliament did just that in 1679. Fortunately for James, his brother had him reinstated and so ended the Exclusion Crisis. There was, too, the practical problem of just who could take on the role if James were not king. Few wanted a return to the austere rule of Cromwell and the Puritans. James had support from the other half of Parliament, the 'Tories', who were keen not to upset the

status quo and interfere once again in the natural line of succession. James II was crowned in Westminster Abbey on 23 April 1685. Hardly a young monarch at 51, James would have little time to enjoy his reign, and things started badly.

➔ The Monmouth Rebellion

James II's main competitor for the crown had been James Scott, Duke of Monmouth (b. 1649), the illegitimate son of Charles II. Monmouth attempted to take the throne by force in July 1685. To increase his claims of legitimacy, the Protestant Monmouth claimed that his father had actually married his mother Lucy Walter, and evidence of this could be found in a mysterious black box. Monmouth's coup, known as the Monmouth Rebellion, failed as he could only muster 3-4,000 men, and this body was defeated on 6 July at Sedgemoor in Somerset by loyalists led by John Churchill, the future Duke of Marlborough. Monmouth was executed in one of the clumsiest beheadings on record that required five swings of the axe (despite Monmouth tipping his executioner six guineas to do a decent job). Many of the ringleaders were also sentenced to death, some 850 rebels were transported for a significant term of hard labor (indentured servitude) on Caribbean plantations, and anyone with even the remotest connection to the rebellion received lesser

punishments like floggings. Such was the severity of the court's decisions, the cases became known collectively as the 'Bloody Assizes', and they did nothing for the king's popularity.

➔**Family & Catholicism**

James had married Anne Hyde, the daughter of the Earl of Clarendon on 3 September 1660, but she died of illness in March 1671. He married again on 30 September 1673, this time to Mary (d. 1718), the daughter of the Duke of Modena. With Anne, James had eight children, but only two survived into adulthood: Mary (b. 1662) and Anne (b. 1665), both of whom would one day reign as queen. The king had many illegitimate children and another large number of offspring with his second wife Mary, but only one lived beyond the age of 19: James Francis Edward (b. 10 June 1688).

The king played down his Catholic sympathies in the early part of his reign – he had eliminated the communion part of his coronation and, even before his succession, he had had to agree to his brother Charles' insistence that he bring his own two daughters up as Protestants. Mary of Modena, his second wife, was a staunch Catholic, and the old tensions began to appear in the kingdom again between Protestants and Catholics, with rumors abounding of the

king's intentions for the Church of England and wild claims that the queen was actually the daughter of a pope.

James displayed the tone-deaf attitude so typical of the Stuart kings, and ignoring the warning signs of the Monmouth Rebellion and the rumor mill, he blithely appointed Catholics in key positions in the government, courts, navy, and army, even university appointments took on a distinct Catholic bias. The king also ignored laws, extended others, and waived sentences when they applied to Catholic individuals he favored, what became known as his Dispensing and Suspending powers. Parliament protested at these policies, and the king responded by dismissing the House in November 1685; it would not be recalled until there was a new monarch on the throne.

There were formal measures to improve the status of Catholics such as the April 1687 Declaration of Indulgence (aka Declaration of the Liberty of Conscience), which actually improved religious toleration for all faiths, but Protestants began to fear the king was on the road to taking the country back to being a Catholic state. These fears seemed confirmed when James issued for a second time his Declaration of Indulgence in 1688 and insisted it be read out in all churches. When the Archbishop of Canterbury

protested, he and six other bishops were locked up in the Tower of London to await trial. The clergymen were acquitted and crowds cheered and bonfires were lit in celebration. A group of prominent Protestants now began to explore the possibility of a replacement monarch.

Another dramatic event was the birth of Prince James in June 1688. A son would supersede the king's two Protestant daughters to the throne, and surely he would be brought up as a Catholic. So convenient was this event for the king, many suspected the child was not his own but had been brought in for the sole purpose of perpetuating Catholicism in England. The fact that Prince James' godfather was Pope Innocent XI was another unnecessary provocation. Some modern historians have been keen to question whether James really was intent on returning England to Catholicism and suggest he was merely politically naive in his methods to obtain religious toleration for Catholics.

➔The Glorious Revolution

Many prominent Protestants felt the time for action was now or never. The dukes of Devonshire and Shrewsbury, the Bishop of London, and others got together and contacted Protestant Prince William of Orange via the Dutch ambassador in England, inviting him to become king of

England, Scotland, and Ireland. William had close connections with Britain, he was the grandson of Charles I of England and had married James II's daughter Mary in 1677. William responded favorably to the invitation – he had already been planning an invasion since the spring but was awaiting what he called a favorable "Protestant wind". William was perhaps most motivated by the danger of an increasingly pro-Catholic England joining forces with the Catholic French and attacking the Dutch navy. William had already prepared a fleet of 60 ships for his goal, allowing the English to think this was in preparation for defense against a French invasion of the Netherlands.

The Prince of Orange landed with an army of 15-21,000 men at Torbay and then Brixham in Devon in November 1688. This large force marched slowly east towards London through unfavorable weather. Meanwhile, James was left isolated, deserted by former supporters like John Churchill and even his own daughter Anne. The queen left England for the safety of France in December, and after suffering large-scale desertions and a bizarre series of nosebleeds, the king abandoned the battlefield to follow his wife. Queen Mary made it across the Channel, but the king did not, despite his disguise as a woman. He was spotted by fishermen and

taken captive in Kent. William was by now in London, and he decided the best thing to do with his rival and father-in-law was to allow him to leave for France as he had wished. Once again, a Stuart king had ignored popular opinion and been ousted from his throne. The official line was that James had abdicated, and Parliament recorded the removal of the monarch as occurring on 23 December 1688, the day James had left English shores. The exiled king's arrogant attitude and lack of empathy with any other view besides his own were aptly captured by a courtier in France who said of him: "when one listens to him, one understands why he is here" (Cannon, 301).

➔ **Developments in Science**

James' reign had been short, but its events were monumental in terms of history. Never again would a British monarch enjoy the powers that James had. There was a second event in his reign, and one equally dramatic in its long-term effects, this time in the field of science and physics, in particular. Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1727) recovered sufficiently from the blow of a falling apple on his head to present his theories of gravity in his *Principia* of 1687. The year before had witnessed another event of note

for science, the creation of the first meteorological map of weather systems by Edmond Halley (1656-1742).

➔Successors & Ireland

William of Orange became William III of England (also William II of Scotland, r. 1689-1702) via a decree by Parliament on 13 February 1689. This was the first time in English history that Parliament had overseen the change of one monarch to another without bloodshed or simple hereditary convention. The event and its aftermath have been called the Glorious Revolution, even if this name is misleading since there was no popular uprising to support either James or William. If the events of 1688 were reported today, the media would likely use the term 'regime change'.

Crowned on 11 April in Westminster Abbey, William reigned equally with his queen, Mary II of England (r. 1689-1694). Their joint reign is often simply called 'the reign of William and Mary'. Some Tories wanted Mary to rule alone to preserve the purity of a hereditary monarchy, but the Whigs got their way, largely thanks to William insisting he would not take a lower position than his wife. But it was a crown at a price. Parliament was now determined to play a greater role than ever in the governance of the kingdoms of the British Isles. What became known as a constitutional monarchy

where Parliament and monarch ruled in unison was established with a Bill of Rights on 16 December 1689. Parliament had gained the ultimate authority in the key areas of passing laws and raising taxes. No monarch could henceforth maintain their own standing army, only Parliament could declare war, and any new monarch had to swear at their coronation to uphold the Protestant Church. Finally, no Catholic or individual married to a Catholic could ever become king or queen again.

