The People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

University "Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia", Jijel

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of English

Civilization of the Target Language

A Course Intended for 2nd Year B A. Students of English

(Semester 3 and Semester 4)

Prepared by: Dr. Mebarek Laouamri

Scope of the Course:

The study of civilization is a two-tiered activity. On the one hand, one simply needs to know "the facts": dates and order of events, particular conditions, important people, and all the elements relating to the field. These details and bits of knowledge are important but not sufficient. We use them to lay the foundation for the second level of study, which involves interpretation and deduction of meaning from the first level. Since we are dealing with beginners, emphasis during the two semesters of the second year is on the first level in order to provide students with the basic information allowing them to understand what they will be taught in the coming semesters.

Course Content

In the first semester, the course surveys the development of the British Isles from prehistory to the end of the 19th century, with an emphasis on political history. Basically, the main theme of the course is the numerous invasions of Britain by foreigners and their impact on the formation of the identity, culture, language and way of life that set the country apart from others. The course simultaneously traces the past and present relationships between the four "historic nations" of England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland and their gradual unification into a single British state, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the subsequent division of this state into the UK and the Republic of Ireland. It also covers key events that took place during the phases of this period, including, among others, the country's rise to a world power and its transformation into a constitutional monarchy. In the second semester, the course offers an overview of early American history. It studies the arrival of white men in the New World and their contact and conflict with indigenous peoples up to the birth of the American nation and its

subsequent geopolitical expansion. The course also focuses on the challenges the nascent nation faced, including wars with Britain, the type of government, slavery, the Civil War and the reconstruction.

Semester One: British Civilization

Course Objectives:

Upon completion of this, students will:

- Know key events and dates in British history, from prehistory to the end of the 19th century.
- Know the basic geography of Britain and understand how, when, and why this nation grew as it did.
- Understand the causes and effects of the quarrel between the English monarch Henry VIII and the Church of Rome.
- Discover the events that led to Britain becoming the world's leading power
- Learn about the institutional struggles that made the United Kingdom a constitutional monarchy.

Prerequisites:

➢ Students should have minimum background knowledge of the British history, civilization and culture

Course Requirements:

Students are strongly advised to read the following books:

➢Sheerin, Susan. (1983). Spotlight on Britain, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

➢Oakland, John. 2002. British Civilization: an Introduction. London: London University Publication Office.

➢McDowell, David. 2008. An Illustrated History of Britain. New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.

Syllabus

➢The British Isles: Definition

-Great Britain vs. United Kingdom

-Introduction of the Four Nations of UK: England Scotland Wales Northern Ireland

➢Pre- historic England

-Early migrations to Britain: The Iberians and the Celts

➢The Roman invasion and occupation of England (55 BC- 440 AD)

-Julius Caesar's invasion (55 BC- 54 BC)

-Claudius' invasion (43 AD).

-Roman Life & Achievements in England

-Roman withdrawal from England-

➢The Anglo- Saxons

-The Rise of Anglo- Saxon Kingdoms in England

-Alfred the Great and the Rise of Wessex 871-899

The forging of the English national identity

-Constant Conflict with the Viking Invaders

➢Norman England

-The Norman Conquest (1066): Reasons for the Conquest

-Changes in the English Society and government

-Feudalism

- The Magna Carta, the Common Law nd the Model Parliament

➢England under the Tudors

-The break up with the Church in Rome

-Parliament Reformation

-England's rise to world power

➢England under the Stuarts

-The conflicts between the King and Parliament

-The English Revolution

-Cromwell's Protectorate

-The Restoration

➢The Hanoverians

-The office of prime Minister

-The Loss of the American colonies

-The Agricultural Revolution -The industrial Revolution

➢The Victorian Age

-Wealth and prosperity

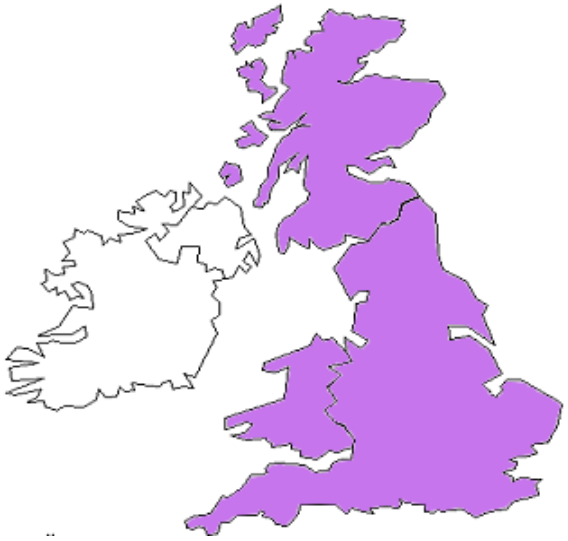
-Literature (The Victorian Novel)

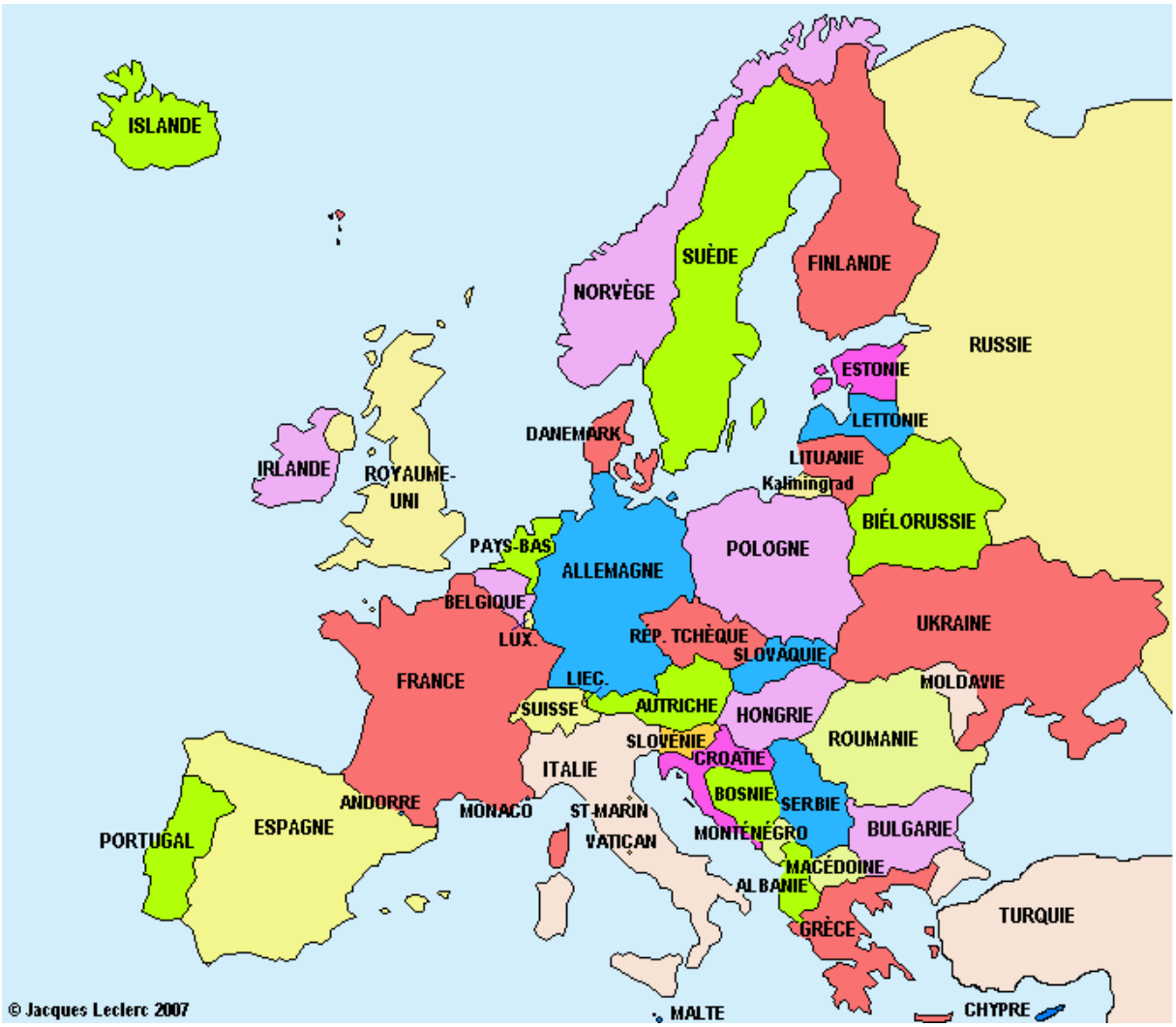
♦ **The following lessons are suggested for the implementation of the syllabus:**

Lesson 1: An Outline of the Geography of the British Isles

I. Presentation of the British Isles

- ✓ The British Isles constitute an archipelago and lie off the North-western coast of European mainland (opposed to an isle: continent)
- ✓ They are surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea which is to its eastern part, and separated from the European continent by the English channel to the far South
- ✓ Their two biggest isles, namely Great Britain and Ireland, are separated by the Irish Sea.
- ✓ They are composed of a great number of isles (over 6,000)
- ✓ The largest part of the British Isles is Great Britain, and the second largest is Ireland

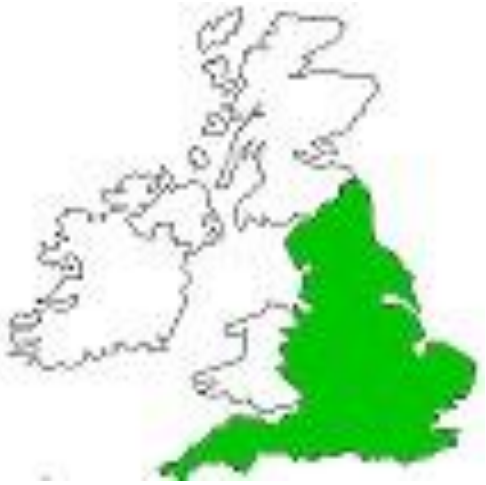




I.1. Great Britain

- ✓ Composed of three different nations: England, Scotland and Wales
- ✓ The greatest and most populous isle of Europe, representing 66% of the total area of the British Isles

I.1.1. England

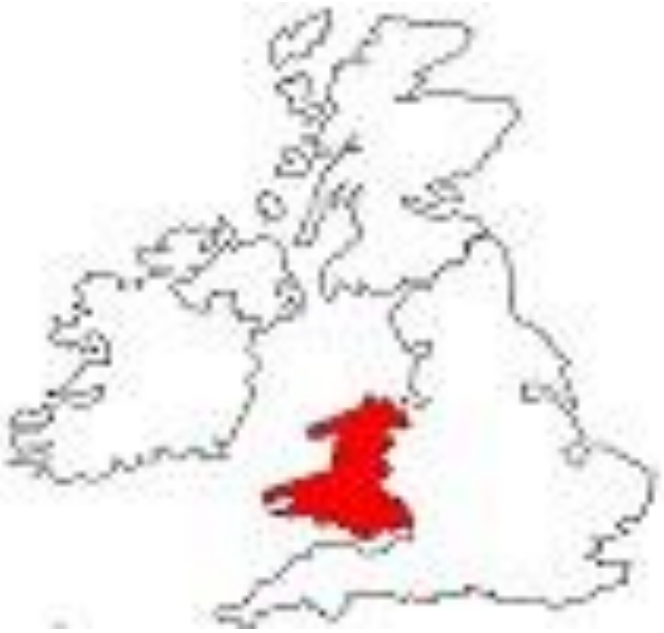


- ✓ Located to the South of the British Isles, England is, in terms of area, population and even politically speaking, the dominating country of Great Britain (130,000 sq km for over 50 million inhabitants)
- ✓ Its capital city is London to the South-east and is the largest city of the country
- ✓ Its major cities include the West midland towns such as Birmingham, Leeds, York, Bradford, and Sheffield; Liverpool and Manchester situated to the North-west; and Newcastle to the North-east
- ✓ The inhabitants of England are called the English and English is their official language
- ✓ Cornish is another language spoken by a minority group within England (in Cornwall) and that assume their cultural difference with English people
- ✓ Saint George, celebrated every year on April 23rd, is the patron saint of England; and the English flag bears the cross of Saint George (a red cross)
- ✓ National football team

I.1.2. Scotland

- ✓ It is to the North of England and is the second largest nation of Great Britain (77,000 square km and about 6 million inhabitants)
- ✓ Edinburgh is its capital
- ✓ Glasgow is another major city of Scotland (bigger than Edinburgh) and to a lesser extent Aberdeen and Dundee
- ✓ Scotland is remarkable for its good number of islands (790 islands of which only 130 are inhabited)
- ✓ The most famous three groups of islands located in Scotland are: the Orkney Islands and the Shetland Islands to the North east, and the Hebrides to the west. Each of these groups is made up of a certain number of much smaller islands
- ✓ Spoken languages: English, Scottish Gaelic, and Scots (the latter two are national languages and are being promoted. Since 2005 Gaelic, for example, has been an official language alongside English, and both languages enjoy an equal consideration)
- ✓ The inhabitants of Scotland are called the Scots, and Scottish is used as an adjective
- ✓ Saint Andrew, whose cross can be found in the Scottish flag, is the patron saint of the country and is celebrated on November 30th every year
- ✓ It has its own national football team

I.1.3. Wales



- ✓ To the West of England
- ✓ The smallest nation of Great Britain with an area of almost 21,000 sq km inhabited by around 4 million people
- ✓ Cardiff is its capital city and other main cities include Swansea and Newport
- ✓ The inhabitants of Wales are the Welsh
- ✓ It is not a sovereign State, for it is incorporated in England and can be seen as an English province
- ✓ It has two official languages, Welsh and English, both taught at school, chiefly at state or public schools
- ✓ The Welsh flag is represented by a red dragon on a green background
- ✓ Its patron saint is St David celebrated annually on March 1st
- ✓ National football team

I.2. Ireland

- ✓ The second largest island of the British Isles occupying 26% of the area
- ✓ It is located to the west of Great Britain, but is separated from it by the Irish sea
- ✓ The country was divided into two nations since 1922: Southern Ireland and Northern Ireland. St Patrick, celebrated on March 17th every year, is the patron saint of both Northern and Southern Ireland

Northern Ireland (the northern part of Ireland) also called Ulster is only 21 km away from the coast of Scotland

- ✓ It has a small area of 13,000 square km that represents 1/5 of the whole Irish land. The figure of its population is about 2,5 million people
- ✓ It is a largely rural region and its capital city is Belfast
- ✓ Its inhabitants are referred to as the Northern Irish. Irish, Ulster Scots and English are spoken languages
- ✓ The nation is crippled for many years by an internal, religious and political conflict between Protestants and Catholics, the former being the majority.
- ✓ Northern Ireland does not have a definite national flag; its official flag is, in principle, that of the UK, but because of a problem related to national identity, the Northern Irish flag proves to be a complex and sensitive issue. For example, those who want Northern Ireland to be withdrawn from the UK and incorporated in Southern Ireland consider the southern Irish flag to be also that of Northern Ireland…

Southern Ireland occupies 4/5 of the total area of the island of Ireland; as opposed to Northern Ireland, it is a totally independent State and its populations are Catholics in the majority

- ✓ Since 1949 Ireland became a republic and is also called the Irish Free State or Eire
- ✓ Dublin is its capital city
- ✓ Its flag bears the cross of St Patrick

I.3. A multitude of smaller islands

- ✓ The British Isles or to be more appropriate the British-Irish isles are also composed of lot of other small islands
- ✓ Besides Great Britain, Ireland and the groups of islands mentioned above and found in Scotland, there are other relatively important islands such as the Isle of Man and Anglesey in the Irish sea, the Isles of Scilly in the Atlantic Ocean and to the south-east of England, the Channel Islands and the Isle of Wight both located in the English Channel, etc.

Lesson 2: An Overview of the History of the British Isles

II. History and presentation of the UK

- ✓ The major countries of the British isles that used to form a mere geographical unity came to be politically united
- ✓ This union is gradual; it took hundreds years and involved lot of wars, particularly between England, the chief invader, and the rest of the nations of the British isles

II.1. The different stages of the formation of the UK

II.1.1. The incorporation of Wales into England

- ✓ In 1282 Edward king of England annexed Wales and gave his eldest son the title Prince of Wales, which became a tradition (Prince Charles, the eldest son of the current Queen, Elizabeth II, bears the symbolic title of "Prince of Wales")
- ✓ In 1284 under the Statute of Ruddlan Wales became part of England
- ✓ In the Laws in Wales Act 1536-42 under king Henry VIII (from the Welsh Tudor dynasty) Wales became officially and legally incorporated in the kingdom of England

✓ II.1.2. The Union between England and Scotland

- ✓ The union of Crown of England and Scotland under James VI of Scotland (who became James I of England) after the death in 1603 of his childless cousin Elizabeth I Queen of England
- ✓ James I proclaimed himself king of Great Britain, heralding then the birth of a united kingdom
- ✓ About a century later, the Scottish Parliament, and then English Parliament, under the reign of Queen Ann, passed a law (Union with Scotland 1707) that united the two kingdoms and the two parliaments under the name of the United Kingdom of Great Britain

II.1.3. The union between Great Britain and Ireland

- ✓ In 1801 the British and the Irish Parliaments passed an Act of union, giving birth to the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland

II.1.4. The partition of Ireland

- ✓ The Government of Ireland Act 1920 passed by the British Parliament (meant to divide Ireland into two self-governing nations, but within the UK)
- ✓ In 1922 independence was granted to Ireland that became the Irish Free State. The day following this independence, 6 counties (in the north: Northern Ireland) out of the 32 counties of Ireland seceded from the Irish Free State to join back the United Kingdom. The remaining 26 counties (in the south: Southern Ireland) became later a free Republic in 1949
- ✓ Since 1922 Southern Ireland is no more part of the UK
- ✓ Consequently, the official name of the kingdom (the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland) changed into the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.
- ✓ This official name, a bit long, is generally shortened to the United Kingdom or the UK and sometimes Great Britain or Britain
- ✓ The terms "Great Britain" and "Britain" are used for convenience; but they are theoretically inappropriate synonyms of the UK insofar as Northern Ireland - a country of the UK - is not part of Great Britain
- ✓ For convenience also, the term "British" people refer today not only to the inhabitants of Great Britain (England, Scotland, Wales), but also, by extension, to those of the whole UK (including then the Northern Irish)

II. 2. Presentation of the UK

- ✓ The Uk is a constitutional Monarchy with the queen as Head of the State
- ✓ Its capital city is London, and the major British political institutions are in London
- ✓ It is the fifth World Power after the USA, China, Japan, and Germany
- ✓ The flag of the UK is called the union of flags or the Union Jack, and is the combination of the Flags of England, Scotland and Ireland
- ✓ The motto of the UK is "Dieu et mon droit"
- ✓ The National Anthem of the UK is "God save the Queen"
- ✓ The UK is part of international organizations such as the United Nations, the NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), the IMF (International Monetary Fund), the WTO (World Trade Organization), the G8 (the Group of eight, that is the 8 richest industrial democracies including France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the UK, the USA, Canada, and Russia, today G7 after the suspension of Russia in 2014 due to the annexation of Crimea)

- ✓ In 1973 the UK joined the EEC (European Economic Community) renamed in 1993 the EU (European Union)
- ✓ This entrance was confirmed by a referendum held in 1975 also called the common market referendum in which 67% of the electorate voted in favour of the EEC membership
- ✓ On 23 June 2016 the British government organized a referendum to decide whether the UK should remain in or leave the EU. The leave won by 52% to 48%. The majority of English and Welsh cast their vote for the leave, but in Scotland and Northern Ireland, the majority of electorates voted in favour of remaining, which can probably strengthen the Nationalist Parties in these two countries
- ✓ This withdrawal is commonly referred to as the "Brexit" which is the combination of two words: "Britain" and "exit"
- ✓ The day following the election, the Prime Minister David Cameron resigned as he lost the referendum and is replaced by the former home secretary Theresa May
- ✓ The withdrawal of the UK from the EU is not yet effective; the Prime Minister, May, promised to start the separation process by the end of March 2017
- ✓ With reference to the Lisbon Treaty that specifies that the two sides have two years to agree with the terms of the divorce once the process is started, the Brexit can still take lot of months before being official

Lesson 3: Roman Britain

Britain was an attractive island to its early visitors. It was attractive to the Romans too. The Romans' first visit was in 55 BC. Their conquest was in 430A.D. when Emperor Claudius sent an efficient army. The Romans attacked Britain for three major reasons: **1**- To protect their seats in Gaul and prevent the British from helping the resistance there. **2**- Britain and France had the same race of people. **3**- It was an attractive land for its mild climate and fertile soil suitable for agriculture.

