For thousands of years, Britain has been invaded by stronger nations. One of the most famous being the Roman invasion of Britain until AD 401. When the Romans left, the Anglo Saxons settled in Britain and ruled until the Vikings from Scandinavia made their way across the sea to invade and settle in Britain. They were a stronger nation than England were at that time and were able to establish themselves within England and other parts of Britain.

The First Britons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>c4000bc:</th>
<th>Before c4000bc:</th>
<th>c500-43bc:</th>
<th>c43bc – AD401:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Around 6000 years ago, farmers arrive from Europe bringing seeds to grow crops and animals. They begin to clear some of Britain’s thick forests to create farms and build stone houses.</td>
<td>The first people who live in Britain are immigrants. They arrive from Europe around half a million years ago and are hunter-gatherers. They move around in small groups and learn skills such as lighting fires and making tools.</td>
<td>About 2500 years ago, new settlers called the Beaker people (after the pottery cups they made) arrive from central Europe. Also Celts arrive and fight the Beaker people, until, over the centuries they merge together.</td>
<td>By AD401, the Romans are called back to Italy to defend their homeland. The British have to fend for themselves and soon new tribes invade. They come from Denmark and northern Germany looking for farmland. These tribes become known as the Anglo-Saxons and after fighting the British tribes, capture most of Britain (except Cornwall, Wales and the far north).</td>
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The Anglo Saxons in Britain

- From around AD400 onwards, Anglo-Saxons settled in villages next to their farmland. They set up a number of different kingdoms, led by lords and chieftains. The most powerful lords acted like local kings and fought one another to gain more land.
- The strongest Anglo-Saxon tribal chiefs were known as Bretwalda or ‘Ruler of Britain’. By AD800, most Anglo-Saxons had converted to Christianity, and merchants traded goods all over the country and into Europe, making some Anglo-Saxon kingdoms very wealthy.

The Vikings in Britain

- In the mid-700s, the people of Scandinavia (Norway, Denmark and Sweden) began to explore, raid and eventually invade the countries around them. They sailed to Britain, Ireland, France, Spain and Italy. Others travelled by land, going as far as Israel, Greenland and probably America. They were known as Vikings, or Northmen, and began their raids on Britain around the AD790s.
- The Vikings attacked Britain because they had traded goods with the Anglo-Saxons for many years, and knew of their wealth.
- The first recorded attack was on the monastery at Lindisfarne in Northumbria in AD793, and two years later they attacked the Isle of Iona in Scotland. To begin with, they attacked in the summer when the seas were calmer for their small ships. They raided villages and monasteries near the coast, and then sailed back with stolen gold and silver, cattle and even slaves. Later, they sailed up rivers and attacked further inland, and they sometimes stayed for long periods of time and built camps.

The Danelaw

- The part of England under Viking control changed considerably in this time and was known as the Danelaw.
- The Viking brought their own distinct laws, place names, customs, measurements, skilled crafts and farming techniques to the Danelaw.
- Many Viking influences are still around today e.g.
  - Thursday (named after Thor) and Friday (named after Freya).
  - Settlement suffixes of –by (like Grimsby) and –thorpe.
  - British surnames like Adamson, Holt and Thorn.
  - Words such as egg, bread, sister, happy, ill and muck.
The Viking invasion of Wessex

- After conquering Northumbria, East Anglia and most of Mercia (known informally as the Danelaw), the Vikings now turned their attention to Wessex.
- King Æthelred of Wessex supported by his younger brother Alfred managed to hold back the Viking invasion, led by Ivar the Boneless, for a time.
- By 22 January 871, the Saxons were defeated at the Battle of Basing. They were defeated again on 22 March at the Battle of Merton. Æthelred died shortly afterwards on 23 April.
- It would be up to Alfred to hold the Vikings from Wessex.
- In 876 the Vikings began a series of attacks. After some early successes, King Alfred’s army was driven back and forced to hide on the Isle of Athelney in the Somerset marshes.

The success of the Anglo Saxons

- After several desperate months, Alfred managed to gather enough support and train an army to attack the Vikings once more. In May 878, King Alfred beat the Vikings at the Battle of Edington, and the two sides sat down to agree peace terms.
- Alfred insisted the Viking leader, Guthrum, had to become a Christian, like Alfred himself, and agree not at attack Wessex again.
- The two leaders settled a border between their lands. The Vikings would stick to Danelaw in the East and North.

The Vikings in Britain and life in the Danelaw

- The part of England under Viking control changed considerably at this time. The Vikings brought their own distinct laws, place names, customs, measurements, skilled crafts and farming techniques to the Danelaw.
- During Alfred’s reign, there were still Viking raids on Anglo-Saxon territory. For the most part, however, the Vikings in the Danelaw settled down as farmers and lived fairly peacefully side-by-side with the Anglo-Saxons.
- People travelled and traded between Wessex and the Danelaw, and there was intermarriage between Vikings and Anglo-Saxons.
- There were three main areas where Vikings lived - Northumbria (which included modern-day Yorkshire), East Anglia, and the Five Boroughs. A borough was a town and the five towns were Leicester, Nottingham, Derby, Stamford and Lincoln.
- Viking families came to settle on these lands. The most important city in the Danelaw was the city of York, or ‘Jorvik’ (pronounced ‘your-vick’), as the Vikings knew it. Over 10,000 people lived there and it was an important place to trade goods.
- The Norse people had their own laws and government. The community would gather together at a meeting called a ‘Thing’. Here they would settle problems and make decisions.
- People could vote on what should happen. For example, the Thing might decide who owned a piece of land or how to punish a criminal. All this was overseen by a chieftain or a judge known as a ‘law-speaker’.
- Viking laws were not written down, so laws were passed from person to person by word of mouth. People who broke the law became ‘outlaws’. They were forced to live in the wilderness and anyone was allowed to hunt them down and kill them.
- Vikings could also settle arguments with a fight. They held a type of duel, known as a ‘Holmgang’. Whoever won the duel was seen as being favoured by the gods.

Key Biography

**King Alfred (reigned 871-99)**
- Became the sixth King of Wessex in 871.
- Cured and academic by ninth century standards, he encouraged learning and said that all young noble men should learn to read English. He translated many books from Latin into English.
- Re-wrote many laws. He took the most just laws from other kingdoms and used them for his own.
- To ensure there would be no further Viking attacks in his lifetime, Alfred built burls (fortresses or castles) across the country from the 870s to strengthen England’s defences. The soldiers in these burls could not only defend Alfred’s land in Wessex, they could launch attacks if required. He also fortified existing Roman-era towns such as Oxford. As a result, Alfred had a grid of defensive sites across his territory that made his land more secure. Most importantly, his new defences showed confidence: they gave a sign to the Vikings that invasions were no longer as easy as before.
- Other kingdoms in England acknowledged Alfred to be the ‘overlord’, or the dominant ruler over them. Under his rule, the Anglo-Saxons began to call themselves Anglescyn – the English.
King Cnut and the North Sea Empire

In the tenth century the English re-conquered much of the land held by the Vikings. Under King Edgar the Peaceful, the country became both calm and stable; but when he died in 975, things began to unravel. Within 50 years, England had a Viking king once more, and the country became part of the Danish Empire.

Edward then Aethelred

- When King Edgar the Peaceful died, he left two sons by different mothers: Edward (aged 12) and Aethelred (aged 9). As the oldest son, Edward became King of England, but his reign only lasted three years.
- In 928, he was murdered by supporters of his younger brother Aethelred, who then took over as king.
- Aethelred’s reign was a difficult one. He was only a young boy when he became king, and was not a good judge of character. The advisers that helped him were often corrupt and looked to make as much money and acquire as much land as they could from the king.
- Many people were also outraged by the murder of his elder brother, Edward. There is little evidence that the young Aethelred had anything at all to do with his brother’s death, but one story claims that his mother, Aelthryth, stabbed Edward (her stepson) so that her own son could become king!

The Vikings return

- During Aethelred’s reign, new waves of Vikings searching for fame and fortune began to invade England.
- In 991, a huge Viking army, led by the Dane, Sven Forkbeard and the Norwegian, Olaf Tryggvason, arrived at Folkestone in a fleet of over 90 ships. Their army defeated the English at the Battle of Maldon in August.
- Aethelred paid the Vikings to leave. This payment was called Danegeld (money for the Danish).
- Not all of the Vikings left; some remained as mercenaries to protect the English and others continued to terrorise the English on the south coast for the next three years.
- After 997, fresh raiding parties of Vikings attacked parts of southern England. They demanded (and received) Danegeld.

Aethelred and Emma of Normandy

- The Danegeld that Aethelred was paying the Vikings to stay away from England was costing a fortune. After the Battle of Maldon, the king had given the Vikings around 3300 kilogrammes of silver (about £900,000 in today’s money), and the English hated the taxes that were needed to pay it. As a result, Aethelred looked for another way to keep the Vikings away.
- The Vikings had been sheltering in Normandy, France, after raiding England. The Normans were descendants of Vikings who had settled in France around 100 years before. So, Aethelred made a deal with the Duke of Normandy that said that they agreed to support each other against their enemies. Aethelred hoped that this would reduce the number of raids because the Vikings would not be able to use Normandy as a base.
- Aethelred sealed the agreement by marrying the Duke’s sister, Emma. However, in November 1002 Aethelred used the popular fear and hatred of the Vikings to carry out a mass killing of all Viking men, women and children that he could find south of the Danelaw. This became known as the St Brice’s Day Massacre and caused the anger of King Sven Forkbeard, whose sister Gunhilda was murdered.

Forkbeard attacks

- The King of Denmark, Sven Forkbeard, invaded England with a powerful Viking army. He wanted revenge - and some of the great wealth of England for himself. If he achieved this it would strengthen his position against rival Viking leaders. In 1000 at the Battle of Svold, Sven killed Olaf Tryggvason, his former raiding partner who had become King of Norway. Sven also wanted to teach Thorkell the Tall a lesson. Thorkell was a Viking warrior who switched sides to work for Aethelred in 1012. In 1013, Sven summoned a large army and swiftly conquered England.
- Some of the Vikings who sailed to France in the AD900S settled near Paris. They were called the Northmen - or Normans. They soon became rulers of this part of France and the area was named Normandy. William the Conqueror came from this part of France (he was Duke of Normandy) and he was descended from these Viking invaders.
King Cnut and the North Sea Empire

Aethelred and Cnut

- With Aethelred out of the country and Forkbeard on the throne, it looked as if the fighting between Anglo-Saxons and Vikings was over for a while. But the peace didn’t last.
- Just over a year after becoming king, Forkbeard died. His young son, Cnut (pronounced Canute) became England’s new Viking king, but Anglo-Saxon nobles wanted the Anglo-Saxon Aethelred to return to power.
- Aethelred came back over to England in 1014 and forced Cnut back to Denmark. Aethelred was now back on the throne.

Edmund and Cnut

- Aethelred’s return did not last long. Cnut’s supporters in England rebelled against Aethelred, and the next few years involved much bloodshed and fighting. At one point, even Aethelred’s own son rebelled against him. In April 1016, Aethelred died and his son Edmund, became king.
- Edmund was successful in fighting off Vikings, and earned himself the nickname ‘Edmund Ironside’. However, in October 1016, Cnut finally got the better of King Edmund and beat him at the Battle of Assandun in Essex.
- The two men agreed that Edmund would run Wessex, while Cnut would run the rest of the country; and when one of them died, the other would inherit their land. About a month later, Edmund died.
- Historians believe he was either murdered or died from wounds received at the Battle of Assandun. Now Cnut became king of all England.

How did Britain change under Cnut’s rule?

- Britain was important to Cnut as it was his richest kingdom: he viewed Britain as his main domain, rather than as a Danish colony.
- To begin with, King Cnut was tough with those Anglo-Saxons he thought might rebel against him. Early in his reign, he ordered the execution of a number of powerful Anglo-Saxons.
- Britain was a rich area with a flourishing trade system compared to Scandinavia, and Cnut wanted to have reliable and strong leaders to help him control Britain. Strong control meant he could transfer the riches back to Denmark to support the Danes. Loyal Danish nobles were given British lands, but some trustworthy English nobles were also left to rule their own areas. Cnut wanted good local leadership - no matter which side of the North Sea they were from.
- Despite a brutal takeover of the throne and start to his reign, Cnut’s reign was one of peace and freedom from Viking raids. He even sent most of his great battle fleets home. He also worked hard to win over the people of his new kingdom.
- He was a religious man who established a good relationship with Church leaders, and he brought back many of the popular and fair laws of Edgar the Peaceful. Soon, he inherited the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway from his elder brother, and ruled parts of Sweden too. All this became known as Cnut’s North Sea Empire.

Cnut and Emma of Normandy

- To bring even greater stability to England, and an improved relationship with the Normans in France, Cnut married Emma of Normandy, widow of Aethelred. They had a son, Harthacnut.
- During Cnut’s 20-year reign, England was at peace. But his two sons who followed him as king - firstly Harold (Cnut’s son by his first wife) and then Harthacnut (his son with Emma) - were hated. Their reigns didn’t last long.
- In 1042, Harthacnut died and the throne passed to his surviving half-brother, Prince Edward. Edward was the son of Emma and Aethelred, and had originally left with his mother and father when Forkbeard invaded many years before.
- He had been living in Normandy for a large part of his life. King Edward was quickly accepted by ordinary people, but the Anglo-Saxons nobles found that he seemed to prefer his Norman friends to them.
- He was also a deeply religious man and soon earned himself the nickname ‘the Confessor’: a name given to a person who lives a very holy life.
A Norman Kingdom

When Edward became King of England in 1042, he had been living in Normandy, France for many years. He spoke French better than he spoke English, and behaved like a Norman. One of his closest friends was a Norman, too. His name was William, the Duke (ruler) of Normandy, and King Edward spent lots of time in Normandy with him. But Edward had not married a Norman as people expected, and instead married the sister of a powerful Anglo-Saxon called Harold Godwinson. They had no children, and when Edward died in early 1066, the throne of England was up for grabs. With its wealth and land, England was worth fighting for.