James II meanwhile lived in comfortable exile in France at St. Germain-en-Laye near Paris. Matters did not rest there, though. Louis XIV of France (r. 1643-1715) encouraged James to make a bit more effort into getting his throne back. The best way back seemed to be via Ireland where the deposed king could rely on strong Catholic support. James duly landed in County Cork with a French army on 12 March 1689. Those in Ulster, the Protestant majority, were opposed to such a return. The Protestant 'Men of Orange', as they became known for their support of King William, rose to meet James' supporters on the battlefield. The Protestants survived the lengthy siege of Londonderry (Derry) in 1689, and in July 1690 at the Battle of the Boyne, they were reinforced by an army led

by William in person and won a famous victory. James was obliged to flee to France for a third time in his life. In Scotland, where there was strong support for the House of Stuart, the exiled king lost the support of the MacDonald clan in February 1692 when 38 prominent members were massacred by the Campbells at Glencoe. The door was firmly closed to a return in any of the three kingdoms. James II died at St. Germain-en-Laye in September 1701. He was buried at the Benedictine Church of St. Edmund in Paris.

After William III died without an heir, James II's second daughter Anne became queen in 1702, and she then reigned over a united kingdom as Queen of Great Britain and Ireland from 1707 to 1714. Anne was the last of the Stuart monarchs and was succeeded by George I of England (r. 1714-1727), Anne's nearest relation of the Protestant faith and the first monarch of the House of Hanover. Anne's younger brother James became known as the Old Pretender since he was Catholic, claimed the throne as his, and was supported by France and the Jacobites (Stuart supporters). The Jacobite rebellion failed, though, in 1715. Another Jacobite rebellion, this time led by the Old Pretender's son Charles Edward Stuart (aka the Young Pretender or Bonnie Prince Charlie,

1720-88) in 1745 also failed, and so the British monarchy remained Protestant.

Glorious Revolution

The *Glorious Revolution* of November 1688 saw Protestant William of Orange (l. 1650-1702) invade England and take the throne of Catholic James II of England (r. 1685-1688). There were no battles, and William was invited by Parliament to become king and rule jointly with his wife Queen Mary II of England (r. 1689-1694), daughter of James II.

James II's pro-Catholic policies and authoritarian rule had sealed his fate, and he lived thereafter in exile in France. Meanwhile, William and Mary ruled with the powers of the monarchy reduced and those of Parliament increased as part of a new system of government known as a constitutional monarchy, the system which is still seen today in the United Kingdom.

The main causes of the Glorious Revolution may be summarized as:

- King James II was a Catholic in a Protestant state.
- The king was biased toward Catholics in his key appointments.
- The king exceeded his authority in judicial matters.

- The king dismissed Parliament and never recalled it.
- The Declaration of Indulgences was seen as a protection of Catholic rights.
- A Catholic male heir was born superseding his elder Protestant sisters.
- A group of prominent Protestant nobles invited the Protestant William of Orange to become king.
- William of Orange feared a Catholic France and England would join forces against him, and so he wanted to become king.

➔Protestantism & Authoritarianism

To understand the events of 1688 and their significance, it is necessary to go back several monarchs in the timeline of British history. The thrones of England, Scotland and Ireland were unified when James I of England (r. 1603-1625) succeeded Elizabeth I of England (r. 1558-1603). James was the first of the Stuart monarchs, and he was succeeded by his son Charles I of England (r. 1625-1649). So far so good, and mostly peaceful. Then Charles went and spoilt things with his authoritarian rule and dismissal of Parliament. The English Civil Wars (1642-51) developed, and ultimately, the support for the novel idea of a republic and not simply a limited monarchy began to increase. An unrepentant and uncompromising Charles was executed on 30 January 1649. As it turned out, the

'commonwealth' republic led by Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658) was just as unpopular as Charles had been. The late king's son Charles triumphantly returned to England and the throne with the Restoration of 1660. The monarchy was back. Unfortunately, it had not learnt any lessons from the disastrous events of the previous decades. Charles II of England (r. 1660-1685) died in 1685, but he had no children. As a result, the king's younger brother became King James II of England. The Stuart line was continuing as usual, but all was not what it seemed. Besides Parliament having grown in importance over the last 50 years, the old problem that had plagued the British Isles since the reign of Henry VIII of England (r. 1509-1547) was back with a bang: Protestantism versus Catholicism.

Charles II had been a Protestant; the problem was that his successor was a Catholic. James II had converted to Catholicism in 1668, and many feared that he wished to return England to being a Catholic state. Historians continue to debate what exactly were the king's intentions. James knew full well the importance of the matter, Parliament had even removed him from the succession for his faith back in 1679 (the Exclusion Crisis), but his brother had him reinstated. The reinstatement included the promise that

James raise his two surviving children, Mary (b. 1662) and Anne (b. 1665), as Protestants.

With everyone preferring the peaceful and less wearisome option of continuing the status quo, the 51-year-old James was allowed to take the throne in 1680. The king even eliminated the communion part of his coronation. His supporters were cheered, the neutrals knew not who else to support, and his enemies hoped his reign would be short and his Protestant daughter Mary could then ensure the achievements of the English Reformation remained intact.

➔ **Rebellion**

James experienced his fair share of trouble with two rebellions early on in his reign. The first was in Scotland in May 1685 when the Presbyterian Earl of Argyll, leader of the Campbells, led an uprising against the king in Scotland. Argyll was captured while marching to Glasgow, and the rebellion fizzled out. It is very likely that this uprising was intended as a parallel action to another, more serious one in the south of England, the Monmouth Rebellion of June-July 1665.

James Scott, Duke of Monmouth (b. 1649), was the illegitimate son of Charles II. He had already been involved in a plan to take the throne, the Rye House Plot of 1663

when a group of veteran Parliamentarians from the Civil War tried to assassinate Charles II and his brother after a race meeting at Newmarket. The plot was poorly planned and failed, Monmouth was exiled to the Netherlands for his involvement. Now Monmouth was back and with him 80-odd other disgruntled exiles. The motley crew landed at Lyme Regis in June and began to recruit men for an armed rebellion. There was sufficient ill-feeling towards James II that Monmouth managed to raise up to 4,000 men for his army, but it was an amateurish and poorly equipped one. A Royalist army easily defeated the rebels at Sedgemoor in Somerset on 6 July. Monmouth was captured and executed, despite his pleas for clemency from his uncle. James was ruthless in hunting down anyone with even the remotest connection to the Monmouth Rebellion. A few hundred were hanged, 850 were deported for hard labor in the Caribbean, and countless more were flogged. The hearings for those accused became known as the 'Bloody Assizes'. Although harshly punishing rebels was not unusual, the bloody vengeance did nothing for the king's popularity.

➔ **Indulgences & Appointments**

Both the Argyll and Monmouth rebellions had been relatively minor affairs but they should have been warning

shots of what might develop. Instead, the king's policies veered even more towards Catholicism. James relentlessly appointed Catholics in key positions in the government, courts, navy, army, and even universities. James also ignored some laws, extended others, and waived sentences when they applied to Catholic individuals he favoured, what became known as his Dispensing and Suspending powers. Parliament protested at these policies, and the king responded by dismissing the House in November 1685; it would not be recalled until there was a new monarch on the throne.