Agricola was appointed governor in 71 AD. His military achievements lasted from 77 AD. to 84 AD. He defeated the British, subdued Wales and put it under his domination,

and then he subdued the North which served as a barrier between New Castle and the **Hadrian Wall** which was built by Emperor Hadrian in 121 AD to keep the tribes of the North away from England. But Agricola failed to get Scotland under control because of the strong resistance of the Scots.

The Romans were too few to change the Britons' language and customs as they did in Gaul. They left the villa, Latin for reading, courts, market places, fine towns (like Albany), gardens, beautiful roads, and army bases. Under the Roman rule, the native Britons lost much of their virility and became incompetent in the art of making war because of occupation and repression.

Emperor Constantus (father of Constantin) died in 306 AD. He checked the Saxons who were raiding the coasts since the middle of the 3rd century. Constantus, his son, was the next emperor for 31 years and he faced the old menace of at least 2 series of barbaric invasions (Saxons, Picts and Scots). The latter are said to have looted and invaded Britain in the 4th century. (367 AD) At that time Britain was under a weak central authority amidst internal violence, civil war in addition to foreign invasions.

Christianity first came to Britain early in the 4th century (400 AD). As for the Saxon invasion, it started seriously in the 5th century. **In 410**, Emperor Honorius withdrew his last legions from Britain as Rome itself was being sacked. The British leader (Vortigen) was helpless like his people. He invited two Saxon leaders to repel (push off) the destructive Picts and Scots.

From then onwards the veil of mystery enveloped the island-from 410 AD to 597 AD-(the dark period).The Roman Britons were either killed, had to flee to Scotland, Ireland, Wales and Brittany or were enslaved

.

St Patrick was one of the roman missionaries who arrived in Britain in the Dark Ages After staying in a safe Mediterranean monastery, he went to Ireland where he preserved Christianity and safeguarded its cultural heritage. St Patrick was the first bishop in Ireland. (The first Saxons were pagan, had only an oral literature and were completely ignorant of Roman Culture)Then, the activities of St Columba spread from Ireland during the 5th and 6th centuries to Scotland where the first monastery was founded in 550 AD. This concerns early Christianity and the Celtic Church in Britain.

The New Roman Church

With monasteries as centres of peaceful life, St Benedict (480-543) brought his new rules to make the New Roman Church: obedience, charity and poverty. St Gregory (Pope from 590 to 604) was originally a Benedictan monk. With the ambition to recover the Old Roman Empire under the spiritual leadership of the Papacy, he sent St Augustine to England in 597. So from 597 to 664; there were two Christian churches in England. In 664, at the Synod (assembly) of Whitby, both churches decided to unite. In 668, Theodore of Tarssus, a Greek monk, was sent by the pope to organize the united church. This was the basis of medieval changes for a religious unity. The Roman Catholic Organization was at the source of medieval civilization. Indeed all great statesmen were churchmen in the Middle Ages. To England, the Church offered union, peace and the beginning of learning and art.

Written Records

Gildas the monk lived in the 5th century. His generally unreliable records developed gradually. **Bede the Venerable** was the first English historian. He wrote his ecclesiastical (religious) history of the English nation in Latin, the first language of the church. **Alfred**

the Great (King of Wessex) started of an Anglo-Saxon chronicle describing early Anglo-Saxon history. **Caedmon** was the first English poet. He was also a cow head and a scholar.

Lesson 4: Anglo-Saxon Britain

The Settlement of the Nordic peoples is the governing event of British National History. The Anglo_ Saxons came from Holland, North Germany, and Denmark, particularly from the eastern side which was easier to cross. The Anglo-Saxons expelled Rome from Britain and drove the Celts into the West. Their settlement began in the fifth century but not until the 7th century was it possible to distinguish the tribal kingdoms of Sussex, Wessex, Kent and Essex in the south, Mercia and East Anglia in the Midlands, Northumbria in the north and Kent converted to Christianity in 597 by the Roman missionary Augustine, first archbishop of Canterbury. Northumbria was converted a generation later by Aidan and other missionaries from Iona, the centre of Celtic Christianity. For two centuries, Northumbria remained the centre of English civilization and in association with Ireland had a great influence upon European culture.

The history of the Anglo-Saxons, meanwhile, was one of incessant warfare arising largely from the fact that royal succession was only partly hereditary. **Wessex in the 9th and 10th centuries was the first to establish a true hereditary dynasty** whose members were distinguished for their military and diplomatic skill. This enabled the kingdom to survive the invasions of the Vikings and the Danes who conquered and settled Northumbria and Mercia between 865 and 878.They were thrown back from Wessex in 878 by **Alfred the Great** and driven into Essex and East Anglia. Alfred captured London in 886 and became acknowledged as overlord of all England outside

the **Danelaw**. His son and successor conquered the remaining Danelaw and the Viking raids subsided after 995. when they resumed the established Christianised settlers in the Danelaw showed no sympathy towards their cousins. **The Danegeld** (to purchase immunity from Danish attacks) further testified to England's unity and the efficiency of its government.

Finally, however, Sweyn (King of Denmark) the ineffective Ethelred the unready in 1013 and Sweyn's son Canute became king of England. Canute restored peace and prosperity. He united the Saxons and the Danes using the lords and the Church. Both Saxons and Danes believed that courage, loyalty and honesty were the greatest values. However, Canute failed to establish a dynasty and in 1042, the House of Wessex returned to the throne in the person of Edward the Confessor. Shortly after his death, without direct heirs, in 1066 England was invaded and conquered by William Duke of Normandy who became William I of England.

Anglo-Saxon Life

Religion: The Anglo-Saxons were pagans when they came to Britain. They worshipped gods of nature and held springs, wells, rocks, and trees in reverence. Religion was not a source of spiritual revelation; it was a means of ensuring success in material things. For example, you might pray to a particular goddess for a successful harvest, or for victory in battle. A few of the main Anglo-Saxon gods were Tiw, Wodin (Odin), Thor, and Friya, whose names are remembered in our days of the week Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday. Religious observance consisted of invocations and charms to ensure the gods' help in securing a desired outcome in the material world, though the presence of grave goods indicates a belief in an afterlife. There is a possibility that

female slaves may have been sacrificed on the death of a male owner and included in the grave to accompany him in the next world.

A Lord's Life: We know little about how most people lived, for so little remains. The richer lords lived on estates, with a main rectangular hall surrounded by outlying buildings for various living, working, and storage purposes. Inside the hall, a lord might mark his prestige by expensive wall hangings or even paintings. The hall was the scene of feasts for the lord's followers, and a lord was expected to be a lavish host.

Social Class: Society was divided into several social classes, which might vary from place to place. At the top was the king. He was essentially a war leader. He was expected to provide opportunities for plunder and glory for his followers. The king who did not provide land, slaves, or plunder might wake up dead one fine morning. Below the king there were two levels of freemen, the upper-class thanes and the lower class ceorls (churls). The division between the two was strictly in terms of land owned. A man could only be a thane if he owned at least five hides of land (a hide was defined as the amount of land necessary to provide a living for one family). Aside from the ownership of land, a ceorl could actually be a richer man than the thane.

Slavery: Below the thanes and ceorls were the slaves. Slavery was one of the biggest commercial enterprises of Dark Age life, and much depended on this involuntary labour force. How did one become a slave? You could have the bad luck to be born a slave, of course. Beyond that, war was the most frequent source of slaves. Many conquered Celtic Britons would have become slaves. People could also become slaves if they were unable to pay a fine. In some cases, a family would sell a child into slavery in time of famine to ensure the child's survival. Slavery was not necessarily a lifetime sentence, however. A slave could be ransomed by his or her relatives or granted freedom in an

owner's will. If a person became a slave because they were unable to pay a debt, they might be freed when the value of their labour reached the value of the original debt.

Weapon; In war the common weapon was the spear made with a seven-foot-long ash shaft and an iron head. It was both thrown and used to jab. Shields were round, made of wood covered with leather, and had an iron boss in the centre. Only the nobility used swords, which were about 30 inches long, made of iron with steel edges. The hilt was often elaborately carved and jewelled, and could be inscribed with good luck symbols and the names of gods. The Danish Vikings were more heavily armed than the Anglo-Saxons, relying on chain mail and helmets, and short stabbing swords which were useful in close quarters, as well as the fearsome double headed battle axe.

Lesson 5: Norman Britain

The year 1066 was a turning point in English history. William I, the Conqueror, and his sons gave England vigorous new leadership. Norman feudalism became the basis for redistributing the land among the conquerors, giving England a new French aristocracy and a new social and political structure. England turned away from Scandinavia toward France, an orientation that was to last for 400 years. William was a hard ruler, punishing England, especially the north, when it disputed his authority. His power and efficiency can be seen in the **Doomsday Book**, a census for tax purposes, and in the **Salisbury Oath of allegiance,** which he demanded of all tenants. He appointed Lanfranc, an Italian clergyman, as archbishop of Canterbury and promoted church reform, especially by the creation of separate church courts, but retained royal control.

When William died in 1087, he gave England to his second son, William II and Normandy to his eldest son, Robert. Henry, his third son, in due time got both England in 1100, when William II died in a hunting accident, and Normandy in 1106 by conquest. Henry I used his feudal court and household to organize the government. The exchequer, the royal treasury, was established at this time.

Henry wanted his daughter, Matilda (1102-67), to succeed him, but in 1135 his nephew, Stephen of Blois, seized the throne. The years of his reign (1135-54 were marked by civil war and strife. The royal government Henry had built fell apart, and the feudal barons asserted their independence. The church, playing one side against the other, extended its authority.

Matilda's son, Henry, succeeded, as Henry II, in 1154. Henry II and his sons, Richard and John, expanded royal authority. Henry ended the anarchy of Stephen's reign, banishing mercenaries and destroying private castles. He strengthened the government created by Henry I. Most important, he developed the common law, administered by royal courts and applicable to all of England. It encroached on the feudal courts' jurisdiction over land and created the grand jury. Its success demonstrated its efficiency and the growing power of the king. Henry attempted to reduce the jurisdiction of church courts, especially over clergy accused of crimes, but was opposed by Thomas Becket, his former chancellor, whom he had made archbishop of Canterbury. His anger at Becket's intransigence led ultimately to the latter's martyrdom in 1170.

Henry's empire included more than half of France and lordship over Ireland and Scotland. His skill at governing, however, did not include the ability to placate his sons,

who rebelled against him several times, backed by the kings of France and by their mother, Eleanor of Aquitaine.

Richard I, the Lion-Hearted, was in England only briefly. He was busy fighting in the Crusades and later for the land lost in France during his absence, especially while he was a captive in Germany. Even during Richard's absence, however, the government built by Henry II continued to function, collecting taxes to support his wars and to pay his ransom.

John, who inherited the resentment against the rule of his father and brother, added to his troubles by his own excesses. In 1204 he lost Normandy. In 1213, after a long fight with Pope Innocent III over the naming of Stephen Langton as archbishop of Canterbury, John capitulated and acknowledged England to be a papal fief. All this precipitated a quarrel with his barons over his general highhandedness and their refusal to follow him into war in Normandy. The barons, led by Langton, forced John in 1215 to accept the **Magna Charta** or Great Charter, by which he admitted his errors and promised to respect English law and feudal custom. He died the next year, still at war with the barons. Although the loss of Normandy seemed a disgrace at the time, it left England free to develop its unique institutions without outside interference.

When John died in 1216, the barons accepted his nine-year-old son as King Henry III. They assumed control of the government and confirmed the Magna Charta in 1225, as did Henry when he came of age two years later. Thus began the tradition of royal confirmation of the Magna Charta and the idea that it was the fundamental statement of English law and of limited government. England prospered in the 12th and 13th centuries. Land under cultivation increased; sheep raising and the sale of wool became important. London and other towns became vital centres of trade and wealth, and by

royal charters they acquired the right to local self-government. The universities of Oxford and Cambridge were established. The population probably doubled from about 1.5 million to more than 3 million. The monasteries led the rural expansion and became wealthy in the process. More than a dozen cathedrals were built, as well as scores of abbeys and parish churches, all attesting to the wealth of England and of its church.

Henry III was not an able king, however. He quarrelled with the barons, who thought that they, rather than his favourites, should have the major offices. In 1258 the Provisions of Oxford attempted to give control of the government to a committee of barons. Civil war broke out in 1264, and the baronial leader Simon de Montfort came briefly to power. Montfort, however, was killed in the Battle of Evesham in 1265, and power returned to Henry and his able son, Edward.

Edward I restored royal control and made several reforms: He limited the barons' right to hold their own courts of law and he gave English common law the direction it was to take for centuries to come. Most important, he used and developed Parliament, essentially the king's feudal council, with a new name and an enlarged membership. The Model Parliament of 1295, following Montfort's pattern of 1265, consisted of great barons, bishops and abbots, and representatives of counties and towns.

In 1297, to get money for his wars, Edward accepted the Confirmation of Charters, agreeing that taxes must have the common assent of the whole realm. This was soon taken to mean assent in Parliament. In the following century, Parliament divided into two houses, Lords and Commons, and made good its claim to control taxation and to participate in the making of statutes. Edward conquered northwest Wales, ending the rule of its native princes. He built stone castles, adopted the Welsh longbow as an English weapon, and named his oldest son the Prince of Wales. He intervened in

Scottish affairs, even claiming the Scottish throne. Having fought the Scots often but with little effect, Edward died in 1307 without having subdued the northern kingdom. His son, Edward II, gave up the campaign.

Edward II was a weak king, partly influenced by favourites and partly dominated by the ordinances of 1311 that gave the barons the ruling power. Although he freed himself of baronial rule in 1322, he was forced to abdicate in 1327. His son, Edward III, got on well with the barons by keeping them busy in France, where England continued to hold extensive territory. In 1337 he initiated the Hundred Years' War to vindicate his claim to the French throne. The English had some initial success at Crécy (1346) and Poitiers (1356), where they used the English longbow with deadly effect against the French. By 1396, however, England had lost all its previous gains. The expense of the war repeatedly forced Edward to go to Parliament for taxes, enabling it to bargain for concessions and to establish its rights and privileges. The Black Death struck England in 1349, reducing the population by as much as a third. The Statute of Labourers (1351) tried to freeze wages and prevent serfs and workers from taking advantage of the resulting labour shortage. The Peasants' Revolt in 1381 reflected the continuing unrest. It was a time of economic and social change manorial service was being commuted to cash payments, and serfdom was on the way to its demise in the following century.

The move of the popes from Rome to Avignon in France (1309-76) and the Great Schism (1378-1417), in which rival popes opposed one another, caused a loss of English respect for the papacy. The Statutes of Provisors (1351, 1390) limited the pope's ability to appoint to church offices in England, and the Statutes of Praemunire (1353, 1393) prevented church courts from enforcing such appointments. John

Wycliffe, an Oxford professor, criticized corruption in the church and had ideas similar to those of the later Protestant reformers. In 1382 he was removed by an ecclesiastical court to the country parish at Lutterworth, and his ideas were declared heretical. His followers, the Lollards, were persecuted but not stamped out.

Richard II, the grandson of Edward III, began his reign when he was ten years old, with rival factions fighting for control of his government. As an adult he governed moderately until 1397, when he became involved in a struggle with the leading nobles. In 1399 his cousin, Henry, duke of Lancaster, forced him to abdicate and became king in his place as Henry IV.

Lesson 6: Lancastrian and Yorkist Britain

Since 1216 the royal succession had always gone to the king's eldest son. By this rule, Henry IV, the son of John of Gaunt, Edward III's fourth son, had no claim to the throne. The rightful heir was Edmund, earl of March (1391-1425), who was descended from Edward's third son. Because of the irregularity, Henry and his Lancastrian successors were not secure in their claim to the throne. This weakness was manifest in his concessions to Parliament and to the Church as well as in his wars with powerful and rebellious families in Wales and the North.

Henry V, who succeeded his father, had one ambition, to duplicate Edward III's military exploits in France. He won a brilliant victory at Agincourt in 1415 and had his success confirmed in the Treaty of Troyes (1420). He married the daughter of the mad French king, Charles VI, assumed control of the French government, although not the entire country, and could expect a son of this marriage to inherit both kingdoms.

In 1422 both Henry V and Charles VI died, bringing the nine-month-old Henry VI to the throne of both countries. For a time, Henry's able uncles, John of Lancaster, duke of Bedford, and Humphrey of Gloucester (1390-1447), held things together, the former in France, the latter in England. In 1429, however, **Joan of Arc** appeared, inspiring the French to fight with greater resolve. Although Joan was captured and burned as a heretic in 1431, the English position in France became increasingly precarious.

