



مستغانم في: 2023/06/11

قسم اللغة الانجليزية

الرقم: 10 / ج م / 2023

**Extrait de Procès Verbal du Conseil Scientifique
du Département de Langue Anglaise
21/02/2023**

Lors de sa réunion du 23 février 2022, le CSD a validé les deux rapports signés **Favorable** après l'expertise du polycopié de cours de Dre Rezga Zahraa en vue de l'obtention du grade de MCA.

Les experts désignés sont :

- Djafri Yasmina MCA université Abdelhamid Ibn Badis, Mostaganem/ Rapport favorable
- Guermaoui Amel MCA université Abdelhamid Ibn Badis, Mostaganem/ Rapport favorable

Intitulé: British Civilisation Course for First Year (L1) Students.

Mostaganem Le 11/06/2023

Présidente du CSD

الجامعة عبد الحميد بن باديس - مستغانم
اللجنة العلمية
للغة الانجليزية
الدكتورة: حيرش فايزة
رئيسة اللجنة العلمية لقسم
اللغة الإنجليزية



Mostaganem le 23/02/2022

Departement d'anglais

Numéro / / 2022

Extrait de Procès Verbal du Conseil Scientifique du Département de Langue Anglaise

Lors de sa réunion du 23/02/2022, le CSD a validé les deux rapports signés favorable après l'expertise du polycopié de cours de Melle REZGA Zahraa en vue de l'obtention du grade de MCA.

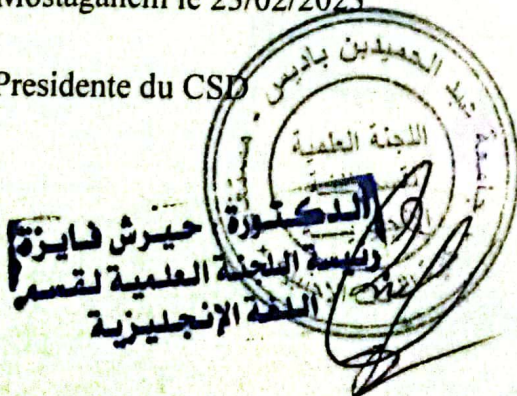
Les experts désignés sont :

- Dr. Djafri Yasmina MCA Université AbdelHamid Ibn Badis,
Mostaganem
Rapport favorable
- Dr. Ghermaoui Amel MCA Université AbdelHamid Ibn Badis,
Mostaganem
Rapport favorable.

Intitulé : British Civilization Course for First Year (L1) Students

Mostaganem le 23/02/2023

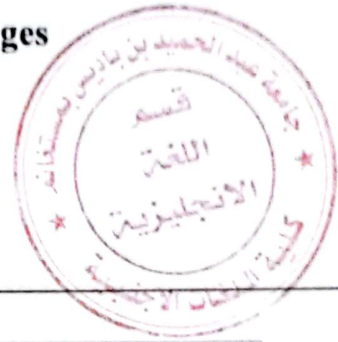
Presidente du CSD



People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
University Abdel Hamid Ibn Badis



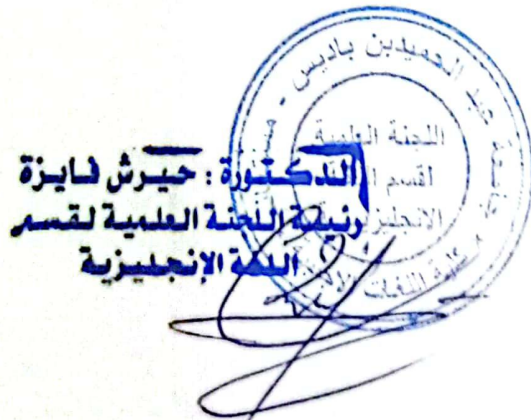
Faculty of Foreign Languages
Department of English



British Civilization Course for First Year (L1) Students

Prepared by:

Dr. Zahraa REZGA



Academic Year: 2020-2021

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
University Abdel Hamid Ibn Badis



Faculty of Foreign Languages
Department of English

British Civilization Course for First Year (L1) Students

Prepared by:

Dr. Zahraa REZGA

Academic Year: 2020-2021

Preamble

Over the course of its history the British islands were repeatedly visited by members of their own species and some of their forebears. Members of the genus *homo* went and left, so that no one can claim to be anything other than an immigrant. What is more, the cultural landscape of Britain was always one of sharing ideas, of embracing the new, with immigrant cultures bringing successive developments and various cultural institutions.

