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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

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.

An Introduction to Stuart England (1603–1714)

The Stuart dynasty reigned in England and Scotland from 1603 to 1714, a period which saw a flourishing Court culture but also much upheaval and instability, of plague, fire and war.

It was an age of intense religious debate and radical politics. Both contributed to a bloody civil war in the mid-seventeenth century between Crown and Parliament (the Cavaliers and the Roundheads), resulting in a parliamentary victory for Oliver Cromwell and the dramatic execution of King Charles I.

There was a short-lived republic, the only time that the country had experienced such an event.

The Restoration of the Crown was soon followed by another 'Glorious' Revolution. William and Mary of Orange ascended the throne as joint monarchs and defenders of Protestantism, followed by Queen Anne, the second of James II's daughters.

The prospect of end of the Stuart line, with the death of Queen Anne's only surviving child in 1700, led to the drawing up of the Act of Settlement in 1701, which provided that only Protestants could hold the throne.

The next in line according to the provisions of this act was George Elector of Hanover, yet Stuart Princes remained in the wings. The Stuart legacy was to linger on in the form of claimants to the Crown for another century.

Chapter 1
King James I (1603 – 1625)
(The Jacobean Era)

King James I was the first king of the United Kingdom. He ascended to the throne in 1603, following the death of Queen Elizabeth I. James was a controversial monarch, and his reign was marked by numerous conflicts with Parliament. Despite these disagreements, James made significant progress in establishing the foundations of the United Kingdom. He also oversaw a period of great artistic and literary achievement in England.

James was born in Scotland in 1566. He was the son of Mary, Queen of Scots, and Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley. He was the great-great-grandson of Henry VII. His father died when he was only eight months old and James was raised by his mother and her second husband, the Earl of Moray.

James, therefore, became King of Scotland in 1567. He ruled jointly with his mother until she was forced to flee to England in 1568.

In 1589, James married Anne of Denmark. The couple had six children, but only two survived infancy.

First King of the United Kingdom

Elizabeth I died childless in 1603 and James I of England (who had been James the VI of Scotland before taking the British throne) succeeded his cousin. He was not a Tudor, he was a Stuart. He was

also the son of Mary, Queen of Scots. Unlike his mother, he was raised a staunch Protestant. James was also the great-great-grandson of Henry VII, King of England and Lord of Ireland which meant that James was to eventually claim the three thrones as his right. James, through this lineage, was able to do what no other ruler could do before him: he unified England, Scotland and Ireland thereby calling himself “The King of Great Britain and Ireland” though Parliament did not agree with this new title. Nevertheless, he reigned over all three kingdoms until his death in 1625. This was to be later coined the *Jacobean* era.

Peace with Spain

On the death of Queen Elizabeth I in 1603, many hoped that the atmosphere of religious tension would diminish. Her successor was James VI, King of Scotland. James was a Protestant like Elizabeth but he thought of himself as a peacemaker.

As the son of the Catholic Mary, Queen of Scots, he was also expected to treat Catholics better than Elizabeth. Some Catholics even believed that he might stop their persecution, and allow them to worship freely.

The King, however, was under pressure from many members of the House of Commons who were strongly anti-Catholic. He also became less sympathetic towards Catholics following the discovery of a series of minor Catholic plots.

The Bye Plot of 1603 was a conspiracy to kidnap the King and force him to repeal anti-Catholic legislation. The Main Plot was an alleged plan by Catholic nobles to remove the King and replace him with his cousin, the Catholic Arabella Stuart.

Although she was a Protestant, James's wife, Anne of Denmark, converted to Catholicism. This was one of a number of factors that led many Catholics to hope for toleration under his rule.

With Elizabeth I and Philip II of Spain now dead, both countries were keen to conclude fifteen years of war and signed a peace treaty at the Somerset House Conference in London in 1604.

Catholics hoped that the Spanish would press for toleration of English Catholics in the peace negotiations. In fact they failed to obtain any concessions at all.

The Gunpowder Plot

In 1605, a group of angry English Catholics who disagreed with James' lack of tolerance for the Catholic Church plotted to blow up the House of Lords at the state opening of Parliament on November 5, 1605. The plot was uncovered and at midnight the night before the opening, authorities discovered a man by the name of Guy Fawkes guarding 36 barrels of gunpowder under the Parliament building. That was enough explosive to have reduced the building to ashes. All the men involved were executed and to this day, the fifth of November is termed "Guy Fawkes Night" and is commemorated with bonfires, firecrackers and burning effigies of Guy Fawkes. But the

dissent with James did not end there. Many of the English resented having a Scottish king and they felt that they had been “invaded” by the Scots. A plot to bomb the homes of prominent Scottish residents was discovered and stopped. This discovery shocked the English and brought James a lot of sympathy. But it was not enough to stop the series of wars that were to come.

The King and the Puritans

James was also in conflict with the Puritans, a group of Protestants who wanted to reform the Church of England. The Puritans believed that James was too tolerant of Catholics and too fond of pomp and ceremony.

By the time James I had ascended to the English throne he was already an experienced king and had several disagreements with the English parliament. The English Parliament had been used to the dignity and regality of the Tudors and didn’t take kindly to James’s attempts to rule as an absolute monarch. In 1607 James dissolved the English Parliament after they refused to pass a bill that would have allowed him to raise money without their consent.

The King and the Scots

James also had disagreements with the Scottish Parliament. The Scots were unhappy that James was trying to impose English laws and customs on them. In 1609 James tried to solve the problem by creating a new Scottish Parliament, which would be more loyal to him. This didn’t work and the two parliaments continued to clash.

King James Bible

King James oversaw the translation of a Bible for the common people which was published in 1611 and is still in publication today. This Bible served to strengthen Protestantism, but it also was responsible for introducing hundreds of phrases and idioms into the English language. The King James Bible influenced many writers during the period soon after its publication, among these was John Milton.

The Execution of Sir Walter Raleigh

Raleigh was a well known explorer and soldier. He was a favorite of James I and was granted many honors including the title of Earl of Marlborough. However, Raleigh fell out of favor with the King and was eventually executed for treason in 1618 after he came in to conflict with the Spanish in Guiana.

The Death of King James I

James suffered from ill health for many years before he died on 27th March 1625 at the age of 59. He was succeeded by his son Charles I.

➔ 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.
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,

Year	Event
	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.
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
King Charles I (1625-1649)
(The Caroline Era)

King Charles I was the monarch of England, Scotland, and Ireland from March 27, 1625, until his execution. He was born on November 19, 1600 in Dunfermline Palace, Dunfermline and was executed in 1649 in the city of Westminster. King James VI of Scotland was Charles' father. Charles' older brother, Henry Frederick, Prince of Wales, died in 1612, and then Charles became heir apparent to the English, Irish and Scottish thrones.

While he was born in Scotland, after his father inherited the English throne in 1603 the family moved to England. Charles spent eight months in Spain in 1623 while some attempted to arrange a marriage between him and the Spanish Habsburg princess Maria Anna. He later married Henrietta Maria of France.

A Troubled Start

After taking the throne, Charles disagreed with England's Parliament. Charles thought it his divine right to govern as he saw fit, and many of his subjects opposed his ideas, so the Parliament fought to control his methods. He was thought of as a tyrant by his people, mostly because of the tax structure that he tried to put into place. Henrietta Maria of France was also a Roman Catholic and the sister of the King of France. This led many in the kingdom to not trust him and thought him overly loyal to the Pope and France because of his Catholicism.

In Europe, the *Thirty Years War* was taking place, right around the time the English Civil War broke out. This war occurred because the people of Bohemia (Czech Republic) wanted Fredrick, the Protestant brother in law of Charles as King, instead of the Catholic Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand 2nd as their ruler. While this war took place mostly in Germany, it involved almost all of Europe and resulted in an overall reduced population of most European countries. It was also very costly financially and caused the bankruptcy of many countries.
Charles did not help his brother in law Fredrick, as Fredrick was a Protestant. Later Charles tried to force the Church of Scotland to adopt the Anglican practices. This later led to the *Bishops' Wars*, which ultimately led to his downfall.

The Tyrant King or The Martyr King?

Charles decided to dissolve Parliament in March 1629. 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.

For eleven years, from 1629 to 1640 King Charles I rules in a total dictatorship, and refuses to call Parliament for this entire time. Eventually, Charles runs out of money and is forced to call Parliament in 1640. At this time Parliament refuses to talk about raising taxes unless he controls Laud and Wentworth who are running Ireland and Scotland, and who the Parliament think are gangsters.

The Short Parliament

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.

Charles tries to force the Church of Scotland to use the English Book of Common Prayer, which is not at all in line with their religion. Because of Charles' attempts to control the Church of Scotland, many in the kingdom turned against him, and this made the parliaments of both England and Scotland stronger.

King Charles I and The English Civil War

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.
King Charles I apparently decided Parliament had overstepped its authority. Charles was angered by these grievances and marched soldiers into the House of Commons to arrest the MP's who had been instrumental in drafting the missive. But they had already fled. Charles knew he had lost control over Parliament and the City of London, so he also left the capital to go into hiding.

In 1642 the English Civil War broke out, and Charles fought against the army of the parliaments. 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 first battle of the English Civil War took place at Edge hill, Warwickshire in 1643. The last battle, which took place at Naseby, Northampton shire was in 1645. This last battle of Naseby was won by Oliver Cromwell, who was well educated in the tactics of war. After this defeat, Charles retreated to Oxford.

Why Was King Charles I Executed?

Charles finally surrendered to the Scottish in 1645. The Scottish army later handed him over to the English Parliament forces. The English Parliament demanded that a constitutional monarchy was put into place, but Charles refused to agree to these requests. Charles escaped for a short period in November 1647 but was recaptured and put into prison on the Isle of Wight. Charles then attempted to build a partnership with Scotland, but by then in 1648 Oliver Cromwell's New Model Army had control over England. In January 1649, Charles was convicted and executed for high treason.

Charles was accused of treason against England because it was said that he was using his power as King to follow personal interests, instead of interests for the good of the country. Charles I was executed on 30 January 1649.

After Charles was executed, his wife, who was French, fled to Paris with their children, including Prince Charles who was next in line for the throne. Parliament then decided that the monarchy was ended, and the Commonwealth of England was born. This was a republic, and different from the absolute monarchy that Charles I had tried to wield. In 1660 the monarchy was then reinstated and turned over to his son, Charles II. The monarchy, while the same in name, now had a more limited power that was shared with Parliament.

A Short Chronology of King Charles I:

- 1600: Charles born in Scotland.
- 1612: Charles older brother Frederick is killed. Charles is now next in line for the throne.
- 1613: His sister Elizabeth marries German Prince Fredrick.
- 1619: 30 Years War begins in Europe.
- 1624: England enters 30 Years War and goes to war with Catholic Spain.
- 1625: King James dies. Charles then marries the Catholic Henrietta Maria which creates tension.
- 1625: Charles calls Parliament to raise taxes to afford the continuation of war on Spain. Parliament refuses. The war effort fails.
- 1626: Charles is crowned King.
- 1633: King Charles I appoints Laud and Wentworth to control Scotland and Ireland.
- 1637: King Charles I begins war with Scotland.
- 1639: First Bishops War begins.
- 1640: King Charles I finally calls Parliament to raise taxes, but it's a failure.
- 1642: English Civil War begins. It continues until 1649.
- 1649: King Charles I is convicted and executed for high treason.

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.
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.

Year	Event
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.

Chapter 3
Oliver Cromwell
(Interregnum)

The Interregnum was the period between the execution of Charles I on 30 January 1649 and the arrival of his son Charles II in London on 29 May 1660, which marked the start of the Restoration. During the Interregnum, England was under republican government.

Oliver Cromwell lived from 1599 to 1658. He has been known through the years for his being the General and Lord Protector of England.

Much has been written about him and his many firsts. He was the first private person to take power and rule England. He was the first to judge a king. He condemned the king in a formal and lawful process, and publicly executed the king as a criminal.

England at that time was a country governed by common law, precedent and custom. Cromwell not only reformed Parliament, he also enacted a written constitution. This totally changed England's ancient frame of government.

Cromwell was the first British statesman whose career was completely dependent on the use of military power and control. For instance, by conquering the two separate kingdoms of Ireland and Scotland, he incorporated them into a single commonwealth joined with England. However, this achievement lasted only for a short time.

Interesting Facts of Oliver Cromwell's Life, History and Times

➔*Early Life – Where Was Oliver Cromwell Born?*

Fact 1: Oliver Cromwell was born on April 25th, 1599. At the time of his birth, the 17th century was approaching. This was a time of religious and political upheaval.

Fact 2: Cromwell's life growing up had upper class benefits such as exposure to high society members and education. But his family was not wealthy and didn't have the money to live a wealthy lifestyle.

Fact 3: Cromwell married Elizabeth Bourchier in 1620. The Bourchier family provided Cromwell with a connection to prestige and wealth. They owned large portions of land, and their wealth opened many doors for Cromwell.

Fact 4: Cromwell was at first unsuccessful as a landowner. It was during the late 1620's and early 1630's that he was treated by a London doctor for depression. Another cause of his depression may have been his long dispute with tenants wanting a charter for a town in Cromwell's territory.

Fact 5: In 1628, Cromwell became a Member of Parliament for Huntingdon. It only lasted for one year since the king disbanded Parliament and ruled the country himself for the next 11 years.

➔ *The Influence Of Religion*

Fact 6: Cromwell became deeply dissatisfied with his life by the early 1630's. In 1631, he sold his land and relocated to a small farm. He stayed away from circles of wealth and power, and raised sheep and chickens. It was when he was living on the farm that he experienced a religious conversion.

Fact 7: During the reign of Henry VIII, England no longer practiced Catholicism. The Church of England created by Henry VIII was Protestant. For most of Cromwell's life, he was a member of the Church of England. Living a simple farmer's life, he became increasingly interested in Protestant religious beliefs.