Another controversial decision was the April 1687 Declaration of Indulgence (aka Declaration of the Liberty of Conscience). This declaration actually improved religious toleration for all faiths, but many Protestants saw it only as a means to improve the status of Catholics. The king did not instill much confidence in non-Catholics when he declared in 1687: "we cannot but heartily wish, as it will easily be believed, that all the people of our dominions were members of the Catholic Church" (Miller, 332). To make matters worse, James reissued the Indulgence in 1688 and insisted it be read out in all churches. The Archbishop of Canterbury and six other bishops protested at this, but the king merely

locked them up in the Tower of London. They were then put on trial, but this backfired when they were acquitted, and there was much public celebration.

➔ **A Catholic Prince**

Besides Protestants having to accept a Catholic king, they also had to endure a Catholic queen and then a Catholic heir to the throne. James had married his second wife, Mary of Modena (d. 1718), in 1673; there were even wild rumors that the queen was actually the daughter of a pope. Then perhaps the final blow for the more militant Protestants fell. The king, after enduring the tragedy of many of his offspring dying in childbirth or early childhood, had a son. James Francis Edward was born on 10 June 1688. This meant that neither Mary nor Anne would become the next monarch, and with both parents being Catholic, it seemed a certainty Prince James would be raised in that faith. So convenient was this event for the king, many suspected the child was not his own but had been brought in for the sole purpose of perpetuating Catholicism in England. The fact that Prince James' godfather was Pope Innocent XI was another unnecessary provocation. Those Protestants who had been calling for restraint until the aged king died and

Protestant Mary took over now had no argument. Rebel Protestant nobles knew that they must act now or never.

➔ A Protestant Prince

The burning question was not necessarily how to depose the king but who would replace him. Rebel nobles looked abroad. On 30 June, a group of seven, who included the dukes of Devonshire and Shrewsbury and the Bishop of London, got together and contacted Protestant Prince William of Orange via the Dutch ambassador in England, inviting him to become king of England, Scotland, and Ireland. William had several points in his favor besides his religion. He was the grandson of Charles I of England and had married James II's daughter Mary in 1677. William was no doubt delighted at the offer since he was already planning on invading. Having built up a sizeable navy, the prince said that he was merely waiting for a favourable "Protestant wind". His prime motivation was to avoid England becoming Catholic and then joining forces with the French to attack the Netherlands.

William's first attempt to reach England by sea was scuppered by stormy weather, but he persisted and landed with an army of 15-21,000 men in Devon on 5 November 1688. The army was an experienced fighting force and made

up of Dutch, English, Scots, Danes, Huguenots, and even a contingent from Suriname. The prince also took a printing press so that he might more easily spread pro-Protestant propaganda. When he landed at Brixham, William reassured the Englishmen he met that "I come to do you goot. I am here for all your goots" (Cavendish, 338).

William marched slowly east towards London through unfavorable weather. Meanwhile, James was left isolated, deserted by former supporters like John Churchill and even his own daughter Anne. The queen left England for the safety of France in December. James suffered more important desertions amongst his top army staff, and there were immediate uprisings in favor of William in Cheshire, Yorkshire, and Nottinghamshire. Then after being hit with a bizarre series of nosebleeds, the king decided to abandon the battlefield and follow his wife. The king may have been suffering a mental breakdown at this point as he became utterly convinced he was destined to suffer the same terrible fate as his father. Queen Mary made it across the Channel, but the king did not, despite his disguise as a woman. He was spotted by fishermen and taken captive in Kent. William was by now in London, and he decided the best thing to do with his rival and father-in-law was to allow him to leave for

France as he had wished. William had achieved the remarkable feat of heading the first successful invasion of England since his namesake William the Conqueror (r. 1066-1087) in 1066.

➔ A Constitutional Monarchy

The official line was that James had abdicated, and Parliament recorded the removal of the monarch as occurring on 23 December 1688, the day James had left English shores. William became William III of England (also William II of Scotland, r. 1689-1702) via a decree by Parliament on 13 February 1689. This change of regime became known as the Glorious Revolution because it had occurred entirely peacefully (or almost, there were some episodes of Catholic houses and chapels being attacked during William's march to London). There had certainly been no battles or country-wide uprisings in support of either side. Whig historians (pro-Protestants) also believed the revolution 'glorious' because it had preserved the existing institutions of power, which was true, but the relationship between these institutions was altered, a change which only grew more significant over time.

There were some limitations to William's golden prize. The first was that William had to rule jointly with his wife,

now Mary II of England, although in practice he alone had sovereign power. The 'Tories' in the House of Lords (the upper chamber of Parliament) had wanted Mary to rule alone as this preserved the tradition of succession, but William would not settle for anything less than a proper king's role. The second limitation was imposed by Parliament as a new form of government was devised, a constitutional monarchy. Over the next few years, a whole barrage of laws passed by Parliament limited the monarchy's powers. Gone were the days of authoritarian monarchs who could dismiss Parliament on a whim. Now the two institutions ruled in unison, an arrangement established by the Bill of Rights of 16 December 1689.

Parliament had the ultimate authority in the key areas of passing laws and raising taxes. It also became much more involved in accounting how money was spent for state purposes, particularly on the army and navy. The monarchy was now supported not by the taxes they could raise or the land they could sell but by the money from the Civil List issued by Parliament, beginning with the Civil List Act of 1697. William may not have liked this control on his purse strings, but it meant he could not, as so many of his predecessors had done, dismiss Parliament for long periods

and only call it back when he ran out of cash. And the king needed lots of cash since he was determined to use his new position to finally face the French on the battlefield and end their domination of Europe; so began the Nine Years' War (1688–1697).

The list of limitations on William in Britain continued. No monarch could henceforth maintain their own standing army, only Parliament could declare war, and any new monarch had to swear at their coronation to uphold the Protestant Church. No Catholic or individual married to a Catholic could ever become king or queen again. To ensure Parliament did not itself abuse the power bestowed upon it, there were to be free elections every three years and a guarantee of free speech in its two Houses. Finally, the May 1689 Toleration Act, although it did not go as far as Calvinist William had hoped, protected the rights of Protestant dissenters (aka Non-Conformists) who made up around 7% of the population. After a period of persecution under the Stuarts, they could now freely worship as they wished and establish their own schools. The Toleration Act did not apply to Catholics or Jews.

➔Ireland & Scotland

James II was not dead but in exile, and eventually, encouraged by Louis XIV of France (r. 1643-1715) he made an attempt to get his throne back. Landing in Ireland in March 1689, James had some early success, but a 105-day siege of Protestant Londonderry (Derry) failed. Then the arrival of the king in person with a large English-Dutch army, which was superior to James' in both weapons and training, brought final victory at the battle of Boyne on 1 July 1690. Ireland was 75% Catholic, and although a guerrilla war rumbled on, the country found itself once again with a Protestant king.

In Scotland, Jacobite support (for James II, from the Latin *Jacobus*) had been particularly strong in the Highlands, but in the cities, there was more support for Protestant William. When the Prince of Orange had first landed in England, there were shortly afterwards sympathetic riots in Edinburgh where Catholics and their property were attacked. A Convention met to decide who to support, and the decision was made on 11 April 1689 to favour William. At the same time, the Claim of Right established the monarchy there on similar terms as declared in the English Bill of Rights. Mary and William ruled jointly in Scotland when they accepted the

crown there on 11 May 1689. There was a Jacobite rising led by Viscount Dundee which defeated a pro-William army at Killiecrankie in July 1689. Then there was a reversal in August at Dunkeld where 'Bonnie' Dundee was killed. In the meantime, the government of Scotland was established under the control of the Presbyterian Church.