The Race for the crown

- King Edward died on 6 January 1066. The three main contenders for the English throne were:
  - **William, Duke of Normandy**: As a close friend of Edward, he claimed that he been promised the throne. He also claimed that Harold Godwinson had agreed to support his claim after being rescued from a shipwreck off the coast of Normandy.
  - **Harald Hardrada**: The Viking ruler of Norway; he also said he was King of Denmark. As Vikings had conquered and controlled England for many years, he claimed he should be England’s new king.
  - **Harold Godwinson**: By now, Harold was the most powerful man in England; and he was English, unlike the other two. He was a good soldier and the council of the country’s most important, powerful nobles (known as the Witan) wanted him as king.

- The day after Edward’s death, the Witan elected Harold as king. He was crowned immediately: but when the other two rivals found out, they planned their invasions. Hardrada the Viking was the first to invade, but was defeated by King Harold at the Battle of Stamford Bridge, near York, in September 1066.
- A few days later, King Harold heard the news that William of Normandy had landed on the south coast of England. Harold rushed south from Yorkshire to fight him, but was defeated at the Battle of Hastings on 14 October 1066.
- Over the next few weeks, William faced fierce resistance from the English as they moved from Hastings towards London, but William soon crushed any resistance on his way there, and was crowned as the first Norman King of England on Christmas Day, 1066.

William completes the conquest

- Even though he had been crowned King of England, William couldn’t relax. The early years of his reign saw major rebellions up and down the country. These were put down fiercely.
- The king rewarded his most loyal Norman followers by giving them important jobs in the Church, and by seizing land from the English and giving it to Normans. Soon, England was divided up between Norman barons and lords, each with his own knights and soldiers to keep the peace. This meant that William would have people loyal to him to control the country during the times when he returned to Normandy.
- These barons and knights built castles to keep them safe from any English rebels who might want to attack them.
- Soon England had over 500 Norman castles.

A Norman Kingdom

- William was a French prince who had acquired the English kingdom, but he spent more than half his time in France, where he felt at home.
- It was very important for William to be seen in France because powerful French rivals might take advantage of any absences to seize control of Normandy. But William spared no time in stamping his mark on England too. The Normans became a brand-new ruling class in England.
- They spoke French and introduced French customs. They built hundreds of new churches, cathedrals and monasteries, and French replaced English as the main language used by the people in power. Hundreds of French words such as soldier, parliament, royal, city, minister and army were soon absorbed into the English language.
- The English were once again ruled by a foreign power: the land they once owned was taken from them and the taxes they paid went to the Normans. The Anglo-Saxon English became second-class citizens.
- Like the Vikings, the Normans focused their efforts on England, but they did have an impact on people from Scotland and Wales.
- King Malcolm of Scotland raided England in 1070. William’s response was violent. He invaded Scotland in 1072 and Malcolm recognised William’s power and made peace. William did not attempt to conquer all of Wales, but instructed several Norman barons to seize land there.
The Angevin Empire

In 1087 William the Conqueror died and his Norman kingdom was divided up between his two eldest sons. Robert (the eldest) became Duke of Normandy, and William’s middle son (William) became William II of England. The youngest son, Henry, got nothing. But in 1100, William II died and Henry took over as King of England. He then went on to defeat his older brother too, and became Duke of Normandy in 1106. So once again the Norman Kingdom was united under one man: Henry I of England and Duke of Normandy.

Henry and Matilda

- King Henry ruled peacefully for 20 years. He wanted his daughter, Matilda, to rule England after him when he died. He married her to a powerful French lord Geoffrey of Anjou.
- But when Henry died, a powerful noble named Stephen seized the throne. Stephen was Henry’s nephew and a grandson of William the Conqueror, so many people thought he had a right to the throne. Matilda decided to fight back, however, and for the next 19 years there was a series of battles between the two. Finally, in 1153, an agreement was reached that Matilda’s son, Henry, would become England’s next king, after Stephen’s death.
- When Stephen died in October 1154, Matilda’s son became King Henry II of England.

Henry II: not just England’s King

- Henry II was not just King of England: he inherited Normandy from his mother, Matilda, as well other land in France from his father, Geoffrey of Anjou.
- As a result, Henry II was King of England, Duke of Normandy, Count of Anjou and Count of Maine. In 1152, he married a French duchess, Eleanor of Aquitaine, which meant that he also gained the largest region in his domain: the territories of Aquitaine stretched all the way to Spain. He even bought some areas of France, bullied his way into controlling others, and married his son off to a French duchess so he could acquire Brittany - another powerful, large area of northern France.
- In fact, Henry II was arguably one of the most powerful rulers in Europe, with land stretching from the Scottish borders to the south of France. He would soon also count Ireland in his empire too.

Invasion of Ireland

- Some of the early Norman kings (such as William the Conqueror and Henry I) showed little interest in conquering another Irish king and wanted Henry’s assistance. An army of English knights and barons led by the Earl of Pembroke - nicknamed ‘Strongbow’ - crossed over to Ireland and helped the Irish leader. However, the knights and barons took the opportunity to seize land in Ireland for themselves when Dermot died in 1171 and, within a few years, controlled more land than the Irish.
- Henry II himself visited Ireland in 1171 and was recognised as the ‘overlord’ by all the English settlers and the Irish leaders. In fact, this ‘deal’ became the basis of English sovereignty over the Irish for hundreds of years, up to the 1940s.
- Henry’s work in Ireland continued as he strengthened existing fortifications there and built new castles, as well as getting investors to develop Dublin as a centre of trade and commerce.

A well travelled King

- At this time, France was not a united country, as it is today. It was divided into areas, each ruled by powerful lords and dukes. France itself was one of these areas, ruled by a king, but other areas included Anjou, Aquitaine, Normandy, and Brittany.
- Henry II of England ruled over half of these areas, but not France, which was a large, powerful area ruled by King Louis VII.
- However, Henry II ruled more French land than Louis. With so much land to defend, Henry II spent much of his reign crossing between England and France. It has been estimated that Henry crossed the English Channel up to 30 times in his 35-year reign, prompting Louis VII to remark that Henry ‘must fly rather than travel by horse or ship’. There was conflict between Henry II and Louis VII during their reigns too.
- There was a war in Normandy in 1167, for example, and Louis joined in when Henry’s own sons rebelled against him in 1173.
Why did the Angevin Empire collapse under King John?

When Henry II died in 1189, he was replaced as king by his son, Richard I. Richard spent long periods of his reign in his French lands, or on crusades to the Holy Land. As a result, the ‘Angevin’ Empire became hard to govern. Richard had to return to England to stop rebellions, but he couldn’t prevent the French King Philip II from taking large areas of his land in France, including part of Normandy. Richard I died in 1199. His younger brother, John, became the new king, but things got gradually worse.

King John’s opponents

- King John had an opponent waiting to take control of some of his French lands. Powerful lords in Brittany and Anjou wanted John’s young nephew, Arthur, as king, and John was drawn into a series of battles against him to defend his land. Arthur also had the support of John’s rival, the French King Philip II. But in 1203, Arthur died in mysterious circumstances: many suspected that John stabbed him and threw his body in the River Seine.

- King Philip II of France continued his campaign against John, and invaded Anjou and Normandy. In 1204, John’s army was defeated in Brittany and began to retreat. Over the next few years, John lost Normandy, Anjou, Maine and other key areas. His military reputation reached such a low point that he was given a new nickname: ‘John Softsword’. Soon, John hardly had any land left in France.

More losses of territories under King John

- After the defeats in France, John went back to England.
- He attempted to raise an army to invade France and take back the land. But this meant raising taxes to pay for it, which made him very unpopular.
- After another defeat in France in 1214, the English barons decided to take action against their king. Taxes were higher than ever and French lands such as Normandy, Brittany, Anjou and Maine were no longer under John’s control. By now, his land in France consisted of just one area - Gascony.
- So the barons rebelled by putting together their own army and marching towards London, to take over.
- They gave John a choice: change the way he was running the country, or fight the army that was heading towards London. King John gave in and asked the barons what they wanted.
- John eventually agreed to their demands, set out in a document called Magna Carta (Great Charter). He promised, among other things, to respect the rights of the Church and the barons, to stop unfair taxes, and to ensure that trials would be held quickly and fairly.
The Hundred Year War

William the Conqueror was both King of England and Duke of Normandy. He spent most of his time up to 1072 in England, and then spent the majority of his time in Normandy. In fact, the early Norman kings of England (who were often based in Normandy) just regarded England as part of an empire they ruled. These kings also brought much of Wales and Scotland under their control and influence. Some kings of England, such as Henry II, were successful in gaining more land from the French. However, most of this land was eventually won back by the French during the reign of King John (1199-1216). By the time Edward III became King of England in 1327, only Gascony and a small part of northern France remained under the King of England’s control.

Background

- From 1337 to 1483 the English and French fought a series of wars, called the Hundred Years’ War. The main reason for these wars was to decide who should rule France: the King of England or the King of France? Ever since William the Conqueror had successfully invaded England, the Kings of England had owned various parts of France.
- At various stages in the early twelfth century the English crown owned a considerable empire in France known as the Angevin Empire – including Normandy, Maine, Anjou, Touraine, Gascony and Aquitaine.
- By the fourteenth century some of this land had been lost to the King of France, but successive English kings believed they were the legitimate rulers of France.
- The Hundred Years War was not one long war, but a series of battles. There were many years of little or no fighting, when both sides made peace deals, and times when there were major, aggressive campaigns by one side or another.
- One of the most notable battles in the later phase of the war occurred on 25 October 1415 near Agincourt, France. It was fought between the heavily outnumbered army of King Henry V of England and that of King Charles VI of France.

The Battle of Agincourt

- Henry lost half his men to disease and battle injuries, so decided to march his army north to Calais, where he would meet a fleet of English ships and return to England. But the French had no intention of letting Henry get away.
- The archers that fought for Henry used longbows. They could fire around 12 arrows a minute and could kill from nearly 200 metres away. The French tended to use crossbows, which were very powerful and accurate, but took longer to load.
- The French tried to charge at the English, but a combination of thick mud, heavy armour, and wooden spikes that the English had set up in front of themselves, slowed them down.
- The French continued to charge, but they were bogged down in the mud and unable to advance. The English archers continued their attack from above and slaughtered the French. The battle was a disaster for the French.
Soon after the Battle of Agincourt a treaty was created which made Henry V heir to the French throne; but he never lived to be king of a united England and France. In 1422, aged just 35, Henry died suddenly of dysentery. Soon after, French fortunes began to turn. Inspired by a French peasant girl called Joan of Arc, who claimed that voices of the saints had called on her to free France from the English, the French gradually began to drive the English out.

**Impact on France and England at the time**

Some areas of France (for example, Normandy) were devastated during the fighting. Armies on both sides seized crops and animals, and stole whatever riches they could find. If an army was retreating, they might burn all the buildings they left behind so their advancing enemy couldn’t use them. Lots of ordinary men fought (and died) on both sides too, although there were fewer battle casualties on the English side. Many English deaths were from dysentery, rather than destruction on the battlefield.

**The cost of war**

The high cost of weapons, food, armour and horses meant that wars were very expensive. As a result, both the French and English had to pay higher taxes, more frequently, to pay for the war. By the end of the war, England had lost wealthy French regions like Normandy and Aquitaine, so could no longer make money from these areas. However, some Englishmen got very rich from the stolen goods taken from France. Bodiam Castle in Sussex, for example, was built from the proceeds made from the war.

**French unity**

France had long been a collection of separate territories - Normandy, Aquitaine, Brittany and Gascony, for example. But a great number of the powerful, important French nobles who controlled these areas were killed during the war. As a result, the King of France emerged more powerful than ever. He was the one central leader of the country, and the French people rallied behind him. The Hundred Year War led to a surge in nationalist feelings among the French: a love of their country and a love of their king! Also, the high cost of paying for the war led the French to set up a better system of taxing the whole country: this was so successful that they were able to pay for the first full-time army in Europe.

**The military impact**

The war changed the way battles were fought. Before the Hundred Years War, the knight on horseback, fighting as part of the cavalry, was the most effective, powerful and feared part of an army. However, it was the archers, firing thousands of arrows, that led to the great French defeats at Crecy, Poitiers and Agincourt. This spelled the end of the dominance of the knight on horseback. From then on, the power of missile fire, first from the longbow and later from the handgun, was the most effective battle technique. Soon, the ordinary foot soldiers were the key element to an army, rather than the cavalry. The war also saw the increased use of gunpowder, cannons and handguns. And as soon as gunpowder was used regularly, castles proved to be of little use in battles, so they began a long decline.