Fact 8: Cromwell lived on his farm for the next ten years. It was during this time that he developed a strong connection to the Puritan religion. The Puritans believed that the Church of England should not follow the influence of Catholicism. Since the Puritans opposed the Church of England, that meant the Puritans were also opposed to the king of England who was the leader of the Church. The most important event of Cromwell's life was his conversion to Puritanism.

Fact 9: Becoming a Puritan was a step down in social standing for Cromwell. However, that was soon changed when he received an inheritance. The inheritance elevated his status. He now was able to establish meaningful ties to important families in London and Essex.

Fact 10: In 1640, the king of England was King Charles I. He previously disbanded Parliament which was England's legislative

branch and ruled by imposing high taxes on the people. The king raised the taxes to pay for his war in Scotland. The king's changes to the Church of England's practices and his increases in taxes made him very unpopular. It was at this time that Cromwell returned to political power and opposed the king's actions.

➔*Cromwell In Opposition To The King*

Fact 11: In 1640, Cromwell was a leader of a radical group of members of Parliament. They demanded the king surrender royal power to Parliament. When Charles I refused, the scene was set for a civil war.

Fact 12: Ireland and Scotland rebelled against King Charles I in 1641. The king was forced to recall the Parliament as a result. At this time, Cromwell became a House of Commons leader. There were two houses of Parliament, and The House of Commons was one of them.

Fact 13: King Charles I had a history of constant conflict with the House of Commons. Before long, a conflict developed between Charles I and the House of Commons. The conflict became a physical battle between the Parliament soldiers, known as the New Model Army, and the king's forces. Cromwell was the leader of the New Model Army.

➔ *Oliver Cromwell Military & Battle*

Fact 14: In 1644, Cromwell's military skill at the Battle of Marston Moor led to a battle victory. In the meantime, Cromwell led an attack from the front. This was the Parliamentarians' biggest victory. For the first time, Parliament took control of northern England. After this battle, Cromwell became Lieutenant General of horse in the army of the Earl of Manchester.

Fact 15: In 1645, Cromwell introduced discipline to his troops. This allowed the officers to control and direct the troops better. Besides that, he also paid his soldiers on a regular basis. These two actions created a dedicated and loyal army.

Fact 16: In 1645, Oliver Cromwell served as the deputy commander of the New Model Army. The most feared division of the New Model Army was the cavalry. Cromwell and the cavalry defeated the Royalist's forces at the Battle of Naseby. They captured King Charles I at the battle as well. Within a year, England's civil war was over. Cromwell then became the leader of England. The members of Parliament who didn't support the political and religious views of Cromwell were dismissed by him.

Fact 17: From 1646 to 1648, the differences between the Army and Parliament grew day by day. The Presbyterian party joined up with the Scots and Royalists remaining. They now thought they were strong enough to start a Second Civil War. Cromwell and his men put down an uprising in South Wales.

➔ *Cromwell's Reign*

Fact 18: In 1648, Cromwell and the members of Parliament who were allowed to remain were known as the Rump Parliament. They charged Charles I with high treason and found him guilty. The king was then beheaded. The executing of Charles I was the first time England's sitting monarch was tried and executed.

Fact 19: In 1649, the Royalists teamed up with rebellious Catholics in Ireland. Their goal was to invade Britain and defeat the parliamentary regime.

Fact 20: In 1649, Cromwell and his army invaded Ireland. They attacked a Royalist stronghold that was located on the east coast of Ireland. When Cromwell and his men attacked the city, they slaughtered thousands of people. He claimed this bloody act was to invoke retribution for the Catholic massacre of Protestants in 1641.

Fact 21: In 1649, the New Model Army broke up.

Fact 22: In 1651, Cromwell returned to England. He crushed a Scottish invasion at the Battle of Worcester. The Scottish invasion was led by King Charles I's son. Cromwell said that winning this battle was his 'crowning victory'. Parliament now totally controlled England.

Fact 23: In 1653, the fighting had ended, and Cromwell set out to replace the English government he believed to be corrupt. Cromwell now ruled England as the Lord Protector. The Rump Parliament

members seemed to be determined to indefinitely extend their rule. Cromwell scolded them in the House of Commons because they appeared to be self-serving. His troops shut down Parliament and exchanged it with the assembly of saints which was a group of puritans. When Cromwell found them to also be unsatisfactory, he removed them as well.

Fact 24: Cromwell died of natural causes in 1658, and his son Richard succeeded as Lord Protector. Richard sought to expand the basis for the Protectorate beyond the army to civilians. He summoned a Parliament in 1659. However, the republicans assessed his father's rule as "a period of tyranny and economic depression" and attacked the monarchy-like character of the Protectorate. Richard was unable to manage the Parliament and control the army. In May, a Committee of Safety was formed on the authority of the Rump Parliament, displacing the Protector's Council of State, and was in turn replaced by a new Council of State. A year later monarchy was restored.

➔ *The Return Of The King*

Fact 25: In 1659, Oliver Cromwell's son was overthrown by the army. The monarchy of King Charles was established.

Fact 26: In 1660, Charles I's son became King. The British celebrated the end of the Cromwell rule and the installation of the crown to Charles II. But Charles II didn't get financial control over the military and government. This was the beginning of

parliamentary democracy. Cromwell's greatest legacy was parliamentary democracy for England.

Fact 27: The unearthing of Oliver Cromwell's body along with John Bradshaw's and Henry Ireton's were ordered by the new Parliament of King Charles II. The men's bodies were hung for one day till four in the afternoon. Their heads were then cut off and placed on 20 foot spikes above Westminster Hall. Westminster Hall was the location where Charles I's trial took

TERMS

- ***Interregnum***

The period between the execution of Charles I on January 30, 1649, and the arrival of his son Charles II in London on May 29, 1660, which marked the start of the Restoration. During the Interregnum England was under various forms of republican government as the Commonwealth of England.

- ***The Commonwealth Of England***

The Commonwealth was the period when England, later along with Ireland and Scotland, was ruled as a republic following the end of the Second English Civil War and the trial and execution of Charles I (1649). The republic's existence was declared by the Rump Parliament on May 19, 1649. Power in the early Commonwealth was vested primarily in the Parliament and a Council of State. During this

period, fighting continued, particularly in Ireland and Scotland, between the parliamentary forces and those opposed to them, as part of what is now referred to as the Third English Civil War.

In 1653, after the forcible dissolution of the Rump Parliament, Oliver Cromwell was declared Lord Protector of a united Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland under the terms of the Instrument of Government, inaugurating the period now known as the Protectorate. The term “Commonwealth” is sometimes used for the whole of 1649 to 1660—a period referred to by monarchists as the Interregnum—although for other historians, the use of the term is limited to the years prior to Cromwell’s formal assumption of power in 1653.

- ***The Protectorate***

The Protectorate was the period during the Commonwealth when England (which at that time included Wales), Ireland, and Scotland were governed by a Lord Protector. The Protectorate began in 1653 when, following the dissolution of the Rump Parliament and then Barebone’s Parliament, Oliver Cromwell was appointed Lord Protector of the Commonwealth under the terms of the Instrument of Government.

Cromwell had two key objectives as Lord Protector. The *first* was “healing and settling” the nation after the chaos of the civil wars and the regicide. The social priorities did not, despite the revolutionary nature of the government, include any meaningful attempt to reform the social order. He was also careful in the way he approached

overseas colonies. England's American colonies in this period consisted of the New England Confederation, the Providence Plantation, the Virginia Colony, and the Maryland Colony. Cromwell secured the submission of these, but left them to their own affairs.

His *second* objective was spiritual and moral reform. As a very religious man (Independent Puritan), he aimed to restore liberty of conscience and promote both outward and inward godliness throughout England. The latter translated into rigid religious laws (e.g., compulsory church attendance).

The first Protectorate parliament met in September 1654, and after some initial gestures approving appointments previously made by Cromwell, began to work on a moderate program of constitutional reform. Rather than opposing Parliament's bill, Cromwell dissolved them in January 1655.

After a royalist uprising led by Sir John Penruddock, Cromwell divided England into military districts ruled by Army Major-Generals who answered only to him. The fifteen major generals and deputy major generals—called "godly governors"—were central not only to national security, but also to Cromwell's moral crusade. However, the major-generals lasted less than a year. Cromwell's failure to support his men, by sacrificing them to his opponents, caused their demise. Their activities between November 1655 and September 1656 had, nonetheless, reopened the wounds of the 1640s and deepened antipathies to the regime.

During this period Cromwell also faced challenges in foreign policy. The First Anglo-Dutch War, which had broken out in 1652, against the Dutch Republic, was eventually won in 1654. Having negotiated peace with the Dutch, Cromwell proceeded to engage the Spanish in warfare. This involved secret preparations for an attack on the Spanish colonies in the Caribbean and resulted in the invasion of Jamaica, which then became an English colony. The Lord Protector also became aware of the contribution the Jewish community made to the economic success of Holland, then England's leading commercial rival. This led to his encouraging Jews to return to England, 350 years after their banishment by Edward I, in the hope that they would help speed up the recovery of the country after the disruption of the English Civil War.

In 1657, Oliver Cromwell rejected the offer of the Crown presented to him by Parliament and was re-installed as Lord Protector, this time with greater powers than had previously been granted him under this title. Most notably, however, the office of Lord Protector was still not to become hereditary, though Cromwell was now able to nominate his own successor. Cromwell's new rights and powers were laid out in the Humble Petition and Advice, a legislative instrument that replaced the Instrument of Government. Despite failing to restore the Crown, this new constitution did set up many of the vestiges of the ancient constitution, including a house of life peers (in place of the House of Lords). In the Humble Petition it was called the "Other House," as the Commons could not agree on a suitable name. Furthermore, Oliver Cromwell increasingly took on more of the trappings of monarchy.

English Civil Wars

- ***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. 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 yet 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 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, 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 (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 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 also 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 levied fees called "ship money" from vessels. His efforts to raise funds made him 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 reluctantly 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.

- ***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 did not belong to full time armies. Men would leave their shops and farms for several weeks or months 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. 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 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 possessed extensive combat experience fighting in Europe. He became one of the King's chief military advisers.

- ***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:

- ***First English Civil War (1642- 1646)***

When civil war broke out in earnest in August 1642, Royalist forces (known as Cavaliers) controlled northern and western England, while Parliamentarians (or Roundheads) dominated in the southern and eastern regions of the country. The king’s forces appeared to be gaining the upper hand by early 1643, especially after concluding an alliance with Irish Catholics to end the Irish Rebellion. But a key alliance between the Parliamentarians and Scotland that year led to a

large Scottish army joining the fray on Parliament's side in January 1644.

On July 2, 1644, Royalist and Parliamentarian forces met at Marston Moor, west of York, in the largest battle of the First English Civil War. A Parliamentarian force of 28,000 routed the smaller Royalist army of 18,000, ending the king's control of northern England. In 1645, Parliament created a permanent, professional, trained army of 22,000 men. This New Model Army, commanded by Sir Thomas Fairfax and Oliver Cromwell, scored a decisive victory in June 1645 in the Battle of Naseby, effectively dooming the Royalist cause.

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.

- ***Second English Civil War (1648- 1649) and execution of King Charles I***

Even in defeat, Charles refused to give in, but sought to capitalize on the religious and political divisions among his enemies. While on the Isle of Wight in 1647-48, the king managed to conclude a peace treaty with the Scots and marshal Royalist sentiment and discontent with Parliament into a series of armed uprisings across England in the spring and summer of 1648.

After Fairfax, Cromwell and the New Model Army easily crushed the Royalist uprisings; hard-line opponents of the king took charge of a smaller Parliament. Concluding that peace could not be reached while Charles was still alive, they set up a high court and put the king on trial for treason. Charles was found guilty and executed by beheading on January 30, 1649 at Whitehall.

- ***Third English Civil War (1649-51)***

With Charles dead, a republican regime was established in England, backed by the military might of the New Model Army. Beginning late in 1649, Cromwell led his army in a successful reconquest of Ireland, including the notorious massacre of thousands of Irish and Royalist troops and civilians at Drogheda. Meanwhile, Scotland came to an agreement with the executed king's eldest son, also named Charles, who was crowned King Charles II of Scotland in early 1651.

Even before he was officially crowned, Charles II had formed an army of English and Scottish Royalists, prompting Cromwell to invade

Scotland in 1650. After losing the Battle of Dunbar to Cromwell's forces in September 1650, Charles led an invasion of England the following year, only to suffer another defeat against a huge Parliamentarian army at Worcester. The young king narrowly escaped capture, but the decisive victory ended the Third English Civil War, along with the larger War of the Three Kingdoms (England, Scotland and Ireland).

- ***Results of The War***

The English Civil War of the Seventeenth Century greatly increased the importance of Parliament in government.

An estimated 200,000 English soldiers and civilians were killed during the three civil wars, by fighting and the disease spread by armies; the loss was proportionate, population-wise, to that of World War I.

In 1653, Oliver Cromwell was installed as Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland and Ireland, and tried (largely unsuccessfully) to consolidate broad support behind the new republican regime amid the continued growth of radical religious sects and widespread uneasiness about the new standing army.

After Cromwell's death in 1658, he was succeeded as protector by his son Richard, who abdicated just eight months later. With the continued disintegration of the republic, the larger Parliament was reassembled, and began negotiations with Charles II to resume the throne. The triumphant king arrived in London in May 1660, beginning the English Restoration.

Facts about The English Civil War

Key Conflicts about Charles I:

Religious Conflict: Charles married a Catholic princess, Henrietta Maria of France, which alienated the Protestant majority in England. His religious policies were seen as too sympathetic to Catholicism, causing further divisions.

Financial Struggles: To fund his government and military campaigns without relying on Parliament, Charles imposed controversial taxes, such as "ship money," which was traditionally only collected in times of war and only from coastal towns.

Parliamentary Disputes: His frequent dissolution of Parliament when it opposed his policies deepened the rift. Charles ruled without Parliament from 1629 to 1640, a period known as the "Personal Rule."

Causes of the War:

Religious Tensions: Many in Parliament were Puritans, who believed Charles was undermining Protestantism.