In 1692, the divisions in Scotland were widened when James' supporters the MacDonald clan had its leaders massacred at Glencoe by the Campbells. James II died in exile in France in 1701, but his son James (the Old Pretender) and grandson Charles (the Young Pretender) both carried on the flame of rebellion in the Highlands. However, two Jacobite risings in 1715 and 1745 failed, and there was no way back for the troubled Royal House of Stuart.

The three kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland were now tied together more strongly than ever, at least in terms of politics and governance. William, Mary, and Parliament had created a new form of monarchy and government, one which provided a political, religious, and economic stability never before enjoyed. The Glorious Revolution thus ultimately "transformed Britain from a divided, unstable, rebellious and marginal country into the

state that would become the most powerful on the planet" (Starkey, 399).

➔ **Quotes:**

- ‘The Duke of York in all things but in his codpiece, is led by the nose by his wife’- Samuel Pepys (writing about James II, before he became king, and the influence of his wife Anne Hyde)
- ‘As very papist as the pope himself’ – Earl of Lauderdale (speaking at the time about James II becoming a Catholic)

Timeline for King James II

Year	Event
1685	James succeeds his brother, Charles II.
1685	Rebellion of the Earl of Argyll in Scotland designed to place the Duke of Monmouth, Charles II's illegitimate son, on the throne is crushed and Argyll is executed.
1685	The Duke of Monmouth rebels against James, but is defeated at the Battle of Sedgemoor in Somerset.
1685	Edict of Nantes allowing freedom of religion to Huguenot Protestants is revoked in France, resulting in thousands of Huguenot craft workers and traders settling in England.
1686	Following their defeat at Sedgemoor, Monmouth and many of the rebels are hanged or transported by the 'The Bloody Assizes' under Judge Jeffreys.
1686	James takes first measures to restore Catholicism in England, and sets up a standing army of 13,000 troops at Hounslow to overawe nearby London.
1686	Edmund Halley draws the first meteorological map showing weather systems
1687	Isaac Newton publishes Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy

Year	Event
1688	James, believing his Divine Right as King, issues the Declaration of Indulgence to suspend all laws against Catholics and Non-Conformists and repeal the 1673 Test Act. He seeks to promote his Catholic supporters in Parliament and purge Tories and Anglican clergy .
1688	James' wife, Mary of Modena, gives birth to a son and Catholic heir. His daughters Mary, married to Dutch Stadtholder William of Orange, and Anne by his first wife Anne Hyde are Protestant.
1688	Following discontent over James attempts to control politics and religion, seven leading statesmen invite William of Orange, son-in-law of James, to England to restore English liberties.
1688	The 'Glorious Revolution'. William of Orange lands at Torbay with an army of 20,000 and advances on London. Many Protestant officers in James' army including Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, and James' own daughter Anne defect to support William and his wife Mary.
1688	James abdicates and flees to exile in France.

Chapter 6

The Reign of Queen Mary II

Mary II of England (r. 1689-1694) ruled jointly with her husband William III of England (r. 1689-1702) until her death from smallpox. While William suffered a xenophobic reaction to his rule, Mary represented the continuity of the Royal House of Stuart and was much more popular with the people than her Dutch husband.

➔Early Life & Family

Mary was born on 30 April 1662 at St. James' Palace, London. Mary's father was James II of England (r. 1685-1688) of the Royal House of Stuart. Mary's mother was Anne Hyde, the daughter of the Earl of Clarendon and the first wife of James. Anne died of illness in March 1671. King James inherited the throne from his brother Charles II of England (r. 1660-1685) who died in February 1685 without any legitimate children. This succession was not straightforward since while Charles had been alive James had converted to Catholicism (in 1668). Ever since the English Reformation and events like the 1605 Gunpowder Plot to blow up the king and Parliament, Catholics had been looked upon with suspicion in England. In 1679, a group of 'Whig' politicians managed to sway Parliament into excluding

James from the succession because of his faith, but his brother Charles had him reinstated. One of the conditions of his reinstatement was that James guarantee both Mary and her younger sister Anne (b. 1665) be brought up as Protestants. Mary cast a graceful figure with her long dark hair, brown eyes, and a smooth, white complexion. Mary was a little taller than average and danced well.

Encouraged by Charles II to ensure the continued goodwill of his Protestant subjects, Mary married her cousin William, Prince of Orange (b. 1650) on 4 November 1677. William, a Dutch Protestant, was not a great catch in terms of appearance; he was short (5 inches / 12 cm shorter than Mary), hunched, had a hooked nose and black teeth, and his character was no improvement being taciturn and humorless. Mary wept for a day and a half on hearing news of her arranged marriage. The couple did eventually build a strong bond, but although Mary wrote affectionate letters to her husband throughout their marriage, William kept mistresses, and rumors abounded that his taste ran to young men, too.

When her father took the throne, Mary became his heir and remained so as James' second wife Mary of Modena proved unlucky at childbirth and all the couple's children died young.

Then the situation changed dramatically on 10 June 1688. At last, James and Mary had a son, James Francis Edward. He would surely be brought up a Catholic like both his parents, and this was of great concern to many in Parliament. There were rumours James planned to take England back to being a Catholic country, and even if there was not much concrete evidence of this intention, the king certainly fuelled suspicion by appointing Catholics in many key positions of power. James was also too authoritarian for some politicians' taste, ignoring laws, misapplying others, and even dismissing Parliament in November 1685. While many had been prepared to wait for the king to die naturally and be replaced by Protestant Mary, James Francis Edward's birth changed everything. A group of seven prominent Protestants now looked abroad for a solution.

➔The Glorious Revolution

William of Orange was an obvious choice to replace James II. He was Protestant, a grandson of Charles I of England, and, of course, was married to Mary. Further, despite the recent naval wars, Britain and the Netherlands were natural allies against Catholic France, which was then dominant on the Continent. Perhaps motivated more by the military possibilities than anything else, William accepted the

invitation from English Protestants and launched an invasion. The Dutchman and an army of up to 21,000 men landed in Devon, England on 5 November 1688. Deserted by some of his closest allies and not sure what to do, James tried to flee but was captured. William then allowed his father-in-law to leave England unmolested and join his family in France. The throne was now empty, and Parliament recorded the abdication as occurring on 23 December 1688 when James left English shores.

➔A Constitutional Monarchy

The next steps were rather more complex. The 'Whigs' in the House of Commons (Parliament's lower house) wanted a joint rule between William and Mary. Mary's own view was that William should rule as regent for her father, she had no ambition to rule alone. The 'Tories' in the House of Lords (the upper house) wanted Mary to rule alone and so preserve the natural line of succession. William would not settle for a minor role, though, and threatened to withdraw leaving chaos. Accordingly, on 13 February 1689, Parliament decreed that the pair rule jointly, even if in practice it was William who exercised the sovereign powers. Mary did formally rule, though, in those periods when William was absent from the kingdom. William III of England (also

William II of Scotland) and Mary II of England were crowned in Westminster Abbey on 11 April. Their joint reign is often simply called 'the reign of William and Mary', and newly-minted coins showed the two monarchs together. It had been a Glorious Revolution in the sense that there had been very little violence and the kingdom's traditions of governance had been preserved.

It was a revolution, or rather the beginning of one, in terms of politics. Over the next few years, Parliament ensured it was very much an active player in a new system of government: a constitutional monarchy. This was established by the Bill of Rights of 16 December 1689 and other legislation like the Civil List Act of 1697. Parliament now had the ultimate authority in the key areas of passing laws and raising taxes. No monarch could henceforth maintain their own standing army, only Parliament could declare war, and any new monarch had to swear at their coronation to uphold the Protestant Church. Finally, no Catholic or individual married to a Catholic could ever become king or queen again.