**The birth of English identity**

England and France had been connected since the days when William, Duke of Normandy defeated Harold to become the King of England. The Hundred Years War caused the two countries to forge their own identities. During the course of the war, England stopped using French as its official court language, because it was seen as the ‘enemy language’. After losing its territory in France, England became less involved in relations with the rest of Europe. England began to see itself as ‘apart’ from Europe, rather than a part of it. A much more unified country developed against the French, Scots and everyone else; and Crecy, Agincourt and other major battles gave the English a sense of pride and a unique identity. With a common language and homeland, a sense of what it meant to be ‘English’ quickly developed. Kings started to use the English language, and people started speaking of themselves as ‘English’ - not just from a region of England. England’s outlook and aims changed too: it was now a country looking to conquer lands outside Europe, a country that would soon look to develop an empire in newly found lands.
Sir John Hawkins (1532-95)

John Hawkins was the second son of William Hawkins, who sailed in trading expeditions to West Africa in the 1530s. In his youth, John Hawkins’ first voyages were to the Spanish Canary Islands in the Atlantic. He became a respected English naval commander, merchant, privateer and pirate, and was responsible for building up the Elizabethan Royal Navy. He was the cousin of another famous explorer, Sir Francis Drake. Hawkins narrowly escaped with his life in a battle with the Spanish at San Juan de Ulua in 1568. He and Drake were surprised by an attack from the Spanish after they thought they had negotiated a truce. Drake and Hawkins swore vengeance for the treachery and the men they lost. He was also known as the ‘Father of the Slave Trade’.

Piracy and plunder
As Britain failed to find any of its own gold, it used other methods: one of the ways in which countries obtained wealth and riches at this time was simply by taking it from another country’s ships or territory. Any sailor with permission from the king or queen - known as a privateer - could attack foreign ships and steal from them. This permission was granted as long as the privateers shared anything they stole with the monarch. Any sailors who didn’t have permission, and kept any treasure for themselves, were known as pirates. An estimated 10 to 15 per cent of all Spanish treasure ships were successfully captured by rival countries. Some successful British privateers also took part in piracy - keeping the plunder for themselves rather than sharing it with the monarch.

Describe the circumstances in which Columbus found the Americas.

What is the difference between a privateer and a pirate?

Why did British invest in privateering and piracy against the Spanish Empire in the Tudor and Stuart eras?
Why was piracy replaced by plantations?

Explorers like Drake, Hawkins and Morgan made lots of money for Britain as privateers, by stealing fortunes from Spanish and Portuguese ships. However, by the late 1500s, it became clear that there were other ways to make money out of the New World of the Americas. Britain set up colonies there, and by the 1600s, developed huge farms called plantations, where crops like sugar and cotton were grown. Where were the plantations set up, and who would do the hard work of farming the crops? Why go to the Americas?

There were a number of reasons (or factors] why people chose to leave Britain for a new life in the New World.

Religious factors

In Britain, there were religious conflicts. Some religious groups such as Puritans and Catholics felt that they were not permitted to worship as they wished in Britain, so they left to settle in a place where they would have greater religious freedom.

Economic Factors

Following the establishment of the first successful British colony in America in 1602 (during the Stuart King James I’s reign), more Britons were willing to move to the New World to farm and to make money. Flomes were built and there was plenty of land to grow new ‘cash crops’ such as cotton, tobacco, sugar and potatoes. These were grown on farms known as plantations, which can grow specific crops in large quantities. The crops were then exported back to Britain for great profit. This was often the only thing that made the hardship of setting up colonies - with harsh weather, hunger and conflicts with Native Americans or indigenous people - worthwhile.

Into the Caribbean

It wasn’t just North America where new colonies were set up. British businessmen (or traders) also set up plantations in the West Indies on islands such as Bardados (1625) and the Cayman Islands (1620),

Global trading*

British investors were also keen on developing trade in the Americas, because it would help to pay for the growth of the British Empire elsewhere, in India. They realised that they could export crops such as cotton from the New World to Britain, while they could import and sell other goods to the colonies, such as wheat, rice, and coffee. Also, the cotton from American plantations helped supply British fabric factories, who in return would sell the fabric to British colonies for further profit.
Barbados was an island that the British acquired from the Spanish in 1625. The Stuart King Charles I then allowed the island to be established for tobacco plantations. To begin with, it couldn’t compete with the older plantations in North America, but by 1655, it was the largest British slave colony. Plantations soon switched to growing sugar, and by the 1690s, most of the island was covered in successful sugar plantations. Barbados became far more profitable for the British than the mainland America colonies, mainly because it was seen as just a profit-making area, and not as a place to settle.

As Britain’s worldwide empire grew in North America (and India), and became increasingly profitable, British monarchs stopped granting privateer permission because there was less need to steal from other nations. The Royal Navy also took increasingly effective anti-pirate measures. This meant that by the 1220s, piracy was rare in the Americas. Pirates were chased out of harbours where they had previously been able to seek safe haven, such as Nassau in the Bahamas. Plantations, not piracy, became the area where huge profits could be made for Britain.
From the 1560s onwards, British merchants became involved in the slave trade, and in 1619, the first African slaves arrived in the British colony of Virginia in America. Between 1690 and 1787, over 11,000 British ships took slaves to the Americas.

At the height of the slave trade, in the 1700s, an estimated six million Africans were taken across the Atlantic Ocean to slavery in America and the Caribbean. Meanwhile, British slave traders pocketed tens of millions of pounds, making Britain one of the richest nations in the world.

How did the slave trade work, and what were the economic and cultural impacts of it on Britain?

**Slavery**
The idea of slavery is a very old one, but slaves were used in very large numbers in the Tudor and Stuart periods, especially by countries that had started to take over North and South America and the Caribbean. These slaves endured short and brutal lives of hard work and extreme misery: sugar plantation slaves had an average life expectancy of 26, because they often had a poor diet, faced tough punishments, and had no proper medical attention.

**Development of the slave trade**
African slaves ended up in the Americas and West Indies as a result of a three-part trading journey known as the slave triangle.

Traders benefited greatly from the slave trade, and could expect to earn up to 800 per cent profit on their investment. They made money not just from selling slaves, but from the other parts of the slave triangle too, and their ships were rarely empty.

1. Traders leave Britain and other European ports, headed for Africa, with ships full of goods such as alcohol, guns, and cloth.
2. Traders trade these goods with African tribesmen in return for prisoners from other African tribes, who have already been captured to sell; they also kidnap Africans. The ships are loaded with these slaves and sail across the Atlantic.
3. In the Americas, the slaves are traded to plantation owners and farmers for goods such as sugar, cotton or tobacco. These are loaded onto the ships, which sail back to British or European ports to be sold at great profit.

All they needed was the initial investment to finance the ship, pay a strong crew to control the slaves, and buy the goods they would eventually trade for slaves on the African coast. Slave owners also profited from the slave trade: owners forced slaves to work all their lives, without wages, and in great hardship. The increased slave trading up until the 1800s, and a growing slave population, meant that plantations became more and more profitable.

At the same time, as the British Empire grew, the demand for the crops grown in the American plantations and the products made grew from them as well.
Economic impact
Britain wasn’t the only European nation to get involved in slavery during Tudor and Stuart times, but Britain made some of the largest profits. British slave traders didn’t just work on their own either: they were supported by investors back in Britain, including monarchs. Queen Elizabeth was a business partner of John Hawkins, and even gave him one of her ships to use for slave trading. King Charles II was a partner in the Royal African Company, a large slave-trading business that transported 60,000 slaves from Africa between 1680 and 1688. Many of the slaves were branded with the letters DY when they were captured, after the man who ran the company: James, Duke of York (the future King James II).
In fact, many Britons played a significant part in the slave trade - shipbuilders, ship owners (who allowed their ships to be used), bankers (who lent traders money), investors (who shared in the profits) and importers (who brought in the goods that slaves farmed). Many other Britons were linked in other ways: dockworkers unloading ships full of cotton that slaves had grown; workers turning the cotton into shirts; even the shop owners selling sugar and tobacco from the plantations. Whether directly or indirectly, all these people gained financially from slave trading: the British slave trade industry made approximately £60 million between 1761 and 1808, making Britain one of the richest and most powerful nations in the world.

Social impact
Another impact of the slave trade on Britain was that west coast towns and ports such as Liverpool, Glasgow and Bristol grew into large cities during the eighteenth century as they benefited from the shipping trade. Also, many of the fine buildings in these places (and to some extent in London) were built on the profits of slavery: for example, Liverpool Town Hall and the National Portrait Gallery in London were all paid for with the proceeds of slavery. A large number of Liverpool’s mayors were slave traders, and in parliament, so were many MPs.

George F. Cooke, a well-known British actor, said the following in 1785:
‘Every brick in the city of Liverpool is cemented with the blood of a slave.’

Up until the 1800s, it was not illegal to make money from slave trades. And because slave trading was so widespread, and many British people in power were involved in it, it led to the belief that Europeans were superior to Africans. However, some people at the time felt slavery was wrong, and by the late 1700s a campaign started to get the trade abolished. In 1807, the British parliament abolished the slave trade, and by 1833, it banned slave ownership not only in Britain but also throughout the British Empire.

1. In your own words, describe how the slave trade developed in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.
2. Make a list of the ways Britain was linked to the slave trade.

Practice Question
Compare the Vikings and British slave traders. In what ways were they similar?
In the sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries, people began to leave different European countries and settle in America. Early British settlers occupied the east coast of North America. These British settlements, or colonies, made up what could be described as Britain’s first successful overseas empire. By the mid-1700s there were thirteen successful British colonies. Who were the early settlers, and why did they leave Britain? What were the consequences of British colonisation for the indigenous (Native American) people?

**Why did people leave Britain?**
Several causes made people leave Britain at this time. Firstly, economic problems meant that unemployment among farmhands and labourers was high, and wages were low. People struggled to survive, and sometimes faced starvation as a result of failed harvests. As a result, a new start in a new land seemed very appealing.

Secondly, some Christian groups, such as Puritans, Quakers and Catholics, had suffered persecution in Britain since the 1530s, when King Henry VIII turned the country from Catholic to Protestant. For example, failure to attend Anglican Church services was punishable by prison or even execution. As a result, many of these religious groups left Britain to settle in North America, where they set up or joined colonies.

Around 80,000 Puritans migrated to America between 1630 and 1641. Emigration peaked during the British Civil Wars and during the time of Oliver Cromwell’s rule in Britain (1642-60), partly due to the fact that differences in religious beliefs led to conflicts between religious groups. Furthermore, religious groups in mainland Europe also wanted to escape persecution: some Dutch, French and Germans emigrated from the 1560s onwards. Some religious groups also wanted to emigrate in order to convert the Native Americans to Christianity.

The 13 American colonies, the goods and crops they produced, and early British settlements
What was attractive about North America?

People from overcrowded British towns were excited by the vast expanse of new land available to settlers in America, and by the chance to make money. People grew crops such as tobacco, corn and cotton, and then transported them back to Britain to sell. Livestock sales were also successful. This drove British businessmen to invest in more voyages. North American seas were stocked with profitable cod, and by the late 1600s, sugar plantations were also bringing in huge profits for Britain.

Case study: Virginia In the late 1500s, many British people tried to establish settlements in the area known as Virginia, but they failed to survive. In 1606, King James I gave permission for a group of businessmen to sail to Virginia, to establish a new colony called Jamestown, to see if the land was fit to grow crops, and to find gold if possible. The colony was founded in 1602, but the settlers faced incredible hardships. At first they had to rely on friendly local tribes to help them find and grow food, but some other tribes massacred numerous early settlers. Also, some of the early settlers were wealthy aristocrats who were unused to doing farm work. Life in Jamestown and other early colonies meant hunger and death for many, but the settlers were determined to stay. With the support of friendly native tribes, the settlers began to farm the land successfully, rather than focus on the search for gold. Tobacco planting in particular led to the success of Jamestown: tobacco was easy to grow and made high profits. This led to more and more British migrants seeking their fortune in the New World. Other settlements such as New Plymouth soon sprung up along the East coast of America - eventually developing into 13 colonies.

1. List the reasons why Britons migrated to, and built colonies in, North America,
2. Which reason do you think is the most important one? Why?
3. Why did the Jamestown settlers succeed?

Practice Question

Was religion the main factor in causing migration to America?

For ‘main factor’ questions you will need to explain how religion and other factors caused migration (see Chapters 5 and 6). Was religion or another cause the main factor?
Case study: Massachusetts
One of the most famous groups of British people to settle in America arrived in 1620 on a ship called the Mayflower. They were mainly Puritans; strict Protestant Christians who left because they were persecuted by others who did not agree with their religious beliefs. They, and other settlers, set up their own religious colony known as ‘New Plymouth’, with the aim of fishing and trading with other colonies. Enough of the colonists survived the winter, with help from local tribes, for it to become the first permanent colony (Jamestown eventually became deserted). These settlers became known as the Pilgrim Fathers. The New Plymouth colony worked very hard, and offshore fishing became the main source of farming: cod was in high demand as one of the few highly nutritious foods in British diets at this time. The settlers wanted peace and order in the colony, so they quickly established democratic principles and a constitution, to ensure that their Puritan religious beliefs would remain central to colony life. The example of the Pilgrim Fathers led to more religious groups moving to this area: more than 20,000 settlers arrived in Massachusetts between 1629 and 1640. The Pilgrim Fathers are seen by some historians as the first ‘real’ Americans: they weren’t just British emigrants looking for quick wealth. In fact, they managed to create religious and democratic rules and traditions that would become the foundation of an American identity.