Power Struggles: Parliament wanted to limit the king's power, while Charles sought to maintain his absolute authority.

Key Features of the Commonwealth:

Religious Intolerance: Cromwell, a Puritan, imposed strict moral codes on society and persecuted Catholics.

Military Expansion: Cromwell's government aggressively expanded England's military, notably winning wars against the Dutch and the Spanish.

Unpopularity: Cromwell's harsh rule, combined with economic difficulties, made his regime deeply unpopular among many English citizens.

Chapter 4
King Charles II
(Restoration)

King Charles II was born on May 29, 1630. He was the first son born to the current king, Charles I (1600 – 1649). His mother was Queen Consort Henrietta Maria (1609 – 1669), a princess of France. She never had an official coronation or crowning ceremony so she is officially called a Queen Consort instead of Queen.

The Civil Wars

The first Civil War (1642 – 1646) was fought between people loyal to the Monarchy, called Royalists and people loyal to Parliament, called Parliamentarians. The Parliamentary army was led by future Lord Protector Oliver Cromwell (1599 – 1658.) When Irish people rebelled, Charles I wanted to command the army to punish the Irish. Parliament claimed that it was the rightful commander of the army, not the King. Cromwell won the first Civil War in 1646, but another soon broke out.

There was a brief peace until yet another civil war broke out. Great Britain went through three civil wars in about 20 years. All of the wars finally ended in 1660, with over 200,000 dead from either battle or the starvation and sickness brought on by the wars. The official end of the war was when Charles II was crowned King.

Death of Charles I

The first civil war began when Charles II was 12 years old. His mother was in the Netherlands at the time trying to get money to pay for the Royalist army. When Charles II turned 14, he was given command of the Royalist army in West England. He did not do too well and was beaten. He managed to escape to the Netherlands. His father was not so lucky.

Charles I was captured by Cromwell's army and put on trial. The King was charged with treason because he started a civil war where so many died and many more suffered. He was sentenced to death. He was executed on January 30, 1649 by having his head chopped off with a large ax. With Charles I dead and Charles II in exile, Cromwell became supreme commander of England until he died in 1658.

The Return of Charles II

Cromwell managed to be an even worse ruler than King Charles I. He had anyone who was not a Protestant or a Jew put to death. He banned horse racing and the theatre because he felt they were sinful. Cromwell's reign is called the Protectorate, since Cromwell gave himself the title Lord Protector. He did give parliament back its powers.

When Did Charles II Rule?

After Cromwell's death, his oldest son Robert became Lord Protectorate. He was unpopular and weak. Charles II realized that if

he returned to England, he would have many supporters who wanted a Monarchy back instead of a future consisting of Lord Protectors. Charles II returned in 1650 with the strong support of Scotland, long before Oliver Cromwell died. Cromwell beat Charles II's forces in 1651. Charles II fled England and waited for another good time to return. Charles II finally came home and smashed Robert Cromwell's army in 1660. With his victory, he became ruler of England, Scotland and Ireland.

Charles II's Rule

On his thirtieth birthday, he returned to London as King. In the end, the national experiment with republicanism had collapsed and the dour days of Cromwell and the Commonwealth were swept away with festivities and mirth.

The early years of Charles's reign saw an appalling plague (1665) and the Great Fire in 1666 which led to the substantial rebuilding of the city of London. Between 1665 and 1667 England was at war with the Dutch (the Second Anglo-Dutch War), ending in a Dutch victory. In 1670, Charles signed a secret treaty with Louis XIV of France. He undertook to convert to Catholicism and support the French against the Dutch (Third Anglo-Dutch War 1672-1674), in return for which he would receive subsidies from France. The French would not join Great Britain against the Dutch unless Charles II became Catholic. His becoming Catholic Angered Parliament and in 1681 Charles I banned Parliament for the last years of his life. However, he was a far more tolerant tyrant than his father.

Charles II’s Marriage

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 the king had many illegitimate children. 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.

Although Charles had a number of illegitimate children with various mistresses, he had none with his wife, Catherine of Braganza. His Catholic brother James was thus his heir. Knowledge of his negotiations with France, together with his efforts to become an absolute ruler, brought Charles into conflict with parliament, which he dissolved in 1681. From then until his death he ruled alone.

Charles's reign saw the rise of colonization and trade in India, the East Indies and America (the British captured New York from the Dutch in 1664), and the Passage of Navigation Acts that secured Britain's future as a sea power. He founded the Royal Society in 1660. Charles died on 6 February 1685, converting to Catholicism on his death bed. 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.

Key Changes of The Restoration:

Religious Settlement: Charles II was more tolerant than his father, but tensions between Protestants and Catholics remained.

Parliament's Role: While the king retained significant power, Parliament had grown stronger, marking the beginning of constitutional monarchy in England.

Social Change: The Restoration period also saw a flowering of culture and the arts, as restrictions imposed during Cromwell's rule were lifted.

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
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-

Year	Event
	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.

Chapter 5
King James II
(Glorious Revolution)

James was the first Catholic monarch to rule England since Mary I had been overthrown in 1553. He was born on 14 October 1633 to Charles I and his French wife, Henrietta Maria and was named after his grandfather, James I and VI. During the English Civil War he was captured but fled to exile on the continent. He distinguished himself a soldier, returning to England at the Restoration of his brother, Charles II, in 1660. He commanded the Royal Navy from1660 to1673. In 1660, James married Anne Hyde, daughter of Charles II's chief minister and they had two surviving children, Mary and Anne. In 1669, James converted to Catholicism and took a stand against a number of anti-Catholic moves, including the Test Act of 1673. This did not impede his succession to the throne on Charles' death in 1685.

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. 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.

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 (the Exclusion Crisis).

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. His brother, King Charles II, had him reinstated. The reinstatement included the promise that James raise his two surviving children, Mary (b. 1662) and Anne (b. 1665), as Protestants.

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.

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. Monmouth's coup, known as the Monmouth Rebellion, failed as he was defeated on 6 July at Sedgemoor in Somerset by loyalists. Monmouth was executed. Many of the ringleaders were also sentenced to death. 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.

This, together with James's attempts to give civic equality to Roman Catholic and Protestant dissenters, led to conflict with parliament. In

1685, James prorogued it and ruled alone. He attempted to promote Catholicism by appointing Catholics to military, political and academic posts. 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.

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 in 1673. 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.

Fearing that a Catholic succession was now assured, a group of Protestant nobles appealed to William of Orange, husband of James's older, and Protestant, daughter Mary. Rebel Protestant nobles knew that they must act now or never.

The Glorious Revolution

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 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.

Protestant Prince William of Orange was invited to become king of England, Scotland, and Ireland. 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. His father was William II of Orange and his mother Mary Stuart, the daughter of Charles I of England (r. 1625-1649). 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.

In November, William landed with an army in Devon. Deserted by an army and navy who he had completely alienated, James completely lost his nerve and fled abroad. In February 1689, parliament declared that James's flight constituted an abdication and William and Mary were crowned joint monarchs. James fled to France, where he spent the rest of his life in exile.

In March 1689, James landed in Ireland where, with French support, he raised an army. He was defeated by William at the Battle of the Boyne in July 1690.

Crowned on 11 April in Westminster Abbey, William reigned equally with his queen, Mary II of England. Some Tories wanted Mary to rule alone to preserve the purity of a hereditary monarchy, but the Whigs got their way, thanks to William insisting he would not take a lower position than his wife. Parliament was now determined to play a greater role than ever in the governance of the kingdoms of the British Isles. It 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 areas of passing laws and raising taxes. No monarch could 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.

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'. 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.

Parliament ensured it was very much an active player in a new system of government: a constitutional monarchy. 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 list of limitations on William in Britain continued. 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.

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.

James II was not dead but in exile, and encouraged by Louis XIV of France (r. 1643-1715) he made an attempt to get his throne back. 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 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.

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).

Consequences of the Glorious Revolution:

Bill of Rights (1689): The Glorious Revolution led to the establishment of a constitutional monarchy, where the power of the monarchy was limited by law. The Bill of Rights ensured that Parliament had to approve any royal actions, such as taxation or laws.

Religious Toleration: Although still primarily a Protestant country, England became more tolerant of religious diversity after this period.

The Glorious Revolution fundamentally reshaped the political landscape of England, setting the stage for the modern democratic state.

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
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.

Year	Event
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
William III and Mary II
(England's Only Joint Sovereigns)

William III and Mary II were England’s first and only joint sovereigns, with Mary sharing equal status and power. William and Mary came to the throne after the "Glorious Revolution" of 1688 when Mary’s father, James II, was deposed for trying to enforce Catholic tolerance in England. The King and Queen ruled jointly from 1689 until Mary’s death aged 32 in 1694.

William and Mary were cousins, sharing King Charles I and Queen Henrietta Maria as grandparents. Mary was the daughter of Charles I's youngest son, King James II, and his first wife Anne Hyde. William was the son of Charles I's daughter, Princess Mary and William II, Prince of Orange, in the present-day Netherlands. The House of Orange-Nassau remains the reigning house in the Netherlands today.

In 1689 Parliament declared that James had abdicated by deserting his kingdom. William (reigned 1689-1702) and Mary (reigned 1689-94) were offered the throne as joint monarchs. The exclusion of James II and his heirs was extended to exclude all Roman Catholics from the throne. The Sovereign was required in his coronation oath to swear to maintain the Protestant religion.

They accepted a Declaration of Rights (later a Bill), drawn up by a Convention of Parliament, which limited the Sovereign's power, reaffirmed Parliament's claim to control taxation and legislation, and

provided guarantees against the abuses of power which James II and the other Stuart Kings had committed. The Bill was designed to ensure Parliament could function free from royal interference.

The Sovereign was forbidden from suspending or dispensing with laws passed by Parliament, or imposing taxes without Parliamentary consent. The Sovereign was not allowed to interfere with elections or freedom of speech, and proceedings in Parliament were not to be questioned in the courts or in any body outside Parliament itself. The Sovereign was required to summon Parliament frequently (the Triennial Act of 1694 reinforced this by requiring the regular summoning of Parliaments).

Parliament tightened control over the King's expenditure; the financial settlement reached with William and Mary deliberately made them dependent upon Parliament, as one Member of Parliament said, 'when princes have not needed money, they have not needed us'.

Finally, the King was forbidden to maintain a standing army in time of peace without Parliament's consent.

The Bill of Rights added further defenses of individual rights. The King was forbidden to establish his own courts or to act as a judge himself, and the courts were forbidden to impose excessive bail or fines, or cruel and unusual punishments.

The so-called 'Glorious Revolution' resulted in a permanent shift in power; although the monarchy remained of central importance, Parliament had become a permanent feature of political life.

The Toleration Act of 1689 gave all non-conformists except Roman Catholics freedom of worship, thus rewarding Protestant dissenters for their refusal to side with James II.

After 1688 there was a rapid development of party, as parliamentary sessions lengthened and the Triennial Act ensured frequent general elections. Although the Tories had fully supported the Revolution, it was the Whigs (traditional critics of the monarchy) who supported William and consolidated their position.

Mary had died of smallpox in 1694, aged 32, and without children. Anne's only surviving child (out of 17 children), The Duke of Gloucester, had died at the age of 11, and William was, in July 1700, dying. The succession had to be decided.

The Act of Settlement of 1701 was designed to secure the Protestant succession to the throne, and to strengthen the guarantees for ensuring parliamentary system of government. The Act also laid down the conditions under which alone the Crown could be held. No Roman Catholic, nor anyone married to a Roman Catholic, could hold the English Crown. The Sovereign now had to swear to maintain the Church of England (and, after 1707, the Church of Scotland).

Under the Act, parliamentary consent had to be given for the Sovereign to engage in war or leave the country, and judges were to hold office on good conduct and not at royal pleasure - thus establishing judicial independence.

William showed his true aims that one of his main reasons for accepting the throne was to reinforce the struggle against Louis XIV. William's foreign policy was dominated by the priority to contain French expansionism. England and the Dutch joined the coalition against France during the Nine Years' War, 1689-1697. The war led to no particular gains for either side.

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.

William died as a result of complications from a fall whilst riding at Hampton Court in 1702. William and Mary had suffered three stillborn babies and so they had no direct heir. Consequently, Mary's younger sister Anne (b. 1665) became queen, and she then reigned over a united kingdom as Queen of Great Britain and Ireland from 1707 to 1714.

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
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.
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.

Chapter 8
The Reign of Queen Anne
(Queen of Great Britain)

Anne was the last of the Stuart monarchs, and the first sovereign of Great Britain.

Anne was born on 6 February 1665 in London, the second daughter of James brother of Charles II. She spent her early years in France. Although Anne's father was a Catholic, on the instruction of Charles II Anne and her sister Mary were raised as Protestants. In 1683, Anne married Prince George of Denmark. It was to be a happy marriage, although marred by Anne's frequent miscarriages, still births and the death of children in infancy.

In 1685, Anne's father James became king. He was overthrown in 1688 and Anne's sister Mary, and her Dutch husband William, took the throne. Anne became their heir and with the death of Mary (1694) and then William, with no children, in 1702 Anne was queen. Within months, the War of the Spanish Succession began. A series of military victories by John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, including the Battle of Blenheim strengthened England's negotiating position at the end of the war. Under the 1713 Treaty of Utrecht, France recognized Anne's title over that of James II's Roman Catholic son, James Stuart and confirmed England's possession of Gibraltar.

The last years of the 17th century had seen differing policies pursued by parliaments in England and Scotland which included disagreements over the succession. The solution seemed to be unification and so on 1 May 1707 England and Scotland were combined into a single kingdom, and Anne became the first sovereign of Great Britain. One British parliament would meet at Westminster, and there would be a common flag and coinage but Scotland would keep its own established Church and its systems of law and education.

