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DCBEN11: Social History of England - I

School of Languages

CENTRE FOR DISTANCE AND ONLINE EDUCATION (CDOE)
VELS INSTITUTE OF SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND ADVANCED STUDIES (VISTAS)
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**Vels Institute of Science, Technology and
Advanced Studies (VISTAS)
Centre for Distance and Online Education (CDOE)**

**Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) ENGLISH -ODL Mode
(Semester Pattern)**

DCBEN11: Social History of England - I

March-2023

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COURSE INTRODUCTION

This course has been divided into five Blocks consisting of 20 units. The framework of the study is given below:

BLOCK I – Block one provides a basic understanding of the social history of England. Unit one describes the early history of England, and unit two discusses Feudalism. Unit three deals with Religion in Medieval England, England's Hundred Years' War with France, and the Wars of the Roses.

BLOCK II – Block two deals with Tudor Age. Unit one discusses Renaissance land; unit two details the Reformation, and unit three deals with the Dissolution of the Monasteries – The Golden Age of Queen Elizabeth.

BLOCK III – Block three details historical occurrences of the Age of Stuarts. Unit one discusses the Long Parliament, and unit two details the Civil War and its Social Significance. Unit three unit explains Puritanism, and the fourth details the Colonial Expansion.

BLOCK IV – Block four discusses Stuart England. Unit one discusses Restoration England, unit two details the Literature of the Restoration Age, unit three explains social conditions during Restoration England, and the fourth unit explores the Glorious Revolution.

BLOCK V – Block five explores Stuart England. Unit one discusses the Golden Age of Queen Anne. Unit two details the role of Coffee Houses and Life in London. Unit three deals with the Political and Social conditions in Queen Anne's England – and unit four explores the raise and fall of Coffee Houses in Queen Anne's England.

DCBEN11: Social History of England - I

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BLOCK I – BACKGROUND

UNIT 1 - THE EARLY HISTORY OF ENGLAND

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 The contribution of the Romans and the Anglo – Saxons
- 1.3 The contribution of the Norman kings
- 1.4 The Rule of the Plantagenet Kings
- 1.5 The Growth of English Literature from the Tenth to the Fifteenth century

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Answer to Check your progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

The unit deals with the background and the reign of Normans, Anglo-Saxons, Romans and Plantagenet kings. It also traces the growth of English Literature from the tenth to the fifteenth century.

Objectives

- To help students understand the early history, culture, and social life of England
- To familiarize them with the early Feudal system, religion and wars in England.

1.1 Introduction

The Iberians were the earliest inhabitants of England. They came from Spain. Then came the Celts from Central Europe around 600 B.C in two or three distinct waves. Next to come were the Romans. They ruled Britain up to 410 AD The Anglo-Saxon and Danish conquests followed in quick succession. The Normans Infiltrated England in 1066 by winning the battle of Hastings. Thus, many races went into the making of the English people.

1.2 The Contribution of the Romans and the Anglo – Saxons

i) The Contribution of the Romans (43-410 A.D.)

Emperor Claudius of Rome conquered the south-eastern part of Britain. His successor Julius Agricola extended the conquest up to Firth. The Roman occupation of England lasted four centuries only. In 410 AD they withdrew their legions (army) and returned to Rome to defend it from invaders. During their brief stay in England, the Romans brought about a number of reforms. They introduced Christianity into England. There was bitter rivalry between the Celtic missionaries from Ireland and the Roman missionaries sent by Pope Gregory. There were many marked differences between the two churches. The Celtic church did not acknowledge the Pope as its head. Also, they did not impose celibacy on its priests.

Christianity encouraged learning. The first English poet Caedmon and the first English historian, the Venerable Bede were both patronized by the church. The church patronized musicians and architects also. The church regarded all as equals. This instilled a sense of unity in the minds of people. The Romans built a network of roads branching from London in several directions. They encouraged agriculture, commerce, mining and industry.

ii) The Anglo-Saxons in England (410 AD-1066 AD)

The Anglo-Saxons hailed from the low-lying coastal lands between the Danish Peninsula and the Rhine. The Angles established themselves in Northumbria, East England and Mercia. The Saxons conquered Sussex, Surtey and Weses. Alfred was the greatest of the Anglo-Saxon rulers. He introduced a number of military reforms. He founded the English navy and codified English laws. He encouraged learning and literature. He arranged to compile the Anglo- Saxon chronicle. Another capable Anglo-Saxon ruler was Edward the Confessor. He had many Norman favourites. He brought the Norman civilization into England.

After the death of Edward, William of Normandy won the battle of Hastings and ascended the throne of England in 1066. Thus the Anglo-Saxon rule came to an end, and the Norman rule began. The Anglo-Saxon rulers introduced many reforms. Kingship was established firmly. At the same time they introduced a complete system of self-government. Each village and town had its own council called the 'moot'. The "moot or the 'hundred' was in charge of the collecting taxes and maintaining of order. The Anglo-Saxon society consisted of three classes. They were - 1) The slaves bound to the land, ii) free men endowed with political and economic rights and iii) nobles who were landowners and followers of

the king. The Anglo-Saxons were influenced by the Christian teachings of love and charity. They started schools to teach Latin and the liberal arts.

1.3 The Contribution of The Norman Kings (1066 Ad-1154 Ad)

William I (1066 - 1087)

William I, the first Norman ruler of England, was an absolute monarch. He confiscated the lands of the English nobles and distributed them among his Norman followers to enlist their support. He abolished Anglo-Saxon institutions such as the Hundred. He extorted taxes from all His greatest achievement was the compilation of a book called The Domesday Book This book gave exhaustive information about the wealth of the people. It was a land register, a census of population and a topographical dictionary, all rolled into one. He replaced English bishops by Norman bishops. He imposed celibacy on the clergy. He set up ecclesiastical courts. Neither the Pope nor his bull was recognized.

William Rufus (1087 - 1100)

William Rufus, son of William I, was highly tyrannical. He clashed with Anslem, the Archbishop of Canterbury. Anslem wanted Rufus to return the confiscated property to the nobles and not to interfere with the functioning of the ecclesiastical courts. Rufus did not yield. So Anslem went into voluntary exile.

Henry I (1100-1135)

Henry, brother of William II, was kind and conciliatory. He recalled Anslem from exile and promised free elections to the bishoprics. The charter of liberties that he issued gave many rights to the people and curbed the powers of the barons. He formed a royal court called the 'Curia Regis' It dominated the local courts and supervised the assessment and collection of revenue. Judges belonging to the Curia Regis often visited the local courts and prevented them from misusing their powers.

Stephen (1135-1154)

Stephen was the nephew of Henry I. He was autocratic and antagonized both the clergy and the nobles.

The Manorial system of the Normans

The Normans introduced a new system called the Feudal or Manorial system. A manor included one or more villages. The lord was the ruler of the manor. His land was cultivated for him by the 'serfs' called villeins' or vassals. The rest of the land in the manor was divided into strips which were distributed in rotation among the lord's followers. This ensured a fairly equitable distribution of wealth. However, during

the 14th century, the Manorial system broke up. The outbreak of plague called the Black Death, in 1348, depleted many villages. Wat Tyler, speeded up the collapse of the Manorial system.

1.4 The Rule of The Plantagenet Kings

After the death of King Stephen, Henry I's grandson Henry II ascended the throne Henry II's father Geoffrey of Anjou wore a sprig of 'plantagenisa' (broom plant) in his cap and so the dynasty founded by him came to be called the Plantagenet dynasty.

Henry II (1154-1189)

Henry II brought about many legal reforms. He is called the father of the English jury system. The Assize of Clarendon (1166) enforced by him made the representatives of townships present criminals before the Itinerant judges of the king. These representatives later on developed into the modern jury. This system made judges think twice before passing judgment on criminals. Judgment was invariably sober and not impulsive. A uniform system of jurisprudence was evolved. This later came to be known as the Common Law. The Constitution of Clarendon implemented the public trial of the clergy. This was opposed by Thomas Becket the Archbishop of Canterbury This led to the slaughtering of Becket by Henry's knights.

Richard I (1189-1199)

Richard I the son of Henry II was keen on recovering Palestine from the clutches of Mohammedans. He fought in the Crusades for the recovery of the Holy Land.

King John (1199-1216) and the Magna Carta of 1215

King John the youngest son of Henry II antagonized all during his short reign. He refused to accept the Pope's nominee, Stephen Langton as the Archbishop of Canterbury. The Pope retaliated by excommunicating King John. Finally, John yielded to the Pope and agreed to pay him an annual tribute John clashed against King Phillip II of France. He lost the battle against Philip. He imposed a heavy tax on the barons and nobles who did not accompany him to France to fight against the French King.

The angry nobles captured London and forced King John to sign the historic Magna Carta on June 15, 1215. The Magna Carta contained sixty-three clauses. The Carta restored to the church, the barons and the people in general their long-cherished rights and liberties. According to the Carta, the king could not impose new taxes without consulting the Great Council of the barons Merchants were permitted to carry on trade without paying heavy taxes. Free men could not be imprisoned or

punished without a proper trial. This clause was the origin of the Habeas Corpus right of our age. The Magna Carta is hailed as the key-stone of English liberties (Hallam) and the Bible of the English Constitution (Chatham).

Henry III (1216-1272)

Henry III his eldest son, did not abide by the Magna Carta. He imposed fresh taxes to finance the Pope. The barons resented it. Under the leadership of Simon de Montfort they defeated the royal forces and convened the Simon's Parliament of 1265. Common people were allowed to attend this parliament. This was the origin of the House of Commons of our time. He constructed the famous Westminster Abbey.

Edward I (1272-1307)

He annexed Wales and made his eldest son the Prince of Wales. He also convened the famous Model Parliament (1295) which served as a model to later parliaments by its broad-based inclusion of representatives of all classes, both rich and poor.

Edward II (1307-1327)

Edward II had homosexual leanings towards one Gaveston. This was objected to by the barons. The unrepentant Edward and Gaveston were both put to death. This is the subject of Marlowe's famous play, Edward II

Edward III (1327-1377)

In his period Parliament was divided into the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The House of Commons was empowered to audit the accounts of the kingdom and also to appoint ministers.

The Hundred Years' War (1338-1453)

The prolonged war between England and France was the result of Edward III's expansionism. He claimed the throne of France through his mother Isabella. Philip of France and Edward of England competed with one another in possessing Scotland and Flanders. The Hundred Years' War broke out in 1338, and dragged on for several years, with England and France winning and losing alternately.

Initially England won the battles of Crecy and Poitiers. In 1360 the treaty of Bretigny was signed and the French King surrendered to the English. Henry V won the battle of Agincourt in France in 1415. He married the French princess and became the regent of France. This victory was followed by certain decisive reverses. A 17-year-old French girl by name Joan of Arc led the French army to victory in the battle at Patay in 1429. The Dauphin (the French prince) was crowned King

Charles VII. Later, the French turned against Joan of Arc and burnt her at the stake. In spite of this tragedy, England could not recover the lost French territories. The Hundred Years' War made the English people definitely patriotic. There was no longer any craze for French ways of life or the French language. English replaced the French language at all levels in England.

The Lancastrians and the Yorkists the Wars of the Roses (1455-1485)

The family of Lancaster and that of York fought long-drawn-out battles against each other from 1455-1485. The Lancastrians wore the red rose and the Yorkists, the white rose as badges. So, the wars between them came to be described as wars of the roses. The Hundred Years' War had just ended then. It had made the nobles greedy. There was no foreign war to give an outlet to their energies. So, they turned to battling against one another.

Richard, Duke of York, defeated the Lancastrian king, Henry VI. Next, York's son proclaimed himself King Edward IV. The next king Edward V, was a mere boy. He was toppled by his own uncle Richard, Duke of Gloucester. Richard proclaimed himself King Richard III. Richard III could not continue in power for long because both the Yorkists and the Lancastrians were hostile towards him. Richard III was killed by Henry Tudor who was a Lancastrian. Henry Tudor ascended the throne by marrying the Yorkist princess, Elizabeth. This marriage ended the 30-year-long Wars of the Roses and established the Tudor dynasty firmly on the throne.

1.5 The Growth of English Literature from The Tenth To Fifteenth Century

The year 1066 is an important milestone in the history of the English nation as well as the history of English literature. It was in 1066 that the Norman, William I ascended the English throne by defeating the Anglo-Saxon king Harold in the battle of Hastings. The period before 1066 is called the Old English period, and the period after that year is known as the Middle English period.

Old English Literature (written before 1066)

Beowulf, written in the West Saxon dialect, belongs to Old English. It is a badly mutilated form. Its authorship is not known. It describes Beowulf's slaying some dragons in alliterative verse. "Widsith", a smaller poem of the period, describes the places visited by a traveller Juliana. Elene, Christ and "The Fates of the Apostles" are four poems supposed to have been written by one Cynewulf. The Genesis, Exodus and Daniel are attributed to another Old English poet by name Caedmon.

King Alfred is supposed to be the first prose writer. In order to encourage learning among the clergy, Alfred translated the Pastoral Care of Pope Gregory, the History of the World of Orosius, Bede's Ecclesiastical History, Boethius's Consolation of Philosophy and the Soliloquies of St. Augustine. The abbot Aelfric's Grammar, Catholic Homilies, Lives of the Saints and Colloquy (a dialogue between a master and his pupils) are other significant prose works of the Old English period. Nobody reads Old English Literature nowadays.

Middle English Literature (1066-1350)

The literature written between 1066 and 1350 is termed Middle English literature. Middle English literature is divisible into two categories, namely, religious literature and secular literature. The religious literature consists of translations from the Bible, lives of saints, etc. The secular literature consists of metrical romances dealing with Alexander the Great, Charlemagne, King Arthur, etc. The Romance of the Rose, a French romance was later translated by Chaucer. The Owl and the Nightingale is in the form of a debate between two birds. It is an allegory, exposing the social evils of the time. Chaucer followed this genre later in his poem, The Parliament of Fowls. In the field of drama, many Miracles and Mysteries dealing with Biblical themes were written.

The Age of Chaucer (1350-1450)

Chaucer (1340-1400)

Chaucer's The Canterbury Tales is modeled on Boccaccio's Decameron. It is a collection of tales told by a group of pilgrims going to the shrine of Canterbury. The pilgrims represent all the social classes of Chaucer's England. Many of the poems are a mild satire of the abuses in the church. The poem shows Chaucer's expertise handling of the seven-line stanza, known as the rime royale or Chaucerian stanza. In contrast to Chaucer is the contemporary poets, William Langland and Gower. In his poem The Vision of William concerning Piers the Plowman, Langland vehemently attacks the sloth and vice of the Church and presents Piers the Plowman as a Messianic deliverer. John Gower's Confessio Amantis is an allegorical representation of the Seven Deadly Sins.

John Wycliffe (1330-1384) was a preacher. He exposed the corruption rampant in the church. He has justly been called The Morning Star of the Reformation. He spearheaded the anti-clerical movement of the Lollards. (Since these people were always mumbling protestations against the church, they were called Lollards which means idle babblers')

Sir John Mandeville, author of Travels, and Sir Thomas Malory, author of Morte d' Arthur, are other important prose writers of the Chaucerian Age.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, England is invaded by many groups of people and very little is known about the early inhabitants.

Check your progress

- 1) The Plantagenet dynasty was named after _____.
- 2) _____ was known as 'The Morning Star of the Reformation'
- 3) Ecclesiastical History was written by _____.
- 4) Alfred translated the Pastoral called _____.

Glossary

Anglo-Saxons - The Anglo-Saxons hailed from the low-lying coastal lands between the Danish Peninsula and the Rhine.

Curia Regis – Henry I formed a royal court called the 'Curia Regis' It dominated the local courts and supervised the assessment and collection of revenue.

Answers to check your progress

- 1) Plantaginaceae plants
- 2) John Wycliffe
- 3) Bede
- 4) Care of Pope Gregory

Suggested Readings

Fischer H.A.L. History of Europe. Orient Black Swan: Chennai, 2015

G.M. Trevelyan. English Social History. A Survey of Six Centuries: Chaucer to Queen Victoria. Green & Co Ltd: London, 1956.

UNIT - 2 FEUDALISM

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 The Condition of the Serfs
- 2.3 Merits and Defects of the Feudal System
- 2.4 The Black Death and its Consequences
- 2.5 The Peasants' Revolt of 1381

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Answers to check your progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

The unit deals with the Feudal system and elucidates the merits and demerits of the system. The unit also elaborates on major events like the Black Death, Peasants Revolt and the conditions of Serfdom.

Objective

To introduce students to the old open-field system of cultivation that was practiced in England and the Black Death and its consequences.

2.1 Introduction

The break-up of the Feudal Manor was one of the major changes that took place in the days of Chaucer. The feudal form of government gave protection to the people during the Middle Ages. The age of Chaucer is called modern because the feudal system was gradually disappearing. Feudalism was a system of governance introduced in England by the Normans, especially William the Conqueror. According to this form of government, all the lands belonged to the King, who was believed to be God's representative on the earth. The King divided the land among the lords or barons. The lords employed several tenants and the land was cultivated by the 'serfs, who worked on the strips of land allotted to them and on the lord's land called "demesne".

2.2 The Condition of the Serfs

The serfs formed the lowest strata in the feudal society. They were very hard-working but did not enjoy the fruits of their labour. They were like bonded labourers. They were bound to the soil. They had to do agricultural services to the lords on 'week days' and had to supply to the lord's family, several farm products like eggs, chicken, milk, etc. Also they were compelled to grind their corn at the lord's mill at a certain price fixed by the lords. Moreover, they could not give their daughters marriage without the consent of the lords. They were not allowed to earn or take up arms.

Causes of the breaking up of this system

Feudalism was at its peak during the 13th century and in the 14th century it began to decline and by the end of the 15th century the system disappeared from England. In the beginning of the 14th century the lords were in a strong position as there was land hunger owing to the increase in population. But the situation changed later. The growth of population was slowed down during the reign of Edward II and the Black Death reduced the population drastically. Since most of the peasants lost their lives, there was a heavy shortage of labour and the living farmers demanded higher wages for their work. Thus the lords were in great difficulty.

The lords' difficulty was the peasants' opportunity. The peasants fought for their liberty; and this led to the Peasants' Revolt of 1381. Laws were passed to fix the wages and gradually the manorial system broke up completely. During the middle Ages, when there was no proper organizational set-up, the feudal system provided a stable order and protection to the people. Since the villein' farmers (serfs) obeyed the laws strictly production increased. One major defect of the system was that the serfs were treated as slaves, and hence it was abolished in the days of Chaucer

2.3 Merits and Defects of the Feudal System

Feudalism gave protection to the European society after the breakup of the Holy Roman Empire. It promoted self-reliance and love of independence among the barons. Even tyrannical rulers like King John were checked by the barons. Also, it gave rise to some forms of literature. Chaucer was a notable poet and feudalism promoted a code of honour among the lords. The notable defects were that the barons who were required to obey the Kings did not do so in practice. The country was broken up into small independent principalities in the absence of a strong National government. The barons looked down upon the common people. Because of these the feudal system disappeared from England.

i) The Open-Field System of Cultivation

The open-field system was the only method of cultivation followed in England during the Middle Ages. This system helped the peasants produce their food and live as a community. The open-field system was a very simple one. Huge fields were divided among the farmers on a principle of strip allotment. Each farmer was allotted a certain number of strips scattered over the whole village. The land was shaped into 'ridges' and 'furrows'. Not all the strips were cultivated at the same time; i.e. one strip would lie fallow while others would be under cultivation. After the harvest the whole area would be thrown open for common pasture. This open-field system lasted till the enclosure system was introduced centuries later.

ii) The Merits of the System

This system was advantageous to many farmers. It saved the expense of fencing. The good and bad pieces of lands were shared equally. The villagers were bound as a community and even the humblest peasant had a say in the village agricultural policy. It also combined the advantages of both individual labour and public control.

Though the farmers were bound to the soil and treated as slaves by their lords, the open-field system fulfilled its object of producing Food for the family rather than for the market

2.4 The Black Death and its Consequences

During the reign of Edward III, England was worst affected by a plague generally known as the Black Death. The plague spread from Asia to Europe through the Italian sea-ports. In a matter of two years (1348-49) nearly half the population of England died. In some villages the total population itself perished. It affected the social life of England more than anything else in the Medieval period. The peasants' population was the worst affected. The cattle wandered unattended and crops were rotting in the fields. The laymen were authorized to administer the last rites to their dead relatives. The disease caused the greatest havoc in England. The immediate result of the Black Death was the heavy rise in the wages. Owing to the heavy shortage of labourers, the surviving peasants demanded very high wages. The production was very low insufficient even for the surviving population. The government in order to control the wages and prices, passed the Statute of Labourers in 1351. But unfortunately, it was not honoured by the people. The Black Death was mainly responsible for the breaking up of the Feudal manor. The serfs demanded money-payments with which they could buy their freedom. Hence, the free landholders increased and a new class of farmers called the yeomen emerged as a separate class, who played a major role in the

English life later. The lords tried to meet the situation by resorting to two methods -one was to abandon agriculture in favour of sheep-farming. The English wool had a good market in the continent and it required only a smaller number of labourers. Another method was to lease out the land. The lords gave the use of their land to a tenant provided he paid a sum of money to them. Many endeavouring tenants took advantage of this system and enriched themselves. The Black Death had moral and religious effects as well as social and economic effects. The end of the world was predicted and many gave themselves to excess of drinking and reveling. Many others looked upon it as the wrath of God for their sins and intensified their prayers and devotion. Thus, the Black Death brought about a thorough change in the 14th century English society. Though it meant a heavy loss of lives it brought freedom to the serfs and it was a blessing in disguise.

2.5 The Peasants' Revolt of 1381

The Peasants Revolt of 1381 is one of the notable events in the history of England. The down-trodden peasants revolted against the manorial lands, demanding equal rights.

Causes of the Social Rising

There were many causes for the Peasants Revolt. From the 12th century onwards the peasants grudgingly performed duties which they owed to their feudal lords such as working on lords' lands on certain work days, grinding corn only at the land's mill, and getting the permission of their lords for their daughter's marriage, etc. During the 13th and the early 14th centuries the lords were powerful because, owing to the increase in the population, the peasants were willing to work a mouthful of food. But things changed after the Black Death. A large number of peasants were dead and the lords could not cultivate their land. The peasants took great advantage of the situation and demanded higher wages. The poets of the period instilled into the minds of the peasants, equality and justice. John Ball, a contemporary poet, sang of equality. The town's people also had some grievances. The guild system of the period was not satisfactory. It was difficult for the apprentices to set up new businesses. So, they also joined the struggle. The unions of farmers resisted the parliamentary laws to fix wages. A union of farmers resisted the customs of the manors; the citizens of the towns resisted the church which refused municipal liberties. All joined the revolt.

The immediate cause of the revolt was different. The ministers of Richard II levied a poll tax in 1379 to meet the expenses of the French war. It was collected on every head and the poor peasants with more children had to pay more. There was terrible disappointment among

them. Rebellion broke out in Kent, Essex and Hertfordshire. The Eastern England rose first. The Prior of Bury St. Edmund was murdered. The Archbishop of Canterbury was murdered by Wat Taylor's men. The rebels, headed by parish priests, old archers and sympathetic gentry, invaded the manor houses and abbeys, but charters and committed murders. The gentry fled to the forest from where the outlaws emerged to aid the rebels.

The most important achievement of the Revolt was the capture of London. The London mob opened the gates for the rustic armies and the royal fortress surrendered to the rebels. Most of the unpopular lords and bishops were killed and their heads were placed on the London Bridge. The Young King Richard II met the rebels and granted commutation of all servile dues for a rent of four pence an acre, and free pardon for all the rebels. The rebels withdrew their strike as they were fully satisfied. But the King took severe action against the rebels afterwards. Wat Taylor and his men were put to death. The gentry, gaining courage, put down the rebels and the charters of Liberation were also withdrawn.