Impact of British colonies on Native Americans
The indigenous (native) tribes in America had been there long before any Europeans. There were many tribes, with different cultures. Most did not have permanent settlements: they lived off the land and established camps where appropriate. As such, the British arrival in North America could be interpreted in different ways. For example, Native American tribes would have seen the British as ‘invaders’, who took territory by force and wiped out several tribes by passing on diseases that their immune systems could not deal with. As in Jamestown and New Plymouth, early settlers’ relations with the Native Americans were varied. Good relations initially existed with native tribes such as the Powhatan, and there were some intermarriages. However, in general, the British did not treat them with respect. Massacres were carried out on both sides, over land claims, but some settlers were particularly vicious: they often attacked and destroyed natives’ crops and villages. In 1500, there were approximately 560,000 Native Americans in ‘British’ territories. However by 1200, there were fewer than 280,000. Devastating European diseases such as measles and smallpox, the ill treatment of natives, and British expansion into native territory all had a huge impact on Native Americans.

Fact: Thanksgiving in the USA is a celebration and meal on the fourth Thursday in November. The tradition dates back to a feast held by some of the earliest settlers, the Pilgrims, in 1621 to 'give thanks' for an exceptionally bountiful harvest.
A seventeenth-century drawing of Captain John Smith’s encounter with native people in Virginia; Smith was a well-known early British settler who became internationally famous when Disney animated the story of Pocahontas; the drawing appeared in a book published in 1624 by Captain Smith, called The Generali Historie of Virginia, New-England, and the Summer Isles Americans. Many of them had to find a new way of life, adapt to European ways, or move further inland to avoid the settlers. Today, the Native Americans account for only 0.7 per cent of the total population of the USA. For the British settlers, however, overall they gained a better life in the 13 colonies, and saw it as a land of opportunity and freedom where British culture and religious beliefs could thrive.

Adapted from a description of the tribes encountered by the Virginian settlers, from the document Nova Britannia, written in 1609:

It is inhabited by wild and savage people that live all over the forests. They have no law but native. They are easy to be brought to good [Christian ways] but would happily like better conditions.

Questions
1. Describe the successes of the Pilgrim Fathers.

2. Identify the advantages and disadvantages about colonisation of North America to: the British; the Native American tribes.

3. a Study Source C. What is happening in the drawing?
   b Compare Source C and Source D. Explain how they are similar in their attitudes to Native Americans.

4. What was the British attitude to Native Americans in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries? Explain your answer.
Why did the British fall out with the American colonists?

By the 1760s, the British had gained an overseas empire in North America. They controlled a huge area of land on the eastern coast, stretching back from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River. Divided into 13 colonies, each had strong ties to Britain. But in 1776, these 13 colonies broke away from Britain and declared themselves to be united as one independent country - the United States of America. How and why did this happen?

Independent actions

In Virginia and other colonies, the British idea of having a class system of aristocrats (titled nobles) and monarchs was seen as outdated. The people who had succeeded in America were businessmen, mainly due to the plantations. This meant America was full of self-made’ people, and as a result, many believed in equality - the idea that no matter who you were, it was possible to make a success of yourself. Early colonies such as New Plymouth also set up their own constitutions, which clashed with British rule. So the idea of being governed by men far away in Britain, who had inherited their wealth, started to seem odd. Over time, they began to dislike the control of their colonies by the British, and did not want to be a part of the British Empire. Some negative attitudes towards colonists by the people in Britain didn’t help either.

T Eimaij Adapted from a document called ‘On the Plantation Trade’, written in 1698 by an English economist and politician who recommended government control of colonial economies:

That our subjects in the American colonies are children of the state, and are to be treated as such, no one denies; but it can’t reasonably be admitted that the mother country should [ruin] herself to enrich the children, nor that Great Britain should weaken herself to strengthen America.

The Navigation Acts

When the British started to intervene too much in American affairs it caused resentment among the colonists. The Navigation Acts of 1651-73 contributed to the colonists’ desire for independence from Britain. These acts were introduced to enrich Britain; they were a series of laws which stipulated that American colonies could only import (buy) and export (sell) goods with British ships sailing to and from British ports. This monopoly of trade with just the British greatly restricted the type and amount of goods that could be brought to America, which meant competition for products was scarce, and so prices were often very high. When American colonists tried to smuggle in cheaper goods from other countries, the British patrolled the waters and seized the smugglers.

Taxation

If the colonists wanted to buy anything from countries other than Britain, the goods had to go first to Britain, where they were taxed. There was a very high tax on goods such as glass, coffee, wine and sugar. There was also the Stamp Act of 1765, which imposed a tax on the paper used for official documents. Colonists were also made to pay taxes to fund the British wars against the French that the colonists felt had little to do with them. Some colonists started to believe that if they were taxed so heavily, then they should have representatives in the British parliament, and have a say in British government.
The Boston Tea Party
Colonists had many reasons to complain, and so a conflict began to build. Colonists were especially upset when the British taxed tea: three pence was paid to Britain for every pound of tea sold in America. In protest, a group of Americans boarded British ships in Boston, in December 1773, and dumped 342 crates full of tea (worth around £11,000) into the harbour. The British responded to the ‘Boston Tea Party’ by closing Boston port, causing even more anger. When the British also banned all town meetings, the Americans began meeting in secret. In 1774, 56 representatives from the colonies met in Philadelphia to decide what to do. This meeting is known as the ‘First Congress’ (and even today, the American parliament is still known as Congress). Delegates at the First Congress decided to fight the British: the War of Independence began.

The Colonies Reduced was published in Britain in 1767; it appeared in colonial newspapers as a protest against the hated Stamp Act. The cartoon depicts Britannia, and she is surrounded by her amputated limbs which are named Virginia, Pennsylvania, New York and New England.

List the reasons why Americans wanted independence from Britain, and how they achieved it.

Try to categorise your reasons into ‘long-term causes’ and ‘short-term causes’.

Create a timeline, of what happened in American and British relations, with the following dates: mid seventeenth century, 1765, 1773, 1774.

Study Source B. How useful is it to a historian studying British involvement in America in the eighteenth century?

Tip
Explain the point the cartoonist is making about the consequences of enforcing the Stamp Act.
What were the consequences of losing the Colonies?

When discussing the history of the British Empire, historians often mention the ‘rise and fall of the British Empire’. The loss of the American colonies at the Treaty of Paris (1783) was certainly a setback. But was it a complete failure for Britain?

The War of Independence
The British sent soldiers to force the American rebels to stay loyal, but they were met with fierce resistance. In July 1775, the Americans appointed George Washington as the leader of their army - he would go on to become their first President. A year later, in July 1776, Congress met again and formally declared themselves independent from Britain.

Although the 13 American colonies declared independence in 1776, there was over five years of bitter fighting before the British conceded that they had lost. War officially ended on 3 September 1783, when the Treaty of Paris was signed; but it is the British surrender at the Battle of Yorktown (1781) that was seen as the decisive end of the war. Britain had lost many battles throughout the war, but Yorktown was the most humiliating because the Americans completely surrounded the British and forced Lord Cornwallis, Britain’s army leader, to surrender. After Yorktown, Britain realised that victory was impossible and America’s ally, the French, increased their support for the Americans further. This meant Britain had little choice but to formally sign the Treaty of Paris, and so this valuable colony was lost to Britain.

Canada
When America broke away from British rule in 1776, the colonies to the north (now known as Canada) remained part of the British Empire. These huge colonies, such as Quebec, Ontario, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, remained a key part of the empire for nearly a century, until they achieved ‘self-government’ (the right to run most of their own affairs) in 1867. America lost 100,000 settlers to Canada, who preferred to emigrate rather than live under a republican government.

Losing America, gaining an empire?
The maps on these pages help us understand the consequences, for Britain and its empire, of losing the American colonies.
The war cost an estimated £80 million, which increased Britain’s debts. However, Britain was rapidly industrialising and was very wealthy. But the human costs were high, with an estimated 10,000 British soldiers dying during battles or from disease, and up to about 20,000 sailors dying.

Britain and America were soon trading again after the war, and by 1285 this trade was back to its pre-war levels. For example, the British slave trade to the Americas continued. As the USA eventually became an ally of Britain’s, losing it was not important in the long term. Britain’s pride may have been dented, but financially, Britain was still as strong as before - if not more. Since the age of Elizabethan exploration, Britain had had a very strong navy, and by 1813 it had developed into the world’s biggest. It helped to defend Britain’s existing colonies, gain new colonies, and fight against opponents such as the French. The British Empire stretched from Canada to the Caribbean, parts of Africa (see Chapter 8), and India (see Chapter 2), and Britain was able to focus its wealth and resources in expanding and developing these. The vast territories gained in Africa and India between the 1200s and 1920 meant that Britain controlled a quarter of the world. At that point, the British Empire was the biggest empire the world had ever known.

Australia
After the War of Independence, Britain needed a new place to send criminals, because it was no longer able to send them to America. Australia became the place to send them. Furthermore, like New Zealand and Canada, Australia was a loyal and dutiful colony. It provided willing markets for British goods, and also locations for ambitious or poverty-stricken Britons to emigrate to.

1. Identify three consequences of Britain losing the American War of Independence.
2. Write a short paragraph explaining what you think is the significance of the War of Independence for Britain.
3. Were political or economic reasons responsible for causing the War of Independence in 1225? Explain your answer.

The West Indies and South America
Britain colonised parts of the Caribbean and the eastern coast of North America from the 1500s, until American independence in 1226. After that, Britain kept Central American territories (and Canada) until the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Central American areas such as Anguilla, Montserrat and the Cayman Islands, as well as the Falkland Islands in South America, are examples of countries in the Americas that remained a part of the British Empire.

USA
After beating the British, America was now a republic controlling its own political and economic affairs. It was now free to develop and expand as it wished. However, America lost up to 25,000 men during the war, mostly through disease. The impact of the soldiers’ deaths on American labour and industry was felt for many years. On the other hand, the result of the war meant that Americans were able to forge stronger links with the French, since they had supported the Americans against the British. However, the cost of helping the Americans fight caused severe problems in France, which developed into their own revolution - the French Revolution - in 1289.

The British Empire in 1920
While some British people headed to America between the sixteenth and eighteenth centuries, people from other countries migrated to Britain. Immigrants who were escaping religious persecution from France, for example, contributed greatly to British life at this time. However, their migration provoked anti-French and anti-immigration feelings. Were these French Protestants, known as Huguenots, a welcome addition to Britain?

**French Protestants arrive in Britain**

France was a Catholic country, but it experienced a series of religious civil wars between the 1560s and the 1590s. The ruling French Catholics severely persecuted those who wanted to follow Protestantism. Hostilities reached a peak in August 1572 when tens of thousands of French Protestants were killed in the St Bartholomew’s Day Massacre. To escape the killings, French Protestants (or Huguenots) started to emigrate to many different destinations, and neighbouring Britain was an ideal choice. This was because England’s King Henry VIII had turned the country from Catholic to Protestant during the English Reformation in the 1530s. French emigration continued when Henry’s Protestant children, Edward VI and Elizabeth I, ruled England. They made the country a welcome place of refuge for fellow Protestants.

Edward VI, for example, allowed the first French church to be set up, and Elizabeth’s ministers invited skilled Huguenot craftsmen to work in England and teach British apprentices their skills. As some Huguenots settled in Britain, more from abroad followed them. Indeed, from Elizabeth’s time onwards, Britain experienced an ongoing boom in wealth as the first industrialised nation and skilled Huguenots played a part in this.

**Another wave of migration**

The number of French migrants fleeing to Britain began to drop as the French religious wars ended by 1598. French King Henri IV issued a bill of rights for the Huguenots called the **Edict of Nantes**, which granted them freedom to practise their religion without fear. However, France became an unwelcome and dangerous place for French Protestants again in the time of Henri’s grandson, King Louis XIV. He agreed with his advisers that allowing Huguenots to remain in France meant a threat to his own absolute power as king. He withdrew the privileges Huguenots had been granted since his grandfather’s time, and gave Protestant ministers the choice of converting to Catholicism or emigrating. Protestant families faced increasing intimidation. In 1685, Louis tore up the Edict of Nantes: without this written legal protection, the Huguenots were officially heretics and faced persecution once more. This time, despite a ban on fleeing the country, up to 200,000 Huguenots fled from France. Many faced risky journeys at sea, including up to 50,000 who escaped to England.

**St Bartholomew’s Day Massacre**

An estimated 3000 Protestants were murdered in Paris in this massacre in August 1572, and as many as 70,000 throughout France. The massacre started because Catholics believed Protestants were plotting rebellions and war with Spain. This event marked a turning point in the French religious wars, and the Huguenots lost many of their leaders.

A drawing from 1685, of French Huguenots landing at Dover, fleeing from France when Louis XIV revoked the Edict of Nantes.
Impact of the Huguenots in Britain

The French Huguenots contributed much to British life and had a positive social and economic impact on Britain. As they were largely highly skilled craftsmen, they revitalised British industries such as watchmaking, gun-making and bookbinding. Huguenot weavers, merchants and joiners established businesses in communities as far apart as London, Plymouth, Rochester, Norwich and Canterbury.

The Huguenots transformed existing British industries, and started up new ones such as paper-making. With no paper mills before the Huguenots arrived, Britain’s paper industry relied mainly on imports from France. But by the 1710s, Huguenot expertise meant that Britain boasted 200 paper mills, supplying nearly 70 per cent of Britain’s paper market. British banknotes were printed by a Huguenot business from 1712 onwards, for over 250 years. Britain also gained scientists, intellectuals and experts from France that boosted the country’s business, arts and crafts.

However, there was some anti-Huguenot feeling in Britain upon their arrival. Some felt that they took jobs away from English people and were full of diseases. They ate strange foods (such as snails) and one Bristol MP even compared them to one of the plagues of Egypt in the Bible. But, in time, the Huguenots merged into English society. They changed or translated their surnames to sound more English (Blanc became White, for example) and married English men and women.