It is a course about telling the story of humans and early times' hardships in Britain until the coming of the Romans. Although the people of this period left little behind them in the way of material goods, archaeologists could divide prehistory into three main periods: the Stone, Bronze and Iron ages, named after the main technologies used at the time.

This course will also examine the successive immigrations that make up the story of people in Britain. There are the Romans who ruled Britain for around 350 years and during this period society, technology and daily life changed a lot: Britain was a very different place in 410 compared to AD 43. The many marks left by the Romans on England's landscape explain why there was no clear decision to decolonise Britain. The Anglo-Saxon period in Britain which spans approximately the six centuries from 410-1066 AD is explored, too. Most of the information available about the Anglo-Saxons comes from the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, a year-by-year account of all the major events of the time.

1066 was a momentous year for England. It was successfully invaded by a Norman army from France. The Norman Conquest which broke England's links with Denmark and Norway, and connected the country to Normandy and Europe is another important chapter in this course. It is to depict how William the Conqueror replaced the Anglo-Saxons by Norman elite and got the Church "Normanised", and how feudalism became much more widespread, and

the English language absorbed thousands of new French words, amongst a host of many other lasting changes. The feudal system of landholding, and the duties and obligations that came with it cannot be dissociated from the Normans' legacy, and the Domesday Book in 1086 is another important recorded evidence of their intellect.

Finally, the course will display the key events that happened subsequently and proved that kingship became a family business which resulted in conflicts and murders. Some kings went beyond their rights as feudal lords and had to be controlled. King John Lackland's unpopularity led to an agreement called Magna Carta 1215. This Great Charter marked a clear stage in the collapse of English feudalism and provided the freemen of England at that time with a kind of political freedom.

Objectives of the British Civilization Course for L1 Students

This course is designed to introduce the students to the clues that help them know more about the distant past of Britain along with the gradual evolution of its great civilization. Recent archaeological finds, as well as new scientific techniques, have overturned old certainties. Isotopic and DNA analysis of animal and human remains, chemical analysis of stone tools and pottery, and new ways of interpreting radiocarbon dating are all helping to challenge long-held ideas and raise new questions about the ancient times. Therefore, if the course may seem worthless or unsatisfactory because it travels too far into the past, it is a chance to confirm that it is by no means a set of invaluable lessons.

It is aimed at understanding the material, sites and communities that characterize the prehistoric archaeology of the British Isles. We will study these remains period by period, from the earliest human occupation in the British Isles to the Roman invasion. And this is to get an idea of what was going on under their very feet hundreds of thousands of years before the present.

We will be going back in time millions of years to learn all about the earliest humans as well as exploring the different species of human and how they migrated. This is to provide a general grounding in the prehistoric archaeology of the British Isles; to emphasise the role of landscapes, archaeological sites and monuments, and material culture in how archaeologists interpret life in prehistoric Britain. To this end, we need to learn about the achievements that prehistoric Britons made, including the world famous Stonehenge and the stunning iron artefacts.

It is designed to teach everything necessary to know about the rise of Roman Britain, opposition from the Celts, the legacy that was left behind when they went home, and much

more. Then, it will introduce the Anglo-Saxons and explore where these different invaders came from; the key reasons that incited Anglo-Saxons to settle in Britain learning by that the difference between invading and settling; and their challenges along with their hegemony in early Medieval Britain. Next, it will show the importance of the Norman Conquest for the purpose of knowing more about the reasons and conditions which helped William and his dynasty to conquer Britain and emerge as superior to the victorious ancient heroes.

In theory, the government of William the Conqueror was 'absolute' – he owned all the land, ruled all of the people and did whatever he wanted. This was true for all Medieval Europe, and it was referred to as the feudal system. Hence, learning about feudalism is discovering medieval ways of organising societies into different groups based on their roles – the king at the top with all of the control, and the peasants at the bottom doing all of the work. Then, introducing students to Magna Carta and the conditions by which it was triggered will reveal how the absolute authority of kings was challenged for the first time in British history.