Check your progress

1. The plague spread from Asia to Europe through the _____.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, the Peasants' Revolt is an important event in the history of England. It put an end to the serfdom in the country. A large number of peasants were dead and the lords could not cultivate their land. The peasants took great advantage of the situation and demanded higher wages.

Glossary

Peasant - the people of kingdom involved in farming

Black Death - The plague spread from Asia to Europe

Serfs- The serfs formed the lowest strata in the feudal society.

Suggested Reading

Trevelyan G.M. Social History of England, Green &Co Ltd: London, 1956.

Shaw, David. Necessary conjunctions: the social self in medieval England. Springer, 2016.

Check your progress

1. Silk Roads

RELIGION IN MEDIEVAL ENGLAND

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 The Medieval Church
- 3.3 The Secular and the Ecclesiastical Courts
- 3.4 The Monasteries
- 3.5 The Religious practices

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Answers to Check your progress

Suggested reading

Overview

The unit deals with the religious backdrop of early England and elaborates the state of the medieval church. It elucidates the religious practices of the monasteries and the ecclesiastical courts.

Objective

To help students understand the religious background of England for better understanding of English Literature.

3.1 Introduction

The strength of the Middle Ages rested on the overwhelming power of two great human institutions-the Church and the Feudal system. Gradually the church was losing its hold on the people because most of the churchmen were corrupt. The corrupt clergy came to be criticised by all people.

3.2 The Medieval Church

The medieval church was very wealthy and the clergy enjoyed many privileges. The laity, who were better educated, became highly critical of the church., Moreover a good number of the clergy themselves were critical. Oxford clerks and parish priests exposed the corrupt monks and friars. The Pope did less than nothing to improve the condition of the church. Instead, he used his powers to foster abuses that brought wealth

to the Roman Church - Simony non-residence, the sale of indulgence, etc.

3.3 The Secular and The Ecclesiastical Courts

There were two courts - secular court controlled by the King and the ecclesiastical court by the bishops. They were expected to control the spiritual courts which they neglected. Punishment was commuted bishops for money payment and the rich could escape by paying money. According to the contemporary statistics, except the poor parish priests all ranks were corrupt to the core.

3.4 The Monasteries

The monasteries were once centres of learning. They had supplied England with noble leadership. Now the light of learning was extinct and the monks no longer played patriotic in politics. The monks in Chaucer's England spent their life in ease and comfort, hunting and looking after their estates. The monasteries were expected to relieve the poor, but the monks showed lavish hospitality to the wealthy patrons. The poor and the humble people were fed at the gate on broken meals and doles of money. The Friars had been the true evangelical force in England in the thirteenth century. They embraced poverty and all over the country spreading religious knowledge. During the 14th century, they became corrupt and passionate. They had amassed wealth which they stored in convents. Trevelyan rightly calls them, "bad for blessing and good for banning."

3.5 The Religious Practices

In the villages the parish priests were mostly honest. The mass and Sunday services were properly performed Villages were really the heart of medieval religion. The peasants knelt on the floor of the church. The service was in Latin which many could not understand. Several scenes from the Scriptures were painted on the walls of the church. The peasants knew a few sayings of the Christ and some Bible stories like Adam and Eve, Noah's Flood etc. Many of the peasants were unable to read. If the crucifix was shown before his eyes, the story of crucifixion would come to his mind. Confession was a compulsory duty entrusted with the parish priests. Friars also were authorized to do that. Friars were giving absolution more easily for money, food, etc. Hence the orthodox regular clergy denounced this. Wycliffe, the morning star of the Reformation, was a contemporary of Chaucer. Wycliffe anticipated the Puritanism of later days. He fought against the papal power, and objected to the jurisdiction of ecclesiastical courts. Also, he preached against the worship of relics He attacked the monks and friars, for being idle, corrupt mischievous and careless. He also translated the Bible into English.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, the church was at its lowest during the 14th century. This is presented by Chaucer, Langland and Gower, the famous poets of the period in their works of art.

Check your progress

- 1) The_____ were once centers of learning.
- 2) The ecclesiastical court was controlled by_____.
- 3) _____translated the Bible into English.
- 4) Wycliffe was popularly known as _____.

Glossary

Monasteries – centers of learning and religion

Ecclesiastical court - Court controlled by church.

Suggested Readings

Shaw, David. Necessary conjunctions: the social self in medieval England. Springer, 2016.

Fischer H. A. L. History of Europe. Orient Black Swan: Chennai,2015.

UNIT - 4

ENGLAND'S HUNDRED YEARS' WAR WITH FRANCE AND THE WARS OF THE ROSES

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Causes and Course of the Hundred Years' War

4.3 Joan of Arc

4.4 The Lancastrian and the Yorkist Kings

4.5 The Wars of the Roses

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Answers to your progress

Suggested readings

Overview

The unit deals with the course of the hundred year's war and the war of roses. It elucidates the causes of war and the significant feats in the due course of both the wars.

Objective

- To enable students to know the details of England's Hundred Years war with France and the Wars of the Roses.
- To trace the course of the wars and associated literature.

4.1 Introduction

England's Hundred Years' war with France and the Wars of the Roses were the two important wars that happened in the history of England. These wars were significant and they marked a turning point in history. The wars left a lasting impact on the lives of people and royalty.

4.2 Causes and Course of The Hundred Years' War

1. Causes of the Hundred Years' War

There were many causes for the highly strained relationship between France and England. One of the causes was that Philip of France supported Scotland when England was in war with that country. Another

cause for the quarrel was the interference of England and France in the internal affairs of Flanders, because of their rival interests in that region. To make matters worse Edward III claimed the throne of France through his mother Isabella. Under such hostile circumstances the two countries drifted into war.

2. Course of the war:

A major event of the first stage of the war was the sea battle off the Flemish port of Sluys in 1340. The truce that followed lasted six years. The second important battle, fought at Crecy in 1346, was a victory for England. The leader of the English army was the King's eldest son who was popularly known as the Black Prince, probably due to the colour of his armour. In 1347, King Edward took Calais after a siege which lasted for one full year. Yet another important event was the battle of Poitiers in 1358 in which the Black Prince defeated the French and took their King a prisoner.

The first stage of the war came to an end with the treaty of Calais according to which Edward gave up his claim on the French throne. But the English King was allowed to possess some important territories in France. Nevertheless, because of their continued hostility, only Calais and Bordeaux remained English possessions at the time of Edward's death.

The second part of the Hundred Years' War was fought in the time of Henry V and Henry VI. Henry V, like Edward III, claimed the French throne, though his claim was not reasonable. However, in 1415 he led a well-trained army into France and won a battle at Agincourt. According to the Treaty of Troyes signed in 1420, Henry V was to marry the daughter of the French King Charles VI. Besides this Henry would rule France in the name of Charles who was mad and after the latter's death, would succeed to the French throne. But this was not to be, because both Henry V and Charles died within two years. So, the baby son of Henry V was proclaimed King of England and France. Against him, was set up the Dauphin, the eldest son of the dead French King. Fortunately for England, some of the powerful Frenchmen were on her side and therefore the English King remained powerful in France. Many French provinces, one after another, fell into the hands of the English. By 1429, all that remained to the Dauphin was the Fort of Orleans and the country around it.

4.3 Joan of Arc

It was then that one of the miracles in history took place. A peasant girl named Joan of Arc, aged seventeen, from Eastern France, infused courage into the soldiers who were demoralized by frequent

defeats. She took up the leadership of the French army and defeated the English in a pitched battle at Patay in 1429. The Dauphin was duly crowned King Charles VII.

But unfortunately for France, in one of the subsequent battles, Joan of Arc was taken prisoner by the Burgundians and sold her to the English. They accused her of witchcraft. She was burnt to death in the market place on 29th May 143. Everyone who watched the scene was touched by the courage with which she faced death. The English had burnt Joan of Arc alive. They, however, could not destroy the spirit of nationalism and patriotism which she had inspired in her countrymen. The French soldiers fought bravely for another two decades. At last, the tide of success turned against the English, with the result that by 1453 they lost all territories in France except Calais. In a sense Joan of Arc was the creator of modern France, which from her time became passionately conscious of itself as one people no longer a loose collection of feudal lordships.

"Black Death" was the pestilence which swept over the entire Europe and reached England in 1348. Nearly half the population of the country perished because of that plague spread by a black variety of rats. Some villages were completely wiped out. It was said that in some districts the cattle roamed without being owned by anyone and crops rotted in the fields for lack of labourers to reap them. Large number of people died day. So very few priests were left alive that Pope gave permission for laymen to minister to the dying. The Black Prince also died during the plague.

Richard II (1377-1399), son of the Black Prince, was a young child of ten when became the King The most famous all over the country were discontented on account of low event of his time was the Peasants Revolt in 1381 People wages and high taxes. For many years, people were waiting for an opportunity to give vent to their pent-up feelings. At last the general discontent burst out in 1381 when Wat Tyler struck down a tax-collector who was insulting him and his family Peasants from Kent, Sussex and many other places converged under the leadership of War Tyler. The agitators indulged in all kinds of violence As there was no other go King Richard and the Mayor of London came to meet them and hear their grievances. In the course of the altercation that followed, the Mayor drew his sword and killed Wat Tyler. At this, the mob became furious and the King managed the situation admirably well by announcing publicly that thereafter he would be their leader. The people were struck by the majesty of his behaviour and went home peacefully But later he showed them his true colour. When the people approached

him to get their grievances redressed, he spoke to them in the contemptuous terms and had them driven away.

John Wycliffe (1320-1384) was a pious priest of the time. In the early part of his life, he was the head of a college at Oxford but later he gave up that coveted post and retired to a poor parish in Leicestershire. He questioned the propriety of the Church owning so much of material possessions. He taught that Church should give up her wealth and that clergy ought to live the simple life of poverty and devotion, the type of life lived by the apostles. Later on, he questioned the Church's teaching on the doctrine of transubstantiation the change of bread and wine at the communion into the body and blood of Christ. His followers were called Lollards or babblers. His memorable work was the translation of Bible into readable English which he accomplished in collaboration with his pupils. Towards the end of his life, he gave up his heretical teaching and died as a Catholic priest.

If Wycliffe was the greatest prose writer of the period, Chaucer was the greatest poet. He is rightly regarded as the Father of English Poetry His masterpiece is the Canterbury Tales, consisting of twenty-four tales The chief importance of these 18,000 lines is that they present us a living picture of the middle-class life in the medieval England.

4.4. The Lancastrian and The Yorkist Kings (1399-1485)

The Lancastrian Kings were the descendants of John of Gaunt Duke of Lancaster, the third son of Edward III. The three Kings of this dynasty were Henry IV (1399-1413). Henry V (1413-1422) and Henry VI (1422-1461). The Yorkists were the descendants of the Duke of York, another son of Edward III There were three Kings of this dynasty Edward IV (1461-1483) ruled for about twenty-two years, but he had a break of two years (1470-71) when Henry VI was restored to the throne Edward V (1483) was able to rule for about one year only. The third King of this family was Richard III, who ruled from 1483 to 1485.

4.5. The Wars of The Roses (1455-1485)

These wars were fought between Yorkists and Lancastrians the supporters of the two families which claimed the English throne The name was derived from the badges, the white rose worn by the Yorkists and the red rose worn by the Lancastrians It was a kind of civil war, but with some difference It was a civil war in the sense that it was fought between two groups of people of England. But unlike the Civil War in the time of Charles I only the nobles and their dependants were engaged in this war Moreover, the war did not affect the normal life of the entire nation. Though the wars continued for thirty years, it was not a period of continued fighting it was rather a period of short wars divided by longer

periods of peace and normal life. There were several causes for the Wars of the Roses. The prolonged Hundred Years' War with France was over but it had engendered inordinate greed in the English nobles. Now that they could no longer win booty and glory abroad, they began to fight with each other. There were many military men left unpaid by the bankrupt Lancastrian Government. These soldiers were ready to fight for any noble who was willing to employ them. But a more important cause was the incompetence on the part of the Lancastrian King, Henry VI to provide a strong government. As a result of his weak rule there was general lawlessness in the country.

The war started with the Battle of St. Albans (1455) in which Richard, Duke of York, defeated Henry VI. In 1461 York's son won the Battle of Towton and proclaimed himself King Edward IV. But Henry VI managed to become King again with the help of Earl of Warwick, the wealthiest of the English nobles. In 1471 Edward defeated and killed Warwick in the battle of Barnet. Henry VI was imprisoned and later put to death. Thus Edward IV was able to rule in peace for another twelve years upto 1483, the year in which he died. His little son Edward V could not rule long because the boy king's uncle Richard, Duke of Gloucester, made himself King. Edward and his brother were believed to have been murdered by their wicked uncle. The usurper Richard III found it extremely difficult to keep himself on the throne, as he was opposed by both the Yorkists and the Lancastrians.

Let Us Sum Up

The Lancastrian heir to the throne was now a Welshman, Henry Tudor. In 1485 he defeated and killed Richard III and thus became the King of England.

Check your Progress

- 1) _____ was a peasant girl who defeated the English troops at the battle of Patay.
- 2) _____ struck down a tax-collector who was insulting him and his family's peasants.
- 3) A major event of the first stage of the war was the sea battle off the _____ in 1340.
- 4) The followers of _____ were called Lollards or babblers.

Glossary

Lancastrians - The Lancastrian Kings were the descendants of John of Gaunt.

Yorkists - The Yorkists were the descendants of the Duke of York.

Answers to check your progress

1. Joan of Arch
2. King Harthacnut
3. The Battle of Sluys
4. John Wycliffe

Suggested Readings

Xavier A. G. An Introduction to the Social History of England. Viswanathan Publishers: Chennai, 2015.

G.M. Trevelyan. English Social History. A Survey of Six Centuries: Chaucer to Queen Victoria. Green & Co Ltd: London, 1956.

BLOCK II - THE TUDOR AGE

UNIT 5 - THE RENAISSANCE

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Causes of the Renaissance

5.3 Renaissance in Italy

5.4 Renaissance in England

5.5 Effects of the Renaissance on English Literature:

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Answers to check your progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

The unit explores through the age of Renaissance and traces the origin and causes of the movement. It elaborates the effects and impact that the movement had on English literature.

Objectives

- To help students understand the period of transition from the Medieval to the modern age
- To acquaint students with the knowledge of Renaissance in Europe.

5.1 Introduction

Renaissance literally means rebirth. The word is usually used with reference to the revival of learning of classical literature between the fourteenth and the sixteenth century. But it was more than that. During this period there developed a spirit of inquiry, a spirit of freedom of thought and action. Men were no longer willing to accept without question the teachings, the superstitions and the customs of the past. There was a tendency to develop a critical attitude towards medieval institutions. Social, political and religious ideas were all revolutionized. In short, a great change was taking place in men's attitude towards themselves and the world. It was as though a new life had begun. In the words of Prof. Jebb, "The Renaissance in the largest sense of the term is

the process of transition in Europe from the medieval to modern order". The word "Renaissance" suggests different things to different people. To a student of social history, the word suggests the breaking up of the regime of feudalism and chivalry and the birth of new social conditions. To a student of religious evolution, it suggests the Reformation and Counter-Reformation. To the lover of art and literature Renaissance means the recovery of the Masterpieces of the ancient world and the revived knowledge of Greek and Latin. To a scientist the word implies maritime exploration and the founding of astronomy anatomy, physiology and modern medicine. Hence, Walter Pater is right in calling the Renaissance "a complex and many-sided movement".

5.2 Causes of The Renaissance

There were certain inventions and discoveries which contributed to the general movement of the Renaissance of these the most important was the invention of the printing press. The art of printing was introduced into Europe by John Gutenberg of Germany in 1454 and in a few years, presses were established in every important town of Western and Central Europe. The first Latin Bible was printed in 1455 at Mainz in Germany. The art of printing reached Italy in 1465, Switzerland in 1467. France in 1470, Austria and the Netherlands in 1473 and Spain in 1474. The first printing press in England was established in 1476 by William Caxton at Westminster. The next few years saw the establishment of presses in many towns in England. Thus the press at Oxford was set up in 1478 and the one at St. Albans in 1479 The first printing press in London itself, as distinct from Westminster, was set up in 1480.

The immediate effect was that books became cheaper and more plentiful. In the Middle Age the production of books was a slow process because they had to be produced by a copyist of the monasteries, and naturally enough knowledge was confined to the four walls of monasteries. With the advent of printing press, knowledge could spread far and wide, which in turn fostered a questioning attitude. Another invention of great importance was the mariner's compass which enabled sailors to undertake longer voyages than had hitherto been possible Before this invention navigators could not venture far out of sight of land after the compass came into use, the exploration of distant seas became possible and till then accepted ideas of the world's shape and size were found to be false. With the invention of the telescope a century later, observers could scan the sky, which made the beginning of the science of astronomy The true position of the earth in the solar system was realised and the former teaching on this manner was discredited. After the capture of Constantinople, the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire, by the Turks in 1453 there was a regular exodus of Greek scholars. They were

welcomed in many parts of Europe and their presence stimulated among Italians, French and English a new enthusiasm for classical learning and culture.

5.3 Renaissance in Italy

The Renaissance started in Italy. Dante, Petrarch and Boccaccio prepared the ground. By 1396 the Greek language was taught in Italy by a Greek, Chrysoloras from Constantinople. After the fall of the eastern capital on May 29, 1453, most of the Greek scholars fled from there and following the existing trade routes came to Italy. Italian States were ruled by despots who competed with one another in the splendour of their courts. They welcomed the Greek exiles to their capitals and posed as patrons of literature and art. From the time onwards the study of the language and literature and philosophy of Greece became the fashion and enthusiasm of the cultured classes in Italy. Another great Italian writer of the period was Machiavelli.

In France the effect of the Renaissance was seen in the love poetry of Ronsard, the vigorous prose of Francois Rabelais, and the scholarly essays of Montaigne. In Spain the literary glory of the Renaissance was the glory of Cervantes. His "Don Quixote", a burlesque of the romances of Chivalry, is the most beautiful and wonderful gift of the Renaissance to the literature of the world.

5.4 Renaissance in England

In England the Renaissance was heralded by Geoffrey Chaucer and Selling who had contacts with Italy. But it was only some years later that classical scholarship had an earnest beginning in England.

Renaissance in the field of Literature

A good start was given by three Oxford friends - Thomas Linacre, William Grocyn and Hugh Latimer. All of them studied in Italy and later lectured on Greek at Oxford University. After them John Colet founded St. Paul's Grammar School, the first school in England completely devoted to the study of classical literature. The Latin Grammar prepared by William Lily, the first headmaster of the school, remained the standard text-book for two centuries. Other schools like Christ's Hospital and the Charterhouse were started in London. Outside London, there was similar activity. In all sixty-three new schools were founded in the reign of Henry VIII, fifty in that of Edward VI, nineteen in that of Mary and one hundred and thirty-eight in that of Elizabeth, while older schools were everywhere remodelled upon the new lines.

Apart from the study of the classics in their original, the period of the Renaissance was also an age of translation. Virgil. Ovid. Cicero,

Demosthenes and Plutarch were all translated into English. The first part of Chapman's *Home* appeared in 1598. These translations enabled even those who did not know Greek and Latin to share the fund of classical literature. Thus, people like Shakespeare who knew little Latin and less Greek became familiar with classical mythology. The Renaissance in literature may be said to have begun in England with Sir Thomas More His most famous work. "Utopia" which is a Greek word meaning "nowhere" was written in Latin and first published in 1516. The English translation was published in 1551. The contemporary and friend of More was Erasmus, a Dutchman by birth, but studied in England. He was one of the last European writers who wrote in Latin. His most famous work was "The Praise of Folly". He also published an edition of the New Testament which contained in parallel columns the original Greek text and a new Latin rendering of his own. But Spenser, the author of the first great English epic "Faerie Queene", is the representative poet of the English Renaissance. The genius of Renaissance in England found its fullest expression in the romantic drama a good bulk of which was written by Shakespeare Other memorable names of the Renaissance period are Ben Jonson, Francis Bacon and Christopher Marlowe, the father of English tragedy. During this period of Renaissance educational ideals underwent great changes. In the Middle Ages there were two schemes of education, one devised for the clergy and the other to make a "perfect and gentle knight" This system became inadequate to meet the demands of the modern age So a new educational system had to be devised. Chief among those who conducted educational experiments were Comenius, Rabelais and Montaigne. The purpose of education as conceived by them was "to fashion, not the scholar, but the man to bring out all the faculties in harmonious and well-balanced development to prepare for life in the widest sense of the term"

i) Renaissance in the field of Science

With the capture of Constantinople by the Turks, it became necessary for the European nations to find new trade routes to the East. The invention of the mariner's compass gave them courage to undertake maritime exploration. Thus, Columbus discovered America. In 1492 Vasco da Gama reached Calicut on the west coast of India . Magellan set out on his exploration of the Pacific Ocean in 1519. In 1521 he reached the Philippines where he was killed. His lieutenant Sebastian del Cano returned to Spain in 1522, having completed one of the great feats of history, the first circumnavigation of the world. All through the Middle Ages the world at large had accepted the cosmology taught by Ptolemy of Egypt, according to which the earth was the centre of the universe. Towards the middle of the sixteenth century Copernicus of Holland discovered that the sun was the centre of the universe Kepler and Galileo,

following in his steps, revealed the solar system in its main features as we know it today.

ii) Renaissance in the field of Religion

The Renaissance in religion consists of two movements the Reformation and Counter- Reformation. The Reformation started in Germany. Martin Luther, the leader of the movement, translated the Old and New Testaments into German. William Tindale gave an English rendering of the translation made by Erasmus. These translations of the Bible helped people read and interpret the text for themselves. On the whole the new Reformation movement had a disintegrating influence on the till then united Church of Europe. As an antidote to this, there started a Counter-Reformation and the founding of the Society of Jesus by Ignatius of Loyola in 1540.

iii) Renaissance in the field of Art

The names closely associated with the Renaissance in Art and literature are those of Michael Angelo, Raphael and Leonardo da Vinci. They were all-rounders, poets, painters and sculptors. Their works are the glory of the picture galleries in Europe. As sculptor Michael Angelo's most famous works are the statues of David and Moses and the pieta, ie, the sculpture of Virgin Mary holding dead body of Christ on her lap. As a painter, he painted the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel and the great fresco of the "Last Judgement" on the wall of the same Chapel As a poet. Michael Angelo wrote many sonnets and love poems. In his short life Raphael painted a number of magnificent pictures, the majority of them being the Madonnas. Leonardo da Vinci is famous for the fresco of the "Last Supper" in the refectory of Maria delle Grazie in Milan.

V) Renaissance in the field of Architecture

Architecture like other branches of learning underwent a classical revival which spread over the whole of Europe Roman and Greek styles with columns and round arches and domes replaced the medieval Gothic style with its pointed arches, soaring pinnacles and spires. St. Peter's Basilica in Rome is the greatest example of the new style. This style reached England in the seventeenth century through the works of Inigo Jones and Christopher Wren, whose greatest work was the reconstruction of St. Paul's Cathedral in London. after the Great Fire of 1666. Wren also built fifty-two other churches in the city.

5.5 Effects of The Renaissance on English Literature

The Renaissance had a profound effect on Elizabethan literature. The Latin and Greek classics were all translated into English during the Elizabethan age. Thanks to Caxton's printing press, they were made

available at a cheap price to the reading public. The Renaissance spirit, with its love of beauty and freedom, coloured all the literary genres.

i) The influence of the Renaissance on English prose:

Montaigne, a French writer, was the first to use the form of the essay. In his essays Montaigne tried to give instructions to people on matters of day-to-day importance. Bacon uses the same form and spirit in his English essays. He covers man's relationship with man, man's relationship with woman, man's relationship with the ruler and man's relationship with God. His approach is rational and pragmatic. It is that of a layman. Bacon's style is remarkably pithy and terse. He uses plenty of picturesque images. Bacon's only fault is his profuse use of Latin tags. This was unavoidable because in the Elizabethan age both readers and writers were steeped in Latin scholarship.

ii) The influence of the Renaissance on Elizabethan poetry

The Italian poet Petrarch was the father of the sonnet form, consisting of an eight-line octave and a six-line sestet. The subject of Petrarch is his adoration of a scornful mistress. The English sonneteers Wyatt and Surrey copied both the manner and matter of Petrarch. But Shakespeare deviated from this foreign pattern. He adores male, a dubious relationship. The woman in Shakespeare's sonnets is not an earthly angel as in Wyatt, Surrey and Petrarch. She is a strumpet, pure and simple. She is dark not only in complexion but also in character. In form also Shakespeare deviates from Petrarch. He does not use the Petrarchan octave-sestet pattern. He uses three four-line stanzas clinched by a final rhyming couplet. This pattern gives him the ease and flexibility necessary to explore a theme.