The impact of the Huguenot migration was significant for France too: France lost many talented merchants and craftsmen. Its glassware and hat-making industries were lost, for example. In fact, France was so badly affected that King Louis XIV’s ambassador to Britain offered Huguenots cash to return to France! The Huguenots were France’s loss and Britain’s gain.

1. How useful is Source B to a historian studying British attitudes towards immigrants to Britain in the 1700s? Explain your answer using Source B and your contextual knowledge.

2. Has religion been the main factor in causing migration to and from Britain since 790? Explain your answer with reference to religion and other factors. Look back over your notes from previous chapters to refresh your memory.

Practice question

Compare the impact of the Huguenots on Britain with the Pilgrim Fathers on America. In what ways were they similar?

Source B
What were the Ulster Plantations and the Highland Clearances?

While Huguenots were moving into Britain, there was also a great movement of people out of, and around, the country. In the northern part of Ireland (known as Ulster), English and Scottish Protestants settled on land confiscated from the Irish, while people who lived in the Highlands of Scotland moved to the Scottish Lowlands and other parts of Britain, or emigrated abroad.

**The Ulster Plantations**

The Ulster Plantations began in the early 1600s during the reign of King James I of England (and VI of Scotland). He planted the northern part of Ireland (Ulster) from Scotland and England, hoping they would be obedient to him and his government. Most settlers moved hoping to find a new and better life for themselves and their families, but most Irish people resented what they saw as an ‘invasion’. The Ulster Plantations brought big changes. The population grew rapidly as thousands of settlers arrived, and they brought with them new customs and a new religion - Protestantism. Resentment between the Protestant settlers and the mainly Catholic Irish continued for centuries and often spilled over into violence.

**The Highland Clearances**

In the early 1700s, over half the people in Scotland lived in the Highlands. Most spoke Gaelic, a language similar to Irish, and the way of life was different from those who lived in Lowland Scotland. Many Highlanders belonged to ‘clans’ (a type of family group, like a tribe). Clan members supported their chief in return for protection and leadership. Most Highlanders were farmers, and families lived on the same small farms for generations. They lived in simple stone cottages called crofts, and made money from selling wheat they grew on the farms. In the Lowlands, the towns and cities were growing, and manufacturers and merchants were becoming wealthy.

The Highlanders were largely Catholics and Jacobites (supporters of the Stuart royal family), and had participated in the Stuart-led Jacobite Rebellions. These occurred in 1715 and 1745-46 after the last Stuart monarch, Queen Anne, died in 1714; following her death the German prince George of Hanover had come over to rule the country as King George I. Descendants of the Stuarts tried to regain the throne through the rebellions, but they failed. After they had been finally defeated at the Battle of Culloden in 1746, the English wanted to reduce the power of the Highlanders and their chiefs, since many of them were loyal to the Stuarts, and not to George I. The English began a brutal policy of removing all potential opposition in the Highlands by eliminating Scottish chiefs who supported the Stuarts, together with their clans. Some chiefs had no choice but to keep the English happy; they did this by supporting English demands to clear the Highlands of its clans, in what became known as the Highland Clearances. Laws were passed making life difficult for Highlanders, and bagpipes were banned because they were viewed as ‘instruments of war’.
A new type of farming in the Highlands
Much of the land in the Highlands was owned by Englishmen and rented by Highlanders. However, at this time, the English landlords began to prefer the idea of having large sheep farms, rather than renting small strips of land to tenant farming families. Sheep farming made the landlords more money. However, the Highland farmers were usually too poor to buy the large numbers of sheep needed, so chiefs and landlords began to clear the Highlanders away to make way for the more profitable sheep farming. Many were forced to move to towns and cities in the Lowlands to look for work, but many more emigrated abroad.

How were the Highlands cleared?

A painting by Scottish artist Thomas Faed, called The Last of the Clan (1865); Faed was a popular and respected artist in London; the women in the picture are fashionably dressed for peasants

Different tactics were used to clear the Highlands. From the 1780s to the 1820s, tens of thousands of Highlanders were evicted from their homes. Evictions of up to 2000 families in one day were not uncommon. Highland families were forced onto barren coastal land, or other unworkable land, and many starved to death. Highlanders who refused to leave could be killed. Even the old and dying had their homes burned or were thrown out in the open to die. Many of the chiefs were fully aware of what was going on; and many clans felt betrayed.

Impact on the British Empire
Thousands of Scottish people emigrated during the era of the Highland Clearances, to countries such as Canada, America and England as well as to Scottish cities such as Dundee, Edinburgh and Glasgow. The word diaspora describes the scattering of a group of people across a wide location. The Scottish diaspora contributed greatly to those countries in which the Highlanders settled - and to the empire itself. Many Scots contributed engineering skills to the building of roads, railways and many building schemes in the colonies. Many of the empire’s greatest explorers, such as David Livingstone, were Scottish. Some historians argue that the empire didn’t really start expanding until England and Scotland stopped fighting and the Scots put their efforts into empire-building. The British Empire was most certainly British, not English.

1. a) Why were Protestants 'planted' in Ulster by King James? B) What was the impact of the Ulster Plantations?
2. Who were the Highlanders?
3. Why did the Highlanders rebel against the English during the Jacobite Rebellions?
4. a) Suggest two reasons why the Highlands were cleared, b) How were the Highlands cleared?
5. Compare the Ulster Plantations with the Highland Clearances.

Practice questions
How useful is Source B to a historian studying Scottish emigration from the Highlands in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries?
Tip
Remember that to demonstrate how useful a source is, you should also show that you know what point the source is trying to make. Try to link it to your knowledge of this period and topic.
British control of India

India is rich in natural resources - iron ore, silk, copper, gold, silver, gemstones, tea and timber. Spices (which were very valuable in the Middle Ages) are common in India too. This meant that any country that made strong trade links with India could potentially become very rich and powerful.

Rivalry amongst Nations

- In the 15th century a sea route to India was discovered and European countries began sending ships to trade with India.
- Initially they traded by swapping items such as guns and swords for spices, cotton, tea and silk. This trade made the Europeans a big profit.
- Britain, short of people to help control its Empire began to pay and train up Indian men to become soldiers to fight for them.
- With the permission of local rulers the European traders set up permanent bases called trading stations.
- These were warehouses surrounded by high walls and guarded by soldiers where goods could be stored or traded. Many traders moved their families to live in the trading stations.
- There were often workshops or 'factories' within these trading ports that turned some of the raw materials into goods; e.g. cotton was woven into cotton cloth in trading stations to supply the huge demand for cheap, washable fabrics.
- Opium, an addictive drug, was also grown and sold by British traders in China at a huge profit.

ECONOMIC FACTOR
The British (and other European countries) went to India as there were valuable resources to make their country richer.

The East India Company (EIC)

- The British trading stations were run by one company - the East India Company (EIC).
- It had been trading all over the world since it was set up in 1600. The company’s ships carried cheap British goods and exchanged them for goods in countries as far away as Japan and China. They then brought the fine china, silk, coffee and spices back to Britain.
- The businessmen in charge of the company, and the kings and queens to whom they paid taxes, made a fortune from this trade.
- It had a monopoly in British trade in India to begin with, but this ended in 1694. However, by then the EIC was so powerful, with its own army and navy, that it continued to be the major force in trade in India for the next century.

Invasions in the 17th and 18th Centuries

- Control over the goods coming out of India wasn’t the only thing that attracted the Europeans: India was a good place in which to sell their own goods to the many millions of Indians in their territory.
- Dutch, French and British companies realised that by helping certain Hindu princes (by providing them with weapons and soldiers, for example), they could affect the outcome of the wars, and help the princes to beat their enemies. They could then demand rewards from the princes they had supported - perhaps land or goods.
British rule over India

The Mughals (ruling Emperors) began to lose control of India by the late 1600s and early 1700s. It was at exactly this time, when much of India was at war, that some European nations - and powerful trading companies such as the East India Company - began to take advantage of the situation.

Expansion of the EIC

- In the 1700s, the EIC began to take more and more Indian land. It had its own private army and navy, and used them against various regional rulers of India.
- For example, at the Battle of Plassey in 1757, around 3000 company troops (2200 of whom were local Indians) led by Robert Clive defeated an Indian army of over 40,000.
- This allowed the EIC to take over Bengal, one of the richest parts of India.
- The company also fought against other European nations, such as the Dutch, and took over their trading posts.

Robert Clive

- Born in Shropshire to a wealthy family.
- Moved to India, aged 18, to work as an office clerk for the EIC.
- Joined the company’s army and quickly proved to be a great leader.
- Best known for his victory at the Battle of Plassey in June 1757. Victory enabled the company to progress further across India.
- Returning to England, was elected to parliament in 1761 and given an Irish barony.
- In 1763, returned to India as Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the East India Company’s army.

Britain takes control

- Over the following decades, more and more of India came under the rule of the East India Company.
- Despite making huge profits in India, the EIC was losing money elsewhere, mainly as a result of a decline in trade with America at this time.
- In 1773, the British government decided to help solve the company’s financial problems (as the EIC paid taxes and they didn’t want to lose India). The Government of India Act stated that both the British government and the East India Company controlled the territory in India jointly.
- A Governor General was appointed to control the territory, and Warren Hastings was given the job.
- After Britain lost the valuable American colonies in the late 1700s, India became an even more important part of the empire. The British government became increasingly involved in India and gradually took more control of the EIC’s affairs.

Warren Hastings

- First Governor General of India (1733-85).
- Best known as a reformer: reorganised tax systems, tightened anti-corruption laws, wiped out thieving gangs who were running wild in the countryside.
- Tried to preserve existing Indian traditions and systems too.
- Despite ending his career in a controversial way - Hastings was falsely accused of ‘high crimes and misdemeanors' by his political enemies - he is regarded as one of the key figures in establishing India as part of the British Empire.

ECONOMIC FACTOR

After losing the American colonies the British needed India more than ever!
By the 1850s, most of India was ruled by a British company - the East India Company. Many of the British people who worked for the EIC lived in great luxury in India and made huge fortunes. To help ‘protect’ them in India - and to make sure things ran smoothly - British soldiers were stationed there. The army also recruited local Indians as soldiers.

**Sepoys and Rebellion**

- According to Queen Victoria, the aim of the British Empire was to ‘protect the poor natives and advance civilisation’.
- It was clear, then, that there was more to the empire than just the financial benefits. British empire-builders felt they were superior to the native people who lived in the colonies, who were a different colour and worshipped in a different way.
- In India, the British claimed that they were improving the country, by building railways, roads, schools and hospitals, rather than exploiting it.
- However, in the army, the Sepoys were very unhappy:
  - They weren’t treated well;
  - They had little hope of promotion;
  - They were often the first to be sent to the most dangerous places;
  - Some were being pressured into converting to Christianity.

**The Spark**

- In January 1857, a new Enfield rifle was given to each Indian soldier.
- It was rumoured that the grease covering the ammo (called cartridges) was made from animal fat, a mixture of pork and beef fat. Hindus don’t eat beef because cows are sacred to them, and Muslims are forbidden to eat pork.
- The Sepoys objected to the new cartridges, but they were largely ignored.
- When 85 Sepoys refused to use the cartridges in Meerut on 9 May 1857, they were arrested and sent to jail for ten years. The day after, a group of Sepoys broke into revolt in Meerut.
- They killed British officers, freed the imprisoned Sepoys and set fire to army barracks and soon the whole of northern India was engulfed in rebellion.

**India at War**

- The main battles were fought in Delhi, Cawnpore and Lucknow. The massacre of 200 British women and children at Cawnpore (July 1857) outraged the British.
- Back home in Britain, crowds cried for blood. Even Queen Victoria was horrified. Soon, 70,000 fresh troops were sent to India armed with the latest Colt revolvers made in America. Revenge was violent, bloody and swift.

**Rebellion or fight for independence?**

- Peace was declared on 8 July 1858, but the rebellion had shocked the British.
- After the events, the British were a lot more careful about how they governed India.
- Running of the country was taken away from the East India Company and replaced with direct rule by the British government.
- For Indians today, it is most often referred to as the ‘War of Independence’ or the ‘Great Rebellion’. It is looked upon as the first episode in the struggle against the British for an independent country.
Impact of Empire - India

India was the largest and richest of all the territories in Britain’s empire. In 1858, a viceroy appointed by the British was put directly in charge of the country and ran it on behalf of Queen Victoria. The queen even gave herself an extra title, Empress of India, in addition to her traditional title of Queen of Great Britain and Ireland. Indeed, India was the colony that many people in Britain treasured most - even calling it ‘the jewel in the crown’.

Impact on India

- British would harshly deal with any resistance.
- Malaria & smallpox vaccines.
- Improved sewers and water supplies.
- £400 million invested into India’s transport system, much still survives today.
- 30,000km of railways built.
- 130,000 bridges built.
- Resources taken from India – tea, coffee, sugar, gemstones, gold, silver, silk and spices.
- Irrigation programme introduced increased the land that could be farmed by 8 times.
- Devastating famines in the late 1800s killed millions – farms were producing ‘cash crops’ not food.
- New legal system created ensuring Indian traditions and culture was taken into account
- Factories were built in India owned by British mill owners but provided work.
- Innovations in coal mining were paid for by the British.