Henry VI was not capable of ruling; during his reign, control of the kingdom passed from one noble faction to another. The war in France only emphasized Henry's inability at home. The loss of Normandy in 1450 and the corruption of the government incited an abortive popular rebellion, led by Jack Cade. The loss of everything in France, except Calais, in 1453, was a prelude to the dynastic conflict called **the Wars of the Roses** (1455-85). The wars were fought between two branches of the royal family, the Lancastrians, who in the person of Henry VI possessed the throne but lacked the ability to rule, and the Yorkists, led by Richard, Duke of York (1411-60), who had a valid claim to the throne and greater ability. The issue was complicated in 1453, when the king's wife, Margaret of Anjou, gave birth to a son, destroying Richard's status as heir apparent.

The turning point in the wars came in 1460. That year Richard was killed in battle, and his cause was taken up by his son, Edward. Assisted by Richard Neville, earl of Warwick, he defeated the Lancastrians in 1461, took Henry captive, and so overawed Parliament that it acclaimed him king as Edward IV. Henry, however, escaped, and Edward's subsequent marriage (1464) to Elizabeth Woodville (1437-92) and his alliance with Burgundy alienated Warwick, who then joined forces with Margaret of Anjou to depose Edward and restore Henry to the throne (1470).

Edward returned the following year, supported by his brother-in-law, Charles the Bold of Burgundy, and decisively defeated the Lancastrians. Thereafter, he was secure on the throne and restored some degree of sound government. When Edward died in 1483, the throne went to his 12-year-old son, Edward V, but it was usurped three months later by the boy's uncle, Richard, duke of Gloucester, who became king as **Richard III**. Two years later, Henry Tudor, asserting a weak Lancastrian claim, defeated Richard at Bosworth and became Henry VII.

The 15th century was a time of trouble and change. The country was ravaged by war and plague, and the population did not begin to increase again until near the end of the century. The weakness of the royal government allowed a break-down of law and order. Feudal barons with their retainers became powerful unto themselves, a condition often called bastard feudalism. The once great export of wool declined sharply but was gradually replaced by woolen cloth, the product of a new cottage industry. Landlords exploited the demand for wool by enclosing land and raising more sheep, disrupting the age-old economy of the countryside but laying the foundation for growth. All that England needed was a king who could restore efficiency to the royal government and bring law and order to the countryside. Henry VII in 1485 appointed himself to do just that. Seldom have a man and his mission been more happily matched.

Lesson 7: Tudor Britain

The Tudor dynasty ruled England from 1485 to 1603. Their story encompasses some of the most dramatic and unforgettable events in European history. Their dynasty was full of colourful characters and big events. The Tudors were able to establish England

as a world power. They also gave England a century of dynastic stability. Most Tudor monarchs came to the throne - and remained on the throne -unchallenged.

Henry VII possessed only his ability and the ancient name and audacity of his Welsh ancestors. His grandfather had married the widow of Henry V, and his father had married Margaret Beaufort, who was descended illegitimately from Edward III. Henry's only claim to the throne was his victory at Bosworth and his subsequent success. Henry got rid of his Yorkist rivals, including some impostors. He married Elizabeth (1465-1503), Edward IV's daughter, and soon had a nursery full of babies, the only Tudor so blessed. He gained recognition abroad, from Spain in 1489 by the Treaty of Medina del Campo, and then from France, the Netherlands, and Scotland. He restored strong, efficient government, such as England had once enjoyed but lacked for many years. He promoted English trade, which he could tax, avoided foreign wars, and saved money. He became rich and powerful, commanding England's respect if not its love.

Ruthless, ambitious and bold, Henry VIII was a vivid contrast to his careful, father. Humanist scholars praised him; one of them, Thomas More, served in his government. Almost as a gesture of how his reign would proceed, one of Henry’s first decisions was to order the arrest and the execution of Sir Richard Empson and Edward Dudley – the two men who had been responsible for implementing Henry VII’s financial measures. (Collection of taxes) In 1513 Henry won the Battle of the Spurs in France and beat the Scots at Flodden. He exhausted his inherited wealth, but won fame and discovered the talents of Cardinal Thomas Wolsey, who as chancellor and archbishop of York dominated the years 1514-29.

The blight on Henry's reign was his desire for a male heir. Although his wife, Catherine of Aragón, bore him six children, only one, later Mary I survived infancy.

Wanting a son, and smitten by the dark eyes of Anne Boleyn, Henry appealed to the pope for a divorce. When the all-capable Wolsey could not obtain it, Henry dismissed him and summoned the Reformation Parliament. The result was the Church of England, with Henry as supreme head, separate from Rome but otherwise Catholic. **Anne Boleyn**, whom Henry was now free to marry (1533), gave birth not to a son but to another daughter, Elizabeth. Anne soon lost the king's favour and was beheaded for alleged adultery. Henry's third wife, Jane Seymour, died giving birth to Edward, his only surviving son. Three later wives, one of whom he divorced and another of whom was beheaded, had no children.

Thomas Cromwell, Henry's second administrative genius, oversaw the revolutionary changes of the 1530s: the break with Rome and dissolution of the monasteries, the new growth of Parliament, especially the House of Commons, and the creation out of the old King's Council of a new bureaucratic structure including the Privy Council and the prerogative courts, which were controlled by the Crown.

Under Edward VI, a minor dominated successively by Edward Seymour, duke of Somerset, and John Dudley, duke of Northumberland, the English Church became Protestant. Parliament's Acts of Uniformity enforced the Book of Common Prayer. When Edward died at the age of 16, Northumberland tried to save Protestantism and himself by placing Edward's Protestant cousin, **Lady Jane Grey**, on the throne instead of his Catholic Princess Mary. The attempt failed and Jane 'who ruled for 9 days only, was arrested and executed.

Mary I, the daughter of Catherine of Aragón, restored the Roman Catholic Church and married her cousin, Philip II of Spain. Her burning of almost 300 Protestants made the people hate her and Rome, however, and her marriage led to war with France and

the loss of Calais. When Bloody Mary, as she was known, died in November 1558, England rejoiced in the accession of her half sister Elizabeth.

Elizabeth I, one of England's greatest sovereigns, had her grandfather's frugality and care and her father's imperious manner and his ability to charm and overwhelm. She had a sense of what people wanted and would allow and had the judgment to pick able and devoted ministers. Cooperating with Parliament, she settled the church in 1559 on a moderate course. She neutralized the Scottish threat by helping the Protestant and pro-English faction to win dominance there. She assisted the Protestant rebels in the Spanish Netherlands and encouraged English sailors to raid Spanish ships on the high seas. Her navy defeated the Spanish Armada in 1588 and prevented the invasion of England.

Ireland, increasingly rebellious and vulnerable as a possible point of foreign attack, was finally completely conquered in 1603. Elizabeth presided over England's rise to glory abroad and to prosperity and literary achievement at home, justifiably giving her name to England's golden age.

Lesson 8: Stuart Britain

Elizabeth was followed to the throne by James VI of Scotland, who became **James I** of England. James believed in the absolute power of the monarchy, and he had a rocky relationship with an increasingly vociferous and demanding Parliament. It would be a mistake to think of Parliament as a democratic institution, or the voice of the common citizen. Parliament was a forum for the interests of the nobility and the merchant classes.

James was a firm protestant, and in 1604 he expelled all Catholic priests from the island. This was one of the factors which led to the **Gunpowder Plot** of 1605. A group of Catholic plotters planned to blow up Parliament when it opened on November 5. However, an anonymous letter betrayed the plot and one of the plotters, **Guy Fawkes**, was captured in the cellars of the Houses of Parliament with enough gunpowder to blow the place sky high. Most of the plotters were captured and executed.

During James' reign radical Protestant groups called Puritans began to gain a sizeable following. Puritans wanted to "purify" the church by paring down church ritual, educating the clergy, and limiting the powers of bishops. King James resisted this last. The powers of the church and king were too closely linked. "No bishop, no king," he said. The Puritans also favoured thrift, education, and individual initiative; therefore they found great support among the new middle class of merchants, the powers in the Commons. James' attitude toward Parliament was clear. He commented in 1614 that he was surprised his ancestors "should have permitted such an institution to come into existence....It is sedition in subjects to dispute what a king may do in the height of his power".

Charles I (1625-49) continued his father's acrimonious relationship with Parliament, squabbling over the right to levy taxes. Parliament responded with the **Petition of Right** in 1628. It was the most dramatic assertion of the traditional rights of the English people since the Magna Charta. Its basic premise was that no taxes of any kind could be allowed without the permission of Parliament. Charles finally had enough, and in 1629 he dissolved Parliament and ruled without it for eleven years. Some of the ways he raised money during this period were of dubious legality by the standards of the time. Between 1630-43 large numbers of people emigrated from

England as Archbishop Laud tried to impose uniformity on the church. Up to 60,000 people left, 1/3 of them to the new American colonies. Several areas lost a large part of their populations, and laws were enacted to curb the outflow.

In 1634 Charles attempted to levy "**ship-money**", a tax that previously applied only to ports, on the whole country. This raised tremendous animosity throughout the realm. Finally Charles, desperate for money, summoned the so-called Short Parliament in 1640. Parliament refused to vote Charles more money until its grievances were answered, and the king dismissed it after only three weeks. Then a rebellion broke out in Scotland and Charles was forced to call a new Parliament, dubbed the Long Parliament, which officially sat until 1660.

The Civil War

Parliament made increasing demands, which the king refused to meet. Neither side was willing to budge. Finally in 1642 fighting broke out. The English Civil War (1642-1646) polarized society largely along class lines. Parliament drew most of its support from the middle classes, while the king was supported by the nobility, the clergy, and the peasantry. Parliamentary troops were known as **Roundheads** because of their severe hair style. The king's troops were known as **Cavaliers**, from the French for "knight", or "horseman".

The war began as a series of indecisive skirmishes notable for not much beyond the emergence of a Parliamentary general from East Anglia named Cromwell whipped his irregular volunteer troops into the disciplined New Model Army. Meanwhile, Charles established the royalist headquarters in Oxford, called his own Parliament, and issued his own money. He also allied himself with Irish Catholics, which alienated some of his supporters. To the poor, the turmoil over religion around the Civil War meant little.

They were bound by tradition and they supported the king, as they always had. Charles encouraged poor relief, unemployment measures, price controls, and protection for small farmers. For most people, life during the Civil War went on as before. Few were involved or even knew about the fighting.

The turning point of the war was probably that same Battle of Marston Moor (1644). Charles' troops under his nephew Prince Rupert were soundly beaten by Cromwell, giving Parliament control of the north of England. Above the border Lord Montrose captured much of Scotland for Charles, but was beaten at Philiphaugh and Scot support was lost for good. The Parliamentary cause became increasingly entangled with extreme radical Protestantism. In 1645 Archbishop Laud was executed, and in the same year the Battle of Naseby spelled the end of the royalist hopes. Hostilities dragged on for another year, and the Battle of Stow-on-the-Wold (1646) was the last armed conflict of the war.

Charles rather foolishly stuck to his absolutist beliefs and refused every proposal made by Parliament and the army for reform. He preferred to try to play them against each other through intrigue and deception. He signed a secret treaty which got the Scots to rise in revolt, but that threat was snuffed out at Prestonpans (1648). Finally, the radical core of Parliament had enough. They believed that only the execution of the king could prevent the kingdom from descending into anarchy. Charles was tried for treason in 1649, before a Parliament whose authority he refused to acknowledge. He was executed outside Inigo Jones' Banqueting Hall at Whitehall on January 30.

The next eleven years saw the rule of the **Commonwealth** (1649-60). Ostensibly Parliament was in control, but the real power lay with Cromwell and the army. It was just as well that the army was still standing, for Charles' son landed in Scotland, had

himself declared Charles II, and invaded England. He was defeated by Cromwell at Worcester (1650) and forced to hide in a tree to avoid capture, before successfully fleeing to France.

Eventually the conflict between Cromwell and Parliament came to a head with Cromwell establishing the Protectorate (1653-58). This was essentially a monarchy by another name, with Cromwell at its head. His rule was a time of rigid social and religious laws on radical Protestant lines. Cromwell's government divided the country into 11 districts, each under a major general, who were responsible not only for tax collection and justice, but for guarding public morality as well. Church attendance was compulsory. Horse racing and cockfights were banned, plays were prohibited, gambling dens and brothels were closed, as were many alehouses. Drunkenness and blasphemy were harshly dealt with. People being people, these measures were extremely unpopular.

Cromwell had a bodyguard of 160 men during the Protectorate. In the end he was just as dictatorial and autocratic as Charles and James had been. He called Parliament when he needed money and dismissed it when it argued. On Cromwell's death his son, Richard, tried to carry on as Lord Protector (1658-59), but he was not the forceful character that his father had been. The results of the Commonwealth and the Protectorate confirmed in the English a hatred of military rule and the severe Puritanism associated with it. From this point on, Parliament opposed Puritanism vigorously.

The Restoration

In 1660 Parliament offered to restore the monarchy if Charles would agree to concessions for religious toleration and a general amnesty. Charles was not as hard-headed as his father, and he agreed to the proposals. He returned to London on a wave of popular support to be crowned Charles II (1660-85). Charles' closest five advisors had initials which formed the Word "Cabal", which came to mean a secret association because they were suspected to be the real power behind the throne. The Restoration was notable for a relaxation of the strict Puritan morality of the previous decades. Theatre, sports, and dancing were revived. Charles' court was notable for its revelry and licentiousness. While Charles was enjoying his new court, he was less than successful internationally. The English fought a losing naval war with the Dutch, and England's presence on the high seas had never been so low.

Charles II was succeeded by his brother **James II** (1685-88). James was a Catholic, and he made several awkward attempts to re-establish the rights of Catholics, which succeeded only in allying the Whigs and Tories against him**.** Popular opinion grew against James after a son was born to him, raising the prospect of a Catholic dynasty. Parliament extended an invitation to the firmly Protestant William and **Mary of Orange** to take the English throne. James fled to France, where Louis XIV set him up with a Stuart "court".

William and Mary (1689-1702) ruled England jointly. Parliament ensured that they would never again have to deal with the like of James, by passing the 1689 **Bill of Rights,** which prohibited Catholics from ruling. In 1694 another watershed was reached, when a group of merchants willing to loan the government money banded together to form the Bank of England.

William outlived Mary, and he was followed by the second daughter of James II, Queen Anne (1702-14). In 1707 the Act of Union brought together Scotland and England to form Great Britain. The Union Jack was adopted as the new national flag, incorporating the crosses of St. George (England) and St. Andrew (Scotland). In 1713 hostilities in Europe took a short break, and the Treaty of Utrecht gave England a host of new territories, including Newfoundland, Acadia, St. Kitts, Minorca, and Gibraltar. Anne had seventeen children, all of whom predeceased her, so on her death the throne went to the Bavarian, George of Hanover.

Lesson 9: Georgian Britain

When Queen Anne died without any heirs, the English throne was offered to her nearest Protestant relative, George of Hanover, who thus became George I of England. Throughout the long reign of George, his son, and grandson, all named George, the very nature of English society and the political face of the realm changed. In part this was because the first two Georges took little interest in the politics of rule, and were quite content to let ministers rule on their behalf. These ministers, representatives of the king, or Prime Ministers, rather enjoyed ruling, and throughout this "Georgian period" the foundations of English political party system were solidified into something resembling what we have today. But more than politics changed; English society underwent a revolution in art and architecture. This was the age of the grand country house, when many of the great stately homes that we can visit today were built. Abroad, the English acquired more and more territory overseas through conquest and settlement, lands that would eventually make up an Empire stretching to every corner of the globe.

George I (1714-27) was magnificently unsuited to rule England. He spoke not a word of English, and his slow, pedantic nature did not sit well with the English. One of the results of George's inability or disinterest in ruling the English was that he handed over his authority to trusted politicians. This marked the origin of the office of the Prime Minister and the cabinet system of government. The Duke of Marlborough's successes in the War of the Spanish Succession had been gained on credit, without monies granted, and the government was badly in debt. The South Sea Company was created to absorb the debt. It was little more than a paper company, founded through bribery of government officials and royals. The idea was that the whole of the £31 million national debt could be converted into company stock. Speculation went sky high and the stock became grossly inflated. Inevitably, the stock crashed, bringing down the government and bankrupting investors. After the "South Sea Bubble" burst, finances were put firmly in the hands of the Bank of England, with the result that the English economy became the best managed in Europe over the next several centuries.

George II (1727-60) continued the Hanoverian rule. Early in his reign (1736) John Wesley began preaching in England. The subsequent Wesleyan societies and later Methodist churches acted as a conservative deterrent to the tide of social unrest and political radicalism that swept much of Europe during the 18th century.

The year 1753 saw the founding of the British Museum. To the private collections of Sir Hans Sloane and Sir Robert Cotton were added the library of the earls of Oxford and the old Royal library founded by Henry VII. The museum was originally stored in Montagu House, purchased with the proceeds of a public lottery. By the mid 19th century the collection had outgrown Montagu House, so it was torn down and the present building erected under the supervision of Sir Robert Smirke. England then

engaged in the Seven Years' War with France (1755-63). England was victorious just about everywhere, gaining territory in Canada, Florida, Grenada, Senegal, and in America east of the Mississippi. Overseas, the East India Company had established trading posts at Calcutta and Madras. From there they fought with the French for trade supremacy in India. Under Robert Clive ("Clive of India"), the English defeated a combined Indian and French force at Plassey in 1757, and the subcontinent was open to a monopoly by the East India Company.

Unlike his grandfather, George III (1760-1820) could at least speak the language of the country he ruled, but he was troubled by periods of insanity that rendered him unfit to rule. Several times Parliament considered putting his son (imaginatively named George also) on the throne, only to have the king recover his faculties before the deed was done. His reign saw the loss of the American colonies in the American Revolution (1775-83). Closer to home the Gordon Riots of 1780 began as a protest against the specter of Catholic emancipation and ended with London in the hands of an uncontrollable mob. In 1799 the United Irishmen rebelled on behalf of Irish autonomy, but they were defeated at Vinegar Hill. Two years later Ireland was officially unified with Great Britain to form the United Kingdom.

In the meantime the Napoleonic Wars (1793-1815) with France occupied centre stage. Fighting was sporadic, punctuated by English naval victories at the Battle of the Nile (1798) and Trafalgar (1805), where England's one-armed naval commander, Horatio Nelson, died in action. On land the armies under the control of Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, gradually pushed Napoleon out of the Iberian Peninsula and brought him to bay at Waterloo, near Brussels, Belgium. Industrial unrest grew as new machines threw manual labourers out of work. Agitators known as

Luddites (after their imaginary leader, Ned Ludd), broke into factories and smashed machinery in an attempt to preserve their jobs. It was a vain attempt. The advantages of the new steam-driven machines were only too clear, at least to the factory owners. The Early Industrial Revolution intensified class distinctions. Under the Enclosure Acts of the late 18th century wealthy landowners built large farms and introduced improved farming methods. This meant that fewer agricultural workers were needed, so most moved to the towns and became the work force of the Industrial Revolution.