Edmund Spenser is another remarkable Elizabethan poet. The Italian poet Dante used the allegorical mode in his *Divine Comedy*. Spenser uses this mode more elaborately in his epic poem, *The Faerie Queene*. This poem can be read as a political allegory. The poem can be interpreted as a moral allegory also, with the characters pointing to various virtues and vices. This shows the influence of the Reformation on Spenser. Besides innovating the allegorical technique, Spenser devised Spenserian stanza. This is longer than the usual stanza but shorter than the sonnet. It gives the easy pace necessary for a slow-moving narrative. The long line at the end brings the stanza to a dignified close. At the same time, it links it to the succeeding stanza. The picturesque word pictures and onomatopoeic effects in Spenser served as a model to the later poets, Milton, Keats, and Tennyson. Spenser is rightly regarded as 'poets' poet'.

iii) The Influence of the Renaissance on Elizabethan drama

Shakespeare was the most popular and powerful of the Elizabethan dramatists. He was a child of the Renaissance. His plays *Romeo and Juliet* and *The Merchant of Venice* have an Italian background. *Troilus and Cressida* has Greek characters. His *Julius Caesar*, *Antony and Cleopatra* and *Coriolanus* and his poem "The Rape of Lucrece", have a Roman background. Shakespeare got the material for the Roman plays from the English translation of Plutarch's *Lives*. Holinshed's *Chronicles* supplied him with material for his English history plays. Both Holinshed and Plutarch were in wide circulation, thanks to Caxton's printing press.

Another major influence on Shakespeare was Machiavelli's *The Prince*. Machiavelli wants the king to be unscrupulous in compassing his aim. Shakespeare's villains, Edmund, Iago and Octavius Caesar, are all unscrupulous Machiavellians. The revenge motive was popularized by the Roman playwright Seneca and the Greek, Euripides. This motive is used extensively by Shakespeare, Tourneur, Webster, etc. The Renaissance character of lusting for power is reflected in Marlowe's *Tamburlaine*. His Faustus embodies the Renaissance thirst for knowledge. Playing with words is a typical Renaissance trait. We see this in the Shakespearean characters punning and making declamatory speeches.

iv) The Influence of Plato's *Republic* on Elizabethan writers. Plato's *The Republic* is a search for an ideal state. This work inspired many writers to launch similar searches. More's *Utopia*, Sidney's *Arcadia*, Lyly's *Euphues* and Bacon's *New Atlantis* are all searches for an ideal state along the lines of Plato's *Republic*.

v) The influence of Aristotle and Horace on the Elizabethan literary critics Aristotle's *Poetics* and Horace's *Ars Poetica* are ancient classics in literary criticism. They inspired many critical writings in the Elizabethan age. Sidney's *Apologie for Poetrie*, William Webbe's *A Discourse of English Poetrie*, Puttenham's *The Arte of English Poesie*, Samuel Daniel's *The Defence of Ryme*-all these are important critical treatises of the Elizabethan age, influenced in some way or other by Aristotle and Horace.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, the Renaissance left an indelible mark on all literary forms in the Elizabethan age. The Renaissance spirit, with its love of beauty and freedom, coloured all the literary genres.

Check your Progress

- 1) _____ is rightly regarded as 'poets' poet'.
- 2) John Colet founded _____, the first school in England completely devoted to the study of classical literature.
- 3) _____ gave an English rendering of the translation made by Erasmus.
- 4) In 1492 Vasco da Gama reached _____ on the west coast of India

Glossary

Renaissance

Answers to check your progress

1. Edmund Spencer
2. St.Paul School
3. Erasmus
4. Kozhikode

Suggested Readings

G.M. Trevelyan. English Social History. A Survey of Six Centuries: Chaucer to Queen Victoria. Green &Co Ltd: London, 1956.

Fischer H.A.L. History of Europe. Orient Black Swan: Chennai, 2015

UNIT 6 REFORMATION

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

6.1 Introduction

6.2 Reformation in Europe

6.3 Reformation in England

6.4 The part played by Henry VIII:

6.5 Influence of the Reformation on English Literature:

Let Us Sum Up

Check your Progress

Glossary

Answer to Check your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

The unit deals with Reformation movement that was spread across Europe and traces the growth and development of the religious reformation instigated by the reign of Henry VIII

Objective

- To enable students to acquire a basic knowledge of the Reformation in Europe and its impact on English Literature.

6.1 Introduction

The Reformation was a world-wide religious movement. It started in Germany. It spread to other nations quickly like wildfire.

6.2 Reformation in Europe

i) Causes of the Reformation in Germany

The Popes and other dignitaries of the church led luxurious lives. They were hugely interested in hunting and eating sumptuously. They did not evince any interest in preaching or in promoting the welfare of the congregation. As a result, there was wide- spread dissatisfaction against the church. To make matters worse Pope Julius II decided to pull down the old medieval church of St. Peter and construct a grand new Basilica. The next Pope, Leo X, ran short of funds. He hit upon the idea of raising funds by pardoning sinners and selling indulgences to them if they donated money generously towards the construction of St. Peter's

Basilica. The superstitious people thought that they could escape hell and go to heaven by paying the Pope. An enlightened German monk by name Martin Luther objected to the commercialization of the church. Luther prepared ninety-five objections against the practice of selling indulgences. He nailed them on the door of the Wittenburg church. This sent shock waves throughout Europe Pope Leo X unthinkingly signed a bill excommunicating Luther. Luther was uncompromising. He burnt the bill publicly. All the protesters against the corrupt Roman Church rallied behind Luther. Thus was born the Protestant religion. Breaking the vow of celibacy Luther married a nun who was junior to him by sixteen years Following Luther's example, thousands of monks and nuns broke away from the church and got married

ii) Reformation in Switzerland and France

The Protestant religion started by Martin Luther guaranteed a good deal religious freedom to its followers. Similar movements were started in Switzerland by Ulrich Zwingli and by John Calvin in France

6.3. Reformation In England

There are many differences between the circumstances which led to the Reformation in Germany and those which led to the Reformation in England. The German Reformation was due to Martin Luther's doctrinal clash with the Pope. But in England the clash was purely due to personal reasons.

6.4. The Part Played By King Henry VIII

In the beginning Henry VI was a staunch supporter of Pope Leo X. He showed his loyalty to the Pope by banning Martin Luther's controversial works in England. Also, he published his Assertion of the Seven Sacraments, rebutting Luther's charges point by point The Pope was immensely pleased with the king's unstinted support. In recognition of his sincere service, the Pope bestowed the title, 'Defender of the Faith'.

i) Henry VIII's break with Rome

Henry's harmonious relationship with Rome was stained when he wanted to divorce his wife Catherine of Spain and marry a lady-in-waiting Anne Boleyn. The Pope did not grant permission to the proposal. The infuriated King decided to retaliate against the Pope. He convened a Parliament which was favourable to him. It came to be called the Reformation Parliament. He got the Parliament to pass a series of Acts which curtailed the powers of the Pope. First Henry dismissed Cardinal Wolsey and William Warham who could not carry out his wishes. He appointed his stooge Thomas Cranmer to the post of the Archbishop of

Canterbury. Second, the Reformation Parliament cut down the fees payable to the Catholic clergy. Third, the King's control over the church courts was tightened. Appealing from the English courts to Rome was forbidden. Fourth the bishops were appointed by the King. The Pope had no longer any say in the matter. What was more, people were exempted from paying annates', (a part of their income) to the bishop. Thus the dignitaries of the Roman church were deprived of their powers and privileges little by little. They became mere dummies.

ii) The Act of Supremacy, 1534 the death blow to the Pope's authority

Henry VIII got the Reformation Parliament to pass the Act of Supremacy in 1534, This Act dealt a death blow to papal authority in England. According to this Act, Henry became the supreme head of the Church of England. Whoever disputed this was accused of treason and put to death Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher adamantly refused to acknowledge the supremacy of Henry. They were promptly beheaded. Their heads were displayed on London Bridge to threaten all dissenters into submission. This inhuman measure was counter-productive. Instead of driving people away from the Roman church, it turned them against Henry.

iii) Henry's dissolution of monasteries

Henry's treasury was badly depleted because of his lavish expenditure. To augment his resources, Henry dissolved all the monasteries and seized their wealth. He distributed the monastic land among his servile courtiers.

iv) Henry's religious measures

To create an impression that he was interested in religious reformation, Henry got the Parliament to pass the Statute of Six Articles. Skeptics described it as a 'whip with six strings. There was nothing anti-Catholic about the provisions of this Act. The Act inflicted death penalty on whoever disputed the doctrine of transubstantiation, and such practices as confession, private mass, chastity, celibacy of the clergy and use of wine by the clergy in the ritual of communion. All these were basically Catholic practices. Thus, Henry VIII showed himself as a supporter of the Catholic religion and an opponent of only the Pope. Hilaire Belloc's assessment of Henry VIII as a king who tried to keep England Catholic without the Pope' is cent percent correct.

v) The English Reformation during the reign of Edward VI

The dissolution of the monasteries effected by Henry VIII was carried to its logical conclusion by the next king, Edward VI. He dissolved the chantries also. In 1549 the Prayer Book prepared by

Archbishop Cranmer, was prescribed. It was to be followed in all churches in England. The Prayer Book contained nothing new. It retained the Catholic doctrine of transubstantiation.

vi) Reformation during the regime of Mary Tudor

Mary reversed all the anti-Catholic and anti-Papal measures of her father, Henry VIII. She abolished the English Prayer Book enforced by Edward VI. She tried to wipe out Protestantism by burning its supporters. Among the three hundred people who were burnt were John Rogers, Cranmer, Ridley and the preacher Latimer. These ruthless measures earned her the nickname 'Bloody Mary'. Mary died unhappily in 1558. She was succeeded by Elizabeth.

vii) The Elizabethan settlement

Elizabeth undertook to heal the wounds caused by the rulers, Henry VIII and Mary. She avoided their extreme measures. At the same time, she was particular about maintaining the sovereignty of England. She did not like England to become a slave of Rome. The Act of Supremacy bestowed on Elizabeth the title of Supreme Governor. This was in contrast to the title of Supreme Head of the Church of England bestowed earlier on Henry VIII by the same Act. The Act of Uniformity required all the clergymen to strictly follow the Prayer Book in their services. Also, all the people in the country were compelled to go to church on Sundays. Absentees were fined ten pence. The extreme Catholics and Protestants did not attend the church because of Queen Elizabeth's moderate stand. They chose to pay the penalty of ten pence. The Reformation entered England because of the domestic squabbles of Henry VIII. Later, the Roman Church was stripped of its powers gradually by successive rulers. Through her mild measures Queen Elizabeth established the superiority of the Church of England to the Roman Church. She did not behead or burn anybody. So she was adored by the masses.

6.5. Influence of the reformation on english literature

i) The Bible

The greatest Influence of the Reformation was in the production of the Bible Wyclif (1320-84) was the first to attempt a translation of the Bible. But he could not complete his work. William Tyndale (1536) gave the Bible its modern shape. Tyndale was persecuted a great deal for his strong religious faith. He has driven abroad. He got a part of his English New Testament printed at Cologne. He relied upon the Hebrew and Greek originals. Miles Coverdale's was the first complete English Bible. The Authorized Version of the Bible was brought out in 1611 under the guidance of King James. It is studded with poetic passages. Biblical

expressions such as 'athorn in the flesh, a good Samaritan', 'sweat of the brow, etc., have become part and parcel of the English language.

ii) Influence of the Reformation on Poetry

Many English poets are steeped in strong religious feelings. The Metaphysical poets, particularly Donne, Herbert and Marvell, exhibit a strong interest in theological issues. Donne's "Holy Sonnets" and lyrics such as "A Hymn to God the Father" show him wrestling with religious problems. Milton is another religious poet His Paradise Lost shows him torn between God and Satan. His pastoral elegy Lycidas shows his loathing of the corrupt clergy of his time who 'creep and climb' into the church for 'bellies' sake' Hopkins's Wreck of the Deutschland and Terrible Sonnets show him doubting God and finally accepting Him. T.S.Eliot is intensely religious. He depicts the spiritual aridity of post-war Europe in The Waste Land.

iii) Influence of the Reformation on Drama

Shakespeare sharply reacts against the Puritans of his time through his critical portrayal of characters such as Malvolio in Twelfth Night and Jaques in As You Like It. His dark comedy Measure for Measure preaches the value of Christian forgiveness. All the plays of T.S.Eliot are permeated by Christian values.

iv) Influence of the Reformation on Prose

The influence of the Reformation, particularly of Puritanism, is seen in John Bunyan's The Pilgrim's Progress. Dr. Johnson's Rasselas and Swift's Gulliver's Travels. All these writers disapprove of licentiousness in very strong terms. In contrast to this puritanical strain is the philosophy of uninhibited enjoyment advocated by D.H. Lawrence of our age.

Let Us Sum Up

The Reformation, with its stress on order, discipline and moral rectitude, had a great deal of influence on English literature.

Check your Progress

- 1) The Authorized Version of the Bible was brought out in _____ under the guidance of King James.
- 2) Luther prepared ninety-five objections against the practice of selling indulgences. He nailed them on the door of the _____.

Glossary

Reformation - The Reformation was a world-wide religious movement

Protestant - All the protesters against the corrupt Roman Church rallied behind Luther. Thus was born the Protestant religion

Answer to Check your Progress

- 1) 1611
- 2) Whittenburg Church

Suggested Reading

G.M. Trevelyan. English Social History. A Survey of Six Centuries: Chaucer to Queen Victoria. Green &Co Ltd: London, 1956.

Shaw, David. Necessary conjunctions: the social self in medieval England. Springer, 2016.

UNIT - 7

THE DISSOLUTION OF THE MONASTERIES

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

7.1 Introduction

7.2 Henry VIII and the Dissolution of monasteries

7.3 Causes of the Dissolution of Monasteries

7.4 Course of the Dissolution of Monasteries

7.5 Effects of the Dissolution of Monasteries

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Answer to Check your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

The unit deals with the dissolution of monasteries which was ordered by Henry VIII and traces the varied causes of the issue.

Objective

- To help students understand the Causes, the course and the consequences of the dissolution of the monasteries.

7.1 Introduction

The dissolution of the monasteries was an important step taken by Henry VIII. Edward VI followed up Henry VIII by dissolving chantries and all religious endowments. Let us analyse the causes, course and results of this momentous happening.

7.2 Henry VIII And The Dissolution Of Monasteries

Henry's harmonious relationship with Rome was stained when he wanted to divorce his wife Catherine of Spain and marry a lady-in-waiting Anne Boleyn. The Pope did not grant permission to the proposal. The infuriated King decided to retaliate against the Pope. He convened a Parliament which was favourable to him. It came to be called the Reformation Parliament. He got the Parliament to pass a series of Acts which curtailed the powers of the Pope. First Henry dismissed Cardinal Wolsey and William Warham who could not carry out his wishes. He

appointed his stooge Thomas Cranmer to the post of the Archbishop of Canterbury. Second, the Reformation Parliament cut down the fees payable to the Catholic clergy. Third, the King's control over the church courts was tightened. Appealing from the English courts to Rome was forbidden. Fourth the bishops were appointed by the King. The Pope had no longer any say in the matter. What was more, people were exempted from paying annates', (a part of their income) to the bishop. Thus, the dignitaries of the Roman church were deprived of their powers and privileges little by little. They became mere dummies.

Henry VIII got the Reformation Parliament to pass the Act of Supremacy in 1534, This Act dealt a death blow to papal authority in England. According to this Act, Henry became the supreme head of the Church of England. Whoever disputed this was accused of treason and put to death Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher adamantly refused to acknowledge the supremacy of Henry. They were promptly beheaded. Their heads were displayed on London Bridge to threaten all dissenters into submission. This inhuman measure was counter-productive. Instead of driving people away from the Roman church, it turned them against Henry. Henry's treasury was badly depleted because of his lavish expenditure. To augment his resources, Henry dissolved all the monasteries and seized their wealth. He distributed the monastic land among his servile courtiers.

7.3. Causes of The Dissolution of Monasteries

i) The impact of Martin Luther

The monasteries were centres of learning many centuries ago. The monks who lived here were devoted to the cause of education. Also, they functioned as hospitals. The poor and the orphaned were taken care of here. But in course of time the monasteries degenerated. They became dens of vice. The fourteenth century eye witnessed this downward trend. Chaucer, Langland and Wycliffe were the first to protest against the depravity and extravagance of the monks. The Oxford reformers joined this chorus of condemnation. Even the soberest Erasmus attacked the ignorance and idiocy of the monks in his bitter pamphlet, In Praise of Folly. Kindled by these local reformers as well as by the German reformer, Martin Luther, the anger of the people against the monasteries, reached the boiling point in the age of Henry VIII.

ii) Purely personal

Henry VIII decided to dissolve the monasteries on purely personal grounds. The Pope did not allow Henry to divorce his wife Catherine and marry her lady-in-waiting Anne Boleyn. The monks were all supporters of the Pope. The closing down of the monasteries and

disbanding of the unfaithful monks was Henry's indirect revenge on the Pope.

iii) Empty treasury

Because of his several wars with France, and other neighbouring countries, Henry's treasury was empty. He badly needed money to satisfy the demands of his greedy courtiers. The only way out of his financial stringency was to seize the fabulous wealth of the monasteries.

7.4. Course of the dissolution of monasteries

i). Destruction of small monasteries

The Reformation Parliament extended its unfailing support to Henry's move. The Act of 1536 empowered him to dissolve 276 lesser monasteries at first.

ii) Popular uprisings

The wholesale destruction of the monasteries sparked off three popular uprisings. The first occurred in Lincolnshire. It was brutally suppressed by the military force led by the Duke of Suffolk. The second uprising known as the Pilgrimage of Grace, occurred in 1536 in Yorkshire. It was a very serious upheaval. The monks were very popular in Yorkshire. They had been helping beggars and travellers and also functioning as sheep-farmers for a long period. Their destruction would be a grievous loss to society. A lawyer called Robert Aske mustered the rebellious monks and captured York. Seeing their formidable strength, the king offered a general pardon of the rebels. The rebels subsided. But the King reacted ferociously when a very large uprising broke out in 1539. He instructed his soldiers to catch the rebels, hang them up in trees or quarter them and set afire their heads and quarters in every town. This terrible spectacle had the desired effect. The rebels subsided.

iii) Dissolution of the larger abbeys, 1539

Following this development, all the larger abbeys were dissolved in 1539. The famous shrine of Becket at Canterbury was pillaged and its offerings confiscated in 1538. After mock trials the abbots of Colchester and Glastonbury were publicly executed along with their supporters. These ferocities had the desired effect. The less brave spirits gave in. Soon there were no monasteries left.

7.5. Effects of the Dissolution of Monasteries

i) The misuse of the monastic property

The monastic income was one-third of the total income of England. Only a very small part of it was spent on starting colleges and re-building the navy. The king and his greedy courtiers swallowed most

of the spoil. A new middle class arose. It consisted of people who had bought monastic land at a cheap rate. They remained loyal to Henry VIII. The original abbey buildings were ruthlessly destroyed. Their roofs were despoiled for their valuable lead. Their walls were quarried for constructing new buildings. This was a veritable orgy of destruction. Most of the noblest monuments were lost. The libraries in many abbeys had rare manuscripts. They were all destroyed.

ii) Increase of unemployment

Nearly 15,000 monks and their servants were rendered jobless. They increased the already large number of the unemployed. The benefices or pensions announced to the monks were never paid. These monks became beggars.

iii) Gaps in national life

The gentlemen helped by the monasteries were now abandoned. Similarly, the young girls brought up virtuously in nunneries had now nobody to protect them.

iv) Sea-side abbeys

Sea-side abbeys-maintained sea-walls, dykes, bridges and highways. The destruction of these abbeys left the nation unprotected.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, in many ways the dissolution of the monasteries caused an irreparable loss to the nation. It was all due to the sloth and luxury of the monks.

Check your Progress

- 1) _____got the Reformation Parliament to pass the Act of Supremacy in 1534
- 2) _____empowered him to dissolve 276 lesser monasteries at first.
- 3) The Pope did not allow Henry to divorce his wife Catherine and marry her lady-in-waiting _____.

Glossary

Dissolution – to dissolve, to stop, to cease

Monasteries – The religious centres of learning

Treasury – the collection of state wealth

Answers to check your problems

1) Henry VIII

2) The Act of 1536

3) Anne Boleyn

Suggested Readings

Shanmugakani A. Social History of England. Manimekala Publishing House, Madurai, 2015.

G.M. Trevelyan. English Social History. A Survey of Six Centuries: Chaucer to Queen Victoria. Green & Co Ltd: London, 1956.

UNIT – 8

THE GOLDEN AGE OF QUEEN ELIZABETH

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

8.1 Introduction

8.2 Queen Elizabeth's Religious and Economic Policies

8.3 The Foreign Policy of Queen Elizabeth

8.4 Social Life in the Elizabethan Age

8.5 The Elizabethan Theatre and Audience

Let Us Sum Up

Check your Progress

Glossary

Answer to check your progress

Suggested Reading

Overview

The unit deals with the social, political, and economical dimensions of the era of Elizabethan age. It extensively covers the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

Objectives

- To enable students to acquire a basic knowledge of Queen Elizabeth's Golden Age in England.
- To acquaint students with Queen Elizabeth's religious toleration, economic policies, the Poor Laws, foreign policy and the maritime activity
- To familiarize students with the outline sketch of the Elizabethan theatre and audience.

8.1 Introduction

Queen Elizabeth, I was a charismatic leader. The poets of her time praised her in superlative terms. She was Spenser's Gloriana, Raleigh's Cynthia and Shakespeare's 'fair vestal.' She was regarded by her countrymen as a living goddess. With her lofty vision and humanistic learning, Elizabeth won the hearts of all.

8.2 Queen Elizabeth's Religious and Economic Policies

i) Queen Elizabeth's Religious Toleration:

Elizabeth's predecessors were religious fanatics. Henry VIII beheaded Thomas More because he did not acknowledge Henry's supremacy and supported the Pope. Mary Tudor burnt many Protestants in an attempt to revive the Catholic faith. Elizabeth was aware of people's disillusionment with religious frenzy. She got her Parliament to pass the 'Act of Thirty-Nine Articles of Belief', according to which praying and preaching were to be only in English. This patriotic move was widely welcomed by the people. She compelled the clergy to wear surplices. If they did not do so she sacked them. She took only such mild measures. She did not go to the extreme extent of killing non-conformists in large numbers. She got Mary, Queen of Scots, executed because the latter plotted to overthrow Elizabeth and come to power herself. People did not protest against Mary's execution. They welcomed Elizabeth's stern measures to establish stability in the country.

ii) Queen Elizabeth's Economic Policies

Elizabeth was an astute economist. She avoided religious wars. She took the following concrete to the glaring economic problems of her time.

a) The problem of debased coinage

Because the coins in Elizabeth's time were debased, their value decreased, as a result, prices rose. To arrest this trend, Elizabeth started a special mint in 1560. The old debased coins were melted here. New coins of standard quality were minted and circulated. The fall in the value of money was stopped.

b) Steps to train unskilled artisans

Cultivable land was enclosed to provide pastures for sheep. As a result, many farmers lost their jobs and became wanderers. At the same time there was a growing scarcity of skilled artisans in certain other places. To solve this problem a statute was passed, compelling inexperienced artisans to undergo apprenticeship for seven years. Seven years was too long a period. Able-bodied but unskilled men were made to serve as agricultural labourers. Justices of Peace were empowered to fix the wages and working hours of labourers, taking local conditions into consideration. Thus, Elizabeth solved many rampant economic problems through her Statute of Apprentices.

c) Granting of patents of monopolies

At first patents of monopolies were given to certain people. It authorized them, and them only, to produce particular commodities for a

particular period. The Patent Law was intended to promote mining and manufacturing industries. But this led to a lot of abuse, as patents were granted to favourites or sold for a profit. To put an end to these evils, Elizabeth's Parliament passed an Act in 1601. It withdrew existing monopolies and granted new ones.

iii) The Elizabethan Poor Laws

The dissolution of monasteries led to the abandonment of the poor and the disabled. Many of them took to thieving and begging. To help the poor, a series of Poor Laws were passed. In each parish propertied people were taxed to build up a fund for the maintenance of the poor. All able-bodied people were given work to do. If they refused to work, they were whipped and shut-in houses of correction. Thus, Elizabeth took many steps for the improvement of the economy.