Impact on Britain

- Boost to economy, industry and wealth – supplying Britain with raw materials which could be turned into finished products and sold back to countries in the British Empire.
- In 1900 these exports thought to be worth £140 million a year.
- Jobs for merchants, sailors, dockworkers, factory workers, shopkeepers, etc...
- Buildings such as the Royal Pavilion in Brighton were influenced by Indian architecture.
- Queen Victoria employed an Indian secretary who taught her Hindi and Urdu.
- Tea industry alone made £30 million a year.
- The Indian army fought for Britain in both world wars – in WW1 1 out of every 3 British soldiers came from India!
- Indian tea became the national drink of Britain.
- Indian food became popular in Britain.
The Scramble for Africa

Until the 1800s, European countries weren’t really interested in Africa - unless it was to make use of people from the west of Africa as slaves. Britain was one of the nations that took the most land: 16 colonies were added to the British Empire between 1820 and 1900.

**African benefits**

- Explorers and missionaries (such as Britain’s David Livingstone) brought back tales of African gold, diamonds and ivory - as well as ‘cash crops’ such as rubber, coffee and timber - so some of the world’s richest countries looked to Africa as a way of getting even richer.
- The idea was to take over land in Africa, strip the natural resources and then sell finished goods from Britain back to the people who lived there.
- This was also a time of ‘Empire building’ where having control of lots of land made you seem more important than rival countries.
- Christian missionaries referred to Africa as the ‘Dark Continent’ and by preaching the benefits of Christianity thought their job was to ‘enlighten’ it.

**The Scramble**

- In the late 1870s, several European nations started to ‘claim’ land in Africa. The French and Belgians began to colonise much of the west of Africa, while the Germans and the British were interested in the east and the south.
- Britain took over 16 huge areas of land (or colonies) in Africa during the ‘scramble’, including Sudan, Nigeria, Kenya, Egypt and Northern and Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe and Zambia).
- Britain’s land ran in an almost unbroken line from Egypt in the north of Africa to South Africa in the south.
- In total, the British had claimed 32 per cent of Africa by 1900.
- Britain's control of key areas of African land was important because it lay along part of Britain's sea route to India.

**African resistance**

- African people fought fiercely at times to defend their lands, but the invention of the Maxim gun (a type of machine gun) gave the European armies a major advantage over the Africans, who were mainly armed with spears and swords.
- Sometimes, African tribes scored major victories over European countries (such as in the Zulu War of 1829), but more often than not the European invaders wiped out the African forces.
- After they were defeated, many Africans suffered hardship and hunger as their traditional way of life was destroyed.
- Some were forced to work as cheap labour in mines or on huge British-owned farms growing tea, coffee, cotton or cocoa for export back to Britain.

Africa in 1900, after the ‘scramble’, showing the areas controlled by various European countries

ECONOMIC FACTOR
There was a great deal of money to be made by colonising Africa.

GOVERNMENT FACTOR
To have more colonies was to be more powerful than the European rivals.
Cecil Rhodes

Cecil Rhodes is regarded as one of Britain’s greatest empire-builders. Streets, schools, and even two African countries - Southern and Northern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe and Zambia) - were named after him. When he died, statues of him were erected all over the world.

Cecil Rhodes

- Born in Bishop's Stortford in Hertfordshire, England; 1853.
- In 1870 went to Cape Colony aged 17, the southern part of Africa controlled by the British, to work in gold and diamond mines. Soon made a fortune.
- In 1881 was elected to the Cape Colony parliament, and in 1890 became its Prime Minister.
- In 1888 he formed a company, De Beers, which owned most of the gold and diamond fields in southern Africa. He then used his money and political skills to gain control of more land.
- When gold and diamonds were discovered in the Transvaal, an area controlled by Dutch settlers known as Boers, Rhodes was refused permission to mine there. Britain was dragged into wars with the Boers.

Rhodes’ ideas about Empire

- Rhodes was an imperialist, and believed that Britain should extend its power and influence over other parts of the world by any means possible.
- He believed he could take Darwin’s theory of evolution, which said that weaker animals would die out and stronger ones would evolve and survive, and apply it to countries or peoples.
- Darwin’s theory made Rhodes think it was right for the stronger (and therefore ‘superior’) Britain to take over weaker countries.
- This belief - called social Darwinism - was frequently used to justify European imperialism in Africa and other areas of the world.

Cecil Rhodes assessed

- Rhodes is a controversial figure.
- His actions caused the Boer war in which thousands died.
- While a politician, he introduced an act that pushed black people from their lands and increased taxes on their homes. He also made it harder for black people to vote.
- On the other hand, he brought vast wealth to Britain and made the southern part of Africa into a more stable and developed place.
- When he died, he left money in a scholarship funds.
- Ideas like social Darwinism were widely accepted at the time, and Rhodes was simply doing what lots of people and countries were doing.
- However, others argue that there should be no excuse for a person’s actions and beliefs, no matter when they lived. We look at Rhodes differently today because we have contrasting views about empire and race to those that were common in previous centuries.

IDEOLOGY FACTOR
The idea of Social Darwinism was a justification for migration to Africa.

INDIVIDUAL FACTOR
Cecil Rhodes is an example of migrating abroad and having success. This would have inspired others.

The removal of the Cecil Rhodes statue, in April 2015, from the University of Cape Town
Britain and Egypt

The British government took no part in paying for the Suez Canal, or its construction. However, the route was vital for Britain’s trade with India as it meant that ships could take a short cut. Within a few years of the canal opening, around 80 per cent of the ships using the canal were British. Furthermore, in the event of another rebellion in India, or problems in other British colonies in the area, the time saved by using the canal could be vital. So to secure the route, the British government bought a controlling share in the canal from the Egyptians when they got into financial difficulty. The deal to buy this share of the canal was organised by British Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli, who arranged for the government to borrow £4 million.

Egypt in Trouble

Just a few years after receiving money from the sale of their shares in the canal, the Egyptian government was again in economic difficulties. The British, in partnership with the French, gave money to the Egyptians in return for control over much of their trade, railways, post offices and ports. But in 1882, the Egyptians rebelled against this British and French ‘interference’. In one riot in Alexandria, a number of British people were killed, and the British responded by ordering the navy to bomb the city.

Occupying Egypt

A few days after the bombing of Alexandria in July 1882, soldiers from Britain and 2000 soldiers from British India entered Egypt. They began taking control of major towns and cities, including the capital, Cairo. Over 40 navy warships secured the Suez Canal. So, by 1882, Britain had gained control of another African country. Thousands of soldiers were permanently based in Egypt and British navy warships defended the Suez Canal.
In the 1800s, two groups of Europeans competed for control of land in southern Africa - the British and the Boers. The Boers were descendants of Dutch settlers who had gone to southern Africa in the 1650s. They were mostly farmers (boer is the Dutch word for farmer) and their colony was named Cape Colony. In 1806, the British invaded Cape Colony and it soon officially became part of the British Empire. The Boers resented British control and left Cape Colony to head north. They set up two new colonies named the Transvaal and the Orange Free State.

Causes of the Boer Wars

- In 1862, diamonds were discovered in the new Boer states.
- The British government tried to get the Boers to unite their states with the British ones, but the Boers refused.
- British troops were sent in to try to force the Boers to accept British rule, but the Boers fought back brilliantly.
- The Boers won the first Boer war (1867-1881) and the British pulled out.
- In 1886, gold was discovered in the Boer states. British businessman Cecil Rhodes saw this as an opportunity and opened dozens of mines inside Boer territory. Thousands of British workers flooded into the area and soon the Boers felt their land was under threat.
- The Boer leader, Paul Kruger, refused to give the British workers any political rights.
- Tensions reached breaking point when Cecil Rhodes sponsored a plan (which failed) to overthrow Kruger and replace him with a British ruler.
- The British began to send more troops to Cape Colony, and placed them along the borders with the Boer states. In 1899, another war broke out.

The Second Boer War: 1899-1902

- Early on in this war, known as the Second Boer War, the small Boer army stunned the British with a series of victories. The British had completely underestimated the Boers, who were highly skilled fighters, armed with modern guns, who knew the terrain well.
- In January 1900, the British responded to their losses by sending half a million troops to fight approximately 50,000 Boer soldiers. The British army used all the hi-tech weaponry they had - machine guns, modern rifles and high explosive shells. Yet the Boers refused to surrender and carried out dozens of small raids on British camps, railways and mines.
- The British responded savagely. The British commander during the Second Boer War, General Kitchener, decided that the only way to get the Boers to surrender was to introduce a scorched earth policy.
  - This meant that British soldiers were instructed to burn down Boer farms, kill the animals, destroy crops and poison drinking wells.
  - Then Boer men, women, children, and their black servants were rounded up into ‘concentration camps’. Out of 116,000 Boers put in these camps, 28,000 (mainly children) died, largely due to disease and illness brought on by poor conditions.
- In 1902 the Boers finally agreed a peace and all the territories were joined together to form what is now South Africa.

Consequences of the War

1. It showed how desperately the British would fight to hold onto their Empire.
2. Thousands of men volunteered, they were enthusiastic about supporting the Empire.
3. Many men were declared unfit to fight and this made the government look at conditions for the poor.
4. It passed laws giving free school meals and medical checks for poor children.
5. It introduced unemployment pay and sickness benefits to help the most vulnerable.
6. Domestic science was taught in schools to encourage good nutrition and healthy living.
In 1887, Queen Victoria celebrated 50 years as queen. The event was marked by special celebrations, and Queen Victoria was cheered by thousands of people as she travelled to a special service at Westminster Abbey, London. The public enthusiasm for her Golden Jubilee resulted in the production of a huge range of souvenirs. Commemorative plates, teacups, biscuit tins, spoons, special coins and pictures were produced and bought by members of the public. These souvenirs form part of what we can call imperial propaganda.

Queen Victoria

- The British Empire expanded rapidly during the reign of Queen Victoria (reign: 1837-1901).
- The British government, and the queen herself, knew that a large empire brought trading benefits to Britain and made the country richer.
- There was also the belief the British had a ‘right’ to the land and were helping people in conquered nations by teaching them a new, Christian way of life.
- Even Queen Victoria said that one of the aims of the British Empire was to ‘protect the poor natives and to advance civilisation’. This was a time when most people were very loyal to their queen and their country, and patriotic pride was encouraged - the government realised that if people’s enthusiasm for the empire remained high, then it would have their full support when taking over more land abroad.

Imperial propaganda

- All sorts of products, from bars of soap to tins of chocolates, were covered with images relating to the glory of the empire.
- Posters, school books, exhibitions and parades all conveyed the empire’s positive aspects. This was a type of imperial propaganda, in which the positive aspects, ideas and information about the empire were spread in order to influence public opinion and beliefs.
- In schools, textbooks were filled with stories of Britain’s great empire-builders, such as Cecil Rhodes, and students were taught that a huge empire was Britain’s destiny.
- Poems and music hall songs celebrated the power of Britain and its armed forces, and even nursery rhyme books sometimes had an empire theme.
- Furthermore, two new societies were formed (the British Empire League and the British Colonial Society) to support the idea of imperialism and to promote loyalty to the British Empire.
- Newspapers wrote vivid accounts of successful battles overseas, and the spread of the telegraph communication system meant that stories could appear within a day of the event.
Irish Migration

One of the largest groups to come to Britain in the last few hundred years has been the Irish. There were a number of reasons why they came...

Why Migrate?

- From the late eighteenth century onwards, large numbers of Irish people migrated to Britain, mainly through the ports of Liverpool and Glasgow.
- Thousands stayed in those cities, and there are still large Irish communities there now. Most came to escape the extreme poverty in parts of Ireland, and to find better paid work.
- Many found jobs around the country as navvies, building the many new canals, roads and later railways: one third of the navvies who worked on the railways were Irish. They also worked in mines and in cotton mills, in Britain’s quickly expanding towns and cities.
- There was a great surge in Irish immigration after 1846, when a disease called ‘potato blight’ ruined the Irish potato harvest.
- Potatoes formed a major part of the Irish diet at this time, so many people starved. Around one million people (or one eighth of the population) died during famine, either from starvation or from illnesses that their weakened bodies couldn’t fight.
- Hundreds of thousands fled to Britain, peaking in the 1840s and 1850s, when over one and a half million Irish people left their homeland.

British reaction to the Irish

Religious differences:
Most of the Irish were Catholic — and Britain was a strongly Protestant country. This was a time when religious differences led to violence, and many occasions where angry Protestants marched through Irish areas and destroyed property.

Disease:
The Irish lived in terrible conditions so disease was common. As a result, people would blame the Irish for causing the disease in the first place. The fact that disease was just as common in other places seemed to go unnoticed. Typhus — a deadly infectious disease common in crowded, unsanitary conditions — was even nicknamed ‘Irish fever’.

Crime:
The Irish were blamed for high crime rates in many towns and cities. The navvies tended to drink a lot and this would sometimes lead to violence. In 1847, The Times newspaper described the Irish as ‘more like一群 monkeys than human beings’.

Jobs:
The Irish were accused of taking jobs that the British could have done. There were anti-Irish protests, in some places people with Irish accents (or even Irish names) were barred from jobs. As a result, there were times when the Irish couldn't always find regular work — so they were accused of being lazy too.

Impact of the Irish migration

- Despite the difficulties, the Irish settlers continued to arrive in Britain, especially in the 1930s, 1950s and 1960s, when people came looking for work in Britain’s expanding cities.
- Over the years there were fewer problems between the Irish and the British as they intermarried.
- The Irish, therefore, have made a huge impact on Britain. Britain’s canals, roads and railways could not have been built without the Irish navvies, and in the early 1800s, as many as 40 per cent of soldiers in the British army were Irish.
- Irish dancing, music and bars have become part of British culture. Famous Irish-born people include writers Oscar Wilde and C. S. Lewis, explorer Ernest Shackleton and the military hero, the Duke of Wellington.
Jewish Migration

In 1290, King Edward I expelled all the Jews from England. It was over 350 years until England’s leaders allowed Jews back in. There were only about 400 Jews living in England in 1890. However, by 1850 the number of Jews had grown to about 40,000 (out of a population of 18 million). As the Jewish communities prospered, their contribution to British life grew.