Politically, Anne's reign was marked by the development of the two party systems, with Whigs and Tories competing for power. Anne hoped to rule through mixed ministries, but in 1708 the Whigs became dominant. In 1710 there was a major shift to the Tories, which lasted until her death. Anne allowed herself to be influenced by her ministers and her favorites, particularly her friend Sarah Churchill, wife of the duke of Marlborough.

Queen Anne's only surviving son William had died in 1700, prompting parliament to pass the Act of Settlement (1701) to ensure a Protestant succession. 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. Anne was therefore succeeded by the German Protestant Prince George, Elector of Hanover.

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.

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. 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. As it turned out, the Stuart royal line was about to come to an end anyway.

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 transfers the seat of Scottish government to London.

Year	Event
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.

ENGLISH Civilization and SOCIETY

in THE 17th CENTURY

The 17th century was a transformative period in England's history, marked by profound political, social, and intellectual changes that reshaped the nation and laid the foundation for the modern world. From the turbulence of the English Civil War and the rise of parliamentary democracy to the cultural flowering of literature and the scientific discoveries of the age, this century was a dynamic time of conflict and innovation.

In the political realm, England experienced the collapse of monarchy, the establishment of the Commonwealth under Oliver Cromwell, and the eventual restoration of the Stuart kings. The century ended with the Glorious Revolution, which firmly established constitutional monarchy and forever altered the balance of power between the crown and Parliament.

At the same time, English society was evolving. The growth of trade and commerce, along with England's burgeoning colonial empire, created new social classes and opportunities, while urban centers like London became hubs of culture and finance. The influence of religion, particularly the struggle between Protestantism and Catholicism, also played a central role in shaping the century's conflicts and reforms.

Intellectually, the 17th century was a golden age of discovery. The works of figures like Isaac Newton in science and John Locke in philosophy had lasting impacts, revolutionizing ideas about the natural world and human society. Culturally, literature and the arts thrived, producing masterpieces such as John Milton's *Paradise Lost* and continuing the legacy of William Shakespeare.

This chapter delves into the rich and complex civilization of 17th-century England, exploring the key political events, social transformations, and intellectual advancements that defined the era. By examining the interplay of power, religion, culture, and economy, this chapter provides a comprehensive understanding of how England emerged from this century as a global power poised for the challenges and triumphs of the modern age.

Literature

The 17th century is time of political and social unrest in England that witnessed important events such as: the death of Queen Elizabeth I in 1603, the first English translation of the bible authorized by King James I in 1611, conflict between Protestants and the Catholics that resulted in the Thirty Years War 1618-1648, the execution of king Charles I in 1649, and the Common Wealth of England (1649-1660), Monarchy Restoration, Glorious Revolution and the Unity the resulted in Great Britain.

Religion has often been regarded as the motor for change and upheaval in 17th century England as it has been seen as the prime cause of civil war, the inspiration for the puritan rule of Oliver Cromwell during the period of the Common Wealth of England, and central to the Glorious Revolution.

Jacobean Era: 1603-1625

Drama

Shakespeare's career continued during the reign of King James I, and in the early 17th century he wrote the so-called "problem plays", like Measure for Measure, as well as a number of his best known tragedies, including King Lear and Anthony and Cleopatra. The plots of Shakespeare's tragedies often hinge on fatal errors or flaws, which overturn order and destroy the hero and those he loves. In his final period, Shakespeare turned to romance or tragicomedy and

completed four major plays, including The Tempest. Less bleak than the tragedies, these four plays are graver in tone than the comedies of the 1590s, but they end with reconciliation and the forgiveness of potentially tragic errors.

Other important figures in Elizabethan and Jacobean theatre include Christopher Marlowe (1564–1593), Thomas Dekker (1572 – 1632), John Fletcher (1579–1625) and Francis Beaumont (1584–1616). Marlowe's subject matter is different from Shakespeare's as it focuses more on the moral drama of the renaissance man. His play Doctor Faustus (c. 1592), is about a scientist and magician who sells his soul to the Devil. Beaumont and Fletcher are less known, but they may have helped Shakespeare write some of his best dramas, and were popular at the time. Beaumont's comedy, The Knight of the Burning Pestle (1607), satirizes the rising middle class and especially *the nouveaux riches*.

After Shakespeare's death, the poet and dramatist Ben Jonson (1572–1637) was the leading literary figure of the Jacobean era. Jonson's aesthetics hark back to the Middle Ages and his characters embody the theory of humours, based on contemporary medical theory, though the stock types of Latin literature were an equal influence.[34] Jonson's major plays include Volpone (1605 or 1606) and Bartholomew Fair (1614).

A popular style of theatre in Jacobean times was the revenge play, which had been popularised earlier by Thomas Kyd (1558–94), and then developed by John Webster (1578–1632) in the 17th

century. Webster's most famous plays are The White Devil (1612) and The Duchess of Malfi (1613). Other revenge tragedies include The Changeling written by Thomas Middleton and William Rowley.

Poetry

Shakespeare also popularized the English sonnet, which made significant changes to Petrarch's model. A collection of 154 sonnets, dealing with themes such as the passage of time, love, beauty and mortality, were first published in a 1609 quarto.

Besides Shakespeare the major poets of the early 17th century included the metaphysical poets John Donne (1572–1631) and George Herbert (1593–1633). Influenced by continental Baroque, and taking as his subject matter both Christian mysticism and eroticism, Donne's metaphysical poetry uses unconventional or "unpoetic" figures, such as a compass or a mosquito, to achieve surprise effects.

George Chapman (1559-1634) was a successful playwright who is remembered chiefly for his translation in 1616 of Homer's Iliad and Odyssey into English verse. This was the first ever complete translation of either poem into the English language and it had a profound influence on English literature.

Prose

Philosopher Sir Francis Bacon (1561–1626) wrote the utopian novel New Atlantis, and coined the phrase "Knowledge is Power".

Francis Godwin's 1638 The Man in the Moon recounts an imaginary voyage to the moon and is now regarded as the first work of science fiction in English literature.

At the Reformation, the translation of liturgy and the Bible into vernacular languages provided new literary models. The Book of Common Prayer (1549) and the Authorised King James Version of the Bible have been hugely influential. The King James Bible, one of the biggest translation projects in the history of English up to that time, was started in 1604 and completed in 1611. It continued the tradition of Bible translation into English from the original languages that began with the work of William Tyndale. (Previous translations into English had relied on the Vulgate). It became the standard Bible of the Church of England, and some consider it one of the greatest literary works of all time.

The Caroline era: 1625 - 1649

The metaphysical poets continued writing in this period. Both John Donne and George Herbert died after 1625, but there was a second generation of metaphysical poets: Andrew Marvell (1621–1678) and Henry Vaughan (1622–1695). Their style was witty, with metaphysical conceits — far-fetched or unusual similes or metaphors, such as Marvell's comparison of the soul with a drop of dew; or Donne's description of the effects of absence on lovers to the action of a pair of compasses.

Another important group of poets at this time were the Cavalier poets. They were an important group of writers, who came from the classes that supported King Charles I during the Wars of the Three Kingdoms (1639–51). (King Charles reigned from 1625 and was executed in 1649). The best known of these poets are Robert Herrick, Richard Lovelace, Thomas Carew, and Sir John Suckling. They "were not a formal group, but all were influenced" by Ben Jonson. Most of the Cavalier poets were courtiers, with notable exceptions. For example, Robert Herrick was not a courtier, but his style marks him as a Cavalier poet. Cavalier works make use of allegory and classical allusions, and are influenced by Latin authors Horace, Cicero, and Ovid.

The Age of Cromwell: 1649 - 1660

The Common Wealth of England had tremendous effect on literature as the Puritans, a radical group of protestants, who controlled the parliament at that time were strictly against poetry, theatre, or any form of entertainment.

The Puritans were fiercely anti-Catholic and believed that churches should be plain and free from all kinds of ornament. They believed that all mankind was basically sinful, but that some would be saved because of Christ’s death. They believed that hard work was the key to gaining a place in heaven.

The Puritans banned a lot of activities such as: Horse Racing, cock-fighting and bear baiting. Any gathering of people without

permission were forbidden. They prohibited drunkenness, gambling, swearing, theatre-going, dancing and singing. Sundays and Holy days were strictly observed, with these days being devoted entirely to God. They prevented games and sports on Sundays (including going for a walk). They believed in the purification of the soul through constant prayer, and/or other religious activity.

Thus the poets and writers of the period started to write more about the afterlife, religion, or other theological matters like heaven and hell.

Monarchy Restoration, Glorious Revolution: 1660–1700

Drama

The Restoration of the monarchy in 1660 launched a fresh start for literature, both in celebration of the new worldly and playful court of the king, and in reaction to it. Theatres in England reopened after having been closed during the protectorship of Oliver Cromwell, Puritanism lost its momentum, and the "Restoration comedy" became a recognizable genre. Restoration comedy refers to English comedies written and performed in the Restoration period from 1660 to 1710. In addition, women were allowed to perform on stage for the first time. The Restoration of the monarchy in Ireland enabled Ogilby to resume his position as Master of the Revels and open the first Theatre Royal in Dublin in 1662 in Smock Alley.

Poetry

John Dryden (1631–1700) was an English poet, literary critic, translator, and playwright who dominated the literary life of Restoration England to such a point that the period came to be known in literary circles as the Age of Dryden. He established the heroic couplet as a standard form of English poetry by writing successful satires, religious pieces, fables, epigrams, compliments, prologues, and plays with it. In his poems, translations, and criticism, he established a poetic diction appropriate to the heroic couplet.

Dryden's greatest achievements were in satiric verse in works like the mock-heroic MacFlecknoe (1682). W. H. Auden referred to him as "the master of the middle style" that was a model for his contemporaries and for much of the 18th century. The considerable loss felt by the English literary community at his death was evident from the elegies that it inspired. Alexander Pope (1688–1744) was heavily influenced by Dryden, and often borrowed from him; other writers in the 18th century were equally influenced by both Dryden and Pope.

John Milton (1608- 1674) is an English poet and historian, and considered the most significant English author after William Shakespeare. Milton is best known for Paradise Lost, widely regarded as the greatest epic poem in English. Together with *Paradise Regained* and Samson Agonistes, it confirms Milton’s reputation as one of the greatest English poets. In the era after the Restoration, Milton published his three major poems, though he had

begun work on two of them, *Paradise Lost* and *Samson Agonistes*, many years earlier.

John Milton's Paradise Lost (1667), a story of fallen pride, was the first major poem to appear in England after the Restoration. The years of the Restoration were hardly an era of peace and reconciliation. The Great Plague of 1665 that killed approximately a quarter of London’s population and the Great Fire of 1666 that destroyed much of the original City left momentous significant effect on Milton.

In his prose works Milton advocated the abolition of the Church of England and the execution of Charles I. From the beginning of the English Civil Wars in 1642 to long after the restoration of Charles II as king in 1660, he adopted in all his works a political philosophy that opposed tyranny and state-sanctioned religion.

Prose

The diarists of John Evelyn (1620–1706) and Samuel Pepys (1633–1703) depicted everyday London life and the cultural scene of the times. Their works are among the most important primary sources for the Restoration period in England, and consists of eyewitness accounts of many great events, such as the Great Plague of London (1644–5), and the Great Fire of London (1666).

Intellectual and Cultural Life

The 17th century in England was a time of significant intellectual and cultural growth. It was marked by an explosion of scientific discoveries, philosophical ideas, and artistic achievements. This period, often associated with the Scientific Revolution and the Age of Enlightenment, saw the rise of individuals whose work profoundly influenced the development of modern science, literature, and philosophy. In this chapter, we will explore the key intellectual and cultural advancements of the time, including the contributions of key figures like Isaac Newton, John Locke, and John Milton, as well as the changing nature of the arts and culture.

The Scientific Revolution

The 17th century is often described as the age of the Scientific Revolution, a period during which European scientists began to challenge traditional understandings of the natural world. In England, figures like Isaac Newton and Robert Boyle made groundbreaking contributions to physics, mathematics, and chemistry.

➔ Key Figures and Discoveries:

- **Isaac Newton:** Newton's work on the laws of motion and universal gravitation laid the foundations for modern physics. His publication of Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica in 1687 is considered one of the most important works in the history of science.

- **Robert Boyle:** Boyle is often regarded as the father of modern chemistry. His work on the behavior of gases (Boyle's Law) and his promotion of the scientific method were crucial to the development of experimental science.

- **The Royal Society:** Established in 1660, the Royal Society of London for Improving Natural Knowledge became a hub for scientific research and collaboration, fostering a community of scholars dedicated to empirical investigation and experimentation.

The rise of empiricism, championed by thinkers like Francis Bacon, emphasized observation and experimentation as the primary means of acquiring knowledge, a major departure from the reliance on tradition and classical texts.

The Age of Reason and Philosophy

Alongside scientific advances, the 17th century witnessed significant developments in philosophy, particularly the rise of rationalism and empiricism. Philosophers like John Locke and Thomas Hobbes contributed to debates about human nature, government, and knowledge.

➔ **Key Philosophical Ideas:**

- **John Locke:** Locke's Essay Concerning Human Understanding (1690) argued that knowledge is derived from experience and that the human mind is a "blank slate" (tabula rasa) at birth. His political philosophy, especially in Two Treatises of Government (1689), laid the groundwork for modern democratic thought by

advocating for the separation of powers and the protection of natural rights.

- **Thomas Hobbes:** In his work Leviathan (1651), Hobbes argued that humans are naturally selfish and that strong, centralized authority is necessary to prevent chaos. His views on the social contract theory influenced later political philosophy.

- **Rationalism vs. Empiricism:** The 17th century saw ongoing debates between rationalists, who believed that reason is the primary source of knowledge, and empiricists, who emphasized sensory experience. Locke and Bacon were leading figures of empiricism, while philosophers like René Descartes in France represented rationalism.

Cultural Shifts: Arts, Architecture, and Music

The 17th century saw changes not only in intellectual life but also in the broader cultural landscape. England began to embrace new styles in art, architecture, and music, influenced by both domestic trends and European movements.