➔ The Jacobites

In 1689, James II made an unsuccessful attempt to return from exile and regain his throne by invading

Catholic Ireland, but he was ultimately defeated by William at the battle of Boyne in July 1690. The Jacobites (as supporters of James and the House of Stuart were known) were strong in the Scottish Highlands, but not strong enough to challenge William and Mary's rule there. After James' death in 1701, the Jacobites rallied around Mary's younger brother James, now known as the Old Pretender. A Jacobite rebellion in Scotland was quashed in 1715, as was another in 1745 which sought to put James II's grandson Charles Edward Stuart (aka the Young Pretender or 'Bonnie Prince Charlie', 1720-88) on the throne. As it turned out, the Stuart royal line was about to come to an end anyway.

➔Reign & Interests

William showed his true aims when he immediately embroiled England in the conflict that became known as the Nine Years' War (1688-1697) against France. The war led to no particular gains for either side. There were suspicions of William because he was not English, and his manner did him no favors. For these reasons, Mary became the popular monarch. After three successive foreign and Catholic queens, the English finally had an English Protestant queen to their liking. In those periods when William returned from campaigning and was back in England, he conducted affairs

of state again, and Mary receded into the background. The queen was praised for giving up her regency powers in this way. Mary then confined herself to her three main interests: gardening, collecting and promoting Dutch porcelain, and improving the moral state of her subjects. The latter pursuit involved reducing the levels of prostitution, drunkenness, swearing, and lack of respect for Sundays such as trading on that day. The queen supported such endeavours as the establishment in 1690 of the Society for the Reformation of Manners. Mary ensured that court sermons were made easily available to the public via printed pamphlets. She also took an active role in deciding key appointments in the Anglican Church, for example, John Tillotson as Archbishop of Canterbury. Mary's image of piety worked well with Protestants, but Jacobites and Catholics pointed out her sin of breaking the Fifth Commandment and going against her father's will. Mary's enemies suggested her lack of children was God's punishment.

In 1689 William and Mary purchased Nottingham House in the suburbs of London and transformed it into Kensington Palace. This became a favorite royal residence of the couple. The queen also oversaw new landscape gardens at their country residence, Hampton Court, based on the Dutch

model of formal gardens. Another notable achievement of the queen was the founding of the massive Royal Hospital at Greenwich in 1692. This was designed to care for sailors wounded in battles against the French and those lucky enough to reach retirement.

The royal marriage endured, and although they may not have been well suited romantically, they were a good team politically. Mary represented continuity with the Stuart line, Englishness, and piety, while William represented Protestant military power. As the king himself stated: "He was to conquer Enemies, and she was to gain Friends" (Starkey, 404). There did remain the constant problem of an heir for the couple who suffered three stillborn babies.

➔Successors

Mary contracted smallpox in December 1694, and she died in Kensington Palace on the 28th of that month. The late queen was buried in Westminster Abbey after an impressive ceremony notable for its music composed by Henry Purcell (d. 1695). William was distraught at Mary's death aged just 32, and he refused to marry again. When formally offered the condolences of MPs in Parliament, the king was so overcome with emotion he was unable to reply.

After William III died without an heir in March 1702, Mary's sister Anne became queen, and she then reigned over a united kingdom as Queen of Great Britain and Ireland from 1707 to 1714. Anne was the last of the Stuart monarchs and was succeeded by George I of England (r. 1714-1727) of the House of Hanover.

Chapter 7

The Reign of King William III

William III of England (also William II of Scotland, r. 1689-1702) became king of England, Scotland, and Ireland after the Glorious Revolution of 1688. Protestant William, Prince of Orange, was invited to rule jointly with his wife Mary II of England (1689-1694), daughter of the deposed James II of England (1685-1688), who was Catholic. William spent much of his reign in an indecisive war with France and he was not popular in his adopted kingdom.

➔ Early Life

William of Orange was born on 4 November 1650 in Binnenhof Palace, The Hague. His father was William II of Orange and his mother Mary Stuart, the daughter of Charles I of England (r. 1625-1649). William's father died before he was even born, and he lost his mother when he was just 10 years old. Both parents had succumbed to smallpox. Consequently, William became Prince of Orange immediately, a name which derives from the small principality near Avignon in southern France. William's precise role as Prince of Orange is described here by the constitutional historian R. Starkey:

The head of the House of Orange was not sovereign in the Dutch Republic, but first among equals. Sovereignty instead resided in the Estates of the seven provinces. But ever since William the Silent's leadership of the Dutch Revolt against Spain in the late sixteenth century, his descendants as princes of Orange had traditionally been made *stadholder* or governor of each of the provinces and captain-general and admiral of the armed forces of the republic.
(367)

The Dutch royal house was in decline, there were powerful anti-royal voices in the Netherlands, and the country was under threat from France, but William's strength of character and ties with England would be his salvation. The prince visited England in 1670, he was presented with two honorary university degrees, and he had an audience with his uncle Charles II of England (r. 1660-1685). The English king's family relations did not prevent him from going to war with the Netherlands in 1672. During this conflict, William became Captain and Admiral-General of the combined Dutch armed forces. In 1675, the prince was wounded in the arm fighting the French, and that after surviving a bout of smallpox the year before.

➔ The Glorious Revolution

William's main concern for the Netherlands was that this collection of states was under an ever-more serious threat from Catholic France, which was expanding its territory across the European continent. The Dutch navy could not fight both England and France together. This was one of the reasons William married Princess Mary, the daughter of (future) James II at Whitehall on 4 November 1677. Mary was considered something of a beauty, while William was short, hunched, had a hooked nose and black teeth, and his character was no improvement, being taciturn and humourless. Despite the physical disparity, the couple did eventually build a strong bond, although William kept at least one mistress (Elizabeth Villiers), and there were rumours that his taste ran to young men. The diplomatic significance of the marriage seemed to have its desired effect when Louis XIV of France (r. 1643-1715) signed a peace treaty with the Netherlands in 1678.

William was a Calvinist Protestant, and Mary had been brought up a Protestant on the insistence of the English Parliament, which feared her Catholic father James (he had converted in 1668) had plans to reinstate Catholicism as the state religion when he succeeded his elder brother Charles II

of England. Indeed, when James became king in 1665, he began to place Catholics in prominent public positions and insisted certain Catholic practices be tolerated. Further, the king was an authoritarian who ignored certain laws and who was biased in the application of others when it suited. James even dismissed Parliament in November 1685, and that body was never to be recalled while he sat on the throne. The final straw came when James finally had a son, born on 10 June 1688: James Francis Edward. The king was Catholic, the queen, Mary of Modena (d. 1718), was Catholic, and now, surely, the heir would be Catholic.

When in June 1688 prominent Protestant figures in England invited William of Orange to invade and become king, he gladly accepted. William was the grandson of Charles I of England and the son-in-law of James II, he was Protestant, and the Netherlands could be a very useful ally with its powerful navy and trade connections. The Prince of Orange was already planning an invasion even without the invitation, and he said he had merely been waiting for a favorable "Protestant wind". The ever-present threat from France had allowed William to disguise his build-up of 60 warships as a purely defensive precaution.

William would have been encouraged by two rebellions early on in James II's reign: the Argyll Rebellion in Scotland in May 1685 and the Monmouth Rebellion in the southwest of England in June-July of the same year. Both were relatively minor affairs and easily quashed when their respective leaders were caught and executed, but they did show William he would gain at least some support for a regime change back to a Protestant monarchy. Support and public celebrations of the acquittal of several prominent Protestant bishops whom James had hoped to imprison was another indication that the kingdom was far from unified in its support of the status quo.