8.3. The Foreign Policy of Queen Elizabeth

England was hemmed in by hostile nations on all sides. The most dangerous among them were Spain, France and Scotland; Elizabeth adopted all kinds of methods to decimate her enemies. She promised to marry Philip so that he would remain submissive to her, at least for a short period. She finally evaded him. Philip became furious. He besieged England with his massive Armada. Elizabeth destroyed the Spanish Armada with the help of her sailors, Drake, Hawkins and Frobisher. As for France, she set the Huguenots (Protestants) and the Catholics in France against one another. So France was bogged down in the mire of local problems. Mary, Queen of Scots, came to England to topple Elizabeth. But Elizabeth forestalled her and got her executed for her traitorous deeds. Thus Elizabeth destroyed her foreign enemies and ensured internal peace and order.

i) Maritime activity in Elizabeth's time

The reign of Elizabeth eye-witnessed the beginning of maritime activity. Elizabeth promoted many companies for trading with foreign countries. The Muscovy established to facilitate England's trade with Russia. Sir Francis Drake voyaged round the world between 1577 and 1580. He challenged the monopolies of Spain and Portugal in the New World. In 1585 Elizabeth commissioned Drake and gave him two ships with which to plunder the Spanish West Indies. This venture was described as joint stock piracy. Sir Walter Raleigh established a colony in North America. He called it Virginia, in memory of Elizabeth, the virgin queen. In 1600 the English East India Company was started to promote trade with the Spice Islands. But the company reached India, instead. Thus the reign of Elizabeth saw the beginning of the naval supremacy of England.

ii) The Elizabethan Literature

The development of all forms of literature was the greatest glory of the Elizabethan era. The comedies and tragedies of Shakespeare, The Faerie Queene of Spenser, the Essays of Bacon and the critical writings of Sidney - these made Elizabeth's reign shine like a diamond. Because of progress in all walks of life, the Elizabethan age is regarded as the golden period of English history.

8.4. Social Life in The Elizabethan Age

In a social history of a country, we study how the people lived, their food habits, dresses, education, love and marriage etc. This also shows that the Elizabethans lived happily.

i. Food habits

The Elizabethan food consisted of meat and bread. Vegetables were little eaten. Potatoes were beginning to come. The time of the chief meal was at eleven or twelve and supper was five hours later. Elizabeth helped the fishermen by making people observe 'fish days'. During Lent season, on Friday's people were to take fish only. Owing to the demand for mutton and beef, cattle rearing became popular.

ii. Elizabethan building style

Church building was not very popular in the Elizabethan England. Instead, palaces and manor houses were built, displaying wealth, beauty and the glory of the period. Palaces were built in Italian style. The outer parts were built of stone and the interior was made of wood work. Smaller manor houses were built of red-bricks and some of timber. The window space was wider than in former times. Walls within were covered with tapestry or paintings. But the poor people in the village continued to live in the old-fashioned thatched houses.

iii. Dress fashions

The Elizabethans initiated the dress fashions of Italy and France. Jewels, gold chains and costly trinkets were worn by well-to-do men and women. In the Merchant of Venice Shakespeare pokes fun at the contemporary English men's dress. All chasses of people grew beards. Gentlemen wore swords as part of their dress in civil life. Duels were very common but killing was forbidden. Fencing with rapier and dagger was popular.

iv. Tours and pilgrimages

Pilgrimages were very common when England was a Catholic country. Pilgrimages became very rare with the Protestants. Tours became popular. The English people visited places where the water was

supposed to have medicinal properties. Buxton in Derbyshire was a popular resort. Bath was also famous. Inns developed to cater to the travelers. Historians say that the Elizabethan inns supplied good food and drinks to travelers. At the same time, they were notorious for robbers.

v. Education

In the days of Queen Elizabeth Oxford and Cambridge universities became more secular. Quite a number of laymen studied in them and took up services. Latin, Greek, Mathematics, history, philosophy etc. were taught to the students. These universities produced very good scholars of the period. Sir Philip Sidney, Sir Walter Raleigh, Camden and Hakulyt were students of Oxford; the Cecils, Bacon, Marlowe and Spenser were the students of Cambridge. There were no organised sports and games in those days. Hostel students were compelled to attend college chapel service. Usually the poor students became clergymen. Apart from Universities, there were many grammar schools started by Queen Elizabeth for the benefit of the common people.

vi. Love and Marriage

Though the Elizabethan poets and dramatists write about romantic love, in real life it was not so. Many girls were not educated well. They had to marry the boys chosen by their fathers. Traveyan records that at home women had no freedom and independence. They were often beaten up by their husbands.

vii. Growth of National Spirit

It was in the 16th century that England became a strong nation under a strong government. The defeat of the Spanish Armada boosted their morale. It must be noted that the various parts of the British Isles were united and the national spirit was promoted. Poets and dramatists began to sing the praises of 'merry England'.

8.5 The Elizabethan Theatre and Audience

The shape and condition of the Elizabethan theatre molded the character and quality of the Elizabethan drama to a large extent. The tastes of the Elizabethan audience also contributed to the strengths and weaknesses of Elizabethan drama.

i) The Elizabethan theatre

The Globe theatre was very popular in the Elizabethan age. Shakespeare wrote most of his plays for this theatre. This theatre was a wooden structure. It was hexagonal outside and round within. The stage was divided into four parts. The front stage projected far into the auditorium. This part of the stage served as a street or battlefield or garden. It was open to the sky. The back stage was the part behind the

pillars. It served as a large room, a palace hall, an office or a tavern as required. The walls of this part of the stage were hung with tapestry, black for tragedy and blue for comedy. There was a screened inner stage. It also served as Juliet's tomb and as Prospero's cell. The fourth part of the stage was over the inner stage. It was the balcony or the upper stage. It served as the window in Shylock's house from which Jessica threw the casket on the street. It also served as Cleopatra's monument. The dying Antony was raised to this place to kiss Cleopatra farewell.

ii) No front curtain in the Elizabethan theatre

The Elizabethan theatre had no front curtain. Therefore, a scene began with the entrance of actors and ended with their exit. Shakespeare's tragedies ended with men carrying the dead body of the hero. This was a tame conclusion. At the same time, it was the calm that comes after a storm.

iii) No painted scenery in the Elizabethan theatre

The Elizabethan theatre was bare. There was not much scenery on the stage. Shakespeare used poetry to create the necessary atmosphere. It is poetry which creates the picture of the shipwreck in *The Tempest* and the beautiful moonlit garden at the end of *The Merchant of Venice*.

iv) The absence of actresses on the stage

No women came forward to play women's roles in the Elizabethan age. Tender boys were employed to play female roles. Shakespeare got over this limitation by using powerful poetry in his romantic scenes. Thus, he immortalized Cleopatra with the poetic lines:

Age cannot wither her

Nor custom stale her infinite variety.

He did not tax the boy actors. In his romantic comedies, the heroine appeared in male guise in most scenes.

v) The crude taste of the Elizabethan audience

The majority of the Elizabethan audience was uneducated. Their tastes were crude. They enjoyed vulgar jokes. To please them Shakespeare used plenty of such jokes. Even in tragedies he used comic scenes and comic characters. The grave-diggers in *Hamlet* and the rustics bringing aspics in *Antony and Cleopatra* are comic characters. Shakespeare introduced them because the audience liked them. Shakespeare used comic scenes in tragedies primarily to relieve the tragic tension of the audience. Shakespeare used fights and suspense to attract the audience. He introduced songs also in plenty in order to entertain the audience. He lived to please and pleased to live.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, with her lofty vision and humanistic learning, Queen Elizabeth won the hearts of all the English people during her period. As there is progress in all walks of life, the Elizabethan age is regarded as the golden period in the history of England.

Check your progress

- 1) According to Act of _____, praying and preaching were to be only in English.
- 2) Elizabeth helped the fishermen by making people observe _____.
- 3) The Muscovy established to facilitate England's trade with _____.

Glossary

Massive – large and heavy

Rampant – spreading

Commodity – goods traded

Answers to check your progress

- 1) Thirty-Nine Articles of Belief
- 2) Fish Days
- 3) Russia

Suggested Readings

G.M. Trevelyan. English Social History. A Survey of Six Centuries: Chaucer to Queen Victoria. Green & Co Ltd: London, 1956.

Prasad B. A Background to the Study of English Literature (Revised Edition). Macmillan: Chennai, 2001.

BLOCK III – THE AGE OF STUARTS

UNIT 9 - THE LONG PARLIAMENT

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

9.1 Introduction

9.2 Parliament during the regime of Henry VII

9.3 Parliament during the regime of Henry VIII

9.4 Parliament during the regime of Edward VI and Mary Tudor

9.5 Parliament during the regime of Queen Elizabeth

Let Us Sum Up

Check your Progress

Glossary

Answer to check your progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

The unit traces regimes of the monarchs of England and provides an outlook to the various parliamentary practices followed during their reign.

Objective

- To outline the condition of Parliament during the regime of Henry VII, Henry VIII, Edward VI, Mary Tudor and Queen Elizabeth I.

9.1 Introduction

The Tudor kings, Henry VII, Henry VIII, Edward VI, Mary and Elizabeth I, were in power during the period of the Reformation. They were despotic rulers. They gradually stripped Parliament of its powers. Parliament merely rubber-stamped the decisions taken by the kings. It had no authority to dictate to the king. The Tudor kings' policy put an end to the chaos caused by the Wars of the Roses. They established peace and prosperity. So, the people welcomed their despotic rule.

9.2 Parliament During the Regime of Henry VII

Henry VII founded the Tudor dynasty. He came to power by defeating Richard III in the battle of Bosworth. Parliament also backed him up. He was a Lancastrian. By marrying Lady Elizabeth of the House of York, Henry united the families of Lancaster and York. This brought

to a happy close the 30-year-long Wars of the Roses (1455-85). Henry strengthened and stabilized his position by putting to death his two rivals, Lambert Simnel and Perkin Warbeck.

i) Henry VII's foreign policy

Henry established peace with Spain and Scotland not through wars but through matrimonial alliances. He married off his son Prince Arthur to Catherine, the Princess of Spain. Similarly, he gave his daughter Margaret in marriage to James IV King of Scotland. Through these alliances, he befriended the two nations. Age-long hostility was replaced by cordiality.

Next, Henry used business dealings to cement foreign relations. He allowed the export of wool to Flanders. In return, Flanders promised not to entertain any rival claimants to the English throne. This treaty was called 'The Great Intercourse'. To cow down France, Henry invaded the French city of Boulogne. The French king Charles VIII yielded at once. He offered to pay Henry a tribute of £180,000 in cash and an annual pension of £ 12,000. Also, English traders were allowed to have unrestricted commercial access with French ports. Thus, without shedding blood, Henry established peaceful international relations.

ii) Henry VII's weakening of Parliament

Henry took certain systematic steps to undermine Parliament. The barons and nobles got into Parliament and tried to control the king. They had semi-armies called retainers. They used these liveried men to help them in periods of rebellion against the king. Also, the nobles 'maintained the Juries'. This was a euphemism for the nobles' practice of bribing the juries to elicit their favourable judgement on necessary occasions. Henry passed statutes and banned the practice of 'livery and maintenance'. This step weakened the nobles directly and Parliament indirectly. Henry's next step was to start a network of Star Chamber courts throughout England. The members of these courts were nominated by Henry. They remained loyal to him. courts were to take action even against nobles and barons. Henry used these courts as whips to subdue the proud lords. Next, Henry appointed people from low classes only as ministers. They were loyal to him. His ministers Morton, Dudley and Empson belonged to this category.

Usually, Parliament gave financial grant to the king whenever he needed money. Parliament controlled the king by meeting or refusing to meet his financial needs. Henry shook himself free of parliamentary control by directly mopping up financial resources. He adopted the following methods for this purpose.

- a) Henry confiscated the estates of those who revolted against him.
- b) if a noble died without an heir, his estate was taken over by Henry
- c) Henry collected 'purveyances' or provisions from the area through which he travelled.
- d) Henry earned a lot of money by granting pardons or imposing fines.
- e) The king collected large amounts of money by imposing 'tonnage and poundage'. The tonnage was the tax that a businessman had to pay the king for importing a ton of wine. The poundage was the customs duty that had to be paid to the king for exporting a pound of wool.
- f) The king extorted forced loans called 'benevolences' from the rich as well as the poor. They gave Henry money in order to gain his favours.

All these measures ensured an almost unlimited supply of money to King Henry. Therefore, there was no need for him to cringe before Parliament for financial assistance. Henry was financially independent of Parliament. Hence, he convened it only seven times in his lifetime.

9.3. Parliament During the Regime of Henry VIII

Henry VIII was only eighteen years old when his father Henry VII died. The friction between Henry VIII and his Parliament started when he wanted to divorce his wife Catherine and marry her lady-in-waiting, Anne Boleyn. The Pope stood in the way; King Henry VIII became furious. He made Parliament pass a series of Acts which nullified the authority of the Pope over the king.

- 1) The Acts passed by Parliament from 1529 to 1536

The first Act passed in 1529 prohibited non-residence of the clergy. That is, it prevented the clergy in Rome from controlling affairs in England. In 1532 the Act of Annates was passed. It prevented the payment of Annates - the first year's income from a bishopric - to the Pope. In 1533 Parliament passed the Act of Appeals. It prevented taking appeals from the English church courts to Rome's papal court. It freed England from the grip of the Pope to a considerable extent. The immediate object of the Act was to prevent Catherine from appealing to the Pope. Henry secretly married Anne Boleyn in 1533. It was declared legal by Archbishop Cranmer. A daughter was born to them. She was to be the future Queen Elizabeth. The Act of Succession, passed in 1534, declared that only the children born to Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn should be regarded as heirs to the throne. Thus the Henry-Anne Boleyn alliance was placed on a firm footing. The Act of Supremacy passed in 1534 made Henry the supreme head of the Church of England. Sir Thomas More and John Fisher, the Bishop of Rochester, refused to acknowledge Henry's supremacy. They were beheaded in cold blood.

Their heads were displayed on the London Bridge to terrorize future dissenters into submission. The Act passed in 1536 empowered Henry to dissolve monasteries. Henry resorted to this drastic measure because the monasteries sheltered pro-Pope monks. Hundreds of monasteries were closed. Henry seized all the monastic wealth and distributed the monastic land among his followers.

Henry was against the Pope but not against the Catholic faith. The Act of Six Articles passed in 1539 showed Henry's unshakeable faith in the Catholic faith. The English Bible came into use. At the same time the Act of Six Articles reaffirmed Catholic doctrines such as transubstantiation, confession, communion, celibacy of the clergy, etc. Thus, Parliament in Henry VIII's time was absolutely submissive to him. It eroded the Pope's powers to a great extent

9.4. Parliament during the Regime of Edward VI and Mary Tudor

i) Parliament during the regime of Edward VI (1547-1653)

Edward VI was a boy of ten when he ascended the throne after his father Henry VIII's death. He was assisted by his uncle the Duke of Somerset, and a council consisting of 26 members. Edward was pro-Protestant. In 1549 his Parliament passed the first Act of Uniformity. This Act compelled the use of Cranmer's Prayer Book in all churches. In 1552 a second Act of Uniformity was passed. It introduced the second Prayer Book. It had a distinctly Protestant flavour.

ii) Parliament during the regime of Mary Tudor

Mary Tudor came to power after the death of Edward. Her Parliament launched a series of measures to stamp out Protestantism and revive the Catholic faith in England. Mary's Parliament passed an Act in 1553, declaring her to be Henry's legitimate daughter. It nullified Edward's pro-Protestant measures. It restored the Six Articles including the mass and the celibacy of the clergy. In 1555 Mary's Parliament revived the heresy laws. As a result rigid Protestants such as John Rogers, Cranmer, Ridley and the preacher Latimer were burnt. Hundreds of obscure Protestants were mercilessly put to death. These harsh measures earned her the dubious title of 'Bloody Mary.'

9.5. Parliament During the Regime of Queen Elizabeth

Elizabeth was the daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn. She succeeded to the throne after Mary's death.

1) The Elizabethan settlement

Elizabeth could favour neither the Catholics nor the Protestants too much. She ruled England for 45 years. Throughout her career she had to be very cautious, like a tightrope walker.

ii) The Acts passed by Elizabeth's Parliament

In 1559 Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy, conferring the title of 'Supreme Governor on Elizabeth. This title was much less offensive to Catholics than the title of the Supreme Head of Church' assumed by Henry VIII earlier.

In 1563 Parliament imposed certain uniform religious practices in all churches by passing the Act of Thirty-nine Articles of Belief. This Act had a Protestant bias. According to this Act, prayers were said in English only. Preaching was also to be only in English. The clergy were compelled to wear surplices. Archbishop Parker was very particular that these directives should be obeyed. The clergymen who did not carry out these instructions were dismissed. This Protestant stand was opposed by the Catholics of the time.

iii) The Opposition of Puritans

A section of Protestants was vehement. They were called Puritans. The Puritans condemned Elizabeth for not being strict enough towards Catholics. These extreme Puritans were led by one Thomas Cartwright who was Professor of Divinity at Cambridge. They demanded that the Church of England should be governed by Presbyterians and not by Bishops. The Puritans held assemblies called 'conventicles' secretly in different parts of England. Elizabeth viewed this problem seriously. She got Parliament to pass an Act in 1573 to strictly enforce uniformity in religious worship.

iv) The Opposition of Brownists

The clergy who was dismissed for not wearing surplices formed a separate organization under Robert Brown. They came to be called Brownists. Their aim was that each church should be an independent, self-governing body. Elizabeth was alarmed by the rise of such dissenters. She suppressed them ruthlessly.

v) Acts aiming to improve the economy of the nation. Elizabeth was keen on taking necessary steps to improve the economy of the nation also. She made Parliament pass Acts

- a) to abolish debased coinage
- b) to compel artisans, work as apprentices for a certain period.
- c) to raise funds through taxation to help the poor
- d) to develop industries by granting monopoly.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, the Tudor monarchs kept Parliament under their control. They made it pass laws for stabilizing the religious as well as economic conditions of England.

Check your progress

- 1) In 1559 Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy, conferring the title of 'Supreme Governor on _____.
- 2) The Puritans held assemblies called _____ secretly in different parts of England.
- 3) A separate organization under Robert Brown came to be called as _____.

Glossary

Parliament- The court consisting of Monarch and nobility

Protestants – The movement that began against the corrupt church.

Answers to check your progress

- 1) Elizabeth
- 2) Conventicles
- 3) Brownists

Suggested Readings

Xavier A. G. An Introduction to the Social History of England. Viswanathan Publishers: Chennai, 2015.

Shaw, David. Necessary conjunctions: The Social Self In Medieval England. Springer, 2016.

THE CIVIL WAR AND ITS SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE

STRUCTURE

Objectives

Overview

10.1 Introduction

10.2 The King and the Parliament

10.3 Charles I's Rule without Parliament

10.4 Long Parliament

10.5 Civil War – Course and Consequences

Let Us Sum Up

Check your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check your progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

The unit deals with the age of the Civil War and traces the course of war. It enunciates the characteristics of the parliament and the regime of Charles I.

Objectives

- To enable students to acquire a basic knowledge of the Civil War.
- To help students have an in-depth knowledge of English history during the period of Charles I and the circumstances that led to his execution.

10.1 Introduction

The Civil War was the culmination of the cold war that was going on between the King and the Parliament for nearly four decades starting from 1603, the year in which the Stuart King James I ascended the throne of England. The issue at hand was "who should be more powerful, the King or the Parliament" and the Civil War resolved it in favour of the latter. After the Civil War no King, however great he might be, was able to rule against the will of the people represented by Parliament. The theory of the Divine Right of Kings was put into cold storage, never to be used again.

10.2 The King and The Parliament

i) James I And the Parliament

There was frequent feud between James I and the Parliament, but the King always followed a policy of compromise and managed without any open war. Matter came to a crisis when his son Charles I came to the throne in 1625. Though he had many good qualities of a king, he was also stubborn and self-willed. He would break rather than bend. This attitude naturally led to an open conflict between him and the Parliament.

ii) Charles I And the Parliament

Charles I was always in need of money but the Parliament granted it only sparingly. Dissatisfied and annoyed by this he dissolved his first Parliament and levied taxes by his own authority. He convoked a second Parliament and found it more recalcitrant than the first. He again resorted to the expedient of dissolution and threw into prison all the leaders who opposed, him. Pressed by circumstances the King called a third Parliament which when it met in 1628 drew up what was called the Petition of Rights.

10.3 Charles I's Rule Without Parliament

According to this Charter he was not allowed to raise money without the consent of Parliament, imprison people except with the sanction of law, or declare martial law on people. As the King was badly in need of money, he signed the document and received the money, which the House voted for him; but within a few weeks it was evident that he was not going to abide by the provisions of the Charter. The King was severely criticised for his strange conduct. Enraged by this Charles once again dissolved the Parliament and imprisoned some of its distinguished members.

For the next eleven years, from March 1629 to April 1640, he ruled without any Parliament. During his personal rule he trusted only his close favourites, like Thomas Wentworth and Archbishop Laud. The entire civil administration was under the charge of Thomas Wentworth, who was successively made Lord Wentworth, and Earl of Strafford. Ecclesiastical affairs were managed by Archbishop William Laud, who was for bringing the Church of England as near as possible to the Roman Catholic Church. Following the advice given by Wentworth, Charles thought of enhancing his revenue by raising ship-money. In the past ship-money was collected only from coastal areas for defence purposes. Now the King decided to collect ship-money from the entire country including interior places. People as a whole were against the tax and their cause was championed by John Hampden, a rich gentleman from Buckinghamshire. He opposed the measure on the plea that the King had

no authority to collect a tax without the approval of Parliament. The matter was taken to court and the servile judges gave the verdict in favour of the King. This decision increased the irritation of the people.

When trouble was brewing in England, Charles got a funny idea in his head. For centuries together, Presbyterianism was the deep-rooted religion in Scotland, but Charles and Laud wanted to impose Anglican rituals on the Scottish Church. The first performance of the foreign Anglican ceremonies produced a riot and the riot became a revolution. A good part of the English people sympathised with the religious feeling of the Scottish people. Not having enough resources to fight the rebels and knowing fully well that most of his own people would not fight for him, Charles made peace with Scotland. Thus, Presbyterianism once again became the national religion of Scotland.

10.4 Long Parliament

Charles was convinced that the only solution for his problems was calling a Parliament. So, ending his personal rule which lasted for eleven long years he convoked a Parliament in 1640. This Parliament sat for such a long time that people called it the Long Parliament. It adopted a very aggressive attitude towards the King and his favourites, like the Earl of Strafford and Archbishop Laud. Both of them were shut up in the Tower and later executed. The Long Parliament was dominated by Puritans, who wanted to do away with Episcopacy in England. This was not acceptable to many and they started siding with the King.