Visual Arts:

- **Portraiture and Landscape Painting:** The 17th century saw the rise of portrait artists like Sir Anthony van Dyck, who worked in the court of Charles I. Landscape painting also gained popularity, with artists depicting the natural beauty of the English countryside.

- **Architecture:**

  Christopher Wren: Following the Great Fire of London in 1666, architect Sir Christopher Wren was tasked with redesigning much of the city, including the iconic St. Paul's Cathedral. Wren's work reflected the influence of classical and Baroque styles.

- **Music:**

  Henry Purcell: One of the most prominent composers of the period, Henry Purcell combined elements of English folk music with Baroque traditions. His works, including operas and religious music, became highly influential in English music history.

English Society in The 17th Century

During the 17th century, the population of England and Wales grew steadily. It was about 4 million in 1600 and it grew to about 5 1/2 million by 1700.

During the 17th century, England became steadily richer. Trade and commerce grew and grew. By the late 17th century trade was an increasingly important part of the English economy. Meanwhile, industries such as glass, brick-making, iron, and coal mining expanded rapidly.

During the 1600s the status of merchants improved. People saw that trade was an increasingly important part of the country's wealth so merchants became more respected. However political power and influence were held by rich landowners.

At the top of 17th-century society were the nobility. Below them were the gentry. Gentlemen were not quite rich but they were certainly well off. Below them were yeomen, farmers who owned their own land. Yeomen were comfortably off but they often worked alongside their men. Gentlemen did not do manual work! Below them came the mass of the population, craftsmen, tenant farmers, and laborers.

For the upper class and the middle-class life grew more comfortable but for the poor life changed little At the end of the 17th century a writer estimated that half the population could afford to eat meat every day. In other words, about 50% of the people were wealthy or

at least reasonably well off. Below them, about 30% of the population could afford to eat meat between 2 and 6 times a week. They were ‘poor’. The bottom 20% could only eat meat once a week. They were very poor. At least part of the time they had to rely on poor relief.

By an act of 1601 overseers of the poor were appointed by each parish. They had the power to force people to pay a local tax to help the poor. Those who could not work such as the old and the disabled would be provided for. The overseers were meant to provide work for the able-bodied poor. Anyone who refused to work was whipped and, after 1610, they could be placed in a house of correction. Pauper’s children were sent to local employers to be apprentices.

On a more cheerful note in the 17th century in many towns, wealthy people left money in their wills to provide almshouses where the poor could live.

In 1600 Westminster was separate from London. However, in the early 17th century, rich people built houses along the Thames between the two. In the late 17th century many grand houses were built west of London. Meanwhile, working-class houses were built east of the city. So as early as the 17th century London was divided into the affluent west end and the poor east end.

In the early 17th century a piped water supply was created. Water from a reservoir traveled along elm pipes through the streets and then along lead pipes to individual houses. However, you had to pay to be connected to the supply.

In 1600 people in London walked from one street to another or if they could afford it they traveled by boat along the Thames. However, from the early 17th century you could hire a horse-drawn carriage called a hackney carriage to take you around London.

In the 1680s the streets of London were lit for the first time. An oil lamp was hung outside every tenth house and was lit for part of the year. The oil lamps did not give much light but they were better than nothing at all.

During the 17th century, towns grew much larger. That was despite outbreaks of plague. Fleas that lived on rats transmitted the bubonic plague. If the fleas bit humans they were likely to fall victim to the disease. Unfortunately, at the time nobody knew what caused the plague and nobody had any idea how to treat it.

The plague broke out in London in 1603, 1636, and 1665. Each time it killed a significant part of the population but each time London recovered. There were always plenty of poor people in the countryside willing to come and work in the town. Of course, other towns, as well as London, were also periodically devastated by the plague. However, the plague of 1665, which affected London and other towns, was the last. We are not certain why.

BANKS IN 17TH CENTURY ENGLAND

Banking developed in the 17th century. As England grew more commercial so lending money became more important. In the early 17th century goldsmiths lent and changed money. Then in 1640 King

Charles I confiscated gold, which London merchants had deposited at the mint for safety. Afterward, people began to deposit money with goldsmiths instead. The goldsmiths gave receipts for the gold in the form of notes promising to pay on demand.

In time merchants and tradesmen began to exchange these notes as a form of money. The goldsmiths realized that not all of their customers would withdraw their gold at the same time. So it was safe to issue notes for more gold than they actually had. They could then lend money using the extra notes. The Bank of England was founded in 1694.

RICH PEOPLE'S HOMES IN THE 17th CENTURY

In the late 17th century furniture for the wealthy became more comfortable and much more finely decorated. In the early 17th century furniture was plain and heavy. It was usually made of oak. In the late 17th century furniture for the rich was often made of walnut or (from the 1680s) mahogany. It was decorated in new ways. One was veneering. (Thin pieces of expensive wood were laid over cheaper wood). Some furniture was also inlaid. Wood was carved out and the hollow was filled in with mother of pearl. At this time lacquering arrived in England. Pieces of furniture were coated with lacquer in bright colors.

Furthermore, new types of furniture were introduced. In the mid-17th century chests of drawers became common. Grandfather clocks also became popular. Later in the century, the bookcase was introduced.

Chairs also became far more comfortable. Upholstered (padded and covered) chairs became common in wealthy people's homes. In the 1680s the first real armchairs appeared.

In the early 17th century the architect Inigo Jones introduced the classical style of architecture (based on ancient Greek and Roman styles). He designed the Banqueting Hall in Whitehall, which was the first purely classical building in England.

The late 17th century was a great age for building grand country homes, displaying the wealth of the upper class at that time.

POOR PEOPLE'S HOMES IN 17TH CENTURY ENGLAND

However, all the improvements in furniture did not apply to the poor. Their furniture, such as it was, remained very plain and basic. However, there were some improvements in poor people's houses in the 17th century.

In the Middle Ages, ordinary people's homes were usually made of wood. However in the late 16th and early 17th centuries, many were built or rebuilt in stone or brick. By the late 17th century even poor people usually lived in houses made of brick or stone. They were a big improvement over wooden houses. They were warmer and drier.

Furthermore in the 16th century chimneys were a luxury. However, during the 17th century, chimneys became more common and by the late 17th century even the poor had them. Furthermore in 1600 glass windows were a luxury. Poor people made do with linen soaked in

linseed oil. However, during the 17th century glass became cheaper and by the late 17th century even the poor had glass windows.

In the early 17th century there were only casement windows (ones that open on hinges). In the later 17th century sash windows were introduced. They were in two sections and they slid up and down vertically to open and shut.

Although poor people's homes improved in some ways they remained very small and crowded. Most of the poor lived in huts of 2 or 3 rooms. Some families lived in just one room.

FOOD IN THE 17th CENTURY

In the early 17th century people began eating with forks for the first time. During the century new foods were introduced into England (for the rich) such as bananas and pineapples. New drinks were introduced, including chocolate, tea, and coffee. In the late 17th century there were many coffee houses in the towns. Merchants and professional men met there to read newspapers and talk shop.

However, for the poor food remained plain and monotonous. They subsisted on food like bread, cheese, and onions. Ordinary people also ate pottage each day. It was made by boiling grain in water to make a kind of porridge. You added vegetables and (if you could afford it) pieces of meat or fish.

CLOTHES IN 17TH CENTURY ENGLAND

At the beginning of the 17th century, men wore starched collars called ruffs. Women wore frames made of wood or whalebone under their dresses. They were called farthingales. However, the farthingale was soon discarded and the ruff evolved into a large lace collar (for those who could afford it!).

In the 17th century, men wore knee-length, trouser-like garments called breeches. They also wore stockings and boots.

On the upper body, men wore linen shirts. In the early 17th century they wore a kind of jacket called a doublet with a cape on top. Men wore their hair long. They also wore beards.

In the late 17th century a man's doublet became a waistcoat and men wore a frock coat over it. With breeches, it was rather like a three-piece suit. Men were now clean-shaven and they wore wigs.

Women wore a linen nightie-like garment called a shift. Over it, they wore long dresses. The dress was in two parts the bodice and the skirt. Sometimes women wore two skirts. The upper skirt was gathered up to reveal an underskirt. Women in the 17th century did not wear knickers.

From the mid-17th century, it was fashionable for women to wear black patches on their faces such as little stars or crescent moons.

GAMES AND PASTIMES IN 17TH CENTURY ENGLAND

In the 17th century, traditional pastimes such as cards and bowls continued. So did games like tennis and shuttlecock. People also played board games like chess, draughts, backgammon, and fox and goose.

The wealthy also played a game called pale-maille (Pall Mall in London gets its name from an area where the game was played). Charles II also made yachting a popular sport.

The theatre remained popular. However, the Puritans disapproved of the theatre and in 1642 they banned it completely. The theatre began again in 1660.

In the early 17th century the stage jutted out into the audience. In the late 17th century it took on its modern form. In the early 17th century boys played women's parts. However, after 1660 actresses performed.

Among the poor cruel 'sports' like cockfighting and bull and bear baiting were popular. (A bear or bull was chained to a post and dogs were trained to attack it).

The first English newspaper was printed in 1641. The first women's magazine was The Ladies Mercury in 1693.

EDUCATION IN THE 17th CENTURY

In well-off families, both boys and girls went to a form of infant school called a petty school. However, only boys went to grammar school. Upper-class girls (and sometimes boys) were taught by tutors. Middle-glass girls might be taught by their mothers. Moreover, during the 17th century boarding schools for girls were founded in many towns. In them, girls were taught subjects like writing, music, and needlework.

In grammar schools, conditions were hard. Boys started work at 6 or 7 in the morning and worked to 5 or 5.30 pm, with breaks for meals. Corporal punishment was usual. Normally the teacher hit naughty boys on the bare buttocks with birch twigs. Other boys in the class would hold the naughty boy down.

TRANSPORT IN 17TH CENTURY ENGLAND

In 1600 the royal posts were exclusively used to carry the king's correspondence. However in 1635, to raise money, Charles I allowed members of the public to pay his messengers to carry letters. This was the start of the royal mail.

From the middle of the 17th century, stagecoaches ran regularly between the major English towns. However, they were very expensive and they must have been very uncomfortable without springs on rough roads. There was also the danger of highwaymen.

In 1663 the first Turnpike roads opened. You had to pay to use them. The money was used to maintain the roads. In towns, wealthy people were carried in sedan chairs.

MEDICINE IN THE 17TH CENTURY

During the 17th century surgeon's knowledge of anatomy improved. Medicine also improved. In 1628 William Harvey published his discovery of how blood circulates the body. Doctors also discovered how to treat malaria with bark from the cinchona tree.

However, medicine was still handicapped by wrong ideas about the human body. Most doctors still thought that there were four fluids or 'humors' in the body, blood, phlegm, yellow bile, and black bile. Illness resulted when you had too much of one humor. Nevertheless, during the 17th century, a more scientific approach to medicine emerged and some doctors began to question traditional ideas.

The Chinese invented the toothbrush. (It was first mentioned in 1498). However, toothbrushes arrived in Europe in the 17th century. In the late 17th century they became popular with the wealthy in England.

The average lifespan in the 17th century was shorter than today. The average life expectancy at birth was only 35. That does not mean that people dropped dead when they reached that age! Instead many of the people born died while they were still children. Out of all people born between one-third and one-half died before the age of about 16. However, if you could survive to your mid-teens you would probably

live to your 50s or early 60s. Even in Stuart times, some people did live to their 70s or 80s.

WARFARE IN THE 17TH CENTURY

In the early 17th century firearms were either matchlocks or wheel locks. A matchlock held a slow-burning match, which was touched to the powder when the trigger was pulled. With a wheel lock, a metal wheel spun against iron pyrites making sparks. During the 17th century, both of these were gradually replaced by the flintlock which worked by hitting a piece of flint and steel making sparks.

Furthermore, in the early 17th century, the cartridge was invented. The musket ball was placed in a container, which held the right amount of gunpowder to fire it. The soldier no longer had to measure powder from a powder horn into his gun.

Apart from artillery, there were two branches of an army. The cavalry was usually armed with wheel-lock pistols and sabres. They were protected by backplates, breastplates, and helmets. The infantry consisted of men armed with muskets and those armed with pikes. A musket took a long time to reload and the soldiers were very vulnerable while they did so. Therefore they were protected by men with pikes (a weapon like a long spear). In theory, there were two musketeers to each pikeman. The pikemen usually had a steel helmet but musketeers did not usually wear armor.

In about 1680 the bayonet was invented. With a bayonet fixed a musket could be used as a weapon even if it had been fired and was not reloaded. The bayonet did away with the need for pikemen.

THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION IN THE 17th CENTURY

A revolution in thought occurred during the 17th century. The ancient Greeks could be said to be scientists. They thought by using their reason they could work out why the natural world behaves as it does. However, the Greeks never tested their theories by carrying out practical experiments. As a result, many of their ideas about the natural world were wrong.

Unfortunately, the ancient Greek philosophers were held in very high esteem, and for centuries hardly anyone questioned their theories. This began to change in the late 16th century and the early 17th century. People began to conduct experiments to see if theories about the world were true.

In England, a man named Francis Bacon 1561-1626 declared that people should not accept that a theory was true just because a Greek philosopher said it was. He argued that careful observation and experiment were the keys to finding out how the natural world works. Gradually this new method of understanding the world took over. By the late 17th century the new scientific approach had triumphed everywhere in Europe. By then scientists were carrying out careful observations and experiments to find out how the world works.

In 1645 a group of philosophers and mathematicians began holding meetings to discuss science or natural philosophy. Charles II was interested in science and in 1662 he made the club the Royal Society.

The great chemist Robert Boyle was born in 1627. He published his famous book The Skeptical Chemist in 1661. The great physicist Isaac Newton was born in 1642. He published his great work Principia Mathematica in 1687.

The arts also flourished in late 17th century England. The great architect Christopher Wren 1632-1723 designed many buildings including the most famous St Paul's Cathedral.

The poet John Milton 1608-1674 wrote his masterpiece Paradise Lost. It was also the era of the great English composer Henry Purcell 1659-1695.