➔Invasion

William's first attempt to reach England by sea was scuppered by stormy weather, but he persisted and landed with an army of 15-21,000 men in Devon on 5 November 1688. The army was an experienced fighting force and made up of Dutch, English, Scots, Danes, Huguenots, and even a contingent from Suriname. The prince also took a printing press so that he might more easily spread pro-Protestant propaganda. When he landed at Brixham, William reassured the Englishmen he met that "I come to do you goot. I am here for all your goots" (Cavendish, 338).

William marched slowly east towards London through unfavorable weather. Meanwhile, James was left isolated, deserted by former supporters like John Churchill and even his own daughter Anne. The queen left England for the safety of France in December. James suffered more important desertions amongst his top army staff, and there were immediate uprisings in favor of William in Cheshire, Yorkshire, and Nottinghamshire. Then after being hit with a bizarre series of nosebleeds, the king decided to abandon the battlefield and follow his wife. The king may have been suffering a mental breakdown at this point as he became utterly convinced he was destined to suffer the same terrible fate as his father. Queen Mary made it across the Channel, but the king did not, despite his disguise as a woman. He was spotted by fishermen and taken captive in Kent. William was by now in London, and he decided the best thing to do with his rival and father-in-law was to allow him to leave for France as he had wished. William had achieved the remarkable feat of heading the first successful invasion of England since his namesake William the Conqueror (r. 1066-1087) in 1066.

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The official line was that James had abdicated, and Parliament recorded the removal of the monarch as occurring on 23 December 1688, the day James had left English shores. William became William III of England via a decree by Parliament on 13 February 1689. This change of regime became known as the Glorious Revolution because it had occurred entirely peacefully (or almost, there were some episodes of Catholic houses and chapels being attacked during William's march to London). There had certainly been no battles or country-wide uprisings in support of either side. Whig historians (pro-Protestants) also believed the revolution 'glorious' because it had preserved the existing institutions of power, which was true, but the relationship between these institutions was altered, a change which only grew more significant over time.

There were some limitations to William's golden prize. The first was that William had to rule jointly with his wife, now Mary II of England, although in practice he alone had sovereign power. The 'Whigs' in the House of Commons (Parliament’s lower house) wanted a joint rule between William and Mary. Mary's own view was that William should rule as regent for her father, she had no ambition to rule

alone. The 'Tories' in the House of Lords (the upper chamber of Parliament) had wanted Mary to rule alone as this preserved the tradition of succession but William would not settle for anything less than a proper king's role. Accordingly, William III of England and Mary II of England were crowned in a joint coronation ceremony in Westminster Abbey on 11 April. Their joint reign is often simply called 'the reign of William and Mary' and newly-minted coins showed the two monarchs together.

The second limitation was imposed by Parliament as a new form of government was devised, a constitutional monarchy. Over the next few years, a whole barrage of laws passed by Parliament limited the monarchy's powers. Gone were the days of authoritarian monarchs who could dismiss Parliament on a whim. Now the two institutions ruled in unison, an arrangement established by the Bill of Rights of 16 December 1689.

Parliament had the ultimate authority in the key areas of passing laws and raising taxes. It also became much more involved in accounting how money was spent for state purposes, particularly on the army and navy. The monarchy was now supported not by the taxes they could raise or the land they could sell but by the money from the Civil List

issued by Parliament beginning with the Civil List Act of 1697. The king lamented in private "The Commons used him like a dog…Truly a King of England…is the worst figure in Christendom" (Starkey, 401).

William may not have liked this control on his purse strings, but it meant he could not, as so many of his predecessors had done, dismiss Parliament for long periods and only call it back when he ran out of cash. And the king needed lots of cash since he was determined to use his new position to finally face the French on the battlefield and at sea and end their domination of Europe. Thus began the hugely expensive Nine Years' War (1688-1697), which saw the League of Augsburg (later called the Grand Alliance and composed of such powers as the Netherlands, Holy Roman Empire, and Britain) face France. The war had no clear winner, but William did suffer bad defeats at Steenkerke in 1692 and Neerwinden in 1693. The king gained a notable victory against the French at Namur in September 1695. The war came to an end with the Treaty of Ryswick, signed on 20 September 1697, which amongst other points, finally saw Louis XIV of France (r. 1643-1715) recognize William as the rightful king of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Meanwhile, the list of limitations on William in Britain continued. No monarch could henceforth maintain their own standing army, only Parliament could declare war, and any new monarch had to swear at their coronation to uphold the Protestant Church. No Catholic or individual married to a Catholic could ever become king or queen again. To ensure Parliament did not itself abuse the power bestowed upon it, there were to be free elections every three years and a guarantee of free speech in its two Houses. Finally, the May 1689 Toleration Act, although it did not go as far as Calvinist William had hoped, protected the rights of Protestant dissenters (aka Non-Conformists) who made up around 7% of the population. After a period of persecution under the Stuarts, they could now freely worship as they wished and establish their own schools. The Toleration Act did not apply to Catholics or Jews.

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to James' in both weapons and training, brought final victory at the battle of Boyne on 1 July 1690. Ireland was 75% Catholic, and although a guerrilla war rumbled on, the country found itself once again with a Protestant king, and a peace was signed, the Treaty of Limerick, on 3 October 1691.

In Scotland, Jacobite support (for James II, from the Latin *Jacobus*) had been particularly strong in the Highlands, but in the cities, there was more support for Protestant William. When the Prince of Orange had first landed in England, there were shortly afterwards sympathetic riots in Edinburgh, where Catholics and their property were attacked. A Convention met to decide who to support and the decision was made on 11 April 1689 to favor William. At the same time, the Claim of Right established the monarchy there on similar terms as declared in the English Bill of Rights. Mary and William ruled jointly in Scotland when they accepted the crown there on 11 May 1689. There was a Jacobite rising led by Viscount Dundee which defeated a pro-William army at Killiecrankie on 27 July 1689. Then there was a reversal on 21 August at Dunkeld, where 'Bonnie' Dundee was killed. In the meantime, the government of

Scotland was established under the control of the Presbyterian Church.

In February 1692, the divisions in Scotland were widened when James' supporters the MacDonald clan had its leaders massacred at Glencoe by the Campbells. This tragic incident was all based on a misunderstanding since the MacDonalds had been on their way to swear allegiance to the new king but had been delayed by a snowstorm; their delay was taken as a refusal of loyalty by the Campbells. James II died in exile in France in 1701, but his son James (the Old Pretender) and grandson Charles (the Young Pretender) both carried on the flame of rebellion in the Highlands. However, two Jacobite risings in 1715 and 1745 failed, and there was no way back for the troubled Royal House of Stuart.

➔Reign with Mary

The royal couple made a good team. Mary represented continuity with the Stuart line, Englishness, and piety, while William, despite a lack of warmth from his adopted subjects, at least represented Protestant military power. As the king himself stated: "He was to conquer Enemies, and she was to gain Friends" (Starkey, 404). William was known for his abrupt manner and very short audiences. The king suffered

badly from asthma, and for this reason, he avoided London and Whitehall Palace with its damp air from the River Thames. The couple preferred to build a new home together and so they converted Nottingham House to Kensington Palace. Another favorite residence was Hampton Court. William's main pastimes included hunting, creating formal gardens, and collecting furniture.

Both William and Mary sought to modernize the monarchy. Both were against some of the more dubious traditions associated with the supposed mystical power of sovereigns. One of these was the 'King's Touch', the belief that a king or queen could cure certain illnesses merely by touching the sufferer. William abolished the tradition entirely. William also abandoned the tradition of the monarch washing the feet of commoners on Maundy Thursday.