Contrary to expectation, the end of the Napoleonic Wars brought economic disaster, depression, and mass unemployment. The Corn Law of 1815 excluded foreign grain temporarily, which had the effect of driving up prices. Agitation for social reform grew. The government's response to the agitation was repression, and in 1819 at Peterloo, near Manchester, protests were answered by armed force, resulting in several dead and hundreds injured. This "*Peterloo Massacre*" was followed by the repressive Six Acts, aimed at quashing dissent. One result of these government moves was the "Cato Street Conspiracy", a plot to assassinate the whole cabinet, occupy the Bank of England, and establish a new government. The plot was stopped, and when the details became known many moderates turned away from the reformers' cause.

It finally became clear that George III was no longer fit to rule, and his son was established as Prince Regent (1810-20). "Prinnie", as he was called by his intimates, was an impulsive, Bacchanalian character, given to extravagance and excess. However, some of his excesses have become national treasures, such as the Brighton Pavilion, a ludicrously appealing taste of the Far East on the Channel coast. On a personal level the Prince Regent had several mistresses, one of whom, Mrs. Fitzherbert, he is alleged to have secretly married. An underground passage links the Brighton Pavilion with her

house close by. When the Prince Regent finally became king (1820-30), he was at the centre of a public relations fiasco when he tried to prevent his estranged wife, Caroline, from attending the Coronation. Then came a messy and unsuccessful divorce trial, where Caroline came out much the better in popular opinion than the king.

Under the government of Robert Peel a move began towards legal and social reform. Peel was responsible for the establishment of the first regular police force in London, nicknamed "Peelers" or "Bobbies" after him. The new Corn Law of 1828 relaxed tariffs on foreign grain, and the Catholic Emancipation Bill (1829) gave Catholics the right to vote, sit in Parliament, and hold public office. Following years saw the beginning of electoral reform. The abuses of previous generations had created a system which was ludicrously unfair and corrupt by modern standards. Voters' qualifications were different in different areas. Some "Pocket boroughs" returned whoever the local magnate nominated. Some "rotten boroughs" had as many members of Parliament as there were electors. This situation was slow to change.

The reign of George's brother, William IV (1830-37), was followed by that of Queen Victoria (1837-1901). Only 18 when she came to the throne, Victoria oversaw England at the height of its overseas power. The British Empire was established in her reign, and it reached its greatest expanse under her.

Lesson 10: The Victorian Age

The Victorian Age derived its only unity from the continuous presence of the Queen on the throne. Victoria reigned over England for 64 years (1837-1901), the longest reign

ever by an English monarch. Popular respect for the Crown was at a low point at her coronation, but the modest and straightforward young Queen won the hearts of her subjects.

Early Victorian England, from the beginning of the reign to the Great Exhibition in the Crystal Palace in 1851, was torn by social conflicts led by the Chartists, a working class movement, demanding the right to vote and to enter parliament. The movement appeared as a reaction to the Reform Act of 1832 which gave political power to the middle class only.

Mid Victorian England (1851-1873) was a symbol of material prosperity. New inventions, the railway, the telegraph and the steamship, to name but a few brought the products and the news of the world ready to the doorsteps of all. In towns, main streets were paved and better cleaned. In London, for example, life at night was safer because there was street lighting. Travelling was easier as there were more horse-drawn carriages and holidays by the sea were a possibility for many people.

This prosperity was demonstrated in the Great Exhibition of 1851 where people from the entire world came to see the high level of development England had reached and great achievements. During this period, there were no working class movements. Chartism had died and social harmony prevailed. All the classes believed in two virtues or qualities: thrift and self-help. All the country believed in these Victorian values and their most defender was Samuel Smiles with his book Self-Help (1859).According to him, in order to progress and improve its conditions, the working class should adopt Victorian values as saving, self-help, hard work, competition and religious virtues. These values had made England a great and wealthy nation.

The belief in Victorian values, especially thrift and self –help led to the emergence of various associations such as the Savings Banks where small sums of money could be deposited and people received a small interest. In this way, the government encouraged people to save and practise thrift. In addition to Savings Banks, there were Friendly Societies. Their aim was to help in times of trouble, sickness, accident, unemployment, old age and death. These societies continued to exist and function until the beginning of the 20th century when social security became the responsibility of the government. Victorian England was also famous for its Co-operative Societies for consumers. Money was collected from the workers, and then a place was rented in which goods like butter, eggs or tea were sold at a low price. The goods went directly from the producers to the consumers.

All these solutions were a demonstration of the spirit of solidarity that was developing among the working class, especially with the Laisser-Faire policy which meant that no help could come from the government. In addition to that, the working class social organization was a proof that people accepted industrialism and adapted themselves to it

Late Victorian England (1873-1901)

Beginning in 1873, the favourable economic conditions of the 1850' and 1860' gave way to economic depression. This was due to foreign competition from powerful new countries, notably United Germany and an increasingly industrialized United States. The effects of such competition were particularly obvious in industries like iron, coal and steel. For example, German coal production increased by 53% between 1873 and 1883 while that of Britain increased by 29%. In addition to that, the enormous demand of foreign countries for British iron and steel to build the railway decreased because

America and some European countries could now produce great quantities of their own iron and steel.

In Political life, the Victorian Age saw a steady but limited progress of democracy both in National and local government with the Reform Acts of 1888-94 as landmarks. More and more people gained the right to vote. Education was opened to all. However, the social and political power of the aristocracy remained considerable. At the end Victoria's reign, neither the working class nor the middle class succeeded in capturing power. The Conservative party was the most powerful party in the state and even the Liberal party included an influential aristocratic core. Victoria herself was no admirer of democracy although most of her actions were within the constitution.

Culturally, the Victorian Age brought a flowering in learning and literature. Charles Darwin made great contributions to our knowledge of biology as did Michael Faraday in the new field of electrical research. Browning, Tennyson and Rossetti gave splendour to English poetry, Carlyle wrote history and Mill wrote philosophy while Dickens and a host of others made the Victorian Novel one of the noblest products of the time.

Expansionism

Another major characteristic of Victoria's reign was the continued expansion of the British Empire. The pivot of the empire was India of which she was made empress in 1876.A new type of empire was being built in the dominions of white settlements, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. In the last 20 years of her reign, a tropical empire was created in Africa and Asia.

Lesson 11: The Agricultural Revolution

Part One:

I- The Open Field System:

In 1750 most farmland was cultivated under the open field system. Crops were grown on strips of land in huge field which surrounded each village. Every landowner had strips scattered all around the field .But most villagers did not own any land. They were either tenant farmers who rented strips from the landowners or labourers who worked on other people's land.

Each year, wheat was grown in one of the great fields and barley or oats in another. A third field was always left fallow for a year to allow the soil to recover. Another area of land was always left uncultivated. This was the common land, where the villagers who had common rights' could graze their animals. This open field system wasted land .The fallow field was the most obvious waste. But many of the landowners thought that the common land was wasted too. Time was also wasted farmers had to keep taking their tools, animals and seeds from one strip to another. The livestock also suffered. All of the animals mixed on the common land. So diseases spread and the best animals interbred with the worst. The open field system lasted for centuries, but things changed.

The population of Britain trebled between 1750 and 1850 from about 7 million to about 21 million. This meant more people needing food. The price of farm products started to go up. There were big profits to be made by any farmers who could produce more, so some of them began to want to change the open field system.

II-Enclosures

In villages where there were only a small number of landowners, they sometimes got together and swapped strips so that each owner's land was brought together into a large unit. Each owner could then enclose his land with hedges into several small fields and farm it separately. This was called **voluntary enclosure**. These farmers were able to make more profit than others. Sometimes the landowners couldn't agree. In these cases, if the owners of 80% of the land asked parliament, they could get a law passed to force enclosure on the rest of the village. This was called **parliamentary enclosure**. In these cases, the law would usually include the common land in the land divided among the landowners. All those who lost common rights would get a share of land to compensate them. Parliament enclosures became more and more common after 1750. There were 4000 Acts passed between 1750 and 1810, enclosing over 5 million acres.

III- The Effects of the enclosures:

Enclosure Acts were expensive. Fees had to be paid to solicitors and surveyors, and then new hedges, paths and roads had to be built. The cost of all this was paid by the landowners. This was fine for the large landowners, but some of the small landowners, called yeomen farmers, could not afford it and had to sell their land to pay their costs. Before enclosure, many landowners rented out most of their land in small units to tenant farmers. But after enclosure, most landowners wanted fewer tenants renting larger farms. Some of the tenant farmers had to take jobs as farm labourers. Farm labourers sometimes had cause to complain too. The common land had been a valuable source of free firewood, fruit, as well as a place to graze their chicken or pigs. Enclosure often divided up the common land among the landowners. Any tiny plot

which the labourers got as compensation was nothing compared with what they had lost.

The long term effects of enclosures benefited most people, because they allowed farmers to adopt many new methods which were more efficient .The open field system had meant that all farmers had to agree about the way in which the great fields were cultivated. Because everyone shared the land, there was no room for variation. But with the enclosed fields farmers could use their initiative to introduce any new methods they wanted to experiment with.

Part Two:

King George III had shown such a great interest in the agricultural improvements taking place in England that he was known as "**Farmer George**." He had much to be proud of; his countrymen were at the forefront of creating changes in the way the land was farmed and livestock raised that would dramatically change the face of agriculture, an undertaking that had for so long been traditionally conservative and opposed to change.

In 1600 a book entitled "Theatre d' agriculture des champs" had been published in France by **Huguento Oliver de Serres** recommending revolutionary changes in crop growing methods. It had been mainly ignored by all, but there were some in England who took notice. There, land enclosures had been taking place steadily since the dissolution of monasteries under Henry VIII, with the great barons amassing huge swathes of the best agricultural lands when the King sold them off. Massive numbers of peasants and small owners were displaced.

A riot against enclosures in Elizabeth's reign was severely dealt with, and the enclosures continued apace. Notorious winter weather continued to plague a system that was reluctant to introduce major changes except to increase the amount of land available for the raising of sheep and cattle. Potatoes had been planted in the German states as early as early as 1621 though much of Europe remained in fear of the tubers spreading leprosy but their food value was too great to be ignored.

By 1631, potato production in Europe was so great that a population explosion ensued. In England, population growth had been more or less increasing at the same slow rate for hundreds of years, but began a rapid rise in the 18th century. It was simply a matter of the nation being better fed. Land enclosures may have been protested against vigorously by the peasantry, but, they did result in better management, allowed for selective breeding of stock and experiments with fertilization and machinery that produced better crops.

In 1701 Jethro Tull's seed-planting drill had enormously increased crop production and lessened waste. Tull had studied farming methods on the continent and was not reluctant to introduce them into England. In 1733, he invented the two-wheeled plough and the four-coulter plough, both of which strenuously resisted at first by his laborers, had a great impact on future methods of cultivation.

Another great pioneer was "Turnip" Townsend, Secretary of State under George III and Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. Townsend also studied foreign methods of land use and introduced the practice of **crop rotation** into England, using turnips and clover to revitalize land left fallow and to provide winter food for livestock, whose manure in turn fertilized his fields. Townsend was followed by Thomas Coke who worked on the principle "No fodder, no beasts: no beasts, no manure: no manure, no crops." At

Holkham, Coke continually worked on ways to improve crop yield, contributing greatly to better breeds of both cattle and sheep.

It is to Robert Bakewell, however, that most of England's outstanding success in producing better breeds of sheep and cattle is to be attributed. Bakewell pioneered in the methods of selection and the secret of breeding, including breeding the new Leicester sheep. Farm animals became fatter, hardier and healthier. Britain became a meat-eating nation, but also enjoyed better and more reliable supplies of bread and vegetables.

Even as early as 1707, England was enjoying the fruits of its explorations and settlements in India. The opening of Fortnum and Mason s in London that year attests to the increased demand for foreign delicacies English farmers having produced sufficient basic necessities. In particular, farmers had realized that beef and mutton would be more profitable than powers of draught and quantities of wool. In the latter part of the century, Arthur Young's tenure as Secretary of the Board of Agriculture ensured that the new farming methods were accepted throughout the nation (though it took many years for English farmers to utilize the iron plow, developed in 1784 by James Small).

In 1786, Scotsman Andrew Meilde developed the first successful threshing machine. In addition, following the publication of Lady Montagu's "Inoculation against Smallpox" in 1718 and after the work of Edward Jenner in 1790's, the killing disease began to be eliminated in England. Hand in hand with the vast improvements in agriculture and medicine, an industrial revolution was taking place that would also change the world forever.

Lesson 12: The Industrial Revolution

The progress of the industrial revolution is a long catalog of mechanical inventions by which the labour and skill of the human worker was replaced by machines. It had its beginnings in the depletion of England's forests in Elizabethan times to provide timber to build its great navies.

Coal was a ready substitute as fuel and it was abundant. The early part of the 17th century brought a new emphasis on coal mining though effective methods of extracting it had to wait until developments in the steam engine took place and mines could be drained of their ever-present water. The enormous increase in the price of firewood fueled a rush to find and extract more coal. By 1655, even under the most primitive mining conditions, Newcastle was producing half a million tons a year.

But coal was expensive and dangerous to mine. In 1627, Edward Somerset had invented a crude steam engine. This was of little use, but in 1698, English engineer **Thomas Savery** improved matters with his crude steam-powered "miner's friend" to pump water out of coal mines. A further advance came in 1705, when **Thomas Newcomen** produced his steam engine to pump water out of mines. In 1709 a major breakthrough occurred when Abraham Darby, who made iron boilers for the Newcomen engine, discovered that coke, made from coal, could substitute for wood in a smelting furnace to make pig and cast iron. The industrial revolution was on its way, the whole process being geared to producing for profit and ushering in a totally new economic system.

In 1739, Benjamin Huntsman rediscovered the ancient method of making crucible steel at Sheffield; soon to become a major British steel producer. In 1754, the first iron rolling mill was established in Hampshire, the same year that the Society for the

Encouragement of Arts and Manufacture was formed. In the 1760's the Bridgewater Canal was opened to link Liverpool, England's major port (which had profited enormously from the slave trade) with Leeds, a centre of manufacturing. It heralded an era of rapid canal building, joining cities and towns all over the nation and enabling manufactured goods and raw supplies to be shipped anywhere they were needed.

In 1765, James Watt produced his steam engine, a far more efficient source of power than that of Newcomen. During the same year, Brindley's Grand Truck Canal began construction to link the western and eastern coastal ports of Britain. In 1769, Watt entered into partnership with Mathew Boulton to produce his steam engines which would revolutionize industry and the world. In 1782, English ironmaster Henry Cort perfected his process of puddling iron, completely changing the way wrought iron is produced, totally freeing it from its dependence upon charcoal for fuel, and giving further impetus to the search for coal. The mining industry benefited greatly from Humphrey Davy's invention of a safety lamp for miners in 1815.

At the same time that coal mining and iron manufacturing were making such rapid progress, the textile industry was also changing English society. Labour costs had been halved by the invention of Kay's flying shuttle in 1733, the first of the inventions by which the textile industry was transformed. The same year saw the invention of a spinning machine by Wyatte and Paul that redressed the gap between spinning and weaving. In 1765, Hargreave's spinning jenny completed the balance, for it allowed enough thread to be produced for the weavers.

The move away from the cottage industry to the factory system was further hastened in 1769 with Arkwright's invention of a frame that could produce cotton thread hard and firm enough to produce woven fabric. English cotton mills began to

proliferate in Lancashire and Yorkshire. Both English and US economies were to benefit from Eli Whitney's cotton gin of 1792. In 1805 Scotsman Patrick Clark developed a cotton thread that was to replace linen thread on Britain's looms. The woollen industry was also to benefit enormously from the new machinery, especially in Yorkshire. In 1779, Samuel Crompton devised his spinning mule, a landmark in the industrial revolution.

With the steam engine replacing animal, wind, or water power, the Golden Age of domestic industry was now over, and the lines of the factory system were laid down. Sporadic riots against the employment of the new machinery did nothing to halt their proliferation and with the increase came a shift in the way industry was financed. The factory system was responsible for the development of the joint capitalist enterprise that became such a powerful force in the nation’s economic affairs. The steam engine also affected and completely transformed transportation and though the canals had their glorious years, they were soon eclipsed by the railroad.

James Watt patented his double-acting rotary steam engine in 1782, a great improvement of his earlier invention. It was used to drive machinery of all kinds, beginning two years later at a textile factory in Nottinghamshire. Women and children now left their homes and their spinning wheels and looms to work in the mills, at first furnished by the rapidly flowing steams of the North, but more powered by steam.

The 1870's saw the introduction of steam to power riverboats, in which the work of American inventors, John Fitch, James Rumsey and Robert Fulton and the Scot William Simynton led the way. The adaptation of Richard Trevithick's high pressure steam engine to propel a road vehicle in 1800 is a major milestone in the development of railroad. In 1804, in a trial run, Trevithick carried 10 tons of iron and 70 men by

steam engine run on rails at Merthyr Tydfil in Wales. The locomotive had arrived on the world's scene.

Only three years later the first paying passengers were taken on the mineral railroad world linking Mumbles with Swansea, South Wales, using horses for power (it lasted until 1960 when the electric trams were discontinued). English inventor, George Stephenson ran his steam locomotive on the Killingworth colliery railway in 1814, the first to go into regular service. In September 1825, the world's first steam locomotive passenger service began at Stockton-Darlington Railway.

The S.S. Aaron Manby, the first iron steamship was launched in April, 1822 but it took many years for iron to displace wood in the world's navies. During the same year, the first iron railroad bridge was completed by George Stephenson for the pioneering Stockton-Darlington line.

The snowball effect of all these inventions continued throughout the century. In 1856 Bessemer introduced his revolutionary steel-making process, and a new industry was given to England and the world.

Bibliography:

Ashley, M. (2024). England in the Seventeenth Century, London: Routledge.

History of United Kingdom, Encyclopaedia Britannica

Jenkins, S. (2013) A Short History of England century, London: AbeBooks.

Jones, D. (2012) .The Plantagenets: The Warrior Kings and Queens Who Made England, London: Penguin Books.

Morris. M. (2021). The Anglo-Saxons: A History of the Beginnings of England, New York
City: Pegasus Books

---. (2012). The Norman Conquest, New York: Pegasus Books.

Plumb. J. H. (l964). England in the Eighteenth century, London: Penguin Group.

Sheerin, S. (1983). Spotlight on Britain, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Weir, A. (1991). The Children of Henry VIII, New York City: The Ballantine Books.

---. (1996). The Six Wives of Henry VIII, London: Thames & Hudson Ltd.

---. (1995). The Wars of the Roses, London: Thames & Hudson Ltd

Semester Two: American Civilization

Course Objectives:

Upon completion of this course, students will:

➢Identify the diverse geographical areas of the US

➢Identify the different indigenous peoples that inhabited the New World before the arrival of the Europeans

➢Know about the first white settlements in the US and the life of the settlers

➢Understand the key events that led to the colonists' separation from their motherland and the creation of their own state (USA)

➢Discover the institutions of the new country and how each of them works

➢Learn how the new country expanded its area and population after independence.