During the 17th century belief in witchcraft and magic also declined. The last person to be executed for witchcraft in England met her death in 1684. (Incidentally, witches were hanged in England not burned).

Social Structure and Daily Life

The 17th century in England was a time of significant social change and development. This period saw the transition from a primarily agrarian society to one that was increasingly influenced by urbanization, trade, and the rise of a more diverse social structure. Daily life in England during the 17th century varied greatly depending on one's class, gender, and location. This chapter explores the social hierarchy, daily life in both rural and urban settings, family dynamics, and the role of education and literacy.

➔ Social Hierarchy in 17th-Century England

English society in the 17th century was highly stratified, with a rigid class system that dictated people's roles, rights, and opportunities. The primary classes included:

- **The Nobility:** The upper class, consisting of aristocrats and landowners, who held vast estates and had significant political and economic power. They often served in Parliament and controlled much of the country's wealth.
- **The Gentry:** Below the nobility, the gentry were wealthy landowners but without noble titles. They were influential in local government and often aspired to higher social standing.
- **The Middle Class:** A growing class, particularly in towns and cities, consisting of merchants, craftsmen, and professionals such

as lawyers and doctors. This group played a crucial role in England's burgeoning economy.

- **The Peasantry:** The majority of the population worked as farmers or laborers. They had few rights and were often tied to the land, working under the control of the nobility or gentry.

This hierarchical structure was deeply ingrained in 17th-century English life and was reflected in everything from politics to culture.

➔ **Rural Life**

In the early 17th century, most people in England lived in the countryside. Rural life revolved around agriculture, and the majority of the population worked the land as peasants, tenant farmers, or laborers. Life in the countryside was difficult, with people often living in small villages and working long hours to produce food.

Key Aspects of Rural Life:

- **Agriculture:** The economy of rural England was primarily based on farming. Crops such as wheat, barley, and rye were grown, and livestock farming was also important.

- **Village Life:** Communities were small, and people lived close to each other, often sharing resources. Villages typically had a church, which was the center of social and religious life.

- **Hardship:** Life was physically demanding, with poor living conditions, limited medical knowledge, and vulnerability to famine and disease.

➔ Urban Life and the Growth of Towns

By the mid-to-late 17th century, cities like London began to grow in importance. Urban life offered more opportunities than rural life but also presented new challenges.

Key Aspects of Urban Life:

- **Trade and Commerce:** Towns and cities were centers of trade, where merchants and craftsmen flourished. London's growth as a major financial and trade center was particularly notable during this time.

- **Crowded Living Conditions:** As people migrated to the cities in search of work, overcrowding became a serious issue. Urban areas faced problems such as poor sanitation, leading to frequent outbreaks of disease (e.g., the Great Plague of 1665).

- **Opportunities and Inequality:** While some benefited from the growing economy, particularly the merchant class, many people, especially in cities, lived in poverty and squalor.

➔ Gender Roles and Family Life

Family was the central unit of society in 17th-century England, and gender roles were strictly defined.

Gender Roles:

- **Men:** Men were the primary breadwinners and were responsible for supporting their families. They worked in agriculture, trade, or as professionals, depending on their social class.

- **Women:** Women's roles were largely domestic. They were responsible for managing the household, raising children, and assisting in agricultural work. Among the wealthier classes, women were expected to maintain the home and engage in social activities but had little access to public life.

Family Structure:

- **Patriarchal Society:** The family structure was deeply patriarchal. The father was the head of the household and held authority over the entire family.

- **Marriage:** Marriage was often arranged based on social and economic considerations, particularly among the upper classes. Love was less of a factor, and marriages were seen as alliances to secure wealth and status.

- **Children:** Children were expected to work from a young age, especially in lower-class families. They helped with household chores or worked in agriculture.

➔ **Education and Literacy**

Education and literacy rates improved significantly during the 17th century, particularly among the middle and upper classes. However, access to education was still limited for the lower classes and women.

Key Developments in Education:

- **Schools and Universities:** Schools were primarily for boys, and they were often run by the church or private tutors. The wealthy would send their sons to grammar schools or universities such as Oxford and Cambridge.

- **Literacy Growth:** By the end of the 17th century, literacy rates were improving, particularly in urban areas. The expansion of printing presses and the availability of books made knowledge more accessible, although women and the poor were still largely excluded from formal education.

- **Scientific and Philosophical Progress:** The 17th century was also an age of intellectual advancement, with the rise of figures like John Locke in philosophy and Isaac Newton in science, whose ideas shaped the intellectual landscape of England.

Religion and Religious Conflicts

Religion was at the heart of many of the conflicts and tensions in 17th-century England. The century witnessed profound religious upheavals that not only influenced political events but also shaped the social and cultural landscape. From the rise of Puritanism and its role in the English Civil War to the ongoing conflict between Protestantism and Catholicism, religion defined much of the public and private life of the period. This chapter explores the major religious groups, the conflicts that arose, and the lasting impact of these divisions.

➔ The Anglican Church and Its Dominance

At the start of the 17th century, the Church of England, or Anglican Church, was the established religion. Formed under Henry VIII in the previous century, it maintained a middle ground between Catholicism and Protestantism. However, many groups within England believed that the Church had not gone far enough in reforming itself from its Catholic roots.

Key Features of the Anglican Church:

- **State-Controlled Church:** The monarch was the Supreme Governor of the Church of England, giving the crown significant control over religious affairs.

- **Moderate Protestantism:** While Protestant in theology, the Church retained many of the formal ceremonies and hierarchical structure of Catholicism.
- **Religious Uniformity:** Laws required attendance at Anglican services, and dissent from this standard was often punished.

➔ **Puritanism and the Call for Further Reforms**

The Puritans were a powerful and vocal religious group within England that sought to further "purify" the Anglican Church of its remaining Catholic elements. They believed in a stricter form of Protestantism and emphasized simplicity in worship and moral conduct.

Key Aspects of Puritanism:

- **Simplicity in Worship:** Puritans rejected the use of elaborate rituals and decorations in churches, preferring plain and simple worship.
- **Moral Strictness:** Puritans were known for their strict moral codes, which they applied not only to themselves but to society at large.
- **Political Influence:** Many Puritans became influential in Parliament and were key figures in the opposition to King Charles I, playing a central role in the outbreak of the English Civil War.

The Puritans' desire for further reforms contributed to the political tensions that eventually led to the Civil War, and during the

Commonwealth period (1649-1660), they became the dominant religious and political force.

➔ The English Civil War and Religion

Religion was a major factor in the English Civil War (1642-1651), which was fought between the Royalists, who supported King Charles I, and the Parliamentarians, many of whom were Puritans. The war was not only about political power but also about religious authority. Many in Parliament believed that Charles was too sympathetic to Catholicism and that the Anglican Church needed further reformation.

Religious Divisions in the Civil War:

- **Royalists:** Supported the king and the established Anglican Church.
- **Parliamentarians:** Many were Puritans who sought to reform or abolish the Anglican Church.

After the Parliamentarian victory, Puritans took control of the government, and many of their religious ideals were enforced, including closing theaters, banning Christmas celebrations, and imposing strict moral regulations on society.

➔ The Catholic Minority and Persecution

Throughout the 17th century, Catholics in England faced widespread persecution. Following the Reformation, Catholicism had been marginalized, and anti-Catholic sentiment was widespread due to

fears of foreign Catholic powers, such as Spain and France, and their influence on English politics.

Key Challenges for Catholics:

- **Penal Laws:** Harsh laws were imposed on Catholics, restricting their ability to practice their faith, hold public office, or own property.
- **Fear of Catholic Plots:** The discovery of the Gunpowder Plot in 1605, in which a group of Catholic conspirators attempted to blow up Parliament, only deepened anti-Catholic fears.
- **Marginalization:** Catholics were forced to worship in secret, and they were often scapegoated for political crises.

➔ **The Glorious Revolution and Religious Toleration**

The Glorious Revolution of 1688 was a pivotal moment in England's religious history. King James II, a Catholic, had tried to reintroduce Catholicism into public life, which caused widespread unrest among the Protestant elite. In response, James was deposed, and the Protestant William of Orange and his wife Mary (James II's daughter) took the throne.

Consequences of the Glorious Revolution:

- **Bill of Rights (1689):** This limited the powers of the monarchy and ensured that no Catholic could ever again ascend the English throne.

- **Toleration Act (1689):** This act granted freedom of worship to Protestant dissenters, such as Puritans, though Catholics and other non-Protestant groups remained excluded from full rights.

The Glorious Revolution firmly established England as a Protestant nation and marked the beginning of religious toleration, at least for Protestants.

Economy and Trade

The 17th century was a pivotal time for the English economy, marked by significant growth in trade, industry, and the early development of global commerce. England transitioned from a largely agrarian society to one increasingly driven by international trade, colonial expansion, and the rise of merchant capitalism. This chapter examines the key economic changes that occurred during the 17th century, including the growth of London as a financial center, the impact of colonialism on the economy, and the emergence of new industries.

➔ The Agrarian Economy

At the beginning of the 17th century, the English economy was still primarily agricultural. Most people lived in rural areas and worked in farming, which remained the backbone of the economy.

Key Aspects of the Agrarian Economy:

- **Enclosure Movement:** Throughout the 17th century, there was a trend toward enclosing common lands, which had been used by small farmers for grazing and agriculture. The enclosure movement allowed for more efficient farming practices but often displaced small farmers, contributing to urban migration.

- **Crop Production and Livestock:** The main crops grown included wheat, barley, and oats, while livestock farming (cattle, sheep, and pigs) also played a significant role in rural areas.

- **Rural Poverty:** Despite the importance of agriculture, many rural areas remained poor, and economic inequality was widespread. Rural laborers often struggled to make ends meet, especially as the population grew.

While farming was central to the economy, changes were afoot that would transform England's economic structure and lay the groundwork for the future industrial revolution.

➔ The Growth of Trade and Commerce

As the century progressed, England's economy began to diversify, and trade became increasingly important. London, in particular, grew into a major center of commerce, both within Europe and globally.

Key Developments in Trade:

- **Expansion of Overseas Trade:** England's trade expanded rapidly during the 17th century, fueled by growing commerce with Europe, Africa, the Americas, and Asia. English merchants traded goods such as wool, cloth, sugar, tobacco, and spices.

- **The Rise of Joint-Stock Companies:** Companies like the East India Company (founded in 1600) and the Hudson's Bay Company (founded in 1670) played key roles in expanding English trade networks. These companies were instrumental in establishing English influence in India, North America, and other parts of the world.

- **The Navigation Acts:** Passed in 1651, these laws were designed to protect English trade by restricting foreign ships from

transporting goods to and from English ports. The Navigation Acts helped consolidate England's maritime dominance and promoted the growth of its merchant fleet.

As a result of these developments, England became increasingly integrated into global markets, and its merchants grew wealthy through trade in both raw materials and finished goods.

➔ The Role of Colonies in the Economy

Colonial expansion during the 17th century was a critical factor in England's economic growth. The establishment of colonies in North America, the Caribbean, and India provided new markets for English goods and new sources of raw materials.

Key Contributions of the Colonies:

- **Raw Materials and Cash Crops**: Colonies in the Americas provided England with valuable resources, including tobacco, sugar, cotton, and furs. These goods were traded back to England, where they were sold for a profit or processed into finished products.

- **The Slave Trade**: A dark chapter in 17th-century trade was the rise of the transatlantic slave trade. English merchants became heavily involved in the trade of enslaved Africans, who were transported to work on plantations in the Americas and the Caribbean. This system of forced labor was a major driver of the colonial economy, particularly in the production of sugar and tobacco.

- **Triangular Trade:** England became a key player in the "triangular trade" system, which connected Europe, Africa, and the Americas. Manufactured goods from England were traded for slaves in Africa, who were then transported to the Americas in exchange for raw materials that were sent back to Europe.

The economic benefits of the colonies contributed to England's growing wealth and global influence, but they also laid the groundwork for future moral and political conflicts over slavery and colonial exploitation.

➔ The Growth of London as a Financial Center

By the end of the 17th century, London had emerged as one of the world's leading financial hubs. The city's growth was fueled by trade, finance, and an increasingly sophisticated banking system.

Key Developments in London's Economy:

- **Bank of England:** Established in 1694, the Bank of England played a crucial role in managing the country's finances and supporting the growth of trade and industry. It provided loans to the government and helped to stabilize England's currency.

- **Stock Exchange:** London's financial markets flourished as merchants and investors traded shares in joint-stock companies. The establishment of the London Stock Exchange in the late 17th century formalized this process, creating a marketplace for buying and selling shares in trade ventures.

- **Insurance and Banking:** London also became a center for insurance and banking. Lloyd's of London (founded in the late 17th century) began as a coffeehouse where merchants could insure their ships and cargoes, laying the foundation for the modern insurance industry.

By the end of the century, London had become a global financial center, setting the stage for its dominance in the centuries to come.

➔ The Early Stages of Industrialization

Though the full Industrial Revolution would not take place until the 18th and 19th centuries, the 17th century saw the early stages of industrialization.

Key Early Industries:

- **Textile Production:** England's wool and cloth industries were central to its economy. The development of more efficient methods of production and the growing demand for English textiles in Europe and the colonies helped drive economic growth.

- **Mining and Metalworking:** The coal and iron industries also expanded during the 17th century, laying the groundwork for the heavy industries that would dominate in the next century.

- **Cottage Industries:** In rural areas, small-scale cottage industries, such as spinning, weaving, and metalworking, supplemented agricultural incomes. These industries would later play a role in the early stages of industrialization.

These developments were small compared to the sweeping changes that would come with the Industrial Revolution, but they represented important steps in the transition from an agrarian to an industrial economy.

The House of Stuart family and timeline of events

The Stuarts were the first kings of the United Kingdom. King James I of England who began the period was also King James VI of Scotland, thus combining the two thrones for the first time.