It was to prove a short joint reign. Mary contracted smallpox in December 1694, and she died in Kensington Palace on the 28th of that month. The late queen was buried in Westminster Abbey after an impressive ceremony notable for its music composed by Henry Purcell (d. 1695). William was distraught at Mary's death aged just 32, and he refused to marry again. When formally offered the condolences of MPs in Parliament, the king was so overcome with emotion

he was unable to reply. In 1696, the king survived a kidnap and assassination attempt by Jacobite sympathisers, but, if anything, this provoked a rising in public sympathy for William. Nevertheless, a mutual suspicion remained between sovereign and subjects, one of the reasons the king insisted on maintaining a personal guard made up of Dutch Blue Guards (until Parliament ordered their removal in 1699).

➔**Death & Successor**

William died on 8 March 1702 at Kensington Palace. He had suffered an infection as a result of falling from his horse and breaking his collarbone in February. The king's horse had tripped over a molehill in Richmond Park, a triviality that caused the king's death within two weeks. The king was buried in Westminster Abbey after an unusually low-key midnight funeral service, which illustrated more than anything else that William had never been fully accepted by his subjects.

William and Mary had suffered three stillborn babies and so they had no direct heir. Consequently, Mary's younger sister Anne (b. 1665), who had been the official heir since February 1695, became queen, and she then reigned over a united kingdom as Queen of Great Britain and Ireland from 1707 to 1714. Anne was the last of the Stuart monarchs and

was succeeded by George I of England (r. 1714-1727) of the House of Hanover. The joint strength of monarchy and Parliament, mixed with financial reforms and heavy investment and modernization of the Royal Navy, now the most powerful in the world, meant that Britain entered the 18th century ready to take on the world and build an empire of unprecedented size and wealth.

➔ **Quotes:**

- 'The liberties of England and the Protestant religion I will maintain' – William III (on landing in England to take the crown from Catholic James II)

Timeline for King William III and Queen Mary II

Year	Event
1689	William and Mary become joint King and Queen.
1689	Parliament draws up the Declaration of Right detailing the unconstitutional acts of James II.
1689	Bill of Rights is passed by Parliament. It stipulates that no Catholic can succeed to the throne, and also limits the powers of the Royal prerogative. The King of Queen cannot withhold laws passed by Parliament or levy taxes without Parliamentary consent.
1689	Jacobite Highlanders rise in support of James and are victorious at Killiekrankie but are defeated a few months later at Dunkeld.
1689	Catholic forces loyal to James II land in Ireland from France and lay siege to Londonderry.
1690	William defeats James and French troops at the Battle of the Boyne in Ireland. Scottish Jacobites defeated at Haughs of Cromdale
1690	Anglo-Dutch naval force is defeated by the French at Beachy Head.

Year	Event
1691	The Treaty of Limerick allows Catholics in Ireland to exercise their religion freely, but severe penal laws soon follow.
1691	William offers the Scottish Highlanders a pardon for the Jacobite uprising if they sign allegiance him
1692	Glencoe Massacre. MacDonalds are killed by Campbells for not signing the oath of allegiance
1694	Bank of England founded by William Paterson
1694	Death of Mary. William now rules alone.
1697	Peace of Ryswick ends the war with France.
1697	First Civil List Act passed
1701	The Act of Settlement establishes Hanoverian and Protestant succession to the throne.
1701	James II dies in exile in France. French king recognizes James II's son James Edward (The Old Pretender) as "James III".
1701	William forms grand alliance between England, Holland, and Austria to prevent the union of the French and Spanish crowns.
1702	William dies after a riding accident. Stuarts in exile toast 'the gentleman in black velvet' in the belief that his horse stumbled on a mole hill.

Chapter 8

The Reign of Queen Anne

(Queen of Great Britain)

Anne reigned as Queen of England, Scotland, and Ireland from 1702 and then, following the 1707 Act of Union, over a united kingdom as Queen of Great Britain until her death in 1714. The last of the Stuart monarchs, Anne's reign witnessed the Spanish War of Succession which helped Britain establish itself as a major world power.

➔The Stuart Family

James II of England (r. 1685-1688) took over the throne from his late brother Charles II of England (r. 1660-1685) since the latter had no legitimate heir. James was a Catholic, but part of the deal which allowed him to succeed his Protestant brother in 1685 was that he promise to raise his two daughters as Protestants. James' first wife was Anne Hyde, the daughter of the Earl of Clarendon (m. 1660). The couple had two daughters: Mary (b. 1662) and the younger Anne, born on 6 February 1665 at St. James' Palace. Anne Hyde died of illness in 1671, and King James married again, this time to Mary (d. 1718), the daughter of the Duke of Modena. The royal couple had a son, James Francis Edward, who was born on 10 June 1688. There were rumors

that the prince was an outsider brought in for convenience, and Anne herself had her suspicions about his legitimacy. The birth relegated Mary and Anne to second and third in line to the throne respectively. For Anne, in particular, the improbable likelihood of her becoming the monarch meant that she did not receive the education or preparation enjoyed by other future sovereigns.

The arrival of a new heir to the throne, who would surely be brought up a Catholic like both his parents, coupled with the king's pro-Catholic policies and authoritarian manner seriously worried many in Parliament. In order to maintain the integrity of Parliament and the achievements of the English Reformation and the primacy of Protestantism in England, several nobles now looked abroad for an alternative king. The obvious choice was William, Prince of Orange. The Dutchman was a Protestant and, in command of a powerful navy, he would be a very useful ally. Further, William was closely connected to the British royal family. William was, through his mother, the grandson of Charles I of England (r. 1625-1649), and he had married James II's daughter Mary in 1677. William was keen to have England's navy, professional army, and resources to aid him in his ongoing conflict with Louis XIV of France (r. 1643-1715).

As it turned out, William's invasion of England was remarkably tranquil, and King James, seeing desertions left, right, and center – including by his daughter Anne – took the prudent action of escaping to France. This was the Glorious Revolution of 1688. The Prince of Orange became William III of England and his wife Mary II of England (r. 1689-1694). The two ruled jointly until Mary died of smallpox in December 1694. Anne had an uneasy relationship with William whom she described in letters with derogatory terms such as "the Dutch monster" (Cannon, 308). Largely, the royal in-laws kept their relationship distant and formal.

➔**Succession**

William and Mary had no surviving children and so the late Mary's sister Anne was declared the official heir in February 1695. William died as the consequence of a riding accident on 8 March 1702. James II, still in exile in France, had died in 1701, but his son James (the Old Pretender) and grandson Charles (the Young Pretender) both carried on the flame of rebellion, especially in the Scottish Highlands. Nevertheless, Anne's throne was secure. The queen was, though, like William and Mary before her, now part of a constitutional monarchy, where Parliament was much more powerful than earlier Stuart times. In the decade or so

following the Glorious Revolution, Parliament had gained the ultimate authority in the key areas of passing laws and raising taxes. No monarch could henceforth maintain their own standing army, only Parliament could declare war, and any new monarch had to swear at their coronation to uphold the Protestant Church. The monarch could not now dismiss Parliament on a whim and their accounts were controlled by the Civil List.

Anne was crowned in Westminster Abbey on 23 April 1702; she was 37 years old. She had married Prince George of Denmark (1653-1708), the son of Frederick III of Denmark (r. 1648-70) on 28 July 1683. King William made George the Duke of Cumberland, but he was largely ignored until Anne became queen, and even then his disinterest in political life ensured he remained a marginal figure. The couple had many children, but unfortunately, all but one died very young or were stillborn. The sole heir was William, Duke of Gloucester (b. 1689), but he, too, was a sickly child, and he died aged 12.