10.5 Civil War – Course and Consequences

i) Course of the Civil War

The whole nation became divided into two groups, one group supporting the King and the other supporting the Parliament. The supporters of the King were called the Royalists or Cavaliers and the people supporting the Parliament were nicknamed Roundheads. The supporters of the King included a large majority of the nobles and wealthy men of the country, the great body of the clergy, both Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and all those who were strongly attached to the Episcopal Government and the Anglican ritual. All those who liked the splendour of dress and a pleasure-seeking life also joined the King's faction. The Roman Catholics were also on the side of the king for two reasons: the Queen was a Roman Catholic, and secondly, the King was tolerant towards them. Most of the supporters of the Roundheads were freeholders, merchants and shopkeepers of the towns. All Protestants, Non-Conformists, municipal corporations and the majority of the House of Commons were on the side of the Roundheads. These people were led by some of the mighty Earls and Lords.

By 1642 both the groups became turbulent and started preparing for war. The King collected an army from Hertfordshire and Gloucestershire and wanted to make for London, which was the stronghold of the Parliamentarians. The encounter between the King's army and that of the Parliament took place at a place called Edgehill which was twenty-nine miles north-west of Oxford. The Parliamentary army fared badly in the battle and Oliver Cromwell who fought in it was thoroughly disgusted with its performance.

On 29th October 1642, Charles entered Oxford and made it the centre of all his military operations. From there in 1643 he planned a triple attack on London from north, east and south- three different directions where he had friends, but it like many of his other schemes, proved to be a failure. The Roundheads under the leadership of Pym made an agreement with the Scots, and their combined army defeated the Royalists at Marston Moor near York in July 1644. Meanwhile Cromwell reorganised the Parliamentary army with meticulous care.

The new army consisting of 20,000 men with Fairfax Commander-in-Chief was called the New Model Army. Cromwell himself was, appointed Lieutenant-General of the cavalry. On 14th June 1645 the New Model Army defeated the King at Naseby in Northamptonshire and with this defeat the fortunes of Charles were on the decline. On 5th May 1646 the King fled in disguise from Oxford and rode to Newark where he surrendered to the Scottish army, hoping that they would help him. On 20th June Oxford was captured by the Parliamentary army. When the Scots knew that the King would not agree to their proposal to suppress Episcopacy in England, they handed him over to Parliament on 30th January 1647.

Meanwhile, tension was mounting between the army and the Parliament in the contest for power and army came out successful. The King was removed from Holmby House where he was lodged by Parliament to the army quarters at Newmarket. Within a few, months the King managed to escape to Carisbrook Castle in the Isle of Wight.

The Parliament was mostly Presbyterian, but the army was independent. To ensure an absolute majority in the Parliament, Cromwell behaved in a very highhanded manner. On 6th December 1648, Colonel Thomas Pride was asked to stand at the entrance of the House of Commons and turn away each one of the Presbyterian members who came to enter the hall. One hundred and thirty members were turned away in that manner. This event was later known as Pride's Purge. The assembly of the remaining members of Parliament was called the Rump.

Early in January 1649 the Rump set up a High Court of Justice consisting of sixty-seven members to try the King for treason. The trial began on 19th January in Westminster Hall and lasted for just one week. On January 27, the death sentence was read out to him by John Bradshaw, the President of the Court. The end came on 30th January 1649 when he was beheaded before a vast but silent multitude.

ii) Consequences of the civil war

- With the defeat and death of the King the Cavaliers lost their power and prominence in the society. Even after the Restoration, they could not claim to have regained their original importance. Thus, the path was prepared for Parliamentary democracy in England.
- The years of struggle between the King and the Parliament was a period of Puritan predominance. For the next few years, the Puritan spirit pervaded every aspect of social life in England. Though Puritanism died out in the years following the revival of the monarchy, it had left its imprint on English society and particularly the spirit of independence. The Civil War marked the beginning of political parties in England. Starting as Royalists and Roundheads, the party system came to stay in England, though changing names from time to time.
- Another significance of the Civil War was that it inaugurated revolutionary changes which were more or less settled with the Glorious Revolution in 1688.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, the Civil war ended with the execution of King Charles I and had a lot of consequences in the history of the English politics.

Check your progress

- 1) The supporters of the King were called _____.
- 2) The people supporting the Parliament were nicknamed _____.

Glossary

Execution – death sentence

Divine Right Theory – the right of the king or monarch to be the supreme ruler of both church and state

Suggested Readings

G.M. Trevelyan. English Social History. A Survey of Six Centuries: Chaucer to Queen Victoria. Green & Co Ltd: London, 1956.

Shaw, David. Necessary conjunctions: the social self in medieval England. Springer, 2016.

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

11.1 Introduction

11.2 The Puritan Rule

11.3 Puritanism

11.4 Characteristics of the Puritan Age

11.5 The Impact of Puritanism on Politics

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Suggested Readings

Answers to check your progress

Overview

The unit deals with the age of Puritanism and elaborates the life and associated literary influences.

Objective

- To help students get acquainted with the Puritan society, the Puritan's principles, culture and thought and its impact on Literature.

11.1. Introduction

The extreme Protestants were not satisfied with the religious settlement made by Queen Elizabeth. They wanted to purify the Church from all Roman Catholic practices and so they came to be known as Puritans. When they found that they could not purify the Church from within, they proceeded to organise separate congregations. So they were called separatists or dissenters as they dissented against the Queen's settlement.

11.2 The Puritan Rule

The Relationship between Oliver Cromwell and Parliament. After the execution of Charles I, Oliver Cromwell, Commander of the Puritan army, came to power. His intention was to rule democratically, with the consent of Parliament. But he became far more tyrannical than Charles I.

The Commonwealth (1649-1653)

At first Cromwell was guided by the curtailed Parliament called the Rump. Its members were all staunch supporters of Cromwell. This period was called the Commonwealth. The Rump was very generous towards Cromwell in the beginning. It granted him Hampton Court to live in. It also gave him a yearly allowance of £40,000 to meet his household expenses. Soon friction developed between the Rump and Cromwell. Cromwell needed a lot of money to carry on the war against Holland. The Rump protested against Cromwell's expensive project. It thought that it could increase its strength by inducting more like-minded members. It introduced a Reform Bill in order to broaden its base. Cromwell saw through the trick of the Rump. So he opposed the Rump.

The next Parliament that came into being was called Parliament of Saints because its members were God-fearing Puritans. It was also nicknamed Barebone Parliament because the most prominent member of this parliament was a Puritan by name Barebone. The Barebone Parliament also incurred Cromwell's displeasure. It was keen on implementing revolutionary measures. It wanted to abolish civil marriage and church tithes. Cromwell was alarmed at the fast pace of the Barebone Parliament and dissolved it in 1653. Thus ended the Commonwealth.

i) The Protectorate (1653 1660)

The vacuum created by the dissolution of the Barebone Parliament was filled up by the army. The army drew up a new constitution called the Instrument of Government. It made Cromwell Lord Protector and formed the Council of State (equivalent to the modern cabinet) to assist him. Thus, the period of the Protectorate began.

Cromwell accepted these features. He formed a new parliament. Its special feature was that it was very broad-based. It represented not only England but also Ireland and Scotland. Of its 460 members, 400 members represented England. Ireland and Scotland were represented by 30 members each. For the first time in English constitutional history, Parliament became an elected body. But only persons with property worth 200 pounds had the voting right. Irish rebels and Roman Catholics were debarred from voting.

Parliament had control of legislation. But it could not make any law contrary to the Instrument of the Government. The Protector controlled the army absolutely. He could make war or peace but always with the consent of Parliament and the Council of State. Thus, many checks and balances were in-built in the Instrument of Government.

The Parliament was unicameral. That is, it had only one house, namely, the House of Commons. The term of Parliament was three years

only. Thus, in many ways the Instrument of Government put a brake on despotism.

ii) The First Protectorate Parliament (1654)

The first Protectorate Parliament was formed in 1654. It checked Cromwell in several ways. Cromwell carried out many fundamental reforms. He divided England into twelve districts and appointed twelve Major Generals to look after them. They collected a very heavy tax called Decimation from all royalists. Their high-handed activities were objected to by Parliament. The Cromwell dissolved Parliament.

The Second Protectorate Parliament (1656)

In spite of the cautious steps taken by Cromwell, many of his enemies got elected to Parliament. Cromwell took two bold steps. One was to exclude his enemies from attending Parliament. The other method was to create the Upper House and fill it with his supporters. The changed Parliament submitted the famous 'Humble Petition and Advice' to Cromwell, requesting him to assume the all-powerful title of King. Cromwell humbly turned down the request. So, Parliament conferred Protectorship for life.

Trouble cropped up when the sizeable number of opponents in the House of Commons started demanding many privileges. Cromwell could not accommodate them. He dissolved this Parliament too in 1658.

This was Cromwell's last confrontation with Parliament. His dear daughter's death cost him his life. He died an unhappy man.

Richard Cromwell

After Oliver Cromwell's death, his son Richard Cromwell came to power. He was weak-willed. Unable to face pressures, he retired from politics.

General Monk's Convention, 1660

General Monk, the next man to come to power, had his finger on the pulse of the people. He understood that the people were fed up with the misgovernment of the Protectors. At the suggestion of the Convention, General Monk invited Charles II to come back to England and become their ruler, which he did with immense pleasure. Thus ended the Protectorate and thus began the Restoration of monarchy in England.

A. The Social Impact of Puritanism

Oliver Cromwell is branded a despot by some historians. But if we compare him with such Tudor despots as Henry VIII and Mary Tudor, we will certainly come to the conclusion that Cromwell did not kill or persecute anybody wantonly. The utmost harm that he did to

Catholics was to debar them from voting. He dissolved Parliaments because they did not keep pace with his revolutionary zeal. Earlier despots indulged in violence for purely personal ends. But

Cromwell aimed at public welfare. His unselfishness stands revealed in his rejecting the title of king offered by the second Parliament
Cromwell's foreign policy

Cromwell carried on many wars with the detachment of a Saint. He stated his policy briefly and effectively thus: 'Believe in God but keep the powder dry. He marched against Ireland and wiped out the Irish rebels because they clamoured for the re instatement of Charles II. His battle against Scotland was also due to the Scots' siding with Charles II. He waged a war against Holland because they did not use English ships for their transactions. Cromwell's greatest achievement was his forming the Protestant League, consisting of the four Protestant countries, Denmark, Sweden, Holland and England. Cromwell always had in mind ways and means of protecting the welfare of the English people. Therefore, the title 'Protector was quite apt for him.

Cromwell's Parliamentary Reforms

The Protectorate Parliament was an index of the unity of Great Britain. It included representatives of not only England but also of Ireland and Scotland. Another reform was the reduction of borough members from 430 to 139. Insignificant boroughs thus gave way to larger and more prosperous ones. The introduction of the Upper House was another of Cromwell's achievements.

Moral Reforms

Being a stern Puritan, Cromwell suppressed even harmless amusements such as drinking liquor, duelling, cock-fighting, bear-baiting, horse-racing, etc. In this respect, Cromwell can be compared to the Mughal emperor of India, Aurangzeb who also was a stringent puritan, suppressing even music.

Closure of Theatres

Theatres were regarded as breeding grounds of immorality. So they were all closed during Cromwell's regime. This was very much resented by pleasure-seekers. There is an allusion to this undesirable trend in Shakespeare's comedy, Twelfth Night. Malvolio in this play is represented as a puritan. He tries to suppress the harmless enjoyment of Sir Toby and his boon companions. Sir Toby retorts: 'Because thou art virtuous, dost thou think there shalt be no more cakes and ale?' The unmeaning restrictions imposed by Cromwell were lifted by Charles II later. Theatres were reopened during his time.

B. English Literature during the Puritan Age

Literature did flourish in the Puritan age but it was a different kind of literature. Elizabethan literature is marked by youthful hopefulness and vitality. On the other hand, Puritan literature expresses sadness at the passing of old standards. Elizabethan literature is intensely romantic. But the literature of the Puritan age is lacking in romantic ardour. Even the lyrics and love poems of the age are intellectual, not emotional.

1) Puritan Poetry

There were two distinct groups of poets in the Puritan age. One was the epic poet Milton and some song writers and the other was the group of metaphysical poets headed by John Donne. Milton's *Paradise Lost* deals with the Fall of Man brought about by the scheming Satan. Its sequel *Paradise Regained* shows the redemptive role played by Christ. Touches of Puritanism are strewn all over the poem. The simple diet of Adam and Eve and their joint worship of God with their unsullied minds are marks of the Puritan lifestyle. Milton's concept of man-woman relationship - 'he for God only and she for God in him' - is truly Puritanical. The Puritanical lifestyle, based on discipline and abstinence, cannot be maintained long. The self-control of the Puritan age was soon followed by the self-indulgence of the Restoration period.

There are touches of Puritanism in some of Milton's early poems also. His *Lycidas* is an attack on the greedy priests of the time. They crept and climbed into ecclesiastical bodies. They did not care to provide spiritual nourishment to parishioners. Milton's masque *Comus* is an attack on lust. *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso* are representations of joys and sorrows respectively, with the poet leaning towards the latter.

Though a sworn Puritan, Milton was unconsciously anti puritanical. We see this in his unabashed exaltation of Eve's physical charms. 'Herself a flower, she plucks flowers in the garden of Eden.' Milton simply rhapsodizes over her 'sweet, reluctant, amorous delay. His love of beauty is seen in his description of famous legendary gardens also.

The Metaphysical Poets

The term 'meta-physical' was first used by Dr. Johnson to refer to a group of poets headed by Donne. Johnson used the term derisively. He said that the metaphysicals, yoking together 'heterogeneous' ideas, were highly intellectual. The emotional element is lacking in them. Donne uses the image of the legs of a compass to describe his relationship with his wife in his poem, *Valediction Forbidding Mourning*. This is a totally unfamiliar image.

There are plenty of paradoxes and conceits in the poems of the other major metaphysical poets also. Cowley is noted for his revival of the form of the Pindaric ode. Marvell's *To His Coy Mistress* is a blend of levity and seriousness. His *Garden and Upon Appleton House* show the poet's love for nature. The poem *Garden* recalls the Garden of Eden. In his poems *Childhood*, *The Retreat*, *The Bird*, etc., Vaughan probes the mysticism inherent in nature and childhood. Twentieth century poetry, especially the poetry of T.S. Eliot, is considerably influenced by the

Metaphysical style

ii) Prose in the Puritan Age

John Bunyan (1628-88) is the greatest prose writer of the Puritan age. His allegory *Pilgrim's Progress* ranks along with Spenser's *Faerie Queene* and Dante's *Divine Comedy*. Every experience in the life of a seeker is aptly allegorized, starting with the Slough of Despair and culminating in the Pilgrim's entering the Celestial city. There are many Biblical parallels in the allegory. A few years later, Bunyan, published the second part of *Pilgrim's Progress*. This work describes the journey of Christian's wife and children to the Celestial city.

Sir Thomas Browne (1605-1682) is another famous prose writer of the Puritan age. He was a physician by profession. His greatest work is the *Religio Medici*, meaning *The Religion of a Physician*. Browne saw a profound revelation in nature. In this book he examines religious subjects in a most reverent manner, without any ecclesiastical bias. *Urn Burial* is another famous work of his. The sight of some Roman burial urns at Walsingham makes Browne think of various methods of burial. He ends up with a discussion of the vanity of human wishes and ambitions.

Robert Burton (1577-1640) is known for his prose work, *Anatomy of Melancholy*. He suffered from hypochondria. He sought remedy not in medicine but in listening to bargemen shouting at one another. His *Anatomy* is a medical treatise on morbid melancholia. It is a hotchpotch of quotations and references to authors, living and dead.

Thomas Fuller (1608-1661) was a clergyman. His best known work is *The Holy and Profane State*. The first part of this book describes holy men who deserve to be imitated. The second part deals with men who ought to be avoided. His *Church History of Britain* is gossipy and entertains the reader. His *History of the Worthies of England* is a racy account of the important men of England.

Jeremy Taylor (1613-1667) was also a clergyman. His *Liberty of Prophesying* was a plea for tolerance in religion. His *Holy Living and Dying* was for many years read in every English cottage, along with *Pilgrim's Progress* and the King James Bible.

Isaac Walton (1593-1683) was a London trader. Towards the end of his life he became fed up with money-making and took to fishing in the countryside. His *Complete Angler* is an interesting account of his fishing experiences. It contains beautiful descriptions of nature and bits of moralizing.

Drama in the Puritan age

Theatres were regarded as breeding grounds of immorality and closed down by Cromwell. Hence not much dramatic literature was produced during this period. The only drama of this age worth mentioning is Milton's *Samson Agonistes*. Samson's self-destruction can be read as an allegory of Charles I's execution.

11.3 Puritanism

Puritanism was, therefore, the extreme form of Protestantism. According to G. M. Trevalyan, "Puritanism was the religion of all those who wished to purify the rituals of the established Church from the taint of Roman Catholicism". The Puritans not only attacked the form of public worship but also condemned the administrative, machinery of the Church. They hated episcopacy or the rule by the bishops. Instead of episcopacy, they wanted that the Church should be managed by a group of Presbyters or elders. In their everyday life they wanted to practise austerity. The age of Puritanism may be roughly defined as the century following the Reformation. It extended from the first years of the reign of Queen Elizabeth to 1660. The restoration of the monarchy in England put an end to the Puritan attempt to establish a theocratic State.

11.4 Characteristics of The Puritan Age

There were certain ideals characteristic of the period. During the Puritan regime as Tickner points out, a new moral impulse bound together people of all ranks of society. Life took a more serious tone. All that was coarse, profane and impure in the courtly life of the time was repugnant to the Puritans. Simplicity, purity and order became essential characteristics of the good man in every aspect of his life, whether it was dress or conversation or eating or amusement. A new ideal of equality of all men in the sight of God arose in opposition to the pretensions of kings, bishops or clergy to a superiority based upon their position.

The daily routine of a Puritan usually involved private devotions at the hour of rising followed by family prayers with the reading of scripture and the catechising of children and servants. For spiritual guidance he depended solely on the Bible and so scripture reading was a regular feature with him. He kept a spiritual diary in which the events of the day were closely scrutinized and an accounting made of moral successes and failures. He also noted down the important evidences of

divine grace or displeasure that had been disclosed in the course of the day. In the initial stage Puritanism was reasonable in the sense that it approved of delight in the pleasure and joy of life, provided it was of a sober kind. That Puritanism was not liked by many as early as in the first decade of the seventeenth century is evident from the reference which Shakespeare makes in his play Twelfth Night. Referring to the Puritan dislike of jollity, revelling, church feasts and public holidays, Sir Toby asks Malvolio who is a Puritan, "Dost thou think, because thou art virtuous, there shall be no more cakes and ale?" But later on, particularly in the days preceding the Civil War, the Puritan spirit became unreasonably rigorous.

During the Puritan rule, in their enthusiasm to enforce austerity they closed down all theatres and other places of amusement. In 1642 the Long Parliament passed an Ordinance abolishing all play-houses. Further Ordinances were made in 1647 and 1648 ordering players to be whipped and hearers to be fined. They suppressed all customary sports, like wrestling and dancing. With the idea of preserving the solemnity of the sabbath, they went to the extent of forbidding sports on Sunday afternoon. Soldiers were employed to enter private houses in London to see that the sabbath was not profaned and that the fasts prescribed by Parliament were observed. As a matter of fact there were cases of soldiers carrying off meat found in the kitchen on fast days.

Throughout the Puritan regime, i.e., from 1649 to 1660, it was not the Church courts but the ordinary lay courts that had the authority to punish sin. In 1650 an Act was passed punishing adultery with death, and this savage penalty was actually inflicted in two or three cases. its harsh interference in some of the ordinary affairs of life made Puritanism hated by most of the easy-going English people.

11.5 The Impact of Puritanism on Politics

Puritanism had its impact on politics as well. During the time of Queen Elizabeth, some Puritans got elected to Parliament and gave some trouble, but she was able to hold them under check. After the death of the Queen in 1603, King James of Scotland became the King of England with the title of James I. James had consented to the establishment of Presbyterianism in Scotland. The Puritans, therefore believed that he might show them some favour in England. With great expectations they presented the King with a petition for Church reform, known as the Millenary Petition, because it was supposed to represent the desire of more than a thousand clergymen. They wanted to do away with the rule of the bishops. But the King turned down the Puritan plea because he thought abolition of episcopacy would prove harmful to his own interests as King. He was a believer in the dictum, "No bishop, no King". He,

therefore, followed a repressive policy, and it had the effect of driving more Puritans into separatism and exile.

Some of these Puritans went to Amsterdam, where they became the earliest group of Baptists. Another section under the leadership of John Robinson went to Leiden. It was a portion of this community that went to establish the colony of Plymouth in America in 1620. Other Puritans unwilling to give up all bonds of fellowship with the Church of England adopted a middle position and they were called Non-separatists.

James I was not an aggressive persecutor and so there was no serious trouble. However, things took a dangerous turn when Charles I ascended the throne in 1625. During his regime, William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, adopted rigorous measures to enforce conformity. He tried to impose episcopal liturgy on the Scottish churches, and on this account, Scotland rose in revolt and invaded England in 1639. Charles was without adequate financial resources to carry on a war and was forced to summon Parliament, thereby ending his personal rule of eleven years. When the Parliament met in 1640, a general feeling was expressed that the evils of prelacy should be eliminated. They refused to grant necessary subsidy until the abuses of Charles's personal rule had been remedied. When the Parliament abolished episcopacy, the King was able to rally support from private individuals. Those who supported the King were called Royalists or Cavaliers and the supporters of the Parliament were known as Roundheads. The Civil War broke out in 1642.

The Westminster assembly of divines was summoned in 1643 to draft a new religious settlement for the nation, but its essentially Presbyterian proposals were unsatisfactory for a variety of reasons to the majority of the Parliament. And the Parliament became divided on this issue. With Parliament becoming increasingly divided and impotent, effective rule shifted to the army under the leadership of Cromwell. The Royalists were defeated and the King was executed. The religious issue was resolved in terms of a Commonwealth with Cromwell as Lord Protector. After his death the political situation rapidly deteriorated and in 1660 the Puritan attempt to form, a theocratic State was brought to an end with the restoration of Charles II as King of England.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, Puritan's rule is an important turning point in the history of England. It later leads to Restoration England.

Check your progress

- 1) The term 'meta-physical' was first used by _____ to refer to a group of poets headed by Donne.
- 2) _____ is the greatest prose writer of the Puritan age.

Glossary

Puritanism- The extreme Protestants were not satisfied with the religious settlement made by Queen Elizabeth

Protectorate- The parliament under Chromwell

Answers to check your Progress

- 1) Dr. Johnson
- 2) John Bunyan

Suggested Readings

Shaw, David. Necessary conjunctions: the social self in medieval England. Springer, 2016.

Shanmugakani A. Social History of England. Manimekala Publishing House, Madurai, 2015

THE COLONIAL EXPANSION

Structure

Objectives

Overview

12.1 Introduction

12.2 The East India Company

12.3 Colonial Expansion

12.4 The American Colonies of England

12.5 England's Colonial Expansion

Let Us Sum Up

Check your Progress

Glossary

Suggested readings

Overview

The unit deals with the colonial expansion of England and elaborates the state of the colonies of India and America in detail.

Objectives

- To acquaint students with the knowledge of the origin of the English Company settlements in India.
- To help students understand the growth of England's colonial expansion by tracing its various colonies throughout the world.

12.1 Introduction

The East India Company lasted for two hundred and fifty-eight years in India. Started in 1600 for trade purposes, it ended in 1858, having built up a vast empire in India.

12.2 The East India Company

The first Englishman to come to India is believed to have been Father Thomas Stevetis, who became head of the Jesuit College in Goa in 1579. His letters to his father aroused in England a desire to have trade with India. As a result of this, in 1585 two English merchants, Ralph Fitch and William Leeds, arrived at Fatehpur Sikri, the then capital of Akbar, the Mughal Emperor. But the first important step towards England's commercial enterprise was taken in 1600 when Queen Elizabeth granted a Royal Charter to the East India Company. Even then

it took eight years for the English traders to establish their first trading centre at Surat.