➢Know the challenges the new country faced

Prerequisites:

➢ Students should have minimum background knowledge of American history

Course Requirements:

Students are strongly advised to read the following books:

➢"An Outline of American History", (1949) Washington DC: United States Information Agency

➢Degler, Carl. (1983). Out of Our Past: The Forces That Shaped Modern America, New York City: Harper Perennial

Syllabus

➢The Native Americans

-the Hopi and Zuni, the Apache, the Pima and the Papago

-The Yaquis and Pimas

-Creeks, Choctaws, Cherokees, Seminoles

-Algonquians, the Iroquois, and the Muskogeans

➢English America

-Virginia Company and Massachusetts Bay Company,

-The Mayflower

-The Puritans and the Pilgrim Fathers

-Jamestown and Plymouth

-The House of Burgesses and the townships

➢The Birth of the American Nation

-The Molasses Act

-The Seven Years War

-The Stamp Act

-The Sons of Liberty

-The Boston Massacre

-The Boston Tea Party

-The Declaration of Independence

-The American Revolution

➢The Government and Constitution

-State government vs. Federal government

- Bicameral Congress

-Checks and balances

➢**The Geopolitical expansion of the USA**

-Purchase of Louisiana, Florida and Alaska

-Annexation of California, New Mexico and Texas

➢**Slavery**

-Polarization of society

-North vs. South

-Slave escape

-Abraham Lincoln

➢**The Civil War**

-Secession

-House Divided

-The victory of the North

➢**The Reconstruction**

- Lincoln's assassination

-The Black Codes

-The Civil Right Act

-The Freedmen’s Bureau

-The 14th Amendment

-The Ku Klux Klan (KKK)

♦ **The following lessons are suggested for the implementation of the syllabus:**

Lesson 1: An Outline of American Geography

The Geographic Regions

The United States of America is the land of many ideals; political and religious freedom, economic opportunities, democracy, myths and dreams. In order to understand the United States, it is necessary to consider the role its landscape has played in its development.

General Features

The United States is composed of 50 states. The main bloc of land is situated in North America between Mexico and the Gulf of Mexico in the south and Canada in the north (2572 km length); and between the Atlantic Ocean in the east and the Pacific Ocean in the west (4571 km width). Two of the 50 states, however, are situated far from the continental mainland. Hawaii lies in the middle Pacific Ocean and Alaska is located in the north-western corner of North America. The country benefits from an extended coastline; Atlantic (3330 km), Gulf of Mexico (2625 km), and Pacific (12270 km—excluding Hawaii). Mount McKinley in Alaska is the highest point (6194 m). Death Valley in California is the lowest point (86m below sea level). In addition, a network of waterways serves the land. The United States is the fourth largest country in the world (9,529,063 km 2). Also, it ranks third in population in the world (263 million). It includes a variety of land, climate and vegetation.

I. The Geographic Regions

Definition: Geography is the study of the natural features of a given area (landscape, climate) and the distribution of life (human, animal and vegetation) in it. The landscape

of the United States is composed of seven distinct topographic or physiographic regions:

. Coastal Plains: This region includes the Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico plains, mainly wet lowlands; the coastline is exposed to the storms of the Atlantic Ocean. Consequently, floods cause more drowning of the coastal plains. The plains are stony and narrow in the north Atlantic coastline, mainly in New England, but they are flat and wide in the middle and southern Atlantic and north of the Gulf of Mexico. Ocean water has invaded the lower valleys of most of the coastal rivers and has turned them into estuaries (low flooded areas of land). The greatest of these is the Chesapeake Bay. Poor soils characterize New England's coastal plains. In the south, black soil forms major agricultural regions. The best examples are the Citrus Country of Central Florida or Black Belt of the Old South. Today, the Coastal Plains' greatest natural wealth derives from petroleum and natural gas (mainly the Gulf coastal plains of Louisiana and Texas)

. Appalachian Highlands: Situated in parallel to the Atlantic Coastal Plains, the Appalachian highlands are old mountains that range from hilly to peaks (Mt Mitchell, NC is the highest peak (2037—and highest

point in the eastern-half of the United States).They separate the Eastern seaboard from the interior lands. The Appalachians extend from St Lawrence River (in Canada) to Alabama in the south and include the Piedmont Heights, the Blue Ridge Mountains, the Alleghenies in addition to valleys, lakes (Lake Champlain in the state of New York is the most important) , and a wide range of rivers and streams. The Piedmont Heights is a very hilly area situated west of the Atlantic Coastal Plains. Before the settlement of the Midwest, the Piedmont was the most productive agricultural region in the United

States. The largest valley is Great Valley, a lowland passage cutting through the entire length of the Appalachians. It has been one of the main paths through the Appalachians since pioneer times. The Appalachians contain a variety of minerals mainly coal—one of the world's largest deposits—in the Pennsylvania Blue Ridge and Valley section. Oil and iron are also present and played an important role in USA early industrialism.

. Coastal Lowlands: On the western flank of the Appalachian stretch on the plateaus, an area characterized by its small stony hills that meets with the prairies/ central plains. The Central Lowlands extends from the Appalachian Highlands westward to the Great Plains. It resembles an immense plate or saucer that rises gradually on all sides. Its major features include the Mississippi River and Red River Valley—covering mainly parts of North Dakota and Minnesota. The latter is famous for its spring wheat. This region is the land of treeless plains. Its soil is extremely fertile. The Corn Belt dominates the region; it has provided for the Midwesterners' agricultural wealth since settlement times.

. Great Lakes: Formed of a group of five large lakes; the Great Lakes are situated to the north of the Central Lowlands. 1600 km long, they are estimated to contain ½ of the world's fresh water. They are from east to west; Ontario, Erie, Huron, Michigan, and Superior. Shared with Canada, except for Lake Michigan, they are jointly controlled by the two countries. The Boundary Water Treaty of 1909 regulates the American-Canadian relations involving the management of the Great Lakes. The Great Lakes are interconnected by rivers and canals and are central to water transportation. They are linked to the Atlantic Ocean by the St Lawrence River (-Canada) and the Erie Canal and the Hudson River (USA); and to the Gulf of Mexico by the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers.

.Great Plains (called also the American desert). It is an immense area of high flat land (plateau). From east to west, it stretches from the Central Lowlands in a continuous rising until it meets with the Rocky Mountains in the West; from north to south, it extends from Montana to North Dakota on the Canadian border to the Rio Grande River. The Great Plains covers roughly 1/3 of the surface of the United States. The Great Plains is a vast area of arid and semiarid grassland watered by the Missouri and Arkansas Rivers, both flowing southeastward from the Rocky Mountains to the Gulf of Mexico. Poor thin soil generally dominates. The area is rich in natural resources (oil and coal). In addition, its large what farms turned the area into the "bread basket of the world". The cattle farms (or ranches) also dominate the economy of the Great Plains.

. Rocky Mountains/ Rockies (Backbone of the Continent)

The Rocky Mountains is a great chain of uninterrupted mountains that cover the western part of the American continent from Canada in the north to Chile in the south. In its United States' part, it stretches from border to border along all the western states. It covers roughly another 1/3 of the surface of the United States. The Rockies is a geologically complex area that varies from sharp ice-frozen peaks, passing by fertile valleys and flat grassland, to desolated deserts. Major rivers like Columbia, Missouri, Arkansas, Colorado, and Rio Grande, start in the Rockies. South Pass in Wyoming is one of the few major breaks in the system that allowed the settlers to move west in the mid-19th century. Thinly populated, the region contains few cities (Las Vegas.) The economy relies on minerals' mining (coal, copper, gold, iron…) West of the Rockies lie the intermountain plateaus; to the southwest is situated the Cordilleran Plateaus including mainly the Colorado Plateau and the Great Basin. The Colorado Plateau is a

land of ragged mountains and stone monuments. Its most spectacular natural feature is the Grand Canyon; AZ. The Great Basin is a vast semi-arid area that lies between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada and features Great Salt Lake; UT. To the northwest of the Rockies is situated the Columbia Plateau. Semi-arid and almost grassless, the area is drained by the Columbia and Snake Rivers.

. Pacific Coast

This area is composed of distinct and separate regions and includes a system of low mountains, fertile lowlands, and deserts. It extends from the Sierra Nevada and Cascade Range mountains in the east to the Pacific coast. Fertile Valleys lie between the mountain chains: Imperial Valley in California is the greatest (640km long). A relatively young geological area, the Pacific Coast is the scene of sporadically devastating earthquakes. Movement in the San Andreas Fault (located in the Coast Rangers) caused the San Francisco earthquakes of 1906 and 1989(that of 1906 destroyed the city completely)

II. Major Rivers: Historic Importance

1. Rivers Flowing into the Atlantic Ocean

The rivers flowing into the Atlantic are relatively small rivers—if compared with those flowing into the Mexican Gulf or the Pacific. They are closely linked to the early history of the United States.

. Connecticut (655 km)

Situated in the New England region, the river crosses the states of Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Connecticut before it empties into the Atlantic. Used

for drainage, navigation, and generation of electric power, the river is of great economic importance. It was also important in early American history. Explored in 1614 (by the Dutch navigator Adrian Block); the river was an important waterway that opened the interior to settlement.

. Hudson (492 km)

Of great historic and economic importance also, the Hudson River contributed largely to the development of New York City as a major port. Flowing into New York Bay, its mouth is the site of the Statue of Liberty and the famous Twin Towers of the World Trade Center (blown up on September 11, 2001). Running entirely in the state of New York, the river is linked to the Great Lakes by the Erie Canal. It forms a natural boundary between this state and the states of New Jersey and Delaware. The battleground of Saratoga, the major battle of the American Revolution—is situated on its banks along with the US Military Academy of West Point. It was explored in 1609 by the Dutch navigator Henry Hudson.

. Potomac (460 km)

Situated in the southeast, the river starts in the Alleghenies and cuts through West Virginia and Maryland before flowing into Chesapeake Bay. It forms a natural boundary between the states of Virginia, Maryland, West Virginia, and the District of Columbia. The federal capital Washington, D.C. is located on its banks. The Potomac is of great historic importance. It entered American colonial history as early as 1608 when the English John Smith explored the Chesapeake Bay in the 18th century; the Potomac constituted an inland way to the Ohio Valley and the Midwest. During the Civil war, it formed the boundary between North and South. Major historical sites include Mount

Vernon, VA—the home of George Washington, Arlington National Cemetery, VA, and Harpers Ferry; WV—site of the John Brown raid, are situated on its banks.

. James (550 km)

Situated entirely in Virginia, the river flows into the Chesapeake Bay. Site of the first English permanent settlement (Jamestown, 1607), the river has an immense significance in the history of USA.

2. Rivers Flowing into the Gulf of Mexico

. Mississippi (from Algonquian Mississippi, meaning "big river")

Situated in central United States, it is one of the longest navigable rivers of North America (3779 km) and the greatest in volume of water. It waters most of the territory between the Allegheny and Rocky Mountains (Mississippi Valley).In addition to the Missouri, the Mississippi is fed by the Arkansas and Ohio rivers and flows into the Gulf of Mexico.

. Missouri (3969 km)

Starting in the northwestern part of the United States, this river is the principal branch of the Mississippi. It flows from the Rocky Mountains southeastwards until it meets the Mississippi at St Louis, MO. A series of dams built on the river regulate irrigation and flooding

. Arkansas (2334 km)

It starts at central Colorado in the Rocky Mountains' area and flows generally to the southeast and merges with the Mississippi River near Arkansas City, AR. Dams control floods and irrigation and generate hydroelectric power.

. Ohio (1579 km)

Situated in the east central United States, it is one of the principal tributaries of the Mississippi River. It flows from the north to the southwest and forms the boundaries between several states: Ohio, West Virginia, Kentucky, Indiana, and Illinois.

. Tennessee (1049 km)

Situated in the southeastern United States, it is a tributary of the Ohio River. It flows from eastern Tennessee south into Alabama. Since the establishment of the Tennessee Valley Authority in 1933, a series of dams control irrigation, flood and production.

. Rio Grande or Rio Bravo—for the Mexicans (3034 km)

It forms a natural boundary between the United States and Mexico. It flows southeastward from southwestern Colorado into the Gulf of Mexico. Not suitable for commercial navigation (shallow waters), the river is used for irrigation.

3. Rivers Flowing into the Pacific Ocean

. Colorado (2334 km)

The river runs through the southwest of the United States. Starting in northern Colorado in the Rockies, it flows southwest into the Gulf of California on the Pacific. The force of its currents dug deep gorges and majestic canyons (Grand Canyon). The river forms the boundary between Arizona and the states of Nevada and California. In

California, it irrigates the imposing Imperial Valley—originally an arid desert; the valley today is one of the richest fruit producing areas in the world. The Spanish were the first to explore the Colorado in 1540-41. In 1805, the American geologist John Wesley Powell explored the Grand Canyon.

.Columbia (2005 km)

In northwest United States, Columbia River starts west of the Rockies and runs southwest into the Pacific. A navigable River, it also drains deep and fertile valleys. It forms much of the boundary between the states of Washington and Oregon. Columbia was first explored in 1792 (Robert Gray) and again in 1805 (Lewis & Clark expedition). Settlement, however, started later—not until the Oregon Trail was opened by the early west pioneers (1843).

Lesson 2: An Overview of Pre-Columbian America

When Columbus arrived to the Caribbean in 1492, the New World was far from an empty desert. It had as many inhabitants as Europe, perhaps 60 or 70 million people. Between seven and twelve million lived in what is now the United States and Canada. This was not a single, homogeneous population. The people north of Mexico lived in more than 350 distinct groups, spoke more than 250 different languages, and had their own political structures, kinship systems, and economies. These divisions had disastrous consequences for the future, allowing European colonizers to adopt "divide and rule" policies that pitted people against each other.

In every geographic and cultural region, historical conflicts and vulnerabilities were deeply rooted, and European colonizers were able to exploit these vulnerabilities. In the

Southwest, many conflicts arose over control of the scarce resources of this arid region, as groups like the **Yaquis** and **Pimas** competed for access to water and fertile land. In the northern Southwest, village dwellers such as the **Hopi** and **Zuni** coexisted uneasily with migratory hunters and raiders such as the **Apache**. In the southern Southwest, land use patterns made the inhabitants particularly vulnerable to Spanish encroachment. The two dominant groups, the **Pima** and the **Papago,** lived in isolated communities called rancherias, spread over thousands of miles along rivers and other sources of irrigation. The Spanish adopted a policy of "reducing" the scattered Indian population into guarded towns.

In the Southeast, home to the **Creeks**, **Choctaws**, **Cherokees**, **Seminoles**, and other peoples, large-scale European settlement was delayed until the 17th century because the region lacked precious minerals. Here, Mississippian cultural patterns persisted: towns of several hundred to a few thousand people; farming, fishing, and hunting; varying degrees of social stratification; and strong matrilineal tendencies (the mother's family sought to produce sons) and matrilocality (newly married couples resided and worked for the mother's family). Forms of political organization ranged from independent towns to groups of villages paying tribute to a dominant city. The history of intertribal warfare in the Southeast led many tribes to band together for protection in confederacies.

Stretching from the Atlantic coast west to the Great Lakes and southward from Maine to North Carolina lay the eastern woodlands. The eastern woodland's major groups were the **Algonquians**, the **Iroquois**, and the **Muskogeans**. The Algonquians lived in small bands of from one to three hundred members, combining hunting, fishing, and gathering with some agriculture. A semi-nomadic people, who might move

several times a year, the Algonquians would plant crops, and then break into small bands to hunt caribou and deer, and return to their fields at harvest time. These people lived in wigwams, dome-shaped structures containing one or more families. A wigwam, made of bent saplings covered with birch bark, typically housed a husband and wife, their children, and their married sons and their wives and children.

During the 1600s, the Algonquians and their allies the **Hurons** fought a bitter war against the Iroquois. Around 1640, the Algonquians were defeated and driven from their territory. This war and epidemics of measles and smallpox reduced the Algonquian population sharply.

The Iroquois were several related groups of people who still live in what is now central New York State. Scholars disagree about whether the Iroquois had long occupied this area or whether they migrated from the Southeast around 1300. What does seem clear is that beginning in the 14th century, bitter feuds broke out among the Iroquois, which grew particularly intense during the 16th century. According to Iroquois oral tradition, two reformers, **Dekanawidah,** a Huron religious leader, and his disciple Hiawatha, a Mohawk chief, responded to mounting conflict by proposing a political alliance of the Iroquois tribes. During the 16th century, five Iroquois tribes--the Cayugas, the Mohawks, the Oneidas, the Onondagas, and the **Senecas**--joined together to form a confederation known as the Iroquois League. A sixth tribe, the **Tuscarora**, joined the league in the 18th century.

Governing the league was a council, consisting of the chiefs of each tribe and fifty specially chosen leaders called sachems. Some scholars argue that the Iroquois League, which combined a central authority with tribal autonomy, provided a model for the federal system of government later adopted by the United States. Women played a very

important role in Iroquois society--a fact that shocked Europeans. Women headed the longhouses that were the basic units of social and economic organization among the Iroquois and were also the leaders of clans, which were comprised of several longhouses. Although women did not sit on the league councils that made decisions involving war and diplomacy, the women who headed the clans did have the power to appoint or remove the men who served on these councils.

Despite differences in language and culture, Native American societies did share certain characteristics in common. Many Indian societies were organized around principles of kinship. Kinship ties--based on bloodlines or marriage--formed the basis of the political, economic, and religious system. Succession to political office and religious positions, ownership and inheritance of property, and even whom one could or could not marry were determined on the basis of membership in a kin group.

Indian kinship systems included an intricate number of forms, with regulations governing marriages, relations with in-laws, and residence after marriage. In patrilineal societies, like the Cheyenne of the Great Plains, land use rights and membership in the political system flowed through the father. In matrilineal societies, like the Pueblo of the Southwest, membership in the group was determined by the mother's family identity. In the Algonquian-speaking tribes of eastern North America, group membership was based on ties among siblings and cousins.

Many Indian peoples placed less emphasis on the nuclear family--the unit consisting of husband, wife, and their children--than upon the extended family or the lineage. On the Northwest Pacific Coast, the household consisted of a man, his wife or wives, and their children or the man's sister's sons. Among the western Pueblo, the nucleus of social and economic organization was the extended household consisting of

a group of female relations and their husbands, sons-in-law, and maternal grandchildren. Among the Iroquoian speakers of the Eastern Woodlands, the basic social unit was the longhouse, a large rectangular structure that contained about ten families. One sign of the relative unimportance of the nuclear family as opposed to larger kinship ties is that many Indian societies provided for relatively easy access to divorce.