➔Key Reign Events

- **Personal Companions**

Anne took a keen interest in her role as part of the apparatus of a constitutional monarchy. For example, she

often sat in on cabinet meetings and even debates in the House of Lords, disguising herself as an ordinary woman. She knew her own mind and resisted pressure from others as seen even before her succession in the Churchill affair. John Churchill (future Duke of Marlborough, 1650-1722) was suspected of plotting a return of James II, and so Princess Anne was advised that Churchill's wife Sarah Jenyns (also spelt Jennings) was no longer a suitable member of her court. Although Anne had approved of William and Mary's Glorious Revolution, the princess refused to dismiss Sarah, causing the displeasure of her sister Queen Mary and resulting in her expulsion from Whitehall Palace. The two Stuart sisters never spoke to each other again. Eventually, Queen Anne tired of Sarah Jenyns' company – the final straw was a public argument outside St. Paul's Cathedral over costume – and her new favourite became Abigail Masham. The queen's relationships with her closest female confidantes led to gossip and speculation that Anne was a lesbian.

- **Whigs & Tories**

Anne's reign was a turbulent time in terms of politics. This was the period that saw a clearer formation of political parties. There were two main groups in Parliament: the

Whigs and the Tories. The Whigs were a mix of wealthy landowners, business owners, and financial speculators. They were staunch defenders of Parliamentary powers and so only wished to see a very limited monarchy. The Tories were more reactionary and largely made up of country gentry who believed in the two great traditions of monarchy and church. Anne was above party politics, as she herself once stated: "All I desire is my liberty in encouraging and employing all those that concur faithfully in my service, whether they are Whigs or Tories" (Dicken, 256). Anne left affairs of state to her key ministers like the Lord Treasurer, Sidney, Baron Godolphin, the Secretary of State Robert Harley, and John Churchill (back in favour) who headed the armed forces and took charge of diplomatic affairs.

- **War of Spanish Succession**

It was rare indeed for a monarch to enjoy an entirely peaceful reign, and Anne was no exception. The War of Spanish Succession of 1701-14 saw most of Europe become embroiled in just who should inherit the Spanish Empire after the death of Charles II of Spain. The conflict saw England gain several important victories, notably the taking of Gibraltar by Admiral Rooke in 1704 and, later in the same year, the great victory at the Battle of Blenheim in

Germany which was masterminded by the Duke of Marlborough. In gratitude, Anne ensured public funds went into the building of the Churchill family home, the magnificent Blenheim Palace in Oxfordshire. More impressive British victories came in Ramillies in 1706 and Oudenarde in 1708. In 1713-15, the Treaty of Utrecht ended the War of Spanish Succession and resulted in an enlargement of the British colonies in North America (Newfoundland and Nova Scotia) and a lucrative monopoly contract to ship slaves from Africa to colonies of the Spanish Empire.

- **Act of Union**

More key events included, in 1705, Britain's first copyright law being passed by Parliament, the Statute of Anne. In 1707, the Act of Union formally joined England and Scotland into a single kingdom now called Great Britain. This came about really in order to limit the possibility of the Scots returning to an independent monarch, such was their dislike of Anne's official heirs, the Hanoverian family, selected as such in the 1701 Act of Settlement. Under the Act of Union, the Scottish and English parliaments became one (with Westminster expanded to include 45 Scottish MPs), the currency of the two realms was made the same, free trade was granted, and a union flag adopted. The

Scottish Presbyterian church, judiciary, and education system all remained independent. In order to pass through the act, multiple bribes were paid to Scottish nobles and a lump sum of £400,000 paid to Scotland. These behind-the-scenes efforts failed, though, to prevent riots of protest occurring in Edinburgh and Glasgow. The Act of Union was passed by the Scottish Parliament on 16 January 1707 and by the English Parliament on 6 March. The year 1707 also saw the first general elections. 1708 brought the completion of St. Paul's Cathedral in London, built according to a magnificent baroque design by Sir Christopher Wren.

- **Queen Anne Furniture**

Queen Anne gave her name to a style of decorative arts, seen particularly in furniture and driven by the fashion for tea parties where small chairs, side tables, and cabinets were used. The style first appeared in the reign of her predecessor William III, and it continued to be popular after Anne's reign. Queen Anne furniture, still highly collectable today, is frequently made from walnut and includes the use of cabriole (double-curved) legs with a foot made to resemble a claw or paw. A feature of Queen Anne chairs is a back which curves to match the contours of the spine.

➔ Ailing Health & Successor

Anne was a well-liked queen. Cheerful, and with a fine-speaking voice, she was successful in her wars abroad (she frequently headed processions to victory services at St. Paul's cathedral) and was a promoter of good causes. Anne cultivated her Englishness – she had stated in her accession speech that unlike her predecessor William of Orange, "I know my heart to be entirely English" (Cannon, 308). The queen particularly liked to associate herself with Elizabeth I of England (r. 1558-1603) and dressed accordingly. Anne was prone, like her mother, to corpulence, and her weight grew so that she was eventually obliged to use a sedan chair. Other physical ailments included rheumatism, gout, and eye problems.

Queen Anne outlived her husband George by six years; she died at the age of 49 on 1 August 1714 at Kensington Palace after suffering two strokes. The queen's outsize coffin was interred in Westminster Abbey. Anne was the last of the Stuart monarchs, which had begun with Robert II of Scotland (r. 1371-1390). She was succeeded by George Ludwig, Elector of Hannover, who became George I of England (r. 1714-1727). George was Anne's nearest relation of the Protestant faith – Parliament had passed a law

forbidding a Catholic to take the throne – and the first monarch of the House of Hanover, which was connected to the Stuarts through the descendants of Elizabeth Stuart, daughter of James I of England (r. 1603-1625). The change of ruling house was an opportunity not missed by the Jacobites, those who still supported the royal line through James II's son, the Old Pretender. James Francis Edward Stuart refused to renounce his Catholicism to make himself more appealing to his subjects, and a Jacobite rising was quashed in Scotland in 1715. So the Protestant monarchy of Britain continued as Queen Anne would have wished.

➔ **Quotes**

- ‘She meant well and was not a fool; but nobody can maintain that she was wise, nor entertaining in conversation’ – Sarah Churchill (about Queen Anne)

Timeline for Queen Anne

Year	Event
1702	Anne succeeds her brother-in-law, William III.
1702	England declares war on France in the War of the Spanish Succession
1704	English, Bavarian, and Austrian troops under Marlborough defeat the French at the Battle of Blenheim and save Austria from invasion.
1704	British capture Gibraltar from Spain.
1706	Marlborough defeats the French at the Battle of Ramillies, and expels the French from the Netherlands.
1707	The Act of Union unites the kingdoms of England and Scotland and

Year	Event
	transfers the seat of Scottish government to London.
1708	Marlborough defeats the French at the Battle of Oudenarde. .
1708	Anne vetoes a parliamentary bill to reorganize the Scottish militia, the last time a bill is vetoed by the sovereign.
1708	James Edward Stuart, 'The Old Pretender', arrives in Scotland in an unsuccessful attempt to gain the throne.
1709	Marlborough defeats the French at the Battle of Malplaquet.
1710	The Whig government falls and a Tory ministry is formed.
1710	St Paul's Cathedral, London, completed by Sir Christopher Wren
1711	First race meeting held at Ascot
1713	The Treaty of Utrecht is signed by Britain and France, bringing to an end the War of the Spanish Succession.
1714	Queen Anne dies at Kensington Palace.