The East India Company had a very humble beginning. It had only 125 shareholders with a capital of £ 70,000. A fleet of was fitted out, members of the Company contributed whatever they could, and when the fleet returned the profits were divided among the shareholders. In the beginning. the Company was able to make enormous profit but not later on, as had to compete with many rival companies, both European and English. So the East India Company had its ups and downs. In certain years it was able to declare a high dividend of even 50 %, but in certain other years it could make no profit at all. However, it can safely be said that on an average it was in a position to give the shareholders a dividend of 6% per annum.

The East India Company outlived all other rival companies. Having made steady progress in trade, its next effort was to establish important trade centres in India. In 1640 some land to the north of Santhome, the Portuguese settlement, was obtained for rent from the Raja of Chandragiri. Here the far-sighted Francis Day erected a number of buildings and a fort which was named Fort St. George, after the patron saint of England. This was the beginning of the Presidency of Madras. The name "Madras" is derived from Portuguese "Madre de Dios", which meant "Mother of God". Bombay was a marshy place which belonged to the Portuguese. In 1661 it was given to Charles II of England as part of the dowry when he married Catherine of Braganza. Its value was so little realised that the King parted with the place to the East India Company for an annual rent of just ten pounds. Because of the efforts of the first Governor Gerald Aungier, the place was converted into a beautiful and well-fortified town with a natural harbour. The trading factories at Surat were soon shifted to Bombay. This was the nucleus of what was later called the Presidency of Bombay. Towards the end of the seventeenth century, in 1690, the famous British Agent Job Charnock built at Kalikata (later known as Calcutta) a fort which he named Fort William in honour of King William III. Several other factories were opened in Bengal and placed under a President and Council with their headquarters in Fort William. Thus, was started the Presidency of Bengal.

Prosperity in trade enhanced the ambition of the English adventurers. The Mughal Empire was disintegrating and there was no single power to dominate the political scene. The British authorities made use of the opportunity to interfere in the internal affairs of the Indian princes. The French were their only rival in the country. The early part of the eighteenth century was a period of struggle for power between the French and the English. The great French leader in India at that time was

Dupleix and his English counterpart was Robert Clive. They took opposite sides in the disputes which arose about the succession to the offices of Nizam of Hyderabad and Nawab of Karnataka. The three Carnatic wars had the ultimate effect of establishing the British supremacy in South India. After defeating the French in the South, Clive interfered in the affairs of Bengal. He defeated the Nawab of Bengal in the Battle of Plassey in June 1757. For the conspicuous part he had played in establishing British power in India he was made the first Governor of Bengal and sometime later Lord Clive of Plassey. However, when he returned to England for good in 1767 he was badly attacked in the House of Commons, chiefly for corruption and aggression. He committed suicide in 1774 when he was only fifty years old.

In keeping with the colonial spirit of the Stuart period the East India Company had acquired large territories in India. Report after report reached England of serious scandals and irregularities and the home government thought it necessary to control the activities of the Company. In the light of the report submitted by a committee of enquiry (appointed for the purpose) the British Parliament passed the Regulating Act in 1773. According to this Act the Governor of Bengal was made the Governor-General with supervisory powers over the Presidencies of Bombay and Madras He was to be assisted by a council of four members. A Supreme Court consisting of a Chief Justice and three other judges was appointed to deal with all kinds of crime. The Directors of the Company were expected to place before Parliament copies of their correspondences. The purpose of this Act was to provide proper administrative machinery for the Company's territory. But it failed to achieve its purpose and so the Home Government was obliged to do something more effective. The result was the passing of Pitt's India Act of 1784. According to this new measure all Indian affairs had to be managed by a committee of three senior Directors, supervised by a Board of Control appointed by the Crown, but in actual practice the President of the Board of Control exercised the power.

In the next few decades, the Company authorities adopted a variety of ways to acquire territories in India. They had a hectic time waging wars, transacting treaties, making subsidiary alliances with native rulers and annexing States on some pretext or other. In addition to all this, they also had to fight with the frontier countries, like Afghanistan, Burma and Nepal. In their attempt to establish British supremacy in India the authorities were, forced to wage wars with some of the most powerful Indian adventurers, like Haider Ali and his son Tipu Sultan. It was only after fighting three Maratha wars that they succeeded in disbanding the formidable Maratha confederacy. The Company signed a treaty with the powerful Sikh leader Ranjit Singh, popularly known as "Lion of the

Punjab", and the confusion which followed his death in the State was an excuse for the Company authorities to annex the Sikh States to extend the British territorial possession. By making subsidiary alliances with native rulers, like the Raja of Mysore, the Nizam of Hyderabad, the Nawab of Oudh and many others, Lord Wellesley was able to establish British power over a good part of India. According to the Subsidiary System an Indian ruler had to pay a certain amount of money to the British Government and in return he was assured of external defence and internal security.

Starting from Robert Clive, a galaxy of eminent Englishmen presided over the British activities in India, the most famous of them being Warren Hastings, Lord Cornwallis, Arthur Wellesley, Lord Hastings. William Bentinck and Lord Dalhousie. Guilty as some of them were of exploitation and many other crimes, many of them did much good to the country. Indians will always cherish a loving memory of William Bentinck, who ruled from 1828 to 1835. The keynote of his administration was the grand principle that "English greatness is founded on Indian happiness". A friend and benefactor of India, he introduced a number of social reforms. One of the earliest and most salutary of these reforms was the prohibition of sati. In 1828 it was declared that the practice of sati, the burning alive of Hindu widows, was illegal and punishable. No doubt in implementing this long needed social reform he was supported by enlightened Indians, like Raja Ram Mohan Roy. Bentinck was also responsible for the framing of Indian Penal Code. He appointed a Law Commission with Thomas Babington Macaulay, an eminent jurist and historian, as its President. The Penal Code drafted by him in 1837 was adopted in 1860. But the most momentous reform introduced by Bentinck was the one by which English was made the medium of higher education in India.

The Directors of Public Instruction were divided in their opinion on the matter; some of them wanted to confine education to the study of Sanskrit and Arabic, but the others were in favour of Western, education through the medium of English. Macaulay in his famous Minute presented on 2nd February 1835 (with his characteristic persuasiveness) pleaded the cause of English and that set the question at rest once and for ever. On 7th March 1835. William Bentinck announced that "the great object of the British Government ought to be the promotion of European literature and science among the natives of India". This decision served as an incentive for the missionaries, like Dr. Duff in Calcutta, Dr. Wilson in Bombay, and Dr. Miller who became the first Principal of Madras Christian College, to take active interest in the University education of these three metropolitan cities. Thanks to their pioneering work the Universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras, all modelled on the

University of London, were established in the same year, 1857. Lord Dalhousie was another Governor-General, who introduced some useful social reforms. In 1853 the first railway, twenty miles long, from Bombay to Thana, was opened. Another was constructed from Calcutta to Raniganj coalfields. The line connecting Madras and Arkonam was constructed later. He organised the Public Works Department and opened an Engineering College in Roorkee. A network of roads with bridges covering a distance of 2,000 miles was constructed by the Public Works Department. The Grand Ganges Canal, the largest canal in the world, was also made in Dalhousie's time. India owes much to him for the introduction of Post and Electric Telegraphs, which improved the communication in the country. By the middle of the nineteenth century the nation as a whole was awakening to the fact that they were being exploited. There was the growing spirit of nationalism too. The Hindus, the Mohammedans, and the princely fraternity were all very much disturbed by the high-handed way in which their territories were annexed to the British Empire. To add fuel to the fire some of the activities of the British wounded the religious feelings of the people. It was in such circumstances that the famous Mutiny broke out at Meerut on 10th May 1857. There were scenes of violence at Delhi, Cawnpore, Lucknow and in Central India which caused the death of many Englishmen. The violence was put down with an iron hand, but it was evident to the authorities that they could no longer go on with the antiquated and cumbrous system of administration. At last the British Parliament decided to abolish the powers of the Company and transfer the Government of India directly to the Crown. Queen's proclamation to that effect was read out by Lord Canning, then Governor-General, at Allahabad on 1st May 1858. That was the end of the East India Company.

The East India Company had its impact on English society. It was instrumental in popularising Indian goods, like fine cotton calico cloth, silk and tea for which there was great demand in the English market. But the things which were in greater demand were the spices, especially pepper. It was used for preserving meat for the winter, flavouring food and drink, and for medicinal purposes. Into the fabric of English society was added a new but unwelcome element. There were numerous Englishmen who benefited by the exploitation which followed Clive's conquest in India. Most of these men who came to India as employees of the Company, especially in its initial stage, with the exception of a very few, were drawn from the lower strata of English society. They came seeking a meagre livelihood but returned home with immense wealth, acquired in most cases through foul means. Robert Clive, for instance, joined the Company as a clerk, drawing a nominal salary of ten pounds a

year, but when he returned home he was reported to have become the King's wealthiest subject. This class of wealthy people with their opulence and outlandish ways were nicknamed "Nabobs". The old and established aristocratic society was not eager to own them as members of their fraternity. The Company also provided ample opportunities for intellectual commerce which gave far greater dividends. Thus, many English scholars took keen interest in the study of Indian religions and literature. Bhagavat Gita, which is ranked among the greatest treatises on philosophy, was translated into English by Charles Wilkins. William Jones translated Sakuntala, the immortal drama, by the greatest Indian poet Kalidasa. A good number of Indian scholars like Raja Ram Mohan Roy though they did not change their religion became familiar with Christianity. The publication in 1820 of the famous book "The Precepts of Jesus" by Ram Mohan Roy is an eloquent testimony to the author's deep knowledge of the Bible. Mention may also be made of the linguistic influences. Many words of Indian origin, like banyan, bungalow, jungle, Swaraj, to mention only a few, have found their way into the English vocabulary. The influence of English on Indian languages, especially South Indian languages, has been such that many Indians find it difficult to convey their ideas in their own mother-tongues without using English words occasionally.

12.3 Colonial Expansion

Towards the end of the sixteenth century, for various reasons, many people left England and went to foreign lands like America. Some people were dissatisfied with life in their native country because of religious persecution which followed the Reformation. Some others who did not have their own land in England were inspired by the desire of possessing land in the New World. Some others found life in England dull, as there was no scope for adventures. After the Wars of the Roses wealth was increasing and this served as an incentive for overseas enterprise.

12.4 The American Colonies of England

As a result of the hard work of the adventurers Colonies were founded in America and in the West Indian Islands. Important trade centres were established in South Africa and India. Thus by the early decades of the 18th century, there were thirteen colonies on the east coast of America, between Nova Scotia in the north and Florida in the south. These colonies were of three groups, namely, New England Colonies consisting of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut and Rhode Island; the Middle Colonies, consisting of New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey and Delaware; and the Southern colonies consisting of Maryland, Virginia, North South Carolina and Georgia.

The first colony to be founded was Virginia. As early as in the Elizabethan period, Sir Walter Raleigh made several attempts to establish colonies. His first settlement was on Roanoke Island off the coast of North Carolina. These adventures had the backing of Queen Elizabeth, and since she was called the, Virgin Queen, part of the new land, was named Virginia in her honour.

Later, Sir Walter Raleigh sold his rights to the two companies which were started to promote colonisation. These two companies were the Plymouth Company and the London Company. In 1607, the London Company under the leadership of Captain John Smith made the first permanent settlement which they called Jamestown in honour of James I the then King of England. The colonists were not used to hard labour and so they found life difficult as they had to do a lot of manual work, like cutting down trees and ploughing land. Later the problem of labour was solved by the purchase of Negro' slaves. King James gave them a Charter and the colony was governed under the terms of the Charter by the Company from London. As it was not found satisfactory, a representative assembly called the House of Burgesses met at Jamestown, Williamsburg, and this form of popular assembly governed Virginia up to the Revolution.

In 1620, a group of Puritans who had been living in Holland, decided to migrate to America and establish a religious society there. These "Pilgrim Fathers" set out from Plymouth harbour in England in a ship called the Mayflower and landed near Cape Cod. The place where they landed was named New Plymouth to commemorate the English port from which they had sailed. It remained independent until 1691 when it was united with the Massachusetts Bay Colony,

A few years later, a group of wealthy Puritans set up a colony in Massachusetts. They obtained a Charter from Charles I in 1629. Their chief town was called Boston, because many of the settlers came from Boston in Lincolnshire. Right from its foundation Massachusetts was the chief colony of New England, as the area north of Hudson River was now called. Two more colonies were founded in New England in the early part of the 17th century by the Puritan settlers in Massachusetts, Roger Williams believed in complete religious freedom for everybody, but his idea was opposed by the other Puritans. So, in 1636 he with his followers founded a small settlement called Providence from which Rhode Island, the smallest of the colonies, grew. Charles II gave them a Charter in 1663. Similarly, Thomas Hooker, another religious leader, settled at a place which he called New Haven and the colony was named Connecticut. Similarly, another colony called New Hampshire was formed later.

In 1632 Charles I granted to Lord Baltimore, a Roman Catholic, a block of land on the Potomac River. Thus in 1634 was founded the Maryland colony, the first Roman Catholic settlement in America. It was in honour of Mary, mother of Christ, that they so named the colony. These Catholic colonists, like the Puritans, wanted to escape persecution at home and so came here. But many Protestants came with them and as a result a certain amount of strife followed; an agreement was drawn up later whereby anyone could worship as he chose. So religious toleration became the cardinal principle of this settlement.

The Dutch had formed the settlement called a settlement of New Amsterdam near the mouth of the Hudson River. The King had assigned this Dutch colony, where there were already many English settlers, to the Duke of York. During the Dutch war in 1664 this area passed into the hands of the British and was named New York in honour of the Duke of York, the brother of Charles II, who later became James II.

In 1681 Charles II gave William Penn, a Quaker, a large tract of land west of the Delaware River. This land was named Pennsylvania, which means "Penn's Woods". The Quakers also had suffered persecution in England and so they were glad to come to America. Other Protestants later joined this colony. Penn founded the city of Philadelphia in 1682. As the Quakers were thrifty and law-abiding, Pennsylvania as a colonial experiment became a great success. Later on, Penn leased land in the south from the Swedes which became the Colony of New Jersey. Delaware, and land to the east which became

In 1663 Charles II granted to eight noblemen called "Proprietors" all the territory south of Virginia. This region was called Carolina. About 1670, the city of Charleston was founded. Later this colony was divided into two colonies, North and South Carolina. Georgia, the southernmost and the youngest of the thirteen colonies, was founded much later in 1733. The colony was named after George II from whom James Oglethorpe, the humanitarian, got the land between Carolina and Florida to settle the poor debtors who had been in English prisons. In 1670 Prince Rupert founded the Hudson Bay Company which ruled a large province in Canada. Apart from these there were also colonies in the West Indian Islands. Barbados was occupied by the English in 1605. Other important islands like St. Kith and Nevis, were occupied in subsequent years. In Cromwell's time the island of Jamaica was taken from Spain by Admiral Penn and made a British colony in 1655.

12.5 England's Colonial Expansion

Trade connections with Africa paved the way for the establishment of British power in South Africa. It was gold and slaves

that attracted Englishmen to West Africa. As early as in 1562 Sir John Hawkins managed to get three hundred slaves from the Guinea coast. Three companies were established one after another but they were not successful. At last in 1672 the Royal African Company was founded with a monopoly trade from the Cape to Tangier which had come to England as part of the dowry of the Portuguese bride of Charles II. This Company brought home gold, ivory and dyeing materials and shared in the slave trade with America. The first important step towards England's commercial enterprise in the east was taken on 31st December 1600, when Queen Elizabeth granted a Royal Charter to the East India Company. But it was not till 1600 that the Company was able to open factories in India. The first factory was established at Surat. In 1639 they built Fort St. George in Madras. In 1661 Charles II gave to the East India Company the island of Bombay which he had received from Portugal as a part of the dowry at the time of his marriage to Catherine of Braganza. Calcutta was founded later in 1690.

By the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713 which followed the Spanish Succession War, England became the possessor of territories in all parts of the world. Her possessions included Gibraltar and Minorca, a large number of settlements in India the islands of St. Helena; factories in Gambia, Gold Coast and Lagos; many of the West Indian islands, the Atlantic seaboard from Florida to the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and the territories of the Hudson Bay Company. Hence, the Stuart Age may be considered as a period of colonial expansion.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, it was only during the Stuart period that there was a spurt in colonization. England maintained its importance by competing with other countries and forming its own colonies.

Check your Progress

- 1) Bhagavat Gita was translated into English by _____.
- 2) In 1853, the first railway of about twenty miles long, from _____, was opened.

Glossary

Colonialism- The phenomenon of colonial expansion by European countries

Colonies - The settlements where the foreigners reside

Expansion - to conquer and expand the territory.

Answers to Check your Progress

- 1) Charles Wilkins
- 2) Bombay to Thana

Suggested Readings

Prasad B. A Background to the Study of English Literature (Revised edition). Macmillan: Chennai, 2001.

G.M. Trevelyan. English Social History. A Survey of Six Centuries: Chaucer to Queen Victoria. Green &Co Ltd: London, 1956.

BLOCK IV THE STUART ENGLAND

UNIT 13-THE RESTORATION ENGLAND STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

13.1 Introduction

13.2 Great Changes in the Restoration Period

13.3 The Restoration Society

13.4 The origin and growth of political parties in England

13.5 Political Changes during the Restoration Period

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Terminal Questions

Answer to check progress

Suggested Reading

Overview

The unit explores through the Restoration England and traces the dynamic changes that took place due to the Restoration by Charles II.

Objective

- To expose students to the Restoration England - Formation of the political parties, the Royal Society, Revival of theatre, religion, censorship, social STRUCTURE and standard of living.

13.1 Introduction

By the term Restoration England, we mean England of the period between 1660 and 1688. All the institutions and practices which were suppressed during the Puritan regime were restored after Charles II was brought back to England as its King Political monarchy. Parliament and Law were all brought back to their former status. In religion Episcopacy or rule of the bishops, and Prayer Book were reinstated as far as social life was concerned the nobles and the gentry once again became the acknowledged leaders of provincial life.

13.2 Great changes in the Restoration Period

During the Restoration period Anglicanism became the acknowledged religion of upper-class people. In general, the parish church was patronised by the local squire. Of course, there were cases of cold war between the parson and the squire Addison, in one of his Spectator essays. "Sir Roger at Church", refers to this. "The parson and the squire live in a perpetual state of war. The parson is always preaching at the squire and the squire to be revenged on the person never comes to Church". The Non-Conformists and particularly the Quakers suffered religious persecution under the "Clarendon Code". The Roman Catholics were shut out from all participation in local and national Government.

An event of great political magnitude that took place during the Restoration period was the formation of political parties The upper class was divided politically into Whigs and Tories. The Tories, like the Cavaliers before them, were the section of society that formed rural England. They were always supporters of the King. The Whigs, like their roundhead fathers, were the landowning class in close association with commercial men and commercial interests. They always stood for the rights of the Parliament.

i) Development in the field of science

Experimental science was spreading fast in England. For the time in the history of mankind it was discovered that science could be used for the development of agriculture, industry, navigation, medicine and engineering. The Royal Society of Science was founded in 1662 under the patronage of King Charles and of his cousin Prince Rupert, himself a scientist. It was not yet time for conflict between science and religion. The great scientists of the time, Robert Boyle the chemist, the Isaac Newton the physicist, were religious men who repudiated the skeptical doctrines of the time. The importance of science was so much acknowledged that the first history of the Royal Society was written by no less a person than Rev. Sprat, who afterwards became Bishop of Rochester. With the spread of scientific inquiry most of the superstitions lost grip on the people. They began to realize that plagues and fires and floods were not necessarily the divine punishment for sin. Belief in witches and witchcraft became less widespread. However, it has to be admitted that the new scientific spirit to some extent at least undermined the character of religious faith.

ii) Restoration theatres

The theatres which remained closed during the Puritan regime once again started functioning; but of course, with certain changes. The whole playhouse was roofed in and the stage was artificially lighted with

candles. There were drop curtains and painted scenery. More than that the women's parts were no longer taken by well-trained boys. Instead, women's parts were acted by women actresses themselves. Men came to see the actresses as much as the play. Not all actresses were talented enough. Nell Gwynne's personal vigour and charm counted more perhaps than her professional skill. The drama was localized in London, and even there it appealed not to the ordinary citizens but to the court and the fashionable people of the town. Unfortunately, enough it was for their vitiated tastes and interests that the drama of the early Restoration period catered. The Restoration plays noted for their vulgarity created a hostile attitude to the drama in the minds of decent people, with the result that till the late nineteenth century well-brought-up young people were not allowed to visit the theatre. One of the most popular dramas of the early Restoration period was Wycherley's *Country Wife*, one of the most vulgar plays ever produced in English. However, things changed for the better in the next few years.

iii) Licensing acts

In the Restoration period censorship was rigid and yet the total output of literature was considerable. The first Licensing Act was passed in 1663 by the Cavalier Parliament, chiefly with the aim of preventing the publication of seditious and Puritan writings. Otherwise, permission was given easily enough for publishing the great epics, *Paradise Lost* and *Paradise Regained*. In spite of the rigid censorship, private libraries were becoming more and more common, of course, varying in size and quality. Private libraries of renowned persons like Samuel Pepys contained many valuable volumes. Similarly, the library owned by the Cotton Family had many remarkable books. In many of the Yeomen families there was at least a bookshelf consisting of modest collection. In 1684, for the first time, a public library was established in London by Tenison, the benevolent clergyman who later became the Archbishop of Canterbury. This exemplary man of God also built a large building on the courtyard of St. Martin's Church and used the upper part for a library and the ground floor for a workroom for the poor. However, in 1696, eight years after the Glorious Revolution, to the relief of all freedom loving Englishmen, the Licensing Act ceased to operate.

13.3 The Restoration Society

With the restoration of the monarchy the fortunes of the Cavalier families with landed property changed for the better. Nevertheless, to the small squire who lived on the proceeds of farming his own land, the economic situation was gradually becoming unfavourable. The two largest sections of society were those who cultivated their small bits of land and the wage-earners, the agricultural as well as industrial workers

did not have any means of subsistence except their wages. In general, the wages were regulated by the Justices of the Peace. On the whole, both in trade and industry trade unions were not common.

It should be said to the credit of the English that they have always maintained a high standard of living. It has become one of their national characteristics. The people of the Restoration period were no exception. The staple diet of the time was bread, beer and meat. Vegetables and fruit formed a small and meat a large part in English meal of that period. Almost half the population ate meat daily; the other half had to be satisfied with eating meat twice a week.

Sports and pastimes had become rare during the Puritan rule. They were even prohibited especially on Sundays, fearing that sports and games would spoil the solemnity of the Sabbath. However, they were revived during the Restoration period. Shooting partridges was almost the privilege of the squires alone. The netting of birds on the ground was a fashionable sport of the time. Fox hunting was becoming more and more popular. More exciting and popular than the hunting of deer or fox was the pursuit of the hare with a pack of hounds, the gentlemen on horseback and the common folk running headed by the huntsman with his pole. Other popular sports were wrestling, boxing and sword fighting, or bull and bear baiting, and various rough kinds of football. But cockfighting was the most popular of all pastimes, watched by huge excited crowds. Horse-racing was become more prominent owing to the Royal patronage.

The wealth of the country was not at all evenly distributed. Certain parts of the country were very rich. In general, the central countries were richer than the rest of the country. Of the various countries, the richest was Middlesex. The seven countries of the north were poor and the poorest was Cumberland. The poverty of the northern countries was strange because they had the biggest coal mines and textile mills.

Two great national calamities of the Restoration period were the Plague and the Great Fire. The plague of 1665 carried away nearly one-fifth of the London population. The Great Fire of 1666 raged for five long days, destroying all the churches and other buildings of the city. The Great Fire was in a sense a blessing in disguise because the reconstruction of the city on modern lines was possible after this calamity. The reconstruction of London was accomplished comparatively in a short period of four or five years.