Early migrations

- By the mid-1800s, Jewish people had made important contributions to Britain. By then, of course, many Jews regarded themselves as British.
- The vast majority had been born in Britain, spoke English and lived typical British lifestyles. The first Jewish Mayor of London took office in 1855, and shortly afterwards Lionel de Rothschild became the first Jewish MP.
- As well as his role as a politician, Rothschild was a banker who famously lent money to the British government to buy a controlling share in the Suez Canal from Egypt.
- Since then, the British parliament has never been without Jewish politicians. In 1874, Benjamin Disraeli became Britain’s first Jewish Prime Minister.

New Jewish migrations

- In the 1870s and 1880s, there was a new influx of Jews from Eastern Europe, mainly from Russia. Jews had been wrongly blamed for the assassination of the Russian emperor Tsar Alexander II in 1881, and laws and attacks against them (called pogroms) became common. Around 120,000 Jews arrived in Britain, mainly fleeing from extreme persecution like this.
- However, apart from their faith, these new refugees had little in common with the Jews already living in Britain. They looked different, were largely uneducated and didn’t speak any English. They were paid badly and lived in the poorest areas. There was a lot of resentment towards them as they were seen as ‘taking jobs’ away from British people.
- The new immigrants worked in sweatshops (small backstreet workshops that were very hot)- making clothes, shoemaking or furniture making
- Within a few decades, Jewish communities gained a reputation as hardworking, law-abiding citizens with ambition and keen business sense.
- Many current UK businesses such as TESCO and Marks & Spencers were started by Jewish businessmen.

Our oldest ethnic minority

- The Jewish community is now a successful and important part of British society. Jews live all over Britain but have particularly large communities in London, Manchester, Leeds and Glasgow.
- British Jews who today continue to excel in the world of business include Lord Alan Sugar and Philip Green (owner of Topshop and Miss Selfridge).
- Many British Jews have been successful in show business too, including Daniel Radcliffe, Orlando Bloom and Matt Lucas.
- Many Jews have fought for Britain, six British Jewish soldiers have received the Victoria Cross, the highest award for bravery.

RELIGION FACTOR

Jewish people migrated to Britain as they were persecuted because of their faith.
During the era of the British Empire, millions of people migrated huge distances across the globe. Some of these people had no choice but to move and were forced to go. Others willingly migrated as they looked for fresh challenges and new opportunities. The most obvious example of forced migration was the transport of millions of Africans as slaves to work on sugar, tobacco and cotton farms in the West Indies and North America. The transportation of prisoners to America and Australia in the 1700s and 1800s is another example of forced migration.

Case study: Africa and Asia

- When slavery ended in the early 1800s, the British needed another way to get large amounts of people to work on their plantations, estates and farms in various parts of the empire.
- The indenture system was created, meaning that migrants would agree to work for a period of five years in return for a basic wage and transport to their new workplace. The worker was to be returned at the end of the period of service to the port of departure. Around half of the immigrants to the American colonies in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries went there under this system.
- It has been estimated that, between 1841 and 1910, around 150,000 people per decade moved around the empire under this system.
- In the British African colonies of Kenya and Uganda, for example, over 30,000 Indians moved there under the indenture system to help build railways, bridges and roads.
- Some came home when the work was done, but thousands stayed and they and their descendants went on to play a vital part in the African economies as businessmen, bankers, shopkeepers and professionals.

Case study: Australia

- In April 1220, a British explorer named James Cook claimed the east coast of Australia for Britain and named it New South Wales. The British government then sent naval commander Captain Arthur Phillip to set up the first colony on Australian soil. The government also wanted him to transport convicts from Britain’s overcrowded jails to help him do it: it was hoped that these prisoners would never return to Britain.
- In May 1282, 11 ships left Portsmouth heading for the new British colony. There were over 1300 people on board the ships, including 236 convicted criminals.
- The convicts began to build the settlement. Each convict was assigned a master. The master decided what work each convict would carry out. Good, hardworking convicts earned themselves an early release, while bad behaviour ended in a whipping or an extended sentence.
- Over the next 20 years, British courts transported over 20,000 more convicts to join them. But life in the new settlement was tough. Few of the convicts - or their masters - knew about farming or carpentry, two of the most important skills needed in the new colony.
- Australia was first used mainly as a place to dump Britain’s criminals, but things soon started to change. The majority of convicts decided to stay in Australia at the end of their sentences.
- Many became sheep or wheat farmers. Britain would eventually claim the whole of Australia as part of the British Empire.
In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, many millions of people moved around the British Empire for different reasons. But it wasn’t just within the empire that this migration happened - millions of people moved around Britain too.

**Leaving home**

- It has been estimated that over 22 million people left Britain between 1815 and 1914, the vast majority going to North America, South Africa, Canada, Australia and New Zealand.
- Thousands were lured to North America and South Africa to hunt for gold and diamonds.
- In the late 1200s, the first ‘free settlers’ began to arrive in Australia from Britain, attracted by the idea of a new life in another part of the world.
- Emigration was also seen as a solution to the growing problem of crime and poverty in Britain. The government gave local councils money to create schemes that encouraged the poorest people in an area to emigrate.

**Internal migration**

- Migration is not just about leaving one country to go to another. A person can also migrate within their own country. This is sometimes called internal migration.
- This took place in Britain, more rapidly than at any other time, between the years 1250 and 1900.
- Britain’s population went from around 10 million in 1801 to about 32 million in 1901 due to improvements in food supply, medicine and sanitation.
- The amount of people in towns and cities (urban areas) grew much faster than in country (rural) areas at this time, particularly in London and the large industrial towns in the North and the Midlands. We call this process urbanisation - the increase in the proportion of people living in urban areas. This was because:
  - Immigration from abroad: immigrants were attracted to jobs in urban areas.
  - Rural to urban migration: farm machinery became more common, so fewer workers were needed on farms. Farming is also very seasonal, whereas factory work isn’t, so workers in the countryside poured into urban areas to find work.

**ECONOMIC FACTOR**

People emigrated to find a better life with more wealth. In the UK People migrated to the cities in search of work.
The British lose an Empire

Map A below shows the British Empire at its largest, in the early 1920s. At that point it was the largest empire the world had ever known. It contained around 450 million people and it covered about one quarter of the world’s total land area. Today the British Empire (now called the British Overseas Territories) is very small, consisting of a few small areas, mainly islands, dotted around the world.

Impact of the World Wars

➢ Before the First World War, Britain was one of the richest countries in the world, with its mighty industrial power and vast empire.
➢ However, after four years of fighting, Britain's wealth was nearly all gone: it was now in debt because it had borrowed money, mainly from the USA.
➢ Also, during the war many countries had been cut off from the supply of British goods so had been forced to build up their own industries. They were no longer reliant on Britain, and directly competed with it instead Britain,
➢ The First World War changed Britain’s status in the world: it was no longer the world’s economic superpower.
➢ After the war, Britain recovered some of its strength, but it was then completely bankrupted by the Second World War. Britain’s economy was also beginning to change.
➢ Its trade with Europe and the USA became far more important than its trade with countries of the empire. Britain was also no longer as important on the world.

Demanding Independence

➢ By 1914, several of Britain’s colonies - such as Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa - had already been running their own affairs for several years. In 1922, Egypt became independent too.
➢ These countries, and others in the empire, played an important role in Britain’s victory in both world wars by supplying troops and materials. However, by the end of the Second World War, many other British colonies were demanding independence, or the right to rule themselves.
➢ Britain no longer had the military strength or the wealth to hold onto them. Also, many British people felt that rebuilding Britain after the war was far more of a priority than holding on to distant colonies.
➢ There were several reasons why there was an increasing demand for independence:

- The British-style education systems in some of the colonies (such as India) meant that many people there were now becoming teachers, lawyers and doctors. They learned about political ideas, like democracy and freedom, and wanted this for their own countries.
- The Africans and Indians who had fought for Britain felt they were fighting to defend freedom, and were getting increasingly frustrated that their own countries were not yet free. They thought it was wrong that they should fight to stop the Nazis occupying other countries, but not fight to stop Britain occupying theirs.
Case Study 1: Independence of India

- The campaign for Indian independence began with the founding of the Indian National Congress in 1885.
- In 1919, the British made slight changes to the way India was governed. Law-making councils were set up in each province and over five million wealthy Indians were given the vote.
- However, the British government in London still controlled taxation, the armed forces, education and much more.
- In the 1920s, the Indian independence movement gained more support under the leadership of Mohandas Gandhi. He led a series of non-violent protests against the British.
- Muslims in India had formed their own independence group (the Muslim League), and their leader called for a new separate country for Muslims.
- After the Second World War, Britain wasn’t strong enough to hold on to India.
- In 1947, Britain offered independence to India - but Muslims did not want to live under a Hindu majority and terrible violence broke out. Indian and British finally leaders agreed to partition British India into two states - Hindu India and Muslim Pakistan. Sadly, troubles at the start of the two new, independent nations continue to this day.

Case Study 2: Independence of Kenya

- In Kenya, a number of groups formed to fight for self-rule in the 1940s. One group, the Kenya African Union (KAU) and its leader Jomo Kenyatta, campaigned for both independence and access to white-owned land.
- Another group, known as the Mau Mau, favoured violence against the white settlers who controlled large areas of land. In the 1950s, the British fought the Mau Mau with their own violent campaign and hundreds were killed.
- The Mau Mau Rebellion, as it was known, lasted for over eight years and eventually persuaded the British that reforms were necessary.
- On 12 December 1963, Kenya gained its independence from Britain and Kenyatta, who had been released from prison in 1961, became Prime Minister.
Immigration to Britain after WW2

**Ireland**
Many generations of Irish people had come to Britain before 1945. There were further surges of Irish immigration in the 1950s and 1960s. Some came to join their families in existing communities, and others came to look for work in Britain’s expanding cities, and to escape poverty and hardship in Ireland. By the 1960s, the number of people of Irish origin in Britain had risen to nearly one million. And by 2001, around six million people (ten per cent of the total British population) had Irish parents or grandparents.

**West Indies**
During the Second World War, thousands of West Indians moved to Britain to help with the war effort, although most returned home when the fighting ended. From 1946 to 1950, a new wave of immigrants (around half a million) from the colonies of Jamaica, Barbados, and Trinidad and Tobago were encouraged to come to Britain because of the labour shortage. Many came because of unemployment and poverty at home too.

**Cyprus**
Cyprus became a British colony after the First World War. Both Turkish and Greek people lived on the island. They had different cultures and languages and there was often tension and violence between the two groups. Thousands of Cypriots fled the violence (as well as poverty and hardship) to start a new life in Britain in the 1950s. The island became an independent country in 1960, but when Turkey invaded and divided the island in two in the 1970s, there was a further wave of emigration when around 70,000 Cypriots left to make their home in Britain.

**Far East Asia**
People from the Far East began to move to Britain during the 1950s and 1960s. Most came from the poorest areas of the British colony of Hong Kong, but others came from British-controlled Malaysia and Singapore. By 1961, there were around 30,000 people from the Far East living in Britain. In 1997, Hong Kong stopped being a British colony and became part of China. Around 50,000 people from Hong Kong were given British passports at this time. Today there are around 400,000 British Chinese people.

**Europe**
By the start of the twentieth century, around 200,000 Eastern European Jews had fled persecution and settled in Britain. In the 1930s, around 80,000 German Jews came to Britain when the Nazis gained power. When fighting broke out in 1939, thousands of Poles sought safety in Britain, and when the war ended around 144,000 of them decided not to return to Poland. By 1950, around 100,000 Hungarians, Ukrainians, Yugoslavs, Estonians, Latvians and Lithuanians who had fled from Russian rule had also settled in Britain.

**South East Asia**
When India gained independence from Britain in 1947, it split into different countries: India and Pakistan. This partition led to fighting, as whole populations moved across the dividing lines. Some came to Britain to escape this violence. By 1955, around 10,000 people had moved to Britain, hoping to find work and better education opportunities. Many started their own businesses or worked in industries like textiles or steel making. Today around four million people of South Asian descent live in Britain.

**Kenya and Uganda**
Around 70,000 Kenyan and Ugandan Asians moved to Britain from their homes in Africa in the 1960s and 1970s. They had originally moved to Africa from India and Pakistan, when these nations were part of the British Empire, to build railways and roads. Most stayed, and made strong communities. By the twentieth century, they played a vital part in the economies there, as shopkeepers and professionals. But when Kenya and Uganda became independent from Britain, the new governments decided to drive them out, so many came to Britain to escape racist attitudes and intolerance. In Uganda, President Idi Amin told Ugandan Asians to leave the country, after he claimed he’d had a dream in which God told him to expel them. Jomo Kenyatta, the Kenyan leader, introduced a law that banned Kenyan Asians from trading in certain areas. Around 44,000 Asians from Kenya and 26,000 from Uganda came to Britain at this time.

**West Africa**
The countries of British West Africa (now Nigeria, Gambia, Sierra Leone and Ghana) made a huge contribution in the Second World War. They provided soldiers, raw materials and air bases. After 1948, many West Africans went to Britain to find employment and to get a better standard of education than was available in their own countries.

ECONOMIC FACTOR
After WW2 Britain had an array of job opportunities. The jobs paid much more than the ones back home.