The Stuart dynasty reigned in England and Scotland from 1603 to 1714, a period which saw a flourishing Court culture but also much upheaval and instability, of plague, fire and war.

It was an age of intense religious debate and radical politics. Both contributed to a bloody civil war in the mid-seventeenth century between Crown and Parliament (the Cavaliers and the Roundheads), resulting in a parliamentary victory for Oliver Cromwell and the dramatic execution of King Charles I.

There was a short-lived republic, the first time that the country had experienced such an event.

The Restoration of the Crown was soon followed by another 'Glorious' Revolution. William and Mary of Orange ascended the throne as joint monarchs and defenders of Protestantism, followed by Queen Anne, the second of James II's daughters.

The end of the Stuart line with the death of Queen Anne led to the drawing up of the Act of Settlement in 1701, which provided that only Protestants could hold the throne.

The next in line according to the provisions of this act was George of Hanover, yet Stuart princes remained in the wings. The Stuart legacy was to linger on in the form of claimants to the Crown for another century.

24 March 1603

Elizabeth I dies and James VI of Scotland accedes to the English throne

Elizabeth I died childless so was succeeded by her cousin, James VI of Scotland, who henceforth assumed the title of James I of England as well. James's accession meant that the three separate kingdoms of England, Scotland and Ireland were now united, for the first time, under a single monarch. James was the first Stuart ruler of England.

August 1604

James I ends the war with Spain

One of James I's first acts of foreign policy was to end the long war with Spain, which had continued intermittently for 20 years. The resulting Treaty of London was largely favourable to Spain, but was also an acknowledgement by the Spanish that their hopes of bringing England under Spanish control were over. The end of the war greatly eased the English government's near bankrupt financial state. England and Spain were at peace for the next 50 years.

5 November 1605

Gunpowder Plot to assassinate James I is discovered

In 1604, a group of English Catholics, angered by James I's failure to relax the penal laws against their co-religionists, hatched a plot to blow up the king and parliament by igniting gunpowder barrels concealed in a vault beneath the building. The plot was discovered before it could be carried out. The conspirators, including Guy Fawkes after whom the plot is often known, were either killed resisting arrest, or captured and then executed by being hanged, drawn and quartered.

September 1607

Irish Earls flee to the continent fearing arrest

Following their defeat in the Nine Years' War, Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone and Rory O'Donnell, Earl of Tyrconnell were treated leniently by the victorious English government of Ireland and allowed to retain their lands and titles. But in 1605, the new lord deputy, Arthur Chichester, began to restrict their authority. Fearing arrest, the two fled to the continent with 90 family members and followers - the 'Flight of the Earls'. This marked the end of the power of Ireland's Gaelic aristocracy.

1609

Plantation of Ulster sees Protestants moving onto confiscated Irish land

In the wake of the Nine Years' War, James I determined to secure Ulster for the Crown through a systematic settlement programme. Protestants from England and Scotland were encouraged to move to Ulster, cultivate the land and establish towns. These 'planters' moved onto land confiscated from its Gaelic Catholic inhabitants. The plantation was often organised through guilds and corporations. The London companies were granted the city of Derry, thereafter known as Londonderry.

1611

'King James Bible' is published

By the end of the 16th century, there were several different English bibles in circulation and the church authorities felt a definitive version was needed. The 'Authorised Version of the Bible' (also known as the 'King James Bible') was commissioned in 1604. It became the most famous English translation of the scriptures and had a profound impact on the English language.

14 February 1613

James I's daughter Elizabeth marries Frederick V, Elector Palatine

The eldest daughter of James I and Anne of Denmark, Princess Elizabeth, was widely admired for her beauty, spirit and charm. She married Frederick V, Elector of the Rhine Palatinate, at the age of 16 and travelled with him to Heidelberg. Six years later, Frederick was elected king of Bohemia, but he and Elizabeth were driven out of the country by Catholic forces soon afterwards. It was through Elizabeth's

descendants that the House of Hanover came to inherit the English throne.

23 April 1616

William Shakespeare dies

William Shakespeare was an English poet and playwright, popular in his time but subsequently regarded as the greatest writer in the English language. He wrote numerous sonnets and poems as well as more than 30 plays, including 'A Midsummer Night's Dream', 'The Merchant of Venice', 'Henry V', 'Richard III', 'Romeo and Juliet, 'Macbeth', 'Hamlet' and 'King Lear'.

1619

First record of Africans in British North American colonies

The first Africans who arrived in Jamestown, Virginia were not slaves but indentured servants. However, over the course of the 17th century their status gradually shifted so that more and more became slaves. Race-based slavery soon became central to the economy of the British colonies in North America.

August 1620

'Pilgrim Fathers' sail for America in the 'Mayflower'

A group attempting to escape religious persecution in England sailed for the New World and landed at Plymouth Rock, Massachusetts. They became known as the 'Pilgrim Fathers', and are often portrayed

as the founders of modern America. In reality, the first permanent British colony in North America was Jamestown in Virginia, founded by Captain John Smith in 1607. Jamestown was established on behalf of the London Company, which hoped to make a profit from the new colony for its shareholders.

27 March 1625

James I dies and Charles I accedes to the throne

James I was struck down by what contemporaries described as 'a tertian ague' and died in his bed at Theobalds, in Hertfordshire, at the age of 57. He was succeeded by his only surviving son, Charles, then 24-years-old, who was proclaimed as king at the gates of Theobalds a few hours later.

14 May 1625

Barbados comes under British control

Captain John Powell landed in Barbados in 1625 and claimed the island as a British Caribbean colony. He returned two years later with a group of settlers and Barbados was developed into a sugar plantation economy using at first indentured servants and then slaves captured in West Africa.

October 1627

English forces are defeated at La Rochelle, France.

In a bid to help the French Protestants of La Rochelle, who were besieged by Catholic forces, Charles I sent an English army. It was commanded by his chief minister, George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, who attempted to capture the nearby island of Rhé at the approaches to La Rochelle. Despite his best efforts, Buckingham was eventually forced to evacuate the island amid scenes of chaos and confusion.

23 August 1628

Charles I's chief minister, George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, is assassinated

Anxious to redeem his honour in the wake of the defeat by the French at the Isle of Rhé, George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, travelled down to Portsmouth in order to prepare for a new expedition to La Rochelle. While conferring with his officers, Buckingham was stabbed by John Felton, a discontented former soldier. The duke was immensely unpopular and few apart from the king mourned his death.

10 March 1629

Charles I dissolves parliament and begins 11 years of personal rule

Already disillusioned with parliaments, Charles I was outraged when, on 2 March 1629, members of parliament first held the Speaker of the House down in his chair and then passed three resolutions condemning the king's financial and religious policies. Eight days later, Charles dissolved the assembly and embarked on a period of government without parliaments, known as the 'Personal Rule'.

23 July 1637

New Scottish prayer book causes a riot in Edinburgh

Keen to secure a greater degree of religious conformity across his three kingdoms, Charles I ordered the introduction of a new prayer book in Scotland. The measure backfired badly when, at St Giles church in Edinburgh, an angry crowd protested against the book, shouting: 'The Mass is come amongst us!' - a negative reference to the reintroduction of Catholicism.

28 February 1638

Scots begin to sign the National Covenant to prevent religious 'innovations'

Determined not to accept the new prayer book which Charles I was trying to impose on them, the Scots had drawn up a 'National Covenant' which bound its signatories to resist all religious 'innovations'. On 28 February 1638, leading Scottish gentlemen began signing the document in Grey Friars Church, Edinburgh. Thousands followed. The General Assembly of the Kirk declared episcopacy (bishops) abolished and Charles prepared to send troops into Scotland to restore order.

13 April 1640

'Short Parliament' opens at Westminster

Desperate for money to fight the Scots, Charles I was forced to summon a new parliament - his first after 11 years of personal rule. At

first, there seemed a good chance that members of parliament might be prepared to set their resentments of the king's domestic policies aside and agree to grant him money. Yet such hopes proved illusory, and Charles was forced to dissolve the parliament within a month.

28 August 1640

Scots defeat the English at Newburn on the River Tyne

Having advanced deep into England, the Scottish army found Charles I's forces waiting for them on the southern bank of the River Tyne at Newburn. Charging across the river under cover of artillery fire, the Scots swiftly put the English infantry to flight. Charles was forced to agree to a humiliating truce.

3 November 1640

'Long Parliament' opens at Westminster

With the Scottish army firmly established in Northern England and refusing to leave until its expenses had been paid, Charles I was again forced to summon a parliament. But instead of providing the king with financial assistance, many of the members of parliament - some of whom were zealous Protestants, or Puritans - used it to voice angry complaints against his policies.

October 1641

Rebellion breaks out in Ireland

In late 1641, Ireland rebelled. The country's Catholic inhabitants were simultaneously appalled by the prospect of a Puritan parliament achieving political dominance in England, and entranced by the possibility of seizing concessions similar to those which had been won by the Scots. Several thousand English and Scottish Protestant settlers were killed and many more were forced to flee.

4 January 1642

Charles I tries to arrest five leading members of parliament

Fearing that his opponents in parliament were not only determined to seize political control, but also to impeach his Catholic wife, Henrietta Maria, Charles I marched into the House of Commons and attempted to arrest five leading members of parliament. Forewarned, they slipped away and Charles was forced to leave empty-handed.

22 August 1642

Civil War begins as Charles I raises his standard at Nottingham

By setting up his royal standard on the Castle Hill at Nottingham, and by summoning his loyal subjects to join him against his enemies in parliament, Charles effectively signalled the start of the English Civil War. Inauspiciously for him: 'the standard itself was blown down the same night... by a... strong and unruly wind'.

1-7 October 1642

Cornishmen rise in support of Charles I

Although parliament had initially managed to gain control of almost all of southern England, in October 1642 some 10,000 Cornishmen rose up in arms for Charles I and chased parliament's few local supporters across the River Tamar. Thus a new front in the developing English Civil War was opened, with the Cornishmen becoming some of the king's toughest soldiers.

23 October 1642

Royalist and Parliamentarian armies clash at Edgehill, Warwickshire

As Charles I's army advanced on London from the Welsh Marches, its path was blocked by parliament's army under Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, at Edgehill in Warwickshire. The struggle that followed was bloody but indecisive, putting paid to hopes that the English Civil War might be settled by a single battle.

15 September 1643

Royalists sign a ceasefire with the Irish

Having suffered a series of reverses and desperate for more men, Charles I ordered James Butler, Marquis of Ormond, to arrange a ceasefire with the Catholic 'confederates' (or insurgents) in Ireland, so that the English Protestant soldiers fighting there could be shipped home to serve against the Parliamentarians. The so-called 'cessation of arms' outraged the king's English opponents.

25 September 1643

Parliamentarians enter into an alliance with the Scots

Fearing that they would be unable to beat the Royalist forces without outside help, the Parliamentarians concluded an alliance with the Scots. By the terms of the treaty the Scots agreed to send a powerful army to fight Charles I, in return for church reform in England 'according to the word of God', that is, in keeping with Scottish Protestantism.

2 July 1644

Scottish and Parliamentarian armies destroy Charles I's northern army

Charles I's northern supporters were besieged in York by a joint force of Parliamentarians and Scots, but were relieved by a Royalist army under the king's nephew, Prince Rupert. Triumph quickly turned to disaster for Rupert when his army was destroyed in a pitched battle at Marston Moor on the following day. Thereafter, the north of England was effectively lost to the king.

15 February 1645

Parliament establishes the 'New Model Army'

Following the humiliating defeat of its main field army in the Battle of Lostwithiel in Cornwall in 1644, parliament decided a more effective army was required. It passed the 'Self-denying Ordinance' that required all members of both houses of parliament to lay down their commands. The restructured fighting force, established by law on 15 February, was named the 'New Model Army'. Sir Thomas Fairfax was

appointed its lord general and Oliver Cromwell his second-in-command.

14 June 1645

Royalists are crushed by the New Model Army at Naseby, Northamptonshire

Confident that his veteran troops would outfight parliament's newly-raised forces, Charles I launched his main field army of around 9,000 men against Sir Thomas Fairfax's army of around 14,000 men at Naseby in Northamptonshire. The result was a disaster for the king. The superb Royalist infantry were lost, and with them, all chance of winning the war.

5 May 1646

Charles I surrenders to the Scots

As the Parliamentarian net closed around him, Charles I decided to throw in his lot with the Scots. He made his way to the camp of the Scottish army at Southwell, near Newark, and gave himself up. The Scots eventually handed him over to the Parliamentarians for £400,000. At the end of December 1647, the bulk of the Scottish army marched back across the River Tweed and the king's Scottish guards were replaced by English Parliamentarian ones.

17-19 August 1648

Oliver Cromwell's Parliamentarian troops defeat a Scottish-Royalist Army

In mid-1648, England experienced a further eruption of violence known as the Second Civil War. Rebellions in favour of the king broke out in many parts of England and Wales, and a joint force of Scots and English Royalists rode south but were destroyed at Preston by an army under Oliver Cromwell. This marked the end of the Royalist resurgence.

6 December 1648

'Pride's Purge' turns away half of parliament

Enraged by parliament's opposition to their political ideals, officers of the New Model Army decided to remove those members of parliament they regarded as untrustworthy in what was effectively a coup d'etat. Colonel Thomas Pride, after whom the purge is named, accordingly turned away some 180 members, while over 40 more were arrested. The resulting parliament of less than 160 members was derisively known as 'the Rump'.

30 January 1649

Charles I is executed at Whitehall, London

In the wake of the Second Civil War, Oliver Cromwell and the other senior commanders of the New Model Army decided that England could never be settled in peace while Charles I remained alive. Accordingly, the king was charged with high treason, tried, found guilty and beheaded. Charles faced his trial and death with remarkable dignity. His last word on the scaffold was: 'Remember'. The execution of a king was greeted across Europe with shock.