13.4 The Origin and Growth of Political Parties in England

The Civil War broke out and ended with the execution of King Charles I in 1649. The Commonwealth set up after the Civil War collapsed and monarchy was restored in 1660. Towards the end of his life Charles II showed leanings towards Roman Catholicism. More than that, after the death of the King his brother James, Duke of York, a professed Catholic, was to succeed him. This was too much for some people to endure and so to prevent James from succeeding to the throne they brought a Bill called the Exclusion Bill. Those who supported the bill were called Whigs and those who opposed the bill came to be known as Tories. The brain behind the bill was Anthony Ashley Cooper whom the King had made Earl of Shaftesbury. Thus the Earl of Shaftesbury became the father of the party system in England. It was the combined effort of these two parties which brought about the event which Englishmen called the Glorious Revolution. This great event took place in 1688. The Tories, who were far more numerous than the Whigs, represented the landed interests. The Whigs were a minority of land-owning men in close connection with commercial men and commercial interests. In religion the Tories were members of the Anglican Church but the Whigs were Dissenters or Puritans. As far as politics was concerned, Tories were Royalists or supporters of the King, but the Whigs stood for the rights and privileges, of the Parliament. In the early part of the eighteenth-century party spirit ran rampant and this is evident from the account which Addison gives in two of his Spectator essays. In his inimitable style, which is a fine blend of humour and gentle satire, the writer recounts how as a child he had difficulty in finding St. Anne's Street. When we speak of the Tory party and the Whig party it must be remembered that for the most part of the eighteenth century the word "party" implied no political organisation. From 1714 to 1784 Great Britain had only a kind of group system and not a party system as such. Each prominent politician had a group of supporters and when he assumed office his friends benefited by getting jobs, pensions, or honours. When he went out of office, with him went most of his supporters into obscurity. Since there was no party organisation and discipline, many of the members of the House of Commons did not belong to any of these two political parties, they were mostly independents. Not all members attended the Parliament, and even those who attended did not attend all the sessions. As a matter of fact, the chamber itself was not big enough to accommodate all the members. The famous House of Commons destroyed during World War II in 1941 and rebuilt in 1950 retains the traditional features including the inadequacy to seat more than about half the total membership of the House.

One of the great political figures of the early part of the eighteenth century was the Whig statesman Robert Walpole, who remained in power as Chancellor of the Exchequer and Prime Minister for nearly twenty years. He is usually considered to be the first Prime Minister. By following a policy of non - interference, he gave England peace and a chance for economic growth. His motto was "Let sleeping dogs lie". To keep himself in power he did not hesitate to purchase votes and support of important men like the squires. In those days of public polling of votes, in the county elections, the support of the squires meant much because the number of voters in each county was small and they would almost automatically vote for the leading man of the place or for the man in whom the squire or parson was interested. It should also be borne in mind that those were days when, elections, in boroughs could be won by anyone who could spend enough money on bribery and eating and drinking or other kinds of election propaganda. It was an election of that type which Charles Dickens had in mind when he described the Eatanswill scene in his famous novel *Pickwick Papers*. The name is three words run into one "eat and swill". Another great politician of the latter half of the eighteenth century was William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, the greatest of the Tories. He was an imperialist to the core and as such wanted to reduce the French power in America to a minimum. For this purpose, he along with Edmund Burke, the orator, advocated a policy of conciliation with the Americans. An event which made the party division clearly marked out in England was the French Revolution. Most of the Tories considered the initial Revolution objectionable, as it deprived the French King and the aristocracy of their rights. Most of the Whigs, on the other hand, welcomed it as a belated decision to adopt the principles of the English Revolution in 1688. These opposing attitudes kept England wavering for some time. But when the Revolutionary Government of France offered to help any country which was willing to imitate their example, there was a hardening of party lines. By that time there were only fewer independents, and it became not very difficult to decide who was for the Government and who was against. Thus it was easy for the younger William Pitt, the Tory leader, to declare war against France in 1794. After that event better attention was paid to electioneering. but even then the party organisation as such had not become a regular feature. was after 1832 that most of the local party organisations were established.

After the passing of the Reform Bill in 1832 the political parties were renamed Conservatives and Liberals. For the passing of the Reform Bill the Whigs played a prominent part. The Tories felt it was time for them to change the name of their party. The name Conservative was adopted apparently by way of consensus of opinion to indicate that the

British Constitution was in danger from "Reformers" and had to be conserved or protected. The Whigs made use of the opportunity to call themselves "Liberals" as they posed to be more liberal-minded people.

13.5 Political Changes during the Restoration Period

In 1841 the Conservatives won a majority and Robert Peel became Prime Minister. He was a manufacturer's son and therefore interested in promoting business interests. The majority of his supporters were the landed gentry who disliked the new factory system. The conflict came to a crisis over the repeal of the Corn Laws in 1846. After the Napoleonic Wars, to protect the interests of the English agriculturalists the Corn Law had been passed, but it had the adverse effect of raising the prices of corn and the wages of factory workers. The Anti-Corn Law League, supported by the Whigs who were opposed to a rise in wages, agitated for the repeal of the Corn Law. The great potato famine in Ireland in 1845-46 forced Peel to repeal the Corn Law Act. This made him unpopular among the Conservatives. It gave occasion for British politics to be divided into two clear groups. By the middle of the nineteenth century the party that stood for the landed interests were called the Conservatives. The other party consisting of Whigs, Radicals liberal Conservatives stood for or manufacturers, businessmen and free trade. Again, towards the end of the century there was a further change in policy and thus the Conservative Party represented "property" and the Liberals represented all those who lived on salaries and wages. In any case the party system became so predominant that in 1882 W. S. Gilbert wrote:

"How nature always does contrive that every boy and every girl that's born into this world alive Is either a little Liberal or else a little Conservative."

The Liberals failed to represent effectively the interests of the wage-earning class. So, the Labour Party representing the interests of the workers of all kinds entered the arena of politics by the beginning of this century. They rallied such quick and wide support that within a period of twenty-five years they were able to supplant the Liberals. At present the two powerful parties in England are the Labour Party and the Conservatives. The party system in England brought to the forefront of politics quite a good number of men with extraordinary calibre.

Some of them served as Prime Ministers in the time of Queen Victoria. They were Robert Peel, Palmerston, Disraeli and Gladstone who became Prime Minister not less than four times. The man who bestrode British politics like a colossus in the twentieth century was

Winston Churchill, the arch-imperialist. But the one who expedited Indian Independence was the Labour Prime Minister, Clement Attlee.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, all those that were excessively restrained during the Puritan age gained full momentum in the Restoration Age.

Check your progress

- 1) Quakers suffered religious persecution under the _____.
- 2) The Civil War broke out and ended with the execution of _____ in 1649
- 3) Those who supported the Exclusion bill were called _____ and those who opposed the bill came to be known as _____.

Glossary

- 1) Vulgarity
- 2) Immorality

Answers to check your progress

- 1) Clarendon Code
- 2) King Charles I
- 3) Whigs, Tories.

Suggested Readings

Trevelyan G.M. Social History of England, Green & Co Ltd: London, 1956.

Xavier A. G. An Introduction to the Social History of England. Viswanathan Publishers: Chennai, 2015.

UNIT – 14

LITERATURE IN THE RESTORATION AGE

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

14.1 Introduction

14.2 Poetry in the Restoration age

14.3 Prose in the Restoration Age

14.4 Restoration Drama

14.5 The Comedy of Manners

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Answers to check your progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

The unit deals with literature during the Restoration period and the different genres of literature that were developing during the era.

Objective

- To help students understand how literature produced during the Restoration age mirrors the Restoration society.

14.1. Introduction

The Puritan age was noted for its excessive restraint. The pendulum swung to the opposite extreme in the Restoration period. Restraint was replaced by utter abandon in the new age.

14.2. Poetry in The Restoration Age

Restoration poetry was characterized by mathematical precision and elegance. The lushness and extravagance of Elizabethan poetry was eschewed. The heroic couplet, that is, two iambic pentameter lines rhyming together, was used extensively by the Restoration poets. Dryden is the most famous of the Restoration poets. He wrote many poems about contemporary religious and political happenings. His *Annus Mirabilis* is about the great fire in London and the disgraceful war with Holland. His *Religio Laici* (Religion of a Layman) is a defence of the Anglican Church against the Catholics. Three years later James II came to power

and established the Catholic faith. Being a turncoat, Dryden became a Catholic and wrote his most famous religious poem, *The Hind and the Panther*. The hind is a symbol of the Roman Catholic church. The Anglicans are represented as a destructive panther, persecuting the faithful. Calvinists, Anabaptists and Quakers are represented in this poem as the wolf, boar and hare. Dryden's best-known poem is *Absalom and Achitophel*. It is regarded as the most powerful political satire in England. Dryden uses the Biblical story of David and Absalom in this poem to ridicule the Whig party and also to revenge himself upon his enemies. Charles II is presented as King David. His illegitimate son, the Duke of Monmouth, appears as Absalom. The evil counsellor Shaftesbury is satirized as Achitophel.

Samuel Butler (1612-1680) is another famous satirist of the Restoration age. His *Hudibras* is a satire on Puritanism. It is modeled upon Cervantes's burlesque, *Don Quixote*. Sir Hudibra and his squire Ralpho in this poem stand for fanatic Puritans putting down innocent pleasures. Published in 1663, *Hudibra* became immensely popular at once.

14.3 Prose in the restoration age

Dryden was also the best prose writer of the Restoration ages. The prose writers of the Puritan age, Milton, Browne and Jeremy Taylor, wrote very lengthy sentences. Their aim was to dazzle readers. Dryden, on the other hand, wrote short sentences. His aim was to state his ideas clearly and concisely. The exactness of his style is best seen in his critical writings. His criticisms are generally in the form of prefaces. His best known criticisms are the *Preface to the Fables*, *Of Heroic Plays*, *Discourse on Satire* and the *Essay of Dramatic Poesy*. These essays lay the foundation of neo-classical criticism.

To Dryden goes the credit of

- i) using the heroic couplet for satiric, didactic and descriptive poetry
- ii) forging a direct, serviceable prose style and
- iii) developing the art of literary criticism through his essays and prefaces.

Hobbes and Locke

Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679) is famous for his book *Leviathan* which is partly political and partly philosophical. It has four central ideas:

- i) self-interest is the only guiding power of humanity
- ii) blind submission to rulers is the basis of government
- iii) all power originates in the people

iv) common good is the object of government.

The last idea is a democratic doctrine. It counters the theory of the divine right of kings.

Hobbes immediately destroys this democratic doctrine by an opposite doctrine - that the power given by the people to the ruler could not be taken away.

John Locke (1632-1704) is the author of the great philosophical work, *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding*. This is a study of the nature of the human mind and of the origin of ideas. Both Hobbes and Locke use the new prose, marked by directness, simplicity and convincing power.

Evelyn and Pepys are famous as writers of diaries. They jotted down the daily occurrences of their lives. They would not have thought that the world would be interested in their jottings. Pepys began his career as an ordinary clerk and ended up as President of the Royal Society. His *Diary* covers the years from 1660 to 1669. He writes about everything, from his dress and kitchen to the great political intrigues and scandals of high society. The diary gives us a vivid picture of the daily life of the Restoration age.

14.4 Restoration Drama

All theatres were closed down in the Puritan age as they were believed to breed immorality. Theatres were re-opened in the Restoration age, with major changes. The Restoration theatre was roofed in. Plays were staged at night in candle light. There were elaborate scenic aids. There was a front curtain. These changes were conducive to subtle dramatic effects. Another major change was that women's roles were played by actresses and not by boys. Nell Gwynne was the most charming Restoration actress. People flocked to the theatre to see her ravishing beauty, not her histrionic talent

Restoration drama is divided into two types - the heroic play and the comedy of manners.

The heroic play arouses spectators' 'admiration' by depicting 'valour, duty and love'. Dryden's *All for Love*, written in imitation of Shakespeare's *Antony and Cleopatra*, is an excellent heroic tragedy. Unlike Shakespeare, Dryden carefully follows the three unities. He deliberately avoids dazzling poetic effusions which are found in excess in *Antony and Cleopatra*. His *Don Sebastian*, *Conquest of Granada* and *Aurangzeb* are his other famous heroic tragedies. A remarkable feature of *All for Love* is Dryden's avoidance of rhyming couplets and use of the Shakespearean blank verse.

14.5. The Comedy of Manners

The Comedy of Manners is a special genre practised for the first time in the Restoration age. It depicts the licentiousness and permissiveness that prevailed in Charles II's court. Scintillating wit is the hall-mark of these plays. Wycherley's *The Country Wife* and Congreve's *Way of the World* are the best specimens of this type of comedy. These dramatists showed the ascendancy of woman over man. They anticipated the free love widely practised in the West in our age. Without understanding these changing moral values, the short-sighted Jeremy Collier harshly attacked the Restoration comedies in his 'Short view of the Immorality and Profaneness of the English stage.'

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, all those that were excessively restrained during the Puritan age gained full momentum in the Restoration Age.

Check your Progress

- 1) Dryden's 'All for Love' was written in imitation of Shakespeare's_____.
- 2) _____ is a defense of the Anglican Church against the Catholics.

Glossary

Vulgarity – Obscene

Immorality – without values and ethics

Answers to check your progress

- 1) Antony and Cleopatra
- 2) Religio Laici (Religion of a Layman)

Suggested Readings

Fischer H. A. L. *History of Europe*. Orient Black Swan: Chennai,2015.

Trevelyan G.M. *Social History of England*, Green &Co Ltd: London,1956

UNIT – 15

SOCIAL CONDITIONS DURING THE RESTORATION ENGLAND

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

15.1 Introduction

15.2 Restoration People and the Society

15.3 The Great Plague and the Great Fire

15.4 Theatre and Architecture in the Restoration England

15.5 The Royal Society of Science

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Answer to check your progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

The unit deals with the restoration society and events like Great plague and Great Fire that caused havoc on the lives of people. It also explores the architecture and theatre of the period.

Objective

- To acquaint students with the knowledge of the Restoration society so as to understand the literature produced during the Restoration age in a better way.

15.1 Introduction

By the term Restoration England, we mean England of the period between 1660 and 1688. All the institutions and practices which were suppressed during the Puritan regime were restored after Charles II was brought back to England as its King Political monarchy. Parliament and Law were all brought back to their former status. In religion Episcopacy or rule of the bishops, and Prayer Book were reinstated as far as social life was concerned the nobles and the gentry once again became the acknowledged leaders of provincial and national life.

15.2 Restoration People and The Society

There were only about five million people in England in Restoration England. The Yorkshire dales were fully cultivated. Woollen industry flourished there. Yet there were large tracts of uncultivated land.

i) The condition of the Squires and the Clergymen

The squires were the heads of village communities. They were as ignorant as the peasants living in thatched cottages. The squires had hardly any education other than what they acquired in local grammar schools. As for the clergy, most clergymen eked out a scanty living by working as chaplains under wealthy noblemen. They were hardly better off than servants. Most of them married waiting-women. Educated clergy were found only in towns.

ii) The Condition of the Poor

The Poor Law was passed in the Elizabethan age to help poor beggars. This law was amended in 1662, empowering the administrators to catch hold of the vagrants in London and send them to their place of birth. Hence, poor people were prevented from going to London in search of jobs.

iii) Sports

Men of all classes delighted in rough sports in Restoration England. The cruel sports of cock-fighting and bear-baiting were very popular. Londoners took delight in watching the activities of lunatics at Bedlam. They gazed at the whipping of women prisoners at Bridewell. Prisons were hells on earth. Prisoners lived in unspeakable foulness and contracted loathsome diseases. Fighting in streets in broad daylight was very common. Even Oxford dons fought with one another on flimsy grounds. Men were often drunk. Rowdyism was rampant.

iv) The condition of Roads in Towns

The roads were unbelievably bad. In the rainy season, they were impassable. Vehicles often got stuck up in mud. The fastest method of travel was on horseback. Mails were carried from place to place by pack-horses. Some improvements were made on main roads in Charles II's reign. It was then possible to travel by stage-coach to cover the 55-mile-distance from Oxford to London in twelve hours. It took four days in summer and six in winter to travel from London to York. The coaches which took so many days to cover such a short distance were praised as 'flying' coaches! Another serious danger to travellers was that of unpredictable attacks from highwaymen. The highwaymen infested all roads. The inn-keepers were often in collusion with robbers. However,

the inns had one redeeming feature they made available to travellers plenty of food, drink and entertainment.

v) Lack of Sanitation in Towns

Before the Great Fire, the houses in London were mostly made of wood, the houses were congested. The space between the rows was very narrow. It was said humorously that a man living in one house could shake hands from his house with the man living in the opposite house. Down the centre of each street ran a filthy river. Even the Thames was foul with sewage. The stench of London, especially in summer, was intolerable. Even the houses of wealthy men were built in a haphazard manner. They were flanked by stinking alleys on one side and ale-houses on the other. Rowdies hooted down ladies as they passed along narrow, cobbled streets in their coaches.

15.3 The Great Plague and The Great Fire

i) The Great Plague of London, 1665

Plague ravaged England quite frequently before the eighteenth century. This chronic outbreak was due to the absence of sanitation. The plague that broke out at the accession of James I carried off 30,000 people. The Great Plague of London that broke out in 1665 was the worst of its kind. A lakh Londoners died in six months. All men fled from the once crowded streets. Pepys wrote in his diary that, all people having run away from London, he could, 'see no boats upon the river. Grass grew up and down the untrodden Whitehall Court Only poor wretches were seen in streets.

ii) The Great Fire, 1666

After the Plague came the Great Fire on 2 September, 1666. It raged for five days. Half of London was burnt down. The fire spread quickly because most houses were built of wood. Only Westminster and West End and the slums of Whitechapel and Stepney were left undestroyed. Old St. Paul's, together with eight other churches, was destroyed. London was rebuilt, with brick and stone replacing lath and wood.

15.4. Theatre And Architecture In The Restoration England

i) The Restoration Theatre

Theatres were closed in Cromwell's reign because they were believed to spread immorality. All these theatres were reopened in Charles II's time. Actresses like Nell Gwynne replaced boy actors. Crowds flocked to the theatre to see Nell Gwynne's charming figure. The theatre was roofed in and lit with candles. Plays were staged in the evening. The Comedy of Manners, with its emphasis on the licentious

behaviour of lords and ladies, was popularized by Wycherley and Congreve. This departure from established morals made the Restoration drama doubly attractive to the theatre-goers.

ii) Architecture in the Restoration England

Architects like Inigo Jones and Wren came in handy in rebuilding London that had been nearly destroyed by frequent outbreak of fire. Inigo Jones designed a new palace at Whitehall but could not complete it. He also designed Covent Garden and several country houses.

Sir Christopher Wren (1632-1723) is England's greatest architect . After the Great Fire he was commissioned to rebuild St. Paul's. He took thirty-five years. (1675-1710) to build St. Paul's Cathedral, with its glorious dome and Corinthian pillars. He also designed fifty other churches in London, including St. Martin, Ludgate, Cheapside, Strand, etc. At Oxford University, he built the Sheldonian Theatre, Queen's College Chapel, Christ Church, etc. At Cambridge, he built Trinity College Library, Emmanuel and Pembroke Chapels. He also designed the Monument (to commemorate the Great Fire) and many parts of Greenwich Hospital and Hampton Court Palace.

15.5. The Royal Society Of Science

In Cromwell's reign, people were obsessed with death and damnation. Because they were preoccupied with religious issues, they did not show any interest in scientific discoveries. The Royal Society of Science was founded in 1662 under the patronage of King Charles II and his cousin, Prince Rupert.

The members of the Royal Society

Sir Isaac Newton, Wren, Boyle, Halley, Evelyn, Pepys, Locke, Dr.Wallis and the poet Dryden were some of the important members of the Royal Society.

i) Newton

Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1727) made many important discoveries in the fields of mathematics, mechanics and astronomy. Together with Leibniz, he worked out the Infinitesimal Calculus. This has contributed materially to the development of modern engineering.

Newton enunciated certain fundamental principles of mechanics. They are known as the Laws of Motion and the Law of Gravitation. Newton set forth his scientific doctrines in his book Principia (1687)

Newton's contribution to the sum of human knowledge was immense. Yet, he was very modest. He compared his discoveries with those of a child gathering shells on the shore of a vast ocean. If he had

seen farther than others, it was because he stood on the shoulders of giants. This is his compliment to his predecessors.

ii) Halley (1656-1742)

Halley was Newton's friend and pupil. Halley investigated the motion of comets. He discovered the periodicity of the famous comet named after him.

iii) Robert Boyle (1627-91)

Boyle discovered the relation between the volume and pressure of gases. His discovery was called Boyle's Law. Boyle also put forward the view that all matter is composed of minute particles. This discovery is the basis of the Atomic Theory of later days.

iv) Ray and Woodward

Ray and Woodward systematically classified animals, plants and rocks.

v) Harvey (1578-1657)

Harvey discovered the circulation of the human blood. Later researchers studied the composition of the human blood.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, the Restoration Age marked a turning point in the history of England.

Check your progress

The Royal Society of Science was founded in 1662 under the patronage of _____.

The Great Plague of London that broke out in _____ was the worst of its kind.

Glossary

Restoration – The restoration of Monarchy

Censorship – to bring about a suppression of speech, communication and information

Royal society- a society founded to recognize, appreciate and support excellence in science

Answers to check your progress

1) King Charles II

2) 1665

Suggested Readings

G.M. Trevelyan. English Social History. A Survey of Six Centuries: Chaucer to Queen Victoria. Green & Co Ltd: London, 1956

Prasad B. A Background to the Study of English Literature (Revised Edition). Macmillan: Chennai, 2001.

UNIT – 16

THE GLORIOUS REVOLUTION

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objective

16. 1 Introduction

16.2 The Bloodless revolution

16.3 Causes of the Glorious revolution

16.4 Results of the Glorious revolution

Let us sum up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Terminal questions

Answers to Check your progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

The unit deals with causes and the results of Glorious revolution. It traces the nature of the movement amidst the social backdrop.

Objectives

- To enable students to understand the causes, the course and the results of the Glorious Revolution.

16.1 Introduction

The Glorious Revolution is a peaceful change of power from James II to William III. Let us study in detail the causes, the course and the results of the Glorious Revolution.

16.2 The Bloodless Revolution

After the death of Charles II, his brother James II ascended the throne of England. He took certain harsh measures to establish the Catholic faith and minimize the importance of the (Protestant) Church of England. As a consequence, he became very unpopular. Sensing the mounting opposition against him, James II escaped to France in 1688. William III ascended the throne. This peaceful change of power is described by historians as the Bloodless Revolution or the Glorious Revolution.

16.3 Causes of the Glorious revolution

1) James II was a fanatic Catholic. He was determined to propagate Catholicism in England by hook or by crook. He attended the mass (the prayer meeting in the Catholic Church). Thereby he showed his partiality towards Catholics. He took several other partial steps. He appointed Roman Catholics to key positions in the Privy Council, the army and the navy.

2) Next, James tried to thrust Catholicism into educational institutions, hoping to brainwash teachers and students. He ordered the University of Cambridge to give the M.A. degree to a Catholic monk, exempting him from the necessary oaths.

3) In the same way, he ordered the fellows of Magdalene College to elect as their president a Roman Catholic by name Farmer. They refused to do so. At once James deprived them of their fellowships and appointed Roman Catholics in their places. James's aim was to create a Catholic atmosphere in the universities so that the students coming out of these universities would lean towards Catholicism.

4) Another step that had adverse effects was James's execution of Charles II's illegitimate son, the Duke of Monmouth. Monmouth was a Protestant leader. He claimed to be the rightful heir to the English throne. He organized a rebellion. The rebellion was suppressed. Monmouth was executed in cold blood. After this incident, Chief Justice Jeffreys, a supporter of James II, conducted a series of court sessions called 'bloody assizes' and sentenced to death or banishment many of Monmouth's supporters. These acts led the people to hate James.