WAR FACTOR
The Jewish and the Polish were forced to leave their countries due to the actions of the Nazis and Russians.
On 22 June 1948, a ship named Empire Windrush arrived at the London docks. The ship was returning to London from Australia and had stopped off in Kingston, Jamaica, to pick up British soldiers who were there on leave. But it wasn’t just soldiers who got on the ship in Jamaica: 492 other people did too, most of them young men, who were travelling to Britain to start a new life. This was an event that would change the face of British society forever.

Life in the Caribbean

- At the time of the Second World War, many islands in the Caribbean Sea (known as the West Indies) were part of the British Empire, including Jamaica, Barbados, and Trinidad and Tobago. These islands had supplied over 10,000 men for Britain’s army, navy and air force, and they had been proud of their role in helping Britain.
- Life was very hard in the Caribbean in the 1940s. Jamaica had been devastated by a hurricane in 1944, and poverty and hardship were common. The Caribbean had not yet developed a tourist industry to provide jobs, and the price of sugar - the Caribbean’s main source of income, was at an all time low.

They arrive from the Caribbean

- In 1948, the British parliament passed the British Nationality Act. This meant that all people who lived within the British Empire - now commonly referred to as the Commonwealth - were British passport holders and therefore entitled to live and work in Britain.
- Many West Indians saw this as a great opportunity. Having been brought up speaking English, named after British heroes, and educated to believe in ‘king and country’, many West Indians felt very ‘British’. And at the time, Britain was short of workers, for example in transport, healthcare and building.
Empire Windrush

Cecil Rhodes is regarded as one of Britain’s greatest empire-builders. Streets, schools, and even two African countries - Southern and Northern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe and Zambia) - were named after him. When he died, statues of him were erected all over the world.

Claudia Jones

* Born in Trinidad, moved to New York aged nine.
8 Worked on a variety of newspapers and magazines; made speeches about the importance of democracy, equal rights for African Americans, and safe working conditions.
0 Was considered an extreme radical in America because of her views on civil and human rights issues; was deported from the USA and gained asylum in Britain in 1955.
8 In 1958, became founder and editor of the first black British weekly newspaper, The West Indian Gazette.
8 Following the Notting Hill and Nottingham riots in 1958, she helped launch an annual ‘Mardi Gras’ event in 1959, aimed at showing the culture of the Caribbean to the people of Britain. She said she wanted to ‘wash the taste of Notting Hill and Nottingham out of our mouths’. This later became the Notting Hill Carnival, one of the largest street festivals in the world.

The British Experience

- Not all white Britons welcomed Britain’s newest citizens. Many West Indians found that their skin colour provoked hostile reactions. Some immigrants found good jobs, but many - whatever their qualifications - ended up working in low-paid jobs as cleaners, ticket collectors and hospital porters.
- They also experienced difficulties finding decent places to live. Often, they would be faced with openly racist words on house rental signs specifying ‘No Irish, No Blacks, No dogs’.
- By 1960, there were work around 40,000 West Indian immigrants arriving each year. This outnumbered all other immigrants from other areas of the world. The newcomers settled in industrial areas such as Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham and Nottingham.
- On occasions there were outbreaks of violence in areas where large numbers of West Indians lived. In 1958, in Nottingham and in Notting Hill, London, there were several weeks of violence when white youths attacked black youths on the streets, at nightclubs, and in their homes. In fact, the Notting Hill Carnival (which now attracts over one million visitors each year) began as a gesture of defiance by the black community against the widespread racial attacks of the time.
- In 1962, the government made an attempt to slow down the number of black and Asian people entering Britain by passing an Immigration Act. This said that any black or Asian person wanting to enter the country must have a skilled job already lined up - and a limit was put on the number of immigrants allowed in.
- In 1968, when the government feared a large influx of Kenyan Asians into Britain, the Commonwealth Immigration Act was created. This said that Kenyan Asians with British passports were no longer allowed to enter the country - but white Kenyans with British passports were! These policies divided the country.
Falklands War

The Falklands are located about 300 miles off the coast of Argentina. They are a collection of over 700 islands, but most people live on the two main islands, East and West Falkland. Britain first claimed the islands in 1765, but the Spanish later took them over and named them the Islas Malvinas. When Spanish rule ended in 1806, the islands were claimed by Argentina. Up to this point, the islands were uninhabited. Britain seized the islands from Argentina in 1833, and British settlers began to live there. As a result, the majority of the population of around 2000 are of British descent. From the time that Britain took control of the islands there has been a long, heated argument between Argentina and Britain over who should control them.

What caused the Falklands War?

- In the early 1980s, Argentina was controlled by the army and its leader, General Galtieri. Argentina’s economy was having severe problems at this time Galtieri hoped that a quick, successful war that ended with the return of the Falklands to Argentina.
- On 2 April 1982, Argentine troops invaded the islands. About 12,000 soldiers arrived, and they quickly took control.
- Britain’s Prime Minister, Margaret Thatcher, responded quickly and defiantly to the invasion. She said, ‘We have to recover those islands. We have to recover them for the people on them are British and British stock and they still owe allegiance to the Crown and want to be British.
- Britain sent a **task force** of over 100 ships and around 28,000 troops to the islands, and declared a 320-kilometre **exclusion zone** around them. This meant that the British would, without any warning, open fire on any ship or aircraft from any country entering the zone. Britain and Argentina were now at war, which ended on 14 June when the Argentines surrendered. In total, about 750 Argentines and 255 British troops were killed during the war.

What were the consequences of the war?

- The war cost Britain the lives of 255 men, six ships (ten others were damaged), 34 aircraft and over £2.5 billion. Politically, the war was a huge boost to the popularity of the British Prime Minister, Margaret Thatcher, and the war played a role in her re-election in 1983.
- There was also a boost in patriotic feeling among British citizens, who were proud of their country’s defence of one of its last colonies. Foreign politicians reported that there was an increase in international respect for Britain, a country that was regarded as a fading power after the failure of the 1956 Suez campaign and the loss of its colonies.
- Still today, the victory is looked upon with pride by many who remember the war, or even fought in it. In 2012, a commemorative service was held to mark the thirtieth anniversary of the start of war. The British Prime Minister, David Cameron, said, ‘We are rightly proud of the role Britain played in righting a profound wrong.
- However, the war did not end the dispute between the two countries. Argentina continues to claim the islands, but Britain maintains that this is not open to negotiation. To this day, the Argentinians always refer to the islands as Islas Malvinas.
During the first half of the twentieth century, Western Europe was devastated by the two world wars. During the second half of the century, Europe witnessed increased stability and wealth, and closer cooperation than ever before.

The Early Years

- After the horrors of the Second World War, when European neighbours were enemies, European leaders saw that things had to change. They were determined to avoid another large-scale war, and felt that future peace was far more likely if differences in language, culture and history were put aside, and countries worked together.
- Rather than compete as rivals, they would join forces where possible to develop Europe peacefully. Also, it was thought that a strong, unified Europe might become a powerful trading group and a competitor for the increasingly powerful and influential USA.

Impact of the Cold War

- At the same time, the USA and the USSR became the world’s superpowers after the world wars. They became rivals and each tried to prevent the other from gaining too much power. This period of tension was known as the Cold War.
- Other countries also supported the rivalry: for example, the USA built a very close relationship with Britain, while the USSR forged very strong links with countries in Eastern Europe such as Hungary and Poland.
- In the meantime, Britain was finally admitted into the EEC in 1973; the European parliament was created and MEPs (Members of the European Parliament) were elected by EEC citizens; and a single market was created
- In the early 1990s, the Maastricht Treaty was signed, and the EEC became the European Union (EU). All countries agreed to extend cooperation even further to include foreign affairs.
Migration in Europe

If you live in a European Union (EU) member state, you have the right to live and work in any of the other member states. EU countries cannot stop any citizen from another EU country from living and working there. This means that, every year, numerous Europeans move between European countries.

Migration within the EU

- There is a huge amount of migration within the EU. In Britain, immigration from EU countries has steadily increased over the last 50 years. In the 1930s, for example, around 20,000 EU citizens entered Britain every year, rising to about 60,000 per year in the late 1990s and early 2000s.
- There was a huge increase in immigration into Britain from EU countries in 2004 when eight more countries joined the EU, including Eastern European nations such as Poland, Hungary and the Czech Republic.
- Generally speaking, these countries were poorer than many of the existing EU countries, so the wealthier countries such as Britain, Germany and France attracted people from the new EU member countries. As a result, between 2004 and 2006, around 600,000 Eastern European immigrants came to Britain.

Migration from Outside of the EU

- After the Second World War, immigration was encouraged by the British government. Immigrants came mainly from current or former countries of the British Empire. Britain tightened immigration controls in the 1920s, but many thousands of non-EU migrants still come to Britain.
- Britain operates a points-based system for non-EU immigrants. Applicants are awarded points depending on their skills, education, income and age. If an applicant reaches a certain total of points, then they are given a visa to allow them entry into Britain for work, especially if there is a shortage of labour in that sector.
- Britain also gives permission for thousands of non-EU citizens to come into the country to study at colleges and universities. Some of the most common non-EU countries where immigrants come into Britain from are India, Pakistan, the Philippines, Australia, China, the USA and Bangladesh.

What is net migration?

- There are roughly the same amounts of EU citizens moving into Britain as there are non-EU citizens, but people also leave Britain too. People emigrate for all sorts of reasons - including a better job, a better climate or more opportunities..
- Net migration is the final change in population after all the people leaving Britain (emigrating) and all the people moving into Britain (immigrating) have been taken into account. Graph B below shows Britain’s net migration figures from 2005 to 2015. The figures clearly fluctuate a lot, but overall, net migration has remained roughly the same..
- People have different opinions about the impact of migration on Britain. Some believe that immigration damages community relations, and that there is great public anxiety over issues such as pressure on public services. Others argue that most immigrants are young and able, so they work and pay more in taxes, use less of the public healthcare and education services, and help with the economic growth of the country.
Paper 2: Section A
Britain: Migration, Empires and People

Source Questions: How useful

Non-source: Significance, Comparison and Factor essay
• Spend approximately 10 minutes on this question.

• This question is asking you HOW USEFUL something is to a Historian studying a specific time period, person or event.

• You should JUST be thinking about the ways that it is USEFUL (there will always be some)

• You should be using PROVENANCE, CONTENT and PURPOSE to help you to determine how useful it is and making 3 explained points.

• REMEMBER a source is NEVER completely NOT USEFUL – but you can talk about its LIMITATIONS after you’ve made 3 explained points.
• Spend approximately 10 minutes on this question

• This question is asking you HOW IMPORTANT something or someone has been over time (SHORT TERM/MEDIUM TERM/LONG TERM)

• You should be thinking about HOW IMPORTANT it was THEN and HOW IMPORTANT it is NOW.

• You should have 2 EXPLAINED points for THEN and NOW.

• REMEMBER Significance can change over time. Something that was significant for one reason when it happened, may be significant for a different reason now.
• Spend approximately 10 minutes on this question

• Split your answer into 3 paragraphs: CAUSES/DEVELOPMENT/CONSEQUENCES

• Each one should have 2 explained reasons WHY they are Similar.

• **DO NOT** write how they are DIFFERENT – you won’t get any marks for this!

• Consider the different FACTORS why something happened or people migrated.

• Remember to refer to both EVENTS in your answer, not just one!
FACTOR essay [16 + 4]

- Spend approximately 20 minutes on this question
- This question is asking you to decide how important different factors was in causing migration to and from Britain.
- You should have 3 paragraphs and a conclusion.
- Paragraph 1: 2 explained points as to why the factor in the question had the biggest impact.
- Paragraph 2 and 3: choose any other two factors and make 2 explained points why they had the biggest impact.
- Conclusion: Answer the question! How big an impact did the factor in the question have?
- Remember to refer to different time periods and use different groups as examples.
Paper 2: Section B
Norman England
C1066-c1100

Source Questions: How convincing

Non-source: Explain importance, write an account, How far essay
How convincing is interpretation X [8]

• Spend approximately 10 minutes on this question.

• You need to be using the SOURCE and CONTEXTUAL knowledge for this question. You do not need to use the provenance!

• Summarise what is in the source and use your knowledge to support it.

• Make 3 points and fully explain them.

• Make a JUDGEMENT as to HOW CONVINCING it is!

• Remember this question wants you to showcase your knowledge!
Explain what was IMPORTANT [8]

- Spend approximately 10 minutes on this question.
- This question is focused on the CONSEQUENCES of the event in the wider historical context eg. What did it lead to, and then what did that lead to?
- You need to make 3 fully explained points!
- Use your Historical Knowledge to strengthen your answer!
- Remember to only focus on the consequences… you do not need to talk about the consequences or the actual event!
Write an account

• Spend approximately 10 minutes on this question.

• You should be making 3 fully explained points.

• Make sure that you write in CHRONOLOGICAL order.

• You will be asked to think about either the CAUSES or CONSEQUENCES of an event – not describe what happened.

• Focus on how the HEAD of the Question impacts the TAIL

• Remember this question wants you to focus on how one thing led to another, not just explain what happened.
How Far does this support? essay [16]

• Spend approximately 10 minutes on this question.

• This question wants you to split your answer into 3 paragraphs and a conclusion.
• First Paragraph: 2 explained reasons to discuss the impact that the point in the question had.
• Second Paragraph: 2 explained reasons to discuss the impact of any other point.
• Third Paragraph: 2 explained reasons to discuss the impact of any other point.
• Conclusion: Answer the question!
• Remember to think about the PLACE, TIME, SCOPE and PEOPLE for Level 8/9