Outline of Syllabus

Introduction

I/ Early Britain: the Country, the People and the Names

I.1.The Land

I.2. First Peoples

I.3.The Names

I.4. Union Jack

Tasks

II. Prehistoric Britain

II. 1. Stone Age People

II. 2. Stonehenge

Tasks

II. 2. The Bronze Age (2300 - 800 BC)

Tasks

II. 3. The Iron Age in Britain (800 BC— AD 43)

Tasks

II.3.1.The Celts

II.3.2. Celtic Women

II.3.3. Religion in the Iron Age (The Druids)

II.3.4.The Belgians

Tasks

III. Roman Britain

III.1. Causes of the Roman Invasion

III.2. Romanisation of Britain

III.3. The Fall of the Romans

Tasks

IV. The Anglo-Saxons in Britain

IV.1. Impacts of the Anglo-Saxon Conquest in Britain

Tasks

IV.2. The Vikings

Tasks

V. The Norman Conquest

V.1. The story of their Arrival

V.2. The Norman Impact

Tasks

VI. Feudalism

Tasks

VII. The Crisis of Kingship

VIII. Magna Carta or the Great Charter 1215

Tasks

Conclusion

Works Cited

Introduction

History is not just what really happened in the past, but a complex intersection of truths, subjectivity and dreams. That is why it is said the best histories are the best stories. No evidence brought to light through archaeology or historical investigation is complete without context. Thus, histories are often accused of being invented. Anyway, a reliable portrait of the past should at least begin with knowing as much as possible about the names, people, places, major events and terms.

I. Early Britain: the Country, the People and the Names

Archaeological research is the field which is responsible for any knowledge of Britain. Therefore, Britain's ancient history is lacking in detail, for archaeology can rarely identify personalities, motives, or exact dates or present more than a general perspective. All that is available is an account of successive cultures and some knowledge of economic development. Britain truly emerged into the light of history only after the Saxon settlements in the 5th century Ad. (Encyclopedia Britannica)

I.1.The Land

Britain's unique position - between the Atlantic and continental Europe - means that it has experienced the fullest extremes of climate. Over the past million years, its climate has fluctuated from balmy Mediterranean-like conditions to long stages of cold with large ice sheets covering much of the land. Landscapes changed accordingly, with coastlines and rivers shaped by water and ice. Britain's inhabitants had to adapt too, although sometimes they vanished altogether (Natural history Museum).

Thousands of years ago, Great Britain was joined to Europe and was covered with ice. About 15,000 years ago, the weather became warmer. As the climate continued to warm, the ice melted and sea levels rose, and from around 8,500 years ago Britain became an island. This long period of time is usually divided into: Palaeolithic, Mesolithic, Neolithic (sometimes these three periods are combined and called the Stone Age), Bronze Age and Iron Age. Each of these periods might also be sub-divided into early, middle and late. The Palaeolithic is often divided into lower, middle and upper (the British Museum)

I.2. First Peoples

The history of Britain's population is all about arriving, staying and settling, or leaving, moving and settling elsewhere. People from continental Europe began to settle in different parts of Britain after the last Ice Age, around 12,000 years ago. Since then, these islands have been continuously occupied because new arrivals mixed with existing residents. Britain was cut off from continental Europe for the last time around 6500 BC. The warmer climate encouraged pine, birch, and alder forests to grow. The warmer weather provided fish and wild birds, too. This period is usually referred to as the Mesolithic and the term hunter-gatherer is often used to describe the human life-style. Mesolithic people followed a complex pattern of seasonal occupation, or in some cases permanent occupation, with associated land and food source management where conditions allowed it. (Course Hero Prehistoric Britain)

It is hard to fully answer the question, 'Who were the early peoples of Britain?', because they have left no accounts of themselves. Throughout prehistory there were many small-scale societies and many tribal identities. We can, however, say that biologically they were part of the Caucasoid population of Europe. The regional physical stereotypes familiar to today's British people, a pattern widely thought to result from the post-Roman Anglo-Saxon and Viking invasions – red-headed people in Scotland, small, dark-haired folk in Wales and lanky

blondes in southern England – already existed in Roman times. Insofar as they represent reality, they perhaps attest the post-Ice Age peopling of Britain or the first farmers of 6,000 years ago (BBC. Peoples of Britain)