Apart from a common emphasis on kinship, Native American societies also shared certain religious beliefs and practices. Many European colonists regarded Indian religions as a form of superstition. One Catholic priest, Father Francois du Perron, described Iroquoian beliefs in very negative, but not unusual, terms: "All their actions are dictated to them directly by the devil...They consider the dream as the master of their lives; it is the God of the country."

Far from being "primitive" forms of religion, Indian religions possessed great subtlety and sophistication, manifest in a rich ceremonial life, an intricate mythology, and profound speculations about the creation of the world, the origins of life, and the nature of the afterlife. Unlike Islam, Christianity, or Judaism, Native American religions were not "written" religions with specific founders; also, they might be termed mystical religions, since they allowed people to have direct contact with the supernatural through "visions" and "dreams."

Despite rich variations in ritual practices and customs, Native American religions shared certain common characteristics, notably an outlook that might be described as "animistic." This is a belief that there is a close bonds between people, animals, and the natural environment, and that all must live together in harmony.

Scholars have identified two dominant forms of Native American religious expression: hunting and horticultural religions. The hunting tradition was distinguished by its emphasis on the human relationship with animals, establishing special rituals and taboos surrounding the treatment of wild animals so as not to offend their spiritual masters. Hunting societies often had a shaman (or medicine man or woman), able to contact supernatural beings on behalf of the community.

The agrarian tradition emphasized fertility, celebrated in a yearly round of special ceremonies designed to encourage rainfall and crop productivity. In contrast to the hunting tradition, which tended to emphasize a single male deity, the agrarian tradition had a larger number of gods and goddesses. Also, unlike the less complexly organized hunting societies, agriculture societies tended to have an organized priesthood and permanent temples or shrines.

Lesson 3: The Founding of English America

The early 1600s saw the beginning of a great wave of emigration from Europe to North America. Spanning more than three centuries, this movement grew from a small group of a few hundred English settlers to a flood of new arrivals numbering several million people. Driven by powerful and diverse motivations, they built a new civilization on a once savage continent. The first English immigrants to what is now the United States crossed the Atlantic long after thriving Spanish colonies had been established in Mexico, the West Indies, and South America. Like all early travelers to the New World, they came in small, overcrowded ships. During their six- to 12-week voyages they lived on meager rations. Many of them died of disease; ships were often battered by storms, and some were lost at sea. The colonists' first glimpse of the new

land was a vista of dense woods. True, the woods were inhabited by Indians, many of whom were hostile, and the threat of Indian attack would add to the hardships of daily life. But the vast, virgin forests, extending nearly 2,100 kilometers along the eastern seaboard from north to south, would prove to be a treasure-house, providing abundant food, fuel, and a rich source of raw material for houses, furniture, ships, and profitable cargoes for export.

The first permanent English settlement in America was a trading post founded in 1607 at Jamestown in the Old Dominion of Virginia. This region was soon to develop a flourishing economy from its tobacco crop, which found a ready market in England. By 1620, when women were recruited in England to come to Virginia, marry, and make their homes, great plantations had already risen along the James River, and the population had increased to a thousand settlers. During the religious upheavals of the 16th and 17th centuries, a body of men and women called Puritans sought to reform the Established Church of England from within. Essentially, they demanded more complete protestantization of the national church and advocated simpler forms of faith and worship. Their reformist ideas, by destroying the unity of the state church, threatened to divide the people and to undermine royal authority.

During the reign of James I, a small group of Separatists - a radical sect, mostly humble country folk who did not believe the Established Church could ever be reformed to their liking - departed for Leyden, Holland, where they were allowed to practice their religion as they wished. Later, some members of this Leyden congregation, who became known as the "Pilgrims," decided to emigrate to the New World, where, in 1620, they founded the colony of Plymouth. Soon after Charles I ascended the throne in 1625; Puritan leaders in England were subjected to what they

viewed as increasing persecution. Several ministers who were no longer allowed to preach joined the Pilgrims in America, accompanied by their followers. Unlike the earlier emigrants, this second group, which established the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1630, included many persons of substantial wealth and position. By the end of the next decade, a Puritan stamp had been placed upon a half-dozen English colonies.

But the **Puritans** were not the only colonists driven by religious motives. Dissatisfaction with their lot in England led William Penn and his fellow Quakers to undertake the founding of Pennsylvania. Similar concern for English Catholics was a factor in Cecil Calvert's founding of Maryland. And in Pennsylvania and North Carolina, many colonists - dissidents from Germany and Ireland - sought greater religious freedom as well as economic opportunity. Political considerations also influenced many people to move to America. In the 1630s, arbitrary rule by England's Charles I gave impetus to the migration to the New World. And the subsequent revolt and triumph of Charles' opponents under Oliver Cromwell in the 1640s led many cavaliers - "King's men" - to cast their lot in Virginia. In Germany, the oppressive policies of various petty princes, particularly with regard to religion, and the devastation caused by a long series of wars helped swell the movement to America in the late 17th and the 18th centuries.

In some instances, men and women with little active interest in a new life in America were induced to make the move by the skillful persuasion of promoters. William Penn publicized the opportunities awaiting newcomers to the Pennsylvania colony. Ships' captains, who received large rewards from the sale of service contracts of poor migrants, used every method from extravagant promises to actual kidnapping to embark as many passengers as their vessels could hold. Judges and prison authorities were

encouraged to offer convicts a chance to migrate to America instead of serving prison sentences.

Though the new continent was remarkably endowed by nature, trade with Europe was vital for the import of articles the settlers could not yet produce. The coastline served the immigrants well. The whole length of shore provided innumerable inlets and harbors. Only two areas - North Carolina and southern New Jersey - lacked harbors for ocean-going vessels. Majestic rivers-the Kennebec, Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, Potomac, and numerous others-linked the coastal plain and the ports with Europe. Only one river, however - the St. Lawrence, dominated by the French in Canada - offered a water passage into the heart of the continent. Dense forests and the formidable barrier of the Appalachian Mountains discouraged settlement beyond the coastal plain. Only trappers and traders plunged into the wilderness. For a hundred years the colonists built their settlements compactly along the coast.

The colonies were self-sufficient communities with their own outlets to the sea. Each colony became a separate entity, marked by a strong individuality. But despite this individualism, problems of commerce, navigation, manufacturing, and currency cut across colonial boundaries and necessitated common regulations which, after independence from England was won, led to federation. The coming of colonists in the 17th century entailed careful planning and management, as well as considerable expense and risk. Settlers had to be transported nearly 5,000 kilometers across the sea. They needed utensils, clothing, seed, tools, building materials, livestock, arms, and ammunition. In contrast to the colonization policies of other countries and other periods, the emigration from England was not sponsored by the government but by private groups of individuals whose chief motive was profit.

Two colonies, **Virginia and Massachusetts,** were founded by chartered companies whose funds, provided by investors, were used to equip, transport, and maintain the colonists. In the case of the New Haven colony (later a part of the colony of Connecticut), well-to-do emigrants themselves financed the transport and equipment of their families and servants Other settlements - New Hampshire, Maine, Maryland, the Carolinas, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania - originally belonged to proprietors, members of the English gentry or nobility who, as landlords, advanced funds for settling tenants and servants upon lands granted to them by the King. Charles I, for instance, granted to Cecil Calvert (Lord Baltimore) and his heirs approximately 2,800,000 hectares that were later to become the state of Maryland. Charles II dispensed grants that were to become the Carolinas and Pennsylvania. Technically, the proprietors and chartered companies were the King's tenants, but they made only token payments for their lands. Thus, Lord Baltimore gave the King two Indian arrowheads each year, and William Penn gave him two beaver skins.

The thirteen colonies that eventually became the United States were New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. The individual colonies reflected their varying origins. Several were simply off-shoots of other settlements: Rhode Island and Connecticut were founded by people from Massachusetts, the mother colony of all New England. Georgia was established for benevolent and practical reasons by James Edward Oglethorpe and a few colleagues whose plan was to release imprisoned debtors from English jails and send them to America to establish a colony that would serve as a bulwark against the Spaniards to the south. The colony of New Netherlands, founded in 1621 by the Dutch, came under English rule in 1664 and was renamed New York.

Most European emigrants left their homelands for greater economic opportunity - an urge frequently reinforced by the yearning for religious freedom, or a determination to flee from political oppression. Between 1620 and 1635 economic difficulties swept England. Many people could not find work. Even skilled artisans could earn little more than a bare living. Bad crops added to the distress. In addition, England's expanding woollen industry demanded an ever-increasing supply of wool to keep the looms running, and sheep-raisers began to encroach on soil hitherto given over to farming.

Lesson 4: The Birth of the American Nation

Although the British gave their colonies more freedom than the Spanish or French, they still made a number of laws that helped the businessmen in England more than the colonists. **The Molasses Act of 1733** is an example of this. Many New Englanders made a living by turning molasses and sugar into rum. The Molasses Act helped the sugar plantation owners on the islands of the British West Indies. A tax was placed on the sugar and molasses that came from the islands. On top of this, the law stated that traders in New England could only trade with the British Islands. Many businessmen had been trading with the French and the Dutch. Now these men would lose money. This made the New Englanders upset with the British.

The French fought a war called this **the Seven Years War between 1754 and 1763** against the colonists and the British over the land in America. Many Indians fought on the side of the French. The French had befriended the Indians through their fur trading. The war ended with the British and colonists winning. France lost Canada and all of the French territory east of the Mississippi River except New Orleans. This war changed the way of thinking for the colonists. During the war the colonists fought alongside the

British Army. This taught the colonist how to fight as well as making the colonist realize that they no longer needed the British Army for protection. Another result of this war was the colonists learned they must work together to keep their land. After the war many colonists moved across the mountains. They no longer feared the French would attack them.

King George made a law called the **Proclamation** of 1763 which prohibited settlers from moving westward over the Appalachian Mountains. The British passed several more laws which angered the colonists. In 1764 a law was passed which said the colonies could not print or use their own money. Finally in 1765, **the Stamp Act** was passed. The tax stamps had to be put on 54 kinds of papers, including playing cards, newspapers, wills and licenses. The payments varied from one cent on a newspaper to ten dollars on a college diploma. The payments had to be made in gold or silver.

The colonists began to speak out against the new taxes. Patrick Henry from Virginia spoke the loudest. He said the British Parliament made these laws, but no colonists were in the Parliament. In October 1765 nine colonies sent people to a meeting in New York City to talk about the Stamp Act. They made the decision that the Parliament could not tax the American colonies since they had no representation in Parliament. The phrase stated by James Otis, a Boston lawyer, "**No taxation without representation,**" was heard throughout the colonies. The men at this meeting sent a letter asking Britain to repeal the Stamp Act. The British would not listen. Instead they placed new taxes on the colonies. In 1767 the British passed the **Townsend Act.** This act placed taxes on tea, glass, paper, and paint. Many colonists refused to pay the taxes or to buy any goods made in England.

The Sons of Liberty

A club was formed called the Sons of Liberty. Their motto was Join or Die. The members broke into the homes of the tax collectors and beat them. They then burned the hated tax stamps. The British sent 40,000 soldiers to help the tax collectors. The American colonists were told that they would have to let the soldiers live in their homes. This made the colonists very angry. Americans did all that they could to rebel against the British. Traders smuggled goods in and out of the American ports to keep from paying the British taxes. The Americans teased the British troops by throwing rocks or snowballs at them. Many settlers moved across the Appalachian Mountains even though the law said they could not.

The Boston Massacre

In 1770 the first real battle between the colonists and the British took place. The British soldiers got angry at a crowd of colonists who were throwing snowballs at them. The soldiers fired. Five colonists were killed and many more were wounded. Later this event was called the Boston Massacre. Two of the British soldiers were found guilty of a crime in this event. They were punished by having their thumbs burned with a hot branding iron and released. Between 1770 and 1773 there were only a few acts of violence in the colonies. Some British tax boats were burned. The British repealed many of the taxes, but not the tax on tea.

The Boston Tea Party

In 1773 the British told the British East India Company it could send tea to America without paying the taxes. All other tea traders still had to pay a tax. The Americans refused to buy any tea and refused to unload the tea from the British ships in the American ports. About 50 men from the Sons of Liberty dressed as Mohawk Indians.

They boarded a tea ship in the Boston Harbor. These men then threw 342 chests tea valued at $75,000 into the water. One of these men was Paul Revere. This event became known as the Boston Tea Party. Many people say this was the most important event that led to the start of the war between the colonies and the British.

The First Continental Congress

Some Americans thought the Boston Tea Party was wrong. Some businessmen even offered to pay for the damages. King George wanted to punish the Americans. The British Parliament passed a new set of laws called the **Intolerable Acts**. The Intolerable Acts closed the Boston Harbor until the tea was paid for in full. The acts forced The Americans to house the British soldiers. Any British subjects who committed a crime in America would be tried in England. This led to many problems. With the port closed, no food could be shipped to Boston. Boston asked the colonies for help. Many colonies sent food overland. All colonies except Georgia sent men to Philadelphia to talk about what to do about the Intolerable Acts. This group was called the First Continental Congress. They met in Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia in September 1774. The Congress decided they must force the British to repeal the acts. They also decided to cut off all trade between England and the colonies until the acts changed.

The Minutemen

In New England, men began arming themselves. They were called Minutemen because they could be ready to fight in a minute. Some practiced fighting and marching with wooden guns. Others had real guns. On April 18, 1775 the British commander in Boston sent soldiers to Concord to find guns and powder. They were also ordered to arrest Samuel Adams and John Hancock who were hiding in Lexington. Paul Revere

made his famous midnight ride from Boston to Lexington, Massachusetts to warn the citizens that the British army was on its way. Revere was captured, but he escaped safely. On the next day, the battle of Lexington and Concord took place. The first shot fired was later known as "The shot heard 'round the World" due to the impact of the war that followed.

The colonists took a hill that overlooked the Boston Harbor. The hill was called Breed's Hill after its owner. The army thought they were on a different hill named Bunker Hill which was nearby. The battle that took placed was called the Battle of Bunker Hill because of this mistake. The battle began when the British commander sent soldiers up the hill to take it from the colonists. The British were forced back by the American muskets. They charged again and were again driven back by colonial guns. On the third charge the colonists were almost out of ammunition, so the British were able to take over Breed's Hill. The colonial army lost 140 men in the battle. The British army lost many more. Nearly 1000 British were killed or wounded.

The Second Continental Congress

In May of 1775, the Second Continental Congress met in Philadelphia. Many thought the fighting was only a New England War. They thought it wouldn't reach the other colonies. Congress voted to ask each of the Thirteen Colonies to give war supplies and troops. They also voted to ask France to help. George Washington was voted Commander-in-Chief of the new army. Washington was chosen because he was a trained soldier. He had fought in the French and Indian War. Also Washington was from Virginia in the South. Many thought this would bring the South into the war. King George hired soldiers from Germany called Hessians. The British paid the Prince of Hesse $500,000 a year plus $35 for each Hessian killed and $12 for each wounded.

Unfortunately, the money was not given to the soldiers. It was spent to help Germany's economy and even to build elaborate palaces.

Common Sense and the Declaration of Independence

In January of 1776, an Englishman named **Thomas Paine** published a small book called Common Sense. The book said all kings in general, especially George III of England, were bad. The book also stated that America must be free to make its own way. This book became a best-seller. It made Americans believe that America should be a free and independent nation. In the spring of 1776, the Second Continental Congress met in a red brick building called the Pennsylvania State House. It was later called Independence Hall. Many leaders wanted America to become a separate and equal nation. Some wanted America to have some self-rule while still being a colony of England. Others were not sure what they wanted.

On June 7, the issue came to a head. Richard Henry Lee of Virginia stood and put a resolution before the convention. Lee said they should break completely from England. Many delegates were shocked. They decided to vote on this issue on July 1. A committee to write a Declaration of Independence from England was set up. The committee was made up of John Adams (Massachusetts), Ben Franklin (Pennsylvania), Roger Sherman (Connecticut), Thomas Jefferson (Virginia) and Robert Livingston (New York). Ben Franklin was sick that day and stayed home. The other four men went to visit Franklin at his house. They decided that only one man should write the declaration. The others then would look at it after it was written.

Thomas Jefferson was given the job because he was a good writer and he was from the South. Jefferson worked on the Declaration of Independence for three weeks.

Others liked what Jefferson had written. On Friday the 28, the declaration was read to the Congress. The Virginia resolution to break with England was brought before Congress. The men argued over the words Jefferson had written. By July 4, the delegates were tired and many were afraid there would be a fight. A vote was taken. Some of Jefferson's words were changed before the voting. A statement against slavery was taken out. The declaration was approved by the Second Continental Congress. Fifty-six men signed the declaration. John Hancock was the first to sign. A large bell rang out to tell the people of Philadelphia the good news. The bell was later called the Liberty Bell.

The Declaration of Independence showed England and other countries that Americans were determined to become a free nation. If the colonists lost the war, all the men who signed the declaration would be hung. The document was signed in July 1776 in Philadelphia. About one-third of all Americans stayed loyal to England. They were called Tories or Loyalists.

The Early Battles of the American Revolution

Many of the early battles took place around New York City. Washington's army fought the British on Long Island and lost. They had to retreat first to New York City and then to Pennsylvania. On May 10, 1775 a group of American soldiers from Vermont called the **Green Mountain Boys** attacked the British Fort Ticonderoga near Lake Champlain. The group was led by Ethan Allen. Allen surprised the British at the fort. Allen called out for their surrender. The fort surrendered.

The Battle of Saratoga

In the winter of 1776, George Washington and his men camped in Pennsylvania. On Christmas Eve, they crossed the icy Delaware River to attack a group of Hessians at Trenton, New Jersey. The Germans were celebrating the holiday with strong drinks. They were taken by surprise. The Hessians surrendered themselves with all their weapons and equipment Two weeks later Washington led another surprise attack at Princeton, New Jersey and won. By this time the British army was growing weaker, and the American army grew stronger. On October 1777, the Americans beat a large British force at Saratoga, New York. The French decided to help the Americans by supplying money, arms, and officers after they thought the Americans now had a chance to winning the war. This way France could beat an old enemy

Valley Forge & the End of the War

The British army spent the winter of 1778 camped in Philadelphia. Washington's army spent a cold, hungry winter camped at Valley Forge. This was only about 30 miles away from Philadelphia. The American army was short on food and clothing. They had almost no medical supplies. The winter was cold. Many men became sick. Some deserted. Others lost fingers and toes to frostbite. The Americans got money from France. With this money Congress bought guns, ammunitions, clothing, and good food for the men at Valley Forge. Officers from other countries also come to help train the American army. By the end of the winter, fighting was taking place in all thirteen colonies. In the northwest, Gorge Rogers Clark was attacking the British forts along the frontier.