15 May 1649

'Leveller' mutiny crushed by New Model Army leadership

In an atmosphere of greater religious tolerance and lack of censorship during the war, radical political and religious ideas flourished. The New Model Army was a hothouse for many of these ideas. It was particularly influenced by the 'Levellers', a small but vocal group who called for significant changes in society, including an extension of the franchise. The army leadership reacted badly to challenges to their authority, and in May 1649 crushed a Leveller mutiny at Burford in Oxfordshire.

11- 12 September 1649

Oliver Cromwell's troops storm the town of Drogheda, Ireland

Determined to subdue 'the rebellious Irish', parliament ordered Oliver Cromwell to lead a powerful expeditionary force across the Irish Sea. After landing at Dublin, Cromwell quickly moved on to storm the nearby town of Drogheda. His troops slaughtered more than 3,000 of the defenders in the process.

1 January 1651

Charles II is crowned king of Scotland

Desperate to recover his father's throne, Charles I's eldest son struck a bargain with the Scots whereby he agreed to take the Covenant himself in return for the promise of Scottish military assistance. Early in 1651, Charles was crowned Charles II of Scotland at Scone Castle.

3 September 1651

Oliver Cromwell defeats Charles II at the Battle of Worcester

Following his coronation as king of the Scots, Charles II raised a Scottish army and invaded England. Many English royalists came in to support him, but in a hard-fought battle at Worcester, the Parliamentarian commander Oliver Cromwell defeated the young king's army. It proved to be the last major battle of the English Civil War. Charles subsequently fled into exile abroad.

16 December 1653

Oliver Cromwell makes himself Lord Protector

After the execution of Charles I, the various factions in parliament began to squabble amongst themselves. In frustration, Oliver Cromwell dismissed the purged 'Rump' parliament and summoned a new one. This also failed to deal with the complexity of the problems England was now facing. Cromwell’s self-appointment as 'Lord Protector' gave him powers akin to a monarch. His continuing popularity with the army propped up his regime.

May 1655

Britain takes Jamaica from Spain

The Spanish had ruled Jamaica since 1509, and introduced African slaves to work in the sugar plantations. The British seized the island and continued to develop the sugar trade. During this period, many slaves escaped into the mountains. These people became known as

'Maroons' and came to control large areas of the Jamaican interior, often launching attacks on the sugar plantations.

3 September 1658

Oliver Cromwell dies and is succeeded by his son, Richard

When Oliver Cromwell died, he was succeeded as Lord Protector by his son, Richard. The Commonwealth of England collapsed into financial chaos and arguments between the military and administration increased. Parliament was once again dissolved and Richard Cromwell was overthrown. George Monck, one of the army's most capable officers, realised that only the restoration of the king could end the political chaos, and Charles II was invited to return from exile.

1 January 1660

Samuel Pepys starts his diary

Samuel Pepys was a naval administrator and later a member of parliament whose diaries, covering the years from 1660-1669, provide a fascinating insight into mid-17th century life. The scope of the diary ranges from private remarks to detailed observations of the events and personalities around him.

29 May 1660

Charles II is restored to the throne

Charles II's official restoration to the English throne - he had already been acknowledged as king in Scotland in 1651 - occurred on 29 May. The king’s restoration was marked by massive celebrations, lesser versions of which continued to be held on Royal Oak Day for centuries to come.

March 1665

Great Plague of London begins

Towards the end of the winter of 1664-1665, bubonic plague broke out in the poverty-stricken London parish of St Giles-in-the-Fields. Soon the contagion was spreading fast, and over the following months more than 100,000 people died. By the time the epidemic finished in December 1665, a quarter of the capital's inhabitants had perished.

2 September 1666

Great Fire of London destroys two-thirds of the city

The fire broke out in a baker's shop in Pudding Lane in the City of London and spread rapidly. Within four days, two-thirds of the city had been destroyed and 65,000 people were homeless. Despite this, the fire did have some positive outcomes. Within three weeks, an architect called Christopher Wren presented plans for rebuilding much of the city. Although his plans were never fully implemented, Wren was responsible for the rebuilding of more than 50 churches, including St Paul's Cathedral.

June 1667

Dutch ships attack the English fleet in the Medway

In 1667, the Dutch admiral Michiel de Ruyter led a daring raid up the River Medway. Having broken a chain which the English had placed across the river, he attacked the naval dockyard at Chatham, burning and taking many ships. It was a terrible humiliation for the English. The diarist Samuel Pepys wrote: 'Never were people so dejected as they are in the City… this day.'

1672

Royal African Company is established to regulate the African slave trade

Charles II granted the Royal African Company a monopoly on the rapidly expanding slave trade. Rival merchants opposed the monopoly and in 1698 Parliament opened the slave trade to all. Britain would become one of the leading transatlantic slave trading nations. Ships took guns and manufactured goods from Britain to West Africa, where goods were exchanged for people. Captives were taken across the Atlantic and sold into slavery on the plantations of the Caribbean and North America. Cargoes of rum, tobacco, cotton and sugar were then carried to England. This was known as the triangle trade.

29 March 1673

Test Act excluded Catholics from public office

The Test Act required public office holders to accept communion in the Protestant form and swear an oath of allegiance recognising the monarch as the head of the Church of England. The intention of the act was to exclude Catholics and dissenters from public office. Charles II's brother James, Duke of York, a Catholic himself, was a victim of the act. He was forced to surrender his public office as lord high admiral as he would not take the oath.

4 November 1677

Mary Stuart marries William of Orange, Charles I's grandson

Born in 1662, Mary Stuart was the elder daughter of Charles II's brother, James, Duke of York, and his first wife Anne Hyde. Although both her parents later converted to Catholicism, Mary herself was brought up as a Protestant. Her marriage in 1677 to the Dutch Protestant Prince William of Orange, himself the grandson of Charles I, strengthened William's claim to the English throne.

September 1678

'Popish Plot' to murder Charles II is 'revealed'

Disgraced clergyman Titus Oates claimed he had learned of a Catholic and French conspiracy to kill Charles II, replace him with his Catholic brother James, Duke of York, and transform England into a Catholic-absolutist state. Oates's 'revelations' sparked panic and many innocent people were arrested and tried. The plot was little more than an invention. At the height of the furore a second Test Act

was passed requiring members of both houses of parliament to make an anti-Catholic declaration.

6 February 1685

Charles II dies and James II accedes to the throne

Having suffered a stroke, Charles II converted to Catholicism on his death-bed and passed away a few hours later. He was succeeded by his brother, James, whose adherence to the Catholic faith made many of his staunchly Protestant subjects deeply suspicious. Nevertheless, James enjoyed considerable popularity when he first acceded to the throne as James II.

5 July 1685

James II defeats James Scott, Duke of Monmouth, at Sedgemoor, Somerset

Hoping to seize the throne from James II, Charles II's illegitimate son, James Scott, Duke of Monmouth, landed at Lyme Regis in Dorset. As he marched eastwards, hundreds flocked to join him. Yet Monmouth's raw West Country recruits proved no match for James II's experienced soldiers, and when they fought at Sedgemoor on the Somerset Levels, the rebels were cut to pieces. Monmouth was **captured and executed at the Tower of London.**

10 June 1688

Birth of James II's son sparks popular outrage

Following the death of his first wife, James II married Mary of Modena, a Catholic, in 1673. The birth of a son to the royal couple in 1688 provoked popular outrage. Many of James II's opponents, furious that their Catholic king now had a male heir, denounced the infant as an imposter, and claimed that the baby had been smuggled into the queen's bedroom in a warming-pan.

5 November 1688

William of Orange lands with an army at Torbay

William of Orange, Stadtholder of Holland, Zeeland and Utrecht, was implored by Protestant conspirators to 'deliver' them from the Catholic James II. William, who had a legitimate claim to the throne through his grandfather, Charles I, raised an army in the Netherlands and transported it across the English Channel to Devon. As nobles and officers defected to William, James II lost his nerve and eventually fled abroad, leaving William free to take the crown.

13 February 1689

William and Mary are formally proclaimed king and queen

In the wake of James II's flight to exile, many felt that William and his wife Mary (James II's daughter) should be termed 'regents', rather than monarchs in their own right, because the former king was still alive. William was not prepared to accept this, and on 6 February 1689 the House of Lords at last conceded the point. The formal declaration of William and Mary as king and queen took place a week later. This became known as the 'Glorious Revolution'.

March 1689

James II lands in Kinsale with a French army

Encouraged by Louis XIV of France, James II sailed to Ireland hoping that, with Ireland under his control, he would be able to recover England and Scotland as well. Landing at the head of 20,000 French troops, James quickly found himself reinforced by thousands of eager Irish Catholics. Soon, most of Ireland was in James's hands.

27 July 1689

Jacobite Highlanders defeat William III's troops in the Battle of Killiecrankie

In Scotland, as in Ireland, many people still supported the Catholic James II against the Protestant William III. When Williamite troops (mostly Lowland Scots) advanced into the Grampian Mountains during the summer of 1689, John Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, led his clansmen against them at the Battle of Killiecrankie. Claverhouse himself died on the field. His army was routed by William's forces at the Battle of Dunkeld a month later.

16 December 1689

'Bill of Rights' is confirmed by an act of parliament

William and Mary had accepted a Declaration of Rights on 13 February 1689 as an implicit condition of being offered the throne. In December, it was confirmed by an act of parliament, becoming the 'Bill of Rights'. It is a statement of rights of the subject as represented

by parliament (whereas Magna Carta is broadly a statement of the rights of the individual). It remains a basic document of English constitutional law and the template for other constitutions around the world.

1 July 1690

William III defeats James II at the Battle of the Boyne, Ireland

James II had landed in Kinsale in 1689 and now controlled most of Ireland. William III sailed to Ireland himself to face his opponent. They met on the River Boyne, where William ordered his forces to cross and attack the joint Irish-French army. The Jacobite troops were routed and James retreated to France soon afterwards, earning himself the Irish nickname 'Séamus á Chaca' ('James the Sh*t'). In less than two years, William's forces had completed the re-conquest of Ireland.

13 February 1692

Government troops massacre the MacIains of Glencoe

Despite James II's defeat in Ireland, Jacobite sympathies remained strong in the Scottish Highlands. William III's Scottish supporters resolved to terrorise the Jacobite clans into submission. At 5am on 13 February, Captain Robert Glenlyon and his soldiers, who were then enjoying the hospitality of the MacIain clan of Glencoe, suddenly fell upon their unsuspecting hosts. Some 30-40 people were slaughtered in the massacre.

1694

Bank of England is established to manage mounting debts

England had accrued a considerable national debt on the back of William III's expensive wars. Scottish merchant William Paterson founded the Bank of England to assist the Crown in managing its debt. The Bank became the national reserve, and in 1697 its position of prominence was secured when parliament forbade the formation of any further joint-stock banks in England. The bank has issued bank notes since 1694. A separate Bank of Scotland was established in 1695.

28 December 1694

Mary dies, leaving William III to rule alone

William III's wife Mary died at the age of 32 leaving no children. William had loved his wife deeply, despite the somewhat tempestuous nature of their relationship, and was grief-stricken at her death.

1699

80% of those living in the Caribbean are African slaves

Initially, European colonists forced the indigenous people of the Caribbean to work in the sugar plantations. However, they were decimated by European diseases against which they had no immunity, so plantation owners began to buy African slaves. The profits from slavery were potentially very high for European slave

traders. In 1708 a slave could be bought in Africa for £5, and sold in the West Indies for £20. The profits for plantation owners from cotton, tobacco and above all sugar were even higher. For the enslaved people, the work was hard, the punishments harsh and the living standards very poor.

12 June 1701

Act of Settlement places the House of Hanover in line for the English throne

William III was childless, as was James II's last surviving child, Anne. English Protestants wanted to prevent the return of James II (who lived until September 1701) and his Catholic son, also James. Parliament decreed that after the deaths of William, Anne and any children they might yet have, the throne would revert to the heirs of James I's daughter, Elizabeth, the wife of the Elector Palatine. Thus, Sophie, electress of Hanover, and her heirs became next in line to the throne.

September 1701

English, Dutch and Austrians sign the Treaty of the Grand Alliance

The expansionist policies of Louis XIV of France were threatening to overturn the balance of power in Europe, and his attempts to bring about a future union of the Spanish and French crowns caused the English, Dutch and Austrians to ally against him. The so-called 'War of the Spanish Succession' began the following year.

8 March 1702

William III dies and Anne accedes to the throne

William III died two weeks after being thrown from his horse when it tripped over a molehill in Hyde Park, London. Jacobites, gloating at their old enemy's downfall, drank to 'the little gentleman in black velvet' who had inadvertently helped to bring about the king's death. William was succeeded by Anne, who was the younger sister of his wife Mary and the second daughter of James II and Anne Hyde.

13 August 1704

John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, defeats the French at Blenheim, Bavaria

Allied forces under John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, Prince Eugene of Savoy and Prince Lewis of Baden shattered a Franco-Bavarian army under the Duc de Tallard at the Battle of Blenheim on the River Danube in Bavaria. It was a crucial victory in the War of the Spanish Succession and helped to pave the way for the eventual defeat of the French in northern Europe and the frustration of Louis XIV's imperial ambitions.

March 1707

Act of Union of England and Scotland is ratified

Although the Act of Settlement of 1701 ensured that there would eventually be a Protestant succession in England, there was no guarantee that this would be the case in Scotland too. Leading Scots

were thus persuaded to agree to a union of the two kingdoms. Once the Act of Union had finally been ratified, England and Scotland officially became one country - Great Britain.

April 1713

Treaty of Utrecht ends a decade of war in Europe

The English and their Dutch allies came to terms with France at the Treaty of Utrecht, ending ten years of warfare. Many long-standing problems were resolved by the treaty. In particular, the French agreed to abandon their support for the dynastic claims of James II's son, James, to the throne of Great Britain. France also recognised the Hanoverian succession in Britain, which had been established by the Act of Settlement in 1701.

1 August 1714

Anne dies and George I accedes to the throne

Anne, the last Stuart monarch, died at Kensington Palace in London aged 49. None of her children survived her, so 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. In dynastic terms at least, Britain had entered a new age.