5) James thought that his position would be safe and secure if he had a standing army commanded by Catholic officers. But Parliament rejected James's plan and also cut down his grant. The irate king dissolved Parliament. This increased the people's displeasure.

In an effort to protect the Catholics, James took certain measures, using his 'dispensing' and 'suspending' powers. In 1687 and 1688 he passed two 'Declarations of Indulgence' which 'suspended' all the adverse laws against Catholics and Dissenters. James insisted that the second Declaration of Indulgence be read out in all the churches. He was particular that the widest publicity should be given to his religious moves. But the bishops resisted James's move. Seven bishops, including Sancroft, the Archbishop of Canterbury, refused to read out the Declaration. The angry king took punitive action against the disobedient bishops. This act turned all the Protestant churches against James II.

6) A son was born to James. It was now clear that after James's death, his son would carry on James's pro-Catholic rule. The people were horrified

at this prospect. The leaders of both the Whig and the Tory parties wanted to put an end to James's Catholic regime. So they extended an invitation to William of Orange, the Protestant ruler of Netherlands, and his queen Mary, the daughter of James II, to drive out James II and take over as joint rulers of England. People hoped that William and Mary would terminate James's rabidly Catholic rule and make available to the subjects their long-lost rights and liberties.

16.4 The Course of the Glorious Revolution

In November 1688, William invaded England with his army of 15,000 soldiers. James marched against him with 30,000 soldiers. James's army as well as his daughter Anne deserted him. James realized the futility of fighting. He fled to France on Christmas day in 1688, with his queen and infant son. The French King, Louis XIV, received them and gave them the palace of St Germaine to live in and also an annual pension of £40,000. Here James lived till his death in 1701.

William of Orange took control of the situation in England. He summoned the Convention Parliament in January, 1689. It concluded that James had abdicated the throne by fleeing to France. The Convention Parliament drew up a Declaration of Rights, invalidating all the Acts of James II. The crown was offered to William and Mary as joint rulers of England. William and Mary gladly accepted the offer as a godsend and became the rulers of England. This change of government is described as a Glorious because it was affected without any bloodshed.

16.5 Results of The Glorious Revolution

- i) The Glorious Revolution established the supremacy of Parliament. The king became almost a non-entity. He was stripped of all his powers. The Divine Right of Kingship was scrapped permanently. The king became dependent on and answerable to Parliament.
- ii) The Bill of Rights, 1689, was the Bible of the new government. By this Act, Parliament gained absolute control over the king. The king was denied the right to 'suspend' or 'dispense' with the laws passed by Parliament. Elections to Parliament were to be held once in three years. Parliament was to meet at least once a year. The king had no right to interfere in these matters.
- iii) Freedom of speech was granted. But no writer was allowed to write or publish anything libellous, seditious or immoral.
- iv) The Catholic rule in England came to an end. Protestantism was established on a firm footing in England.
- v) The Glorious Revolution affected England's relationship with other countries. The early Stuart Kings were favourable to King Louis XIV of

France. But the new king, William III, was against France. So England fought against France in the war of the League of Augsburg and the War of the Spanish Succession. (Scotland was united with England. Ireland was defeated and remained subordinate to England for a century.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, the Glorious Revolution brought about many changes.

Check your progress

- 1) The early Stuart Kings were favourable to _____ of France.
- 2) After the death of Charles II, his brother _____ ascended the throne of England.

Glossary

Revolution – Overthrowing a government in favour of a new system.

Catholicism- the faith practice and church order of Roman Catholic church

Answers to check your progress

- 1) King Louis XIV
- 2) James II

Suggested Readings

Prasad B. A Background to the Study of English Literature (Revised Edition). Macmillan: Chennai, 2001.

Shaw, David. Necessary conjunctions: the social self in medieval England. Springer, 2016.

BLOCK V – STUART ENGLAND

UNIT 17 - THE GOLDEN AGE OF QUEEN ANNE

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

17.1 Introduction

17.2 Queen Anne's Society

17.3 Domestic Life

17.4 Coffee Houses

17.5 Religion

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Answers to check your progress

Suggested readings

Overview

The unit deals with Queen Anne's reign and the contemporary society. The domestic life and the boom of coffee houses are also dealt in the unit.

Objectives

- To enable students to understand the golden age of Queen Anne.
- To make students understand the impact of coffee houses on the English society.

17.1 Introduction

Queen Anne ruled England from 1702 to 1714. It was a golden age in the history of England because it was a period of great prosperity. Industry, agriculture and commerce all continued to prosper. Only during the last three years of her reign were there signs of distress and discontent, and that was chiefly due to the unavoidable war conditions in which the people had to live.

17.2 Queen Anne's Society

This prosperity and content that prevailed all over the country was partly owing to good harvests and cheap food. English agriculture had improved so far that more wheat was grown than in medieval times.

Wheat was the most important food. Rye, barley and oats came next in importance. In the reign of Anne there was a great exchange of agricultural products between one district and another. Thus, the coasts of Sussex and Hampshire sent their corn. Cheshire and other western countries sent their cheese by sea to London. England's agricultural improvement during this regime was so much that she was able to send corn abroad on a large scale. Cattle farming was also on its way of progress.

The social hierarchy consisted of the Duke, the squire, the yeoman, the freeholder and the tenant. The dukes were immensely rich and lived like princes. But the squire had an income of only about two hundred or three hundred pounds a year. From this he had to pay a land tax of four shillings in the pound. On the whole the small squires found it extremely difficult to make both ends meet. The yeomen who were far more numerous than the squires formed about one-eighth of the population. The tenant farmers were a little less in number. The difference between the freeholder and the tenant farmer was more political and social than economic. The freeholder had a vote for Parliament and was often in a position to use it as he liked. The tenant farmer had no vote, and even if he had, he would have been forced to cast it as his landlord wished. There was another reason why the distinction between the freeholders and the tenant farmers could not be absolute. Very often, a man cultivated a piece of land as a tenant and another piece as its owner. Sir Roger de Coverley, who is pictured by Addison as a typical squire of the time, with all his generosity, was very insistent that his tenants should cast their votes in favour of the candidate in whom he was interested.

17.3 Domestic Life

There was considerable improvement in the matter of house-building and house decoration. Farm houses and big mansions with large windows and spacious rooms were built in the traditional dignified but simple style. Tapestry was no longer in fashion for wall decoration. These houses were furnished with lighter and finer furniture made of mahogany imported from the West Indies. Chinaware brought to Europe by the Dutch and English East India Companies had become a passion with ladies. Alexander Pope refers to this in his mock-heroic poem, "The Rape of the Lock"

In Queen Anne's reign it was not yet time to appreciate the value of good education. A gentleman of the time was satisfied with spending one per cent of his income for his children's education. There were only a few public schools like Eton, Winchester and Westminster which were patronized chiefly by the aristocracy. The sons of the squires, yeomen

and shopkeepers went to the nearest grammar schools. In wealthy family's private chaplains were employed to teach the young gentlemen. In schools the punishment was of a rather severe type. Flogging was resorted to as a means of imparting knowledge and maintaining discipline. Writers like Locke and Steele were highly critical about this method. Women's education was almost neglected and there was no good school for them. Most girls learnt from their mothers to read, write, sew and manage the household.

In the early part of the eighteenth century most of the marriages were arranged by the parents. However, runaway marriages were common. There were also numerous love marriages. Divorce was almost unknown. During the twelve years of Queen Anne, in the whole country there were only six divorces.

Drunkenness was the acknowledged national vice of Englishmen of all classes, though women were not accused of it. In fact, during the time of Queen Anne it was so widespread that magistrates often appeared on the bench, heated with wine. Another social vice was gambling. Both sexes gambled freely. the fine ladies and gentlemen even more than the country squires. In London, Bath and Tunbridge Wells, the gambling table was the centre of interest and immense sums of money changed hands over cards and dice. Tobacco smoking was a common habit with many people. A smoking parlour was set aside in some country houses. Among the common people of the south-western countries, men, women, and even children smoked pipes. The taking of snuff became general in England during the first year of Anne's reign, as a result of the immense quantities thrown on to the London market after the capture of Spanish ships loaded with snuff. A very harmful social vice prevalent mostly among gentlemen was duelling. A dispute between two persons was settled conclusively with a duel which ended in the death of one of the two. London and the country capitals were the commonest scenes of such duels as Thackeray had immortalised in his novel *Henry Esmond*. The first half of the eighteenth century was the golden age of the highwaymen, the period when Jack Sheppard, Jonathan Wild and Dick Turpin flourished. In 1712 a club of young men called Mohocks terrorised the landowners by wanton outrages which included the subjection of women to insults and indignities and the beating of the feeble watchmen who were supposed to keep order in the streets. Sir Roger de Coverley, while preparing to go to a theatre, took all necessary precautions to protect himself and his men from the attack of the Mohocks on their way back home at night. There were certain sports and pastimes which provided relaxation to the people. In Anne's reign a primitive kind of village sport, Football also was played by many. Cockfighting of cricket was just beginning to take its place among the

was watched with excitement by all classes of people. Horse Racing attracted hundreds of people to the places where it was conducted. The most usual sports, that most people could easily resort to, were angling, shooting and snaring birds of all kinds.

The roads were in a bad condition. This was mainly because of the inadequate administrative machinery. Every parish, through which a road passed, was bound to maintain it by means of six days a year of unpaid labour by the farmers. Because of the badness of the roads, sea and river traffic became more popular especially for heavy goods.

The most important industries of the period were coal-mining and cloth-making. The coal mines were treated as the property of the owner of the land. Explosions were common in these mines and many workers lost their lives. In Anne's time the coal-mining industry was midway between the domestic and the factory system. Some of the workshops had large premises and employed many apprentices and journeymen. The industry next in importance was cloth-making. Spinning was done chiefly in country cottages by women and children, and weaving chiefly in towns and villages by men. Two-fifths of the English exports consisted of cloth woven in England. When Gibraltar became an English possession in 1704 a new avenue was opened for this trade in the Mediterranean region and Turkey. The American colonies were valued largely as markets for cloth made in England.

17.4 Coffee Houses

Coffee-drinking was a common habit at least among the wealthier classes. From the reign of Charles II, the coffee-house was the centre of social life. In Queen Anne's time there were as many as five hundred coffee-houses in the city of London. The Tories, the Whigs, the clergymen, literary men, businessmen and all other groups had their separate coffee-houses where they met and discussed all things under the sun but chiefly politics and religion. Foreign visitors admired the freedom of speech enjoyed by the Englishmen of the time.

17.5 Religion

The religious activities of the period consisted of the establishment of many religious societies and charity schools. The first object of these societies was to promote a Christian life in individuals and families, to encourage church-attendance, family prayers and Bible study. During the reign of Anne, charity schools were founded by the hundred all over England to educate the children of the poor in reading, writing, moral discipline and the principles of the Church of England. Another characteristic activity of the period was the working of the Society for the Reformation of Manners. This society issued thousands of

articles against drunkenness, swearing, public indecency and Sunday trading. Another society was the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. Cheap Bibles and Prayer Books were made available even in the county districts by this society.

London, the greatest city in the world, was situated two miles from the Parliament at Westminster and the Queen's Court at St. James. It was the centre of business. Every country sent its raw materials and food to London and in return it sent to every country her finished products. The city contained more than a tenth of the country's population. The lower strata of the population of the capital lived in most filthy conditions without sanitation, and naturally enough the death-rate among them was high. The city of London enjoyed complete self- government in an unusually democratic form. Nearly 12,000 rate-paying householders elected 26 aldermen and 200 councilors to manage the affairs of the city.

Let Us Sum Up

From the time of the Revolution the Court lost its glamour and importance. The ill-health of Queen Anne also was partly at least responsible for this. She was an invalid and therefore kept Court only on rare occasions. Another reason for the decline of the Court was the changing spirit of the time. In the eighteenth century patronage was sought not in the Court but in the Parliament and in the chambers of Ministers.

Check your progress

- 1) When _____ became an English possession in 1704, trade in the Mediterranean region and Turkey was opened.
- 2) _____ was a common habit at least among the wealthier classes.

Glossary

Coffee house- Places where the people met and discussed all things under the sun but chiefly politics and religion while drinking coffee.

Patronage – The support given by a patron

Suggested Readings

Prasad B. A Background to the Study of English Literature (Revised Edition). Macmillan: Chennai, 2001.

Shaw, David. Necessary conjunctions: the social self in medieval England. Springer, 2016.

UNIT – 18

COFFEE - HOUSE LIFE IN LONDON

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

18.1 Introduction

18.2 Different Coffee Houses

18.3 Role of Coffee Houses in the Society

18.4 The Cradle of British democracy

18.5 The Closure of Coffee Houses

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Answers to check your progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

The unit deals with coffee houses and their role in English society. It elucidates on how coffee houses became the seat and the cradle of democracy

Objectives

- To enable students to understand the origin of coffee-houses in England.
- To help students know the impact of coffee houses in the society.

18.1 Introduction

Coffee was probably introduced from Abyssinia into the Arabian Peninsula towards the end of the fifteenth century. Coffee-drinking became common among the Arabians and soon spread to Europe where coffee-houses became popular in the course of the seventeenth century. In the city of London, coffee-houses were for the first time introduced in the days of the Commonwealth and were very popular for decades. By the beginning of the, eighteenth century, that is, in the reign of Queen Anne, the coffee-house was the centre of social life in the city. In London alone, there were as many as five hundred coffee-houses.

Macaulay in his History of England states that the coffee-house was the thing which distinguished the city of London from all other cities

of England. He goes on to add that it was something like the Londoner's home. Those who wished to find a particular gentleman usually asked, not whether he lived in Fleet Street or Chancery Lane but whether he frequented the "Grecian" or the "Rainbow".

18.2 Different coffee houses

Almost every man of the upper or middle class frequented his favourite coffee-house either for mere social contact or to transact business, both. People of different political creeds, religious beliefs and professions had their separate coffee-houses. Thus, the Tories went to their favourite "Cocoa Tree Chocolate House" and the Whigs to St. James's Coffee House. No doubt politics was discussed with extraordinary heat and energy by the partisans who gathered in these places. The favourite resort of the learned literary men was the much-celebrated Will's Coffee House, which was situated between Covent Garden and Bow Street. Obviously literary topics like poetic justice or the three classical unities were discussed at their meetings. Animated by hot coffee another group discussed the propriety of Paradise Lost being written in rhyme. By about 1685 the most esteemed literary genius who visited this coffee-house was John Dryden. He was in those days so famous a literary figure that one considered it a privilege to have a seat near him. In winter Dryden's seat in the coffee-house was in the warmest nook by the fire, but in summer it was in the balcony. Smoking was common in all the coffee-houses and particularly at Will's. Macaulay points out that the coffee rooms without exception incessantly reeked with tobacco. Casual visitors to these centres of social contact sometimes expressed surprise that so many people should leave their own firesides to sit in the midst of eternal smoke and stench. Another coffee-house which was something like a rival to Will's was Button's Coffee House, which stood in Russel Street near Covent Garden. It was called so because it was founded by one Mr. Button, an old servant of Joseph Addison. Chief among the literary luminaries who patronised it were Dryden, Addison, Richard Steele and Alexander Pope. The Grecian Coffee House which stood in Essex Street near the Strand was patronized by scholars and critics.

The doctors of the city had their own favourite coffee-houses. Dr. John Radcliffe, the doctor with the largest practice in England towards the end of the Restoration period, used to come to the coffee-house named Garraway's. During the fixed hours of his visit he was very much in demand both by patients and by men of his own profession who wanted to seek his advice. Situated in Change Alley, Cornhill, the coffee-house was founded by, one Thomas Garway, a dealer in tea, coffee and

tobacco. This was also the meeting place of the business magnets whose object in coming there was to transact business.

The clergy had their own favourite coffee-house known as Truby's. There were separate coffee-houses for Roman Catholics, Puritans and Jews. Some of the pious Protestants sincerely believed that the Catholics met in their Coffee-houses only to conspire against the Government. (of course, in most cases the Catholics were unwittingly sinned against than sinning.) A very remarkable thing about the Puritan coffee-house was that swearing was totally banned there. Over a cup of coffee they discussed with interest and at times with anxiety the outcome of the impending election. The Jews, when they met in their coffee-house, were chiefly concerned about exploring ways and means of investing their money at the highest possible rate of interest.

18.3 Role of coffee houses in the society

Coffee-houses played a prominent part in promoting social life in the country. Certain circumstances were responsible for this. Those were days when public meetings and newspapers were unheard of. In such circumstances the only place where people could meet and exchange views on matters of common interest was the coffee-house.

18.4. The Cradle of British Democracy

In a sense the coffee-house can be called the cradle of British democracy, as it was the only place where people of all ranks met and moved freely without any inhibition.

The coffee-houses were centres of free discussion on all things under heaven. particularly politics and religion.

18.5. The Closure of Coffee Houses

Right from the restoration time the Government was feeling rather uneasy about their popularity. An attempt was made during Danby's administration to close down all the coffee- houses, but the outcry against it was so much the Government was forced to revoke the prohibition. However, more than a century later during the French Revolution the coffee- houses became centres of heated discussion against the Government's attitude to the Revolutionary movement. It had, therefore, no other option but to order the closure of all coffee-houses in the city. It was only many years after the Napoleonic Wars that the political climate became favourable for their, revival.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, the coffee houses played an important part in the society.

Check your progress

- 1) The Tories went to their favourite coffee house called_____.
- 2) Macaulay in his _____, states that the coffee-house was the thing which distinguished the city of London.

Glossary

Cradle – Birth place

Democracy - The form of government with a parliament and elected representatives

Suggested Readings

Xavier A. G. An Introduction to the Social History of England. Viswanathan Publishers: Chennai, 2015.

Trevelyan G.M. Social History of England, Green &Co Ltd: London,1956

UNIT – 19

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS IN QUEEN ANNE'S ENGLAND

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

19.1 Introduction

19.2 The Political Background

19.3 Peace and prosperity in Anne's England

19.4 Education

19.5 Vices in Queen Anne's England

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Answers to check your progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

The unit deals with the Political backdrop of Queen Anne's reign and the various policies of the regime.

Objective

- To enable students to understand the social and political background of Queen Anne's England.

19.1 Introduction

Queen Anne, the second daughter of James II, ascended the English throne in 1702 after the death of William III. She ruled England from 1702 to 1714.

19.2 The Political Background

Queen Anne's greatest achievement was the union of England and Scotland. The Act of Union passed by the English Parliament in 1707 was accepted by the Scottish Parliament. In conformity with this Act, England and Scotland were united and called Great Britain. A national flag called the Union Jack came into being. It had the crosses of St. Andrew of Scotland and St George of England. The English Parliament and the English Monarch were common to both the countries. The coins, measures were used in both the countries.

There was an acute schism between the Tories and the Whigs in Anne's Parliament. The Parliament that she summoned two days before her death was attended by a large number of Whigs. They decided to bring George, the Elector of Hanover, to England to be crowned King.

19.3 Peace and Prosperity in Anne's England

The horrors of the Civil War, the excesses of Puritanism and the immorality of the Restoration had become things of the past. Except for a brief war with France, Anne's age was quite peaceful.

Agriculture and commerce flourished in Anne's England. Because of the bad condition of roads, rivers were used for internal business. The Thames, the Wey and the Medway were deepened in order to facilitate movement of food, drink and timber from one place to another place. There was no tax on corn. This concession contributed considerably to the improvement of trade.

19.4 Education

Education was neither advanced nor wide-spread in Anne's England. Parents spent very little, less than one per cent of their income, on their children's education. There were a few public schools in Eton, Winchester and Westminster. They were patronized by aristocrats only. Women's education was neglected. In the reign of Anne, hundreds of Charity Schools were founded all over England to educate the children of the poor in reading, writing and moral discipline.

19.5 Vices in Queen Anne's England

Vices such as drinking, gambling and duelling were very common in Anne's England. To check indecency, the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge (the S.P.C.K.) and its off-shoot, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel (the S.P.G.) issued pamphlets among the poor. Unfortunately, this well-intentioned work was not quite effective.

Let Us Sum Up

Thus, there was growth and progress in all the fields of life in Queen Anne's England.

Check your progress

The Act of Union passed by the English Parliament in _____ was accepted by the Scottish Parliament

A national flag called _____ came into being.

Glossary

Peace – tranquility, period with no war

Prosperity – The state of being successful and peaceful

Vices – immoral traits.

Answers to Check your Progress

1) The Union Jack

2) 1707

Suggested Readings

Xavier A. G. An Introduction to the Social History of England.
Viswanathan Publishers: Chennai,2015.

Trevelyan G.M. Social History of England, Green &Co Ltd:
London,1956

UNIT – 20

COFFEE-HOUSES IN QUEEN ANNE'S ENGLAND

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

20.1 Introduction

20.2 Will's Coffee House

20.3 The Button's Coffee House

20.4 Politicians' Coffee Houses

20.5 Doctors' and Clergy's coffee houses

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Answers to check your progress

Suggested Reading

Overview

The unit deals with the popular coffee houses of England and their visitors.

Objectives

- To acquaint students with the coffee house life in London.
- To familiarize students with the different types of coffee houses visited by different groups of people.

20.1 Introduction

There were more than five hundred coffee-houses in London alone in Queen Anne's time. The coffee-house became an inseparable part of social life. The unique feature of these coffee-houses was their variety. There were different coffee-houses frequented by different sections of society.

20.2 Will's Coffee House

This coffee house was situated between Covent Garden and Bow Street. It was haunted by Dryden. Here he discussed such literary matters as the style of Paradise Lost, the desirability or otherwise of the three unities, etc. The seat near the fireside was reserved for Dryden in winter. In summer he went with his friends to the balcony.

20.3 The Button's Coffee House

This coffee-house was also situated near Covent Garden. It was visited by such literary luminaries as Dryden, Pope, Addison, Steele, etc. It functioned as a rival to Will's.

20.4 Politicians' Coffee Houses

People of different political parties visited different coffee houses. Tories went to Cocoa Tree Chocolate House and Whigs to St. James's Coffee House. Naturally, political issues were discussed vehemently here.

20.5 Doctors' and Clergy's Coffee Houses

Different professionals visited different coffee houses. Doctors went to Garraway's. John Radcliffe, the most famous doctor of Anne's age, chose to visit this coffee house. Patients flocked here to seek his advice.

Clergymen had their own coffee houses. Swearing was banned in the coffee house where Puritans swarmed. Jews went to their favourite coffee house to discuss the prevalent rate of interest and ways and means of investing their money most profitably. It was suspected that Catholics met in their chosen coffee house to discuss how to conspire with impunity. Thus, coffee houses served different people in different ways in Anne's England.

Let Us Sum Up

The greatest good that the coffee house did was that it kept people away from drinking alcohol. The coffee houses were closed down twice during Danby's time and later during the French Revolution. The heated discussions of political problems could not be tolerated and so coffee houses were closed temporarily during these periods.

Check your Progress

- 1) The unique feature of these coffee-houses was their_____.
- 2) Doctors went to_____ coffee-house
- 3) The coffee houses were closed down twice during Danby's time and later during _____.

Glossary

Discussion – To have a conversation on any topic

Answers to check your progress

1. Variety
2. Garraway's
3. The French Revolution

Suggested Reading

Shaw, David. *Necessary conjunctions: the social self in medieval England*. Springer, 2016.

Xavier A. G. *An Introduction to the Social History of England*. Viswanathan Publishers: Chennai, 2015.

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Sources included in the report

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BLOCK I – BACKGROUND

UNIT 1 - THE EARLY HISTORY OF ENGLAND

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

1.1 Introduction

1.2 The contribution of the Romans and the Anglo – Saxons

1.3 The contribution of the Norman kings

1.4 The Rule of the Plantagenet Kings

1.5 The Growth of English Literature from the Tenth to the Fifteenth century

Let Us Sum Up

Check your progress

Glossary

Answer to Check your progress

Suggested Readings



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VELS INSTITUTE OF SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND ADVANCED STUDIES (VISTAS)**

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