John Paul Jones, a famous American sailor, stated, "I have not yet begun to fight!" when asked to surrender. Soon after this the British captured his ship. In 1780 the

Battles of Kings Mountain and Cowpens were fought. In 1780 Benedict Arnold, a famous general who helped the Americans win at Saratoga, became unhappy and planned to turn the fort at West Point over to the British. He was found out before this took place. The main battles were still being fought by Washington. British soldiers led by General Cornwallis went to Virginia. They wanted to take the American army led by Frenchmen Lafayette. The army camped at Yorktown on the coast while waiting for Britain to ship supplies. The French fleet and the new American navy kept the supplies from getting through.

Washington and his army along with French soldiers marched south from New York to meet Lafayette. The two armies met. They surrounded Cornwallis and his British soldiers. Cornwallis surrendered his army to Washington. On October 9, 1781 after 6 years the Revolutionary War was over. In 1783, the Americans and the British signed a peace treaty in Paris, France.

Lesson 5: The American Government and Constitution

The Articles of Confederation were in effect, the first constitution of the United States. Drafted in 1777 by the same Continental Congress that passed the Declaration of Independence, the articles established a "firm league of friendship" between and among the 13 states. Adopted while the Revolutionary War was in full swing, the Articles reflect the wariness by the states of a strong central government.

Afraid that their individual needs would be ignored by a national government with too much power, and the abuses that often result from such power, the Articles purposely established a "constitution" that vested the largest share of power to the

individual states. Under the Articles, the states retained their "sovereignty, freedom and independence." Instead of setting up executive and judicial branches of government, there was a committee of delegates representing each state. These individuals comprised the Congress, a national legislature called for by the Articles.

The Congress was responsible for conducting foreign affairs, declaring war or peace, maintaining an army and navy and a variety of other lesser functions. But the Articles denied Congress the power to collect taxes, regulate interstate commerce and enforce laws. Eventually, these shortcomings would lead to the adoption of the U.S. Constitution. But during those years in which the 13 states were struggling to achieve their independent status, the Articles of Confederation stood them in good stead. Adopted by Congress on November 15, 1777, the Articles became operative on March 1, 1781 when the last of the 13 states signed on to the document.

According to the Articles of the Confederation and in the mind of most Americans, an individual state remained the most important political unit. Thus, the United States was viewed more as a league of sovereign independent states. It was not yet a centrally governed nation. The articles did not provide for a strong national executive and for a national court. Therefore, several problems faced the new nation, and many Americans began to feel that the Articles of Confederation did not provide for a national government strong enough to handle the problems.

Weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation

The governmental framework established by the Articles had many weaknesses. The national government lacked the authority to set up tariffs when necessary, to regulate commerce and to levy taxes. It lacked sole control of international relations: a number

of states had begun their own negotiations with foreign countries. Nine states had organized their own armies, and several had their own navies. Some states kept circulating their own coins and paper bills. Such a state of affairs led to discontent among the people. All through the summer of 1786, popular conventions and informal gatherings in several states demanded reform in the state administrations. In the autumn of 1786, mobs of farmers in Massachusetts under the leadership of a former army captain, Daniel Shays, began forcibly to prevent the county courts from sitting and passing further judgments for debt, pending the next state election. George Washington wrote that the 13 states were united only "by a rope of sand." And the prestige of Congress had fallen to a low point.

The Federal Convention of Philadelphia (1787)

In 1887 notable delegates George Washington, Benjamin Franklin. James Madison, Alexander Hamilton and others, from the 13 states met in Philadelphia to consider changes of the articles of confederation in favor of a stronger national government this is known in history as the Federal Convention at Philadelphia (1787). The leaders of the convention who were influenced by political theorists such as Jean Jacques Rousseau and John Locke, decided to establish 3 coordinate branches of government; Legislative, Executive and Judicial. These three branches are administrations that are to be harmoniously balanced, with no one acquiring undue power. The delegates also agreed that the legislative branch should consist of two houses

Debate and Compromise

On these points there was unanimity within the assembly. But sharp differences arose as to the method of achieving them. Representatives of the small states -- New

Jersey, for instance, objected to changes that would reduce their influence in the national government by basing representation upon population rather than upon statehood. On the other hand, representatives of large states, like Virginia, argued for proportionate representation. This debate threatened to go on endlessly until Roger Sherman came forward with arguments for representation in proportion to the population of the states in one house of Congress, the House of Representatives, and equal representation in the other, the Senate.

The alignment of large against small states then dissolved. But almost every succeeding question raised new problems, to be resolved only by new compromises. Northerners wanted slaves counted when determining each state's tax share, but not in determining the number of seats a state would have in the House of Representatives. According to a compromise reached with little dissent, the House of Representatives would be apportioned according to the number of free inhabitants plus three-fifths of the slaves.

Checks and Balances

The Convention set up a governmental system with separate legislative, executive and judiciary branches -- each checked by the others. Thus congressional enactments were not to become law until approved by the president. And the president was to submit the most important of his appointments and all his treaties to the Senate for confirmation. The president, in turn, could be impeached and removed by Congress. The judiciary was to hear all cases arising under federal laws and the Constitution; in effect, the courts were empowered to interpret both the fundamental and the statute law. But members of the judiciary, appointed by the president and confirmed by the Senate, could also be impeached by Congress.

The Amendments

The authors of the constitution were keenly aware that change would be needed from time to time if the constitution were to endure and keep pace with the growth of the nation. They were also aware that the process of change should not be facile, permitting ill-conceived and hastily passed changes. By the same token they wanted to ensure that a minority could not block action desired by most of the people. Their solution was to devise a **dual process** by which the constitution could be changed. Article V stipulated that amendments to the Constitution be proposed either by two-thirds of both houses of Congress or by two-thirds of the states, meeting in convention. The proposals were to be ratified by one of two methods: either by the legislatures of three-fourths of the states, or by convention in three-fourths of the states, with the Congress proposing the method to be used.

The Constitution and the Federal Government

The Constitution outlines the structure of the national government and specifies its powers and activities. The Federal Government was given full power to levy taxes, borrow money, print paper bills and issue coins, fix weights and measures, give copyrights, set up post offices and build roads. The Federal Government was assigned with the management of Indian affairs, international relations and war. Other governmental activities are the responsibility of the individual states, which have their own constitutions and laws. Within each state are counties, townships, cities and villages, each of which has its own elective government.

The Constitution as Supreme Law

The American constitution is the self-designated supreme law of the land. The clause is taken to mean that when state constitutions, or laws passed by state legislatures or the national Congress, are found to conflict with the federal constitution, they have no force. Decisions handed down by the Supreme Court over the course of two centuries have confirmed and strengthened the doctrine of constitutional supremacy.

Lesson 6: The Geopolitical Growth of the United States

Introduction

From the tiny settlement of Jamestown, Virginia, on the Atlantic Ocean coast in the early 17th century, the United States expanded until it reached the Pacific Ocean by the mid-nineteenth century. A century later, its geo-political formation reached its climax when the American Congress granted Alaska and Hawaii statehood. Admitted to the Congress in 1959, they were the two last states to enter the union; thus bringing the number of the united American states to fifty states. The geopolitical growth of the United States occurred at different periods of American history and under different circumstances. By insurrection, purchase, treaties, war and conquest, the United States aggrandized its territory until it covered the continental mainland and extended beyond that.

The Louisiana Purchase

The United States wanted to acquire the area near New Orleans primarily to guarantee its right to sail vessels down the Mississippi River through Spanish territory and unload goods at New Orleans for shipment to the Atlantic coast and Europe.

Moreover, the United States wanted to possess the entire territory of Louisiana because so many American settlers and merchants were already in the region and because of its vital geographic position at the mouth of the Mississippi River. The United States discovered the transfer of Louisiana from Spain to France and sent Robert Livingston to France in 1801 to try to purchase New Orleans. Napoleon initially refused, leading President Thomas Jefferson to send James Monroe to secure the deal. However, in April 1803, just days before Monroe was to arrive in Paris, Napoleon offered to sell the United States not only New Orleans but all of Louisiana. Napoleon's minister of the treasury, the Marquis de Barbé-Marbois, dealt with Livingston and Monroe over terms of the Louisiana Purchase. The United States purchased Louisiana for $11,250,000 and assumed claims of its own citizens against France up to $3,750,000, for a total purchase price of $15 million.

The Florida Purchase

Florida was purchased from Spain by the United States in 1819, and was surrendered to the latter in July, 1821. Emigration then began to flow into the Territory, in spite of many obstacles. In 1835 a distressing warfare broke out between the fierce SEMINOLE INDIANS, who inhabited some of the better portions of Florida, and the government of the United States, and continued until 1842, when the Indians were subdued, though not thoroughly conquered.

The Second War of American Independence

On June 18, 1812, James Madison signed Congress's official declaration of war against England. This war came to be known as the second American war of independence. The war was fought on land and on the sea and lasted almost three years.

The British attack the capital city of Washington; D.C. British soldiers landed on the East Coast on August 19, 1814, and stormed Washington on August 24. The 63-year-old Madison barely escaped capture as British soldiers burned Washington -- including the White House and the Capitol building (which housed the 3,000-volume Library of Congress at the time) -- before quickly moving on to Baltimore, Maryland. **The war resulted in the concession to the United States of all British territory in the American Northwest, which enabled American expansion**. The states of Indiana, Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Main, and Missouri were quickly admitted to the Union. Three were slave states; three were free.

The Mexican War & Westward Expansion

On May 9, 1846, President James K. Polk received word that Mexican forces had ambushed two of General Zachary Taylor's companies along the Rio Grande. He immediately demanded that Congress appropriate funds for war, proclaiming that the Mexicans had initiated a full- blown conflict. Somewhat reluctantly, Congress agreed, and the Mexican War began. The Mexican War lasted one and a half years, and ranged all throughout Texas, New Mexico, and California, and even into the Mexican interior. Mexican resistance was stubborn and benefited from greater manpower than US forces, but ultimately proved futile. The US won an easy victory due to superior artillery and leadership. The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, signed February 2, 1848, ceded **Texas**, **New Mexico**, and **California** to the US, completing American claims to land all the way across the continent. In return, the US assumed all monetary claims of US citizens against the Mexican government and paid Mexico $15 million. The West was now officially open and secure to Americans.

Purchase of Alaska, 1867

The purchase of Alaska in 1867 was an important step in the United States rise as a great power in the Asia-Pacific region. Beginning in 1725, when Russian Czar Peter the Great dispatched Vitus Bering to explore the Alaskan coast, Russia had a keen interest in this region, which was rich in natural resources and lightly inhabited. As the United States expanded westward in the early 1800s, Americans soon found themselves in competition with Russian explorers and traders. Moscow, however, lacked the financial resources to support major settlements or a military presence along the Pacific coast of North America and permanent Russian settlers in Alaska never numbered more than four hundred. The Defeat in the Crimean War further reduced Russian interest in this region.

Russia offered to sell Alaska to the United States in 1859, believing the United States would off-set the designs of Russia's greatest rival in the Pacific, Great Britain. The looming U.S. Civil War delayed the sale, but after the war, Secretary of State William Seward quickly took up a renewed Russian offer and on March 30, 1867, agreed to a proposal from Russian Minister in Washington, Edouard de Stoeckl, to purchase Alaska for $7.2 million. The Senate approved the treaty of purchase on April 9; President Andrew Johnson signed the treaty on May 28, and Alaska was formally transferred to the United States on October 18, 1867. This purchase ended Russia's presence in North America and ensured U.S. access to the Pacific northern rim.

For three decades after its purchase the United States paid little attention to Alaska, which was governed under military, naval, or Treasury rule or, at times, no visible rule at all. Seeking a way to impose U.S. mining laws, the United States constituted a civil government in 1884. Skeptics had dubbed the purchase of Alaska "Seward's Folly," but

the former Secretary of State was vindicated when a major gold deposit was discovered in the Yukon in 1896, and Alaska became the gateway to the Klondike gold fields. The strategic importance of Alaska was finally recognized in World War II. Alaska became a state on January 3, 1959.

Lesson 7: Slavery

Before the second war of independence, slavery received little public attention. But after the war, the issue assumed enormous importance. In the early years of the republic, the Northern states began a policy of gradual emancipation of the slaves and many leaders believed that slavery could be abolished from the American soil. In 1786, George Washington expressed the view that slavery might be abolished by slow degrees. Jefferson, Madison and Monroe expressed similar views. This expectation, however, proved false during the next generation since the South was solidly united behind slavery as an institution.

One of the main reasons why the south wanted to keep slavery was the rise of the cotton culture, as a result of the Industrial Revolution which made textile manufacturing a large scale operation increasing the demand for raw cotton. Therefore, cotton growing became very popular in the southern states and slavery was a necessity. The expanding sugar cultivation also extended slavery in the south. Louisiana had proved ideal for growing sugar cane crops. By 1830, the state of Louisiana was supplying the nation with about half its sugar needs. Finally, tobacco growing moved westward and took slavery with it.

As the free society of the north and the slave society of the south spread westward, it was necessary to maintain equality between the new stages then being established. In

1818 when Illinois was admitted to the union, ten states permitted slavery while eleven free states prohibited it. But a balance was restored between the south and the north when Alabama was admitted as a slave state. When the north opposed the entry of Missouri, except as a free state, a protest swept the country. For a while, congress was at a deadlock. A compromise was arranged. Missouri was admitted as a slave state but at the same time, Maine was admitted as a free state.

Congress decreed that slavery should be abolished from the American soil but the institution (Slavery) kept increasing due to the expansion in cotton culture and to the determination of the south to preserve its interests in national politics. The south needed new territory for additional slave states to offset the admission of new free states. The north viewed in this attitude a conspiracy for the expansion of slavery. This opposition of the north, inspired by the ideals of the American Revolution and the earlier anti-slavery movement, had won a final victory in 1809 when Congress abolished the slave trade.

The 1820,s saw a new phase of hesitation which resulted from the dynamic democratic idealism of the time and the new interest in social justice for all classes of people. The movement for the abolition of slavery found its leadership in, William Lloyd Garrison a young man of Massachusetts. In January 1831, in his newspaper "**The Liberator**" he announced his determination to abolish slavery from America. Garrison's purpose was to point out the evil aspects of black slavery and brand the slave holders as torturers of human life. Garrison was unwilling to make any compromise with those who wanted to keep slavery. However, the North wanted reform by legal land peaceful means.

The north involved itself in helping slaves escape to safe places in the north or over the border into Canada. This was known as the "**underground railroad**". It was a network

of secret routes firmly established in 1830 in all parts of the North. In Ohio alone, from 1830 to 1860, 40 000 fugitive slaves were helped to freedom. Moreover, the number of anti-slavery societies in the north increased at a high rate. The south held that slavery had a right to exist in all territories but the north asserted that it had a right in none. In 1848, over 300 000 men voted for the candidates of a party which declared that the best policy was to limit, localize and discourage slavery.

Abraham Lincoln and Slavery

Abraham Lincoln had long regarded slavery as an evil. In a speech in 1854, he said that all national legislation should be based upon the principles that slavery was to be restricted and eventually abolished. He upheld the principle of popular sovereignty. He stated that slavery in the western territories was the concern not only of local inhabitants but also of the USA as a nation. His speech made him widely known throughout the country. In 1858, Lincoln opposed Stephen A. Douglas (Democrat) for election to the U.S. senate from Illinois. Lincoln and Douglas engaged in a series of debates.

Although Lincoln lost the election to Douglas, he had achieved national stature. In the presidential election of 1860, the Republican Party nominated Lincoln as its candidate. The spirit of the party was enhanced as its leaders unanimously declared that slavery could spread no further. The disunity of the opposing Democratic Party helped the Republicans win the election.

On March 4th 1861, Lincoln was sworn in as the president of the United States. The southern states were opposed to Lincoln and promptly, on the initiative of South

Carolina, formed the Confederate States of America as opposed to the United States of America. On April 12th, 1861, guns opened fire in Fort Sumter, the Civil War began.

Lesson 8: The American Civil War: 1860-1865

Introduction

The American Civil War started with the secession crisis and ended up with the assassination of Lincoln and the abolition of slavery in 1865. It transformed the political, economical and social life of the nation. It first began with a constitutional struggle and then became a test of federal authority but soon took a broader dimension. The initial belief it would be short proved tragically to be mistaken. The seceding states fought to achieve independence and yet, they closely modeled the government of their Confederacy on the American one. Lincoln's administration responded with a crusade to preserve the union and expanded its war aims to include the destruction of slavery and the liberation of all black slaves. In the end, the Union had been preserved and questions left unresolved had been answered at a very high cost in human terms: 600 000 lives, which is still the largest number of fatality in any American war (it was worse than Vietnam).

The Civil War: the story of secession

The secession started in South Carolina, which withdrew from the Union. It was a direct response to Lincoln's election. That decision was taken in December 1860. In less than 6 weeks, the other 6 states of the "Lower South" had also seceded: Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana and Texas. That decision was not really surprising because there was a Southern nationalism and a popular ideal in the South that has

existed in the 1850″s: the South had its own destiny and could exist as a separate nation. Some Southerners argued that their section would prosper more outside the Union once free of taxes and tariffs, which increased the costs of their goods to foreign purchasers. There was also a general atmosphere of anxiousness in the South, full of conspiratorial theories by 1860: Southerners were paranoid toward the North, perceiving the growing trend of abolitionism as a threat to their way of life. The last event that quickened the War was the political victory of the Republican Party: Lincoln was elected in 1860 without winning any of the Southern states. It was perceived as a provocation. On the 4th of March 1861; Lincoln took the oath and became President. Less than a month passed before the creation of a Confederacy from the part of the South.

In February 1861, a new national entity was created: the Confederate States of America composed of Southern states. They selected Jefferson Davis, a Mississippi cotton planter as their leader. The feeling of secession was not general. There was still a strong opposition (especially from businessmen) to preserve the Union. In the winter 1860-1861 lots of schemes for reconciliation were proposed but they failed. In his inaugural address a s President, Lincoln appealed the South to stay in the Union. He said he would not interfere with slavery but would not allow them to break the United States by seceding. The South did not answer. On April 12th 1861, the Confederate States opened fire on Fort Sumter (South Carolina). It marked the beginning of the Civil War.

On April 15th, Lincoln proclaimed that an “insurrection” existed in the South. Since army regulars numbered only 60 000, Lincoln called on the Loyal States to raise 75 000 militiamen to serve for 3 months. Soon followed a call for 42 000 state troopers for 3 years. Later, the congress authorized the President to enlist 500 000 volunteers for 3 years. The call to arms rallied support of Lincoln in the North but also tested the

loyalty of the states bordering slave states. As a result, Arkansas, Tennessee, Virginia, North Carolina seceded, strengthening the Confederacy.

The capital of the South was moved from Montgomery to Richmond. In 4 other slave states – Delaware, Kentucky, Missouri and Maryland – unionist sentiments proved strong enough to avoid secession. After the Northern and Southern calls to arms, volunteers rushed forwards in thousands in both sides. The decision was hard to make and it sometimes split whole families (3 of Lincoln's own brothers-in-law died for the South). The first month, the Union blockaded harbors in the South to prevent the Confederation from selling its cotton abroad and from obtaining foreign supplies.

The Forces in opposition

The superiority of the Union was great in terms of human and physical resources. The population of the Loyal states was 20 700 000 people while the total population of the 17 states composing the Confederacy was 9 100 000, of whom 3 500 000 were black slaves. The roads and railways, factories and businesses, banking capital and investment and food suppliers were vastly superior in the loyal states. The North grew more food crops than the South and had more than 5 times the manufacturing capacity (including weapon factories). So the North seemed to be far more superior to the South before the War.

In order to offset the North, the South expected to rely on cotton factories and industries. Moreover, the North had to face a major difficulty: the only way the North could win the War was to invade the South, which only had to hold out and to wait till the North grew tired of fighting. One major asset of the South was the number of trained

military leaders who had attended West Point and who organized the Southern army. Furthermore, most battles took place in the South.

In terms of morale, the Confederate soldiers were defending their land/home and fought with spirit. The South denied they were fighting mainly to preserve slavery: most Southerners had no slaves and were poor farmers. They were attached to the land, fighting for their independence from the North, just as their grand-parents had fought for their independence against Britain. It explains how valiant they were. The War took place in 2 areas: Virginia and the Mississippi Valley. Lincoln settled on 3 objectives: the capture of Richmond, the blockade of the harbors of the Confederation and the control of the Mississippi River. “On to Richmond!” was the motto. In Virginia, during the first year, the Union army knew defeat after defeat and was thrown back with heavy losses.

The Confederate forces had 3 advantages: 1- The topography: land and rivers. 2- The distance for forces to reach the battlefields: they had to travel dozens of miles while the Union forces had to travel hundreds. 3- The quality of the leaders with Robert E. Lee and Thomas J. Jackson, nicknamed “Stonewall” for he stood firm against unionists and did not move an inch. They showed much more skilled than the Union generals. The North’s early defeats in Virginia discouraged its supporters. As a consequence, the flood of volunteers began to dry out. The first defeats took place in Bull Run and in Antietam in September 1862. Antietam was the bloodiest single day battle of the War with 4 500 casualties and 18 500 people injured. n the Mississippi Valley, the Union forces had more success. In April 1862, an officer called David Farragut sailed Union ships into the mouth of the river and captured New Orleans. At the same time, other Union forces were fighting their way from the North. By spring 1863, the Union armies were closing in on an important confederate stronghold called Vicksburg.

On July 4th, after much bloody fighting and a siege lasting six weeks, Vicksburg capitulated and surrendered to the Union army led by General Ulysses S. Grant. That fall was a heavy blow to the South because Union forces now controlled the whole length of the Mississippi. They had split the Confederacy into two and it became impossible to Western confederate states like Texas to send anymore men or supplies to the East. Yet, by 1863, many Northern abolitionists were tired of the war, sickened by its heavy cost in lives and money. General Lee believed that if his army could win a decisive victory on North soil, the popular opinion might force the Union government to make peace. In the last week of June 1863, Lee marched his army north into Pennsylvania. A Union army blocked his way at a small town named Gettysburg. The battle which followed was the biggest ever fought in the US: it marked a turning point for the Confederacy. In three days of fighting, more than 50 000 men were killed or wounded. On the 4th day, Lee broke off the battle and led his men back into the South: the Confederacy had suffered the most terrible defeat of the South, from which it would never recover.

Another important event was Lincoln's Gettysburg Speech on November 19th 1863. Lincoln had realized in 1862 that the North would only win the war if he could arouse more enthusiasm for his cause. That is why he issued the Emancipation Proclamation of 1862, which declares that -from January 1st 1863-, "all persons held as slaves…shall be then…forever free". All slaves were to be free, but only if they lived in the States belonging to the Confederacy. It changed the purpose of the war: first it was a struggle to preserve the union, then a struggle to abolish slavery.

A Northern victory

By 1864, the Confederacy was running out of almost everything: men, equipment, money, food. The union armies moved in to end the war in Fall 1864. In November, the

Union army led by General Sherman began to march through Georgia. Its soldiers destroyed everything on their path: they burnt crops and buildings and tore up railroad tracks. On December 22nd, the army occupied the city of Savannah and split again East from West. Then Sherman turned north, marched through the Carolinas as he made for Richmond. "Total War" is the worst aspect of the war for it consists in inflicting horrors to the civilian population. The reason is obvious: to quicken the end of the war and to break the South's will to resist.

Richmond was already in danger with Grant's army: by March 1865, Grant had almost encircled the city. On April 2nd, Lee was forced to abandon it in order to save his army from being trapped and marched South, hoping to fight from a higher position. But Grant followed close behind and blocked him. April 9th 1965: Lee met Grant in a tiny mini village called Appomattox (Virginia). Lee surrendered his army and Grant treated the defeated Confederate soldiers generously. After they had given up their weapons and promised never again to fight against the USA, Grant allowed them to go home: "the war is over. The rebels are our countrymen again" (Grant).

Conclusion

The war put an end to slavery everywhere in the USA and contributed to the elaboration of the 13th Amendment in the American Constitution. Finally, the war decided that the US was one nation whose parts could not be separated. But it left bitter memories. The US weighed other wars later but all the wars it was engaged in took place outside its own boundaries. The Civil War caused terrible distractions at home. In this war, more Americans died than in any other war before or since: 635 000 casualties.

Lesson 9: The Reconstruction

Introduction

The Civil War resolved 2 important questions that had not been addressed by the Founding Fathers: the question of sovereignty and the place of the States in the Union and the question derived from the conflict about the constitutional protection of slavery. With the collapse of the Confederacy, the Government confronted the difficult issue related to the readmission of the seceding States and the citizenship of former slaves.

A New phase

On April 13th 1865, President Lincoln and his wife went to Ford Theater in Washington to see the play called Our American Cousin. At 10:30, the president was shot in the back in the dark. A man, named Booth, jumped onto the stage and shouted «Sic semper tyrannis ». He was captured a few days later. Lincoln died the following day. Lincoln was succeeded by his vice-president Andrew Johnson. The biggest problem Johnson faced was how to deal with the defeated South. A few weeks before, Lincoln had asked the Americans to "bind up the nations wounds" and rebuild their homeland. Lincoln blamed individual Southern leaders for the war, rather than the people of the seceding states. He intended to punish only these guilty individuals and to let the rest of the South's people alone.

Johnson introduced plans to reunite the nation. As soon as the leaders of the South would be loyal to the US government, they could elect new state assemblies to run their states. When they were made to accept the 13th amendment, Johnson reintegrated them in the Union. Some southerners tried to resist any changes that threaten their way of life. They were scared to give rights to their former slaves. The assembly of Mississippi

even said: "to be free however doesn't make a Negro a citizen or entitle him to social or political equality with the white men".

All their assemblies voted laws to keep blacks in inferior conditions. These laws were called **Black Codes**. The ruling whites intended the blacks to remain unskilled, uneducated and landless with no legal protection or rights of their own. The Black Codes refused them the vote, said they could not vote on juries and forbade them to give evidence in court against a white man. In Mississippi, blacks were not allowed to buy or to rent farm land. As a result, it was as if blacks were still slaves.

A Growing Anger

A growing anger swept the North about the Black Codes. As usual, this conflict will bring about extremist positions. In the Congress, the Radical Republicans believed that the most important reason for fighting the Civil War was to free the blacks. They were determined that neither they nor the blacks were going to be cheated. They said Johnson was treating Southerners too kindly and that they were taking advantage of it: "they have not been punished as they deserved".

On July 1866, despite the President's position, Congress passed a **Civil Right Act** and set up an organization the **Freedmen's Bureau.** Both these measures were intended to ensure blacks were not cheated with their rights. Moreover, the introduction of a **14th Amendment** gave blacks full rights of citizenship, including the right to vote.

All the former Confederate States except Tennessee refused to accept it. On March 1867, the Congress passed the Reconstruction Act, dismissed the white Governments of the South and placed them under military rule. By 1870, all southern states had new "reconstruction governments". Most of them were made up of blacks, a few white

Southerners and white men from the North. The newly arrived Northerners were referred to as "**carpetbaggers**" by the Southerners opposing them. Any white Southerner who cooperated with the carpetbaggers was referred to with much contempt as "**scalawags**".

Most white southerners supported the Democratic Party. These southern Democrats claimed that the reconstruction governments were incompetent and dishonest. There was some truth in this claim. Many of the new black members in the assembly were inexperienced and poorly educated (and many carpetbaggers were thieves). But reconstruction governments also contained honest men who tried to improve the South. They passed laws to take care of orphans and the blind, to encourage new industries and the building of railroad, to build schools for both black and white children.

Yet, none of these improvements stopped white southerners from hating reconstruction governments just because they aimed to give blacks the same rights that whites had. Some of them were determined to prevent this: they organized terrorist groups to make the white men the masters once more. The aim was to threaten and frighten black people. The most feared terrorist group was a secret society called **Ku Klux Klan** (KKK). Its members dressed themselves in white sheets and hoods to mask their faces. They rode by night through the countryside killing the Blacks who were trying to improve their position. Their symbol was the burning wooden cross placed outside the homes of their attended victims. This use of violence and fear helped white racists to win back the Governments of the South.

The Final Failure

By 1876, republican supporters of reconstruction governments won only 3 states. In 1877, when Congress withdrew the troops from the South, white Democrats won control too. 1877 marked the failure of the reconstruction governments for the North.

From this time onwards, southern blacks were treated more and more like second-class citizen. Most serious, they were robbed of their right to vote. Some southern States prevented them from voting by saying that only people paying a poll-tax could vote. They made the tax so high that the blacks could not afford to pay. Some blacks tried to pay but the tax collector refused their money.

Besides, "**Grandfather Clauses**" were used to prevent blacks from voting. These clauses allowed the vote only to people whose grandfather had been allowed to vote in 1865 and most blacks had got the right to vote a year later, in 1866. It took away their right to vote. In Louisiana for instance, there were 164 088 white voters and 130 444 black voters before 1898. After Louisiana introduced the "grandfather clauses", there were 125 437 white voters and only 5 320 black voters.

Once blacks lost the vote, taking away their other rights was easy. A strict racial segregation was enforced on trains, in parks, in schools, in restaurants and even in cemeteries. Any black who dared to break these laws was likely to end up in prison or worse. In the 1890″s, there was an average of 150 blacks killed illegally and lynched.

Conclusion

The Civil War and the Reconstruction were lost but the Reconstruction had not been for nothing. It was the boldest attempt to achieve racial justice in the United States. Furthermore, the 14th Amendment is especially important because it was the

foundation of the **Civil Rights Movement** and it made possible for Martin Luther King to protest on behalf of all black Americans.

Lesson 10: The Civil Rights Movement

The civil rights movement can be defined as a mass popular movement to secure for African Americans equal access to and opportunities for the basic privileges and rights of U.S. citizenship. Although the roots of the civil rights movement go back to the 19th century, the movement peaked in the 1950s and 1960s. African American men and women, along with whites, organized and led the movement at national and local levels. They pursued their goals through legal means; negotiations, petitions, and non-violent protest demonstrations.

The civil rights movement centered on the American South, where the African American population was concentrated and where racial inequality in education, economic opportunity, and the political and legal processes was most blatant. Beginning in the late 19th century, state and local governments passed segregation laws, known as **Jim Crow laws**, and mandated restrictions on voting qualifications that left the black population economically and politically powerless. The movement therefore addressed primarily three areas of discrimination: education, social segregation, and voting rights.

The Brown Decision

The 1954 U.S. Supreme Court **decision Lynda Brown vs. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas** ushered in a new era in the struggle for civil rights. This landmark

decision outlawed racial segregation in public schools. Whites around the country condemned the decision, and in the South such white supremacist groups as the Ku Klux Klan and the Citizens' Council organized to resist desegregation, sometimes resorting to violence. A primary target of supremacist groups was the **National Association for the Advancement of Colored People** (**NAACP**). Over the course of decades the NAACP had filed a procession of court cases, including Brown, and had assumed the lead in the national struggle against segregated education. The oldest established national civil-rights organization, the NAACP also played an important role at the local level, where blacks across the South organized branches to combat discrimination in their communities.

Prompted in part by the work of the Arkansas NAACP and its president, Daisy Bates, one of the first attempts to comply with the Brown decision came in the capital city of Little Rock in 1957. When the local school board admitted nine black students to the city's previously all-white Central High School, white protests escalated into violence. President Dwight D. Eisenhower was forced to dispatch federal troops to protect the black students.

The Challenge to Social Segregation

By the time of the Little Rock incident, the nation had already become aware of the heightened struggle in the South. In 1955 blacks in Montgomery, Ala., organized a boycott of city buses in protest of the policy of segregated seating. Lasting 381 days, the boycott, instigated by **Rosa Parks**, succeeded in integrating the seating. It also led to the formation in 1957 of **the Southern Christian Leadership Conference** (SCLC), in Atlanta, Ga., as a national organization presided over by a local black minister,

Martin Luther King, Jr. As SCLC head, he would later become a central leader in the larger civil rights movement.

A major incident in 1960 led to the founding of another important organization, **Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee**, (SNCC) and expanded the movement's participants to include college-age blacks. In that year, four students from a black college sat down at the "whites only" section of a lunch counter in Greensboro, North Carolina. The waitress did not know how to react. She did not take their order so the students sat there until the restaurant closed. This began a series of sit-ins across restaurants in the South. People reacted in many different ways to these protests. Some protesters were threatened with violence, food was dumped over their heads, and some were arrested. These sit-ins led to "wade-ins" at public swimming pools, "kneel-ins" at segregated all-white churches, as well as demonstrations in front of department stores and movie theatres. The protesters found it difficult to remain peaceful and courteous especially since white crowds seemed to grow increasingly angry and more violent. The protesters found their strength within the spirit of brotherly love and within their belief that their non-violent protests were the only way to fight for their freedom.

Soon thereafter, many SNCC members joined forces with the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE). Founded in Chicago in the 1940s, CORE organized the Freedom Rides of 1961. Black and white Freedom Riders boarded commercial buses in Washington, D.C., and embarked on a route through the South to test the 1960 Supreme Court decision Boynton v. Virginia, which had outlawed segregation in interstate transportation terminals. Although riders were beaten, arrested, and in one instance had their bus burned, the Freedom Rides were ultimately successful, prompting the Interstate Commerce Commission to enforce the ruling in Boynton.

The SNCC also organized local campaigns with NAACP branches to win voting rights for blacks and to end segregation in public places. One community that made the national spotlight was Albany, Ga. In 1962, Martin Luther King, Jr., and the SCLC entered the Albany struggle, which failed to gain significant results and branded King with a humiliating defeat.

The national spotlight then turned to Birmingham, Ala. Since 1956, the Rev. Fred Shuttlesworth of the Alabama Christian Movement for Human Rights had been leading the struggle against racial discrimination there. For decades, local blacks had faced a staunch segregationist in the person of Eugene "Bull" Connor, the city's commissioner of public safety, who was chiefly responsible for Birmingham's reputation as the "most thoroughly segregated city in the United States." King arrived in the spring of 1963 and with Shuttlesworth led non-violent demonstrations. Connor's use of police dogs and fire hoses against protesters, an act that remains infamous, helped awaken President John Kennedy's administration to the need for civil rights legislation.

Following Kennedy's assassination, President Lyndon Johnson manoeuvred the **Civil Rights Act of 1964** through Congress. Representing a major victory for African Americans, the 1964 legislation outlawed segregation in public places and prohibited racial and gender discrimination in employment practices.

Voting Rights

By the mid-1960s, however, most eligible black voters in the South remained disfranchised. Following World War II, African Americans initiated local efforts to exercise the right to vote but faced strong and sometimes violent resistance from local whites. Organized initiatives to enfranchise blacks climaxed with the Summer Project

of 1964. Popularly known as Freedom Summer, the Summer Project came under the auspices of the Council of Federated Organizations (COFO), which included the SCLC, SNCC, CORE, and the NAACP. Targeting Mississippi, where in many counties no blacks were registered to vote, COFO launched a massive and largely unsuccessful voter-registration drive. White resistance was widespread and tainted by several killings. The effort did, however, capture the attention of many lawmakers, who began calling for federal voting-rights legislation.

Such legislation followed events in Selma, Ala., where King and the SCLC went in February 1965, hoping to boost a languishing voting-rights drive that had been organized by the SNCC and local blacks. After two failed attempts, King led an 87-km (54-mi) march from Selma to Montgomery. Three activists lost their lives during the Selma demonstrations, but in August 1965, President Johnson signed the **Voting Rights Act.**

After nearly 100 years since the end of the Civil War, the American people and its government had finally ended legal segregation. All the laws that allowed the separation between white and black Americans no longer existed.

Black Power

By this time, civil-rights activists were turning their attention to race discrimination in the urban North and West. Many younger activists, discontented with the slow process of change, were also becoming more militant. SNCC, for instance, in 1966 replaced its chairman, John Lewis, with the more radical Stokely Carmichael, who expanded SNCC operations beyond the South and helped popularize the concept of "black power." Advocates of black power favored African Americans controlling the

movement, exercising economic autonomy, and preserving their African heritage. Most controversial were the call for racial separatism and the principle of self-defense against white violence, both of which were contrary to the ideals of more traditional activists who favored racial integration and passive resistance. A leading group within the black-power struggle was the Black Panthers. Organized in Oakland, Calif., in 1966 by Bobby Seale and Huey P. Newton, it included among its members the activist and writer Eldridge Cleaver. Probably the best-known figure within the radical wing of the civil rights movement was **Malcolm X** of the Nation of Islam, also known as the Black Muslims. By the early 1970s, however, black power was all but nonexistent, having never gained the support of the larger African American populace.

Bibliography

"An Outline of American History", (1949) Washington DC: United States Information Agency

Degler, Carl. (1983). Out of Our Past: The Forces That Shaped Modern America, New York City: Harper Perennial

Dew, C. (2017). Apostles of Disunion: Southern Secession Commissioners and the Causes of the Civil War (A Nation Divided: Studies in the Civil War Era), Charlottesville: University of Virginia Press

Foner, E. (2015). A Short History of Reconstruction, New York City: Harper Perennial Modern Classics

Kidd, T. (2019). American History Combined Edition: 1492 - Present, Nashville: B&H Academic

Knight, J. (2006). Jamestown: New World Adventure, Atascadero: Beautiful Feet Books

McPherson, J. (2003). Battle Cry of Freedom: The Civil War Era, Oxford: Oxford University Press;

Taylor, A. (2002). American Colonies: The Settling of North America, London: Penguin Books

Wood, G. (2003). The American Revolution: A History, New York City: Modern Library