The first modern humans who arrived in Britain were hunter-gatherers, following the retreating ice of the Ice Age northwards. They came to Britain and to Ireland on foot, before the ice melted and the seas came; over a relatively short period, they developed a diverse set of tools, using lighter bone and ivory as well as stone. About 4000 BC a party of ‘young farmers’ arrived from southern Europe bringing with them perhaps the first practice of land preparation to accommodate domesticated plants and animals. They created artistic representations of their world through carving, painting and sculpture. Following the ‘young farmers’ other visitors from Europe came – Belgae, Celts and Gauls arrived starting the trend for the multi-cultural Britain of today. In time they learned the arts of metal, first tin and copper, then bronze, and finally iron, the “daddy” of all metals in the ancient world.

I.3.The Names

Place names often arouse the question of where they come from and what the story behind their creation is. Place names are also so important that much of these places’ identity is bound up with the terms used in their names. The creation and use of the names of Britain, Scotland, Wales, Ireland and England is not a different case. What to call all ‘these islands’ together was more complex than the single names attributed to them, too.

We owe the record of the most ancient names of the islands, such as ‘the Cassiterides’ to the fifth and fourth centuries’ Classical Greek geographers and historians whose writings did not survive. The first-century BC Greek author Diodorus Siculus recorded one of the islands names as ‘Pretannike’ (The Library of History). In classical Greek and Latin texts, the ‘p’

often turned to a 'b'¹ becoming 'Britannia'. But 'Pretani' with the original Greek p-spelling was a Celtic word that most likely meant 'the painted people'.

'Albion' was another name for Britain in an early Greek sailing manual (Ross and Cyprien 101), which probably predates 'Pretannia'. Names of other regions closest to the term include the Alps, Albania, and the Apennines, which all derive from the Indo-European root word for hill or hilly that is 'alb-' 'albho-' for white. Yet, after the beginning of the Roman conquest in 43CE, the province on the island was named 'Britannia'. This means that the word was used oftener and finally won out.

Today the country's name seems so ridiculously long: the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, but it reveals a great deal about the people who – past and present – have inhabited these islands. Of course, no-one actually calls the country by that name. You hear "United Kingdom" or "England" when most English people mean "Britain". But really Britain only refers to England and Wales. The name Britain goes back to Roman times when they called England and Wales "Britannia" (or "Britannia Major", to be distinguished from "Britannia Minor", ie Brittany in France). The Roman province of Britannia only covered the areas of modern England and Wales. The area of modern Scotland was never finally conquered. Ireland was Hibernia, so even Northern Ireland was never part of "Britain". This old Roman distinction between Britain and Hibernia (or Ireland) is why the full name of the country is so long.

For a long time after the Romans went the term Britain disappeared and was only used to refer to the time before the Saxons. When King James VI of Scotland became King of England in 1603, he tried to revive the term Britain, but no-one really took him up on it.

¹ Julius Caesar is the earliest recorded writer to use the 'b' spelling during his own account of his expeditions to Britain in 55 and 54 BCE. Caesar, *The Gallic Wars*, Bk4.20-37; Bk5.2-24. These invasions were important propaganda exercises launched with the intention of further boosting Caesar's prestige in Rome.

Then, a hundred years later, England and Scotland joined together in the Act of Union, and they had to think of a name for the new joint kingdom. Someone suggested “Great Britain”, which not only sounded good but was actually accurate – when England and Scotland united, they reformed the old Roman province of Britain, and the “Great” helped to distinguish it from Brittany. When, a hundred years after that, another Act of Union brought Ireland into the fold, they didn’t just lump all three countries under the name Great Britain (because Ireland had never been part of Britain, great or small) so the name changed again to the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. When the Romans left, the Britons were the Celtic peoples they left behind. When the Angles and Saxons came raiding and settling, they subsumed the Britons of “England” into the new people who eventually got called the English. So the people with the best right to be called British nowadays are actually the very people in Wales and Scotland.

With these people, they made weapons for hunting and for fighting, and they crafted tools, learning painfully but steadily how to adapt the land, with its hills and its dales and its mountains and its lakes, and to tame it. These people were not “English” or “Irish” or “Scots” – that was all to come a lot later. But their descendants still live in Britain, sometimes in the same places, and they laid the foundations of modern Britain and of Ireland. Who were these people, and what culture did they forge in the ages of stone and bronze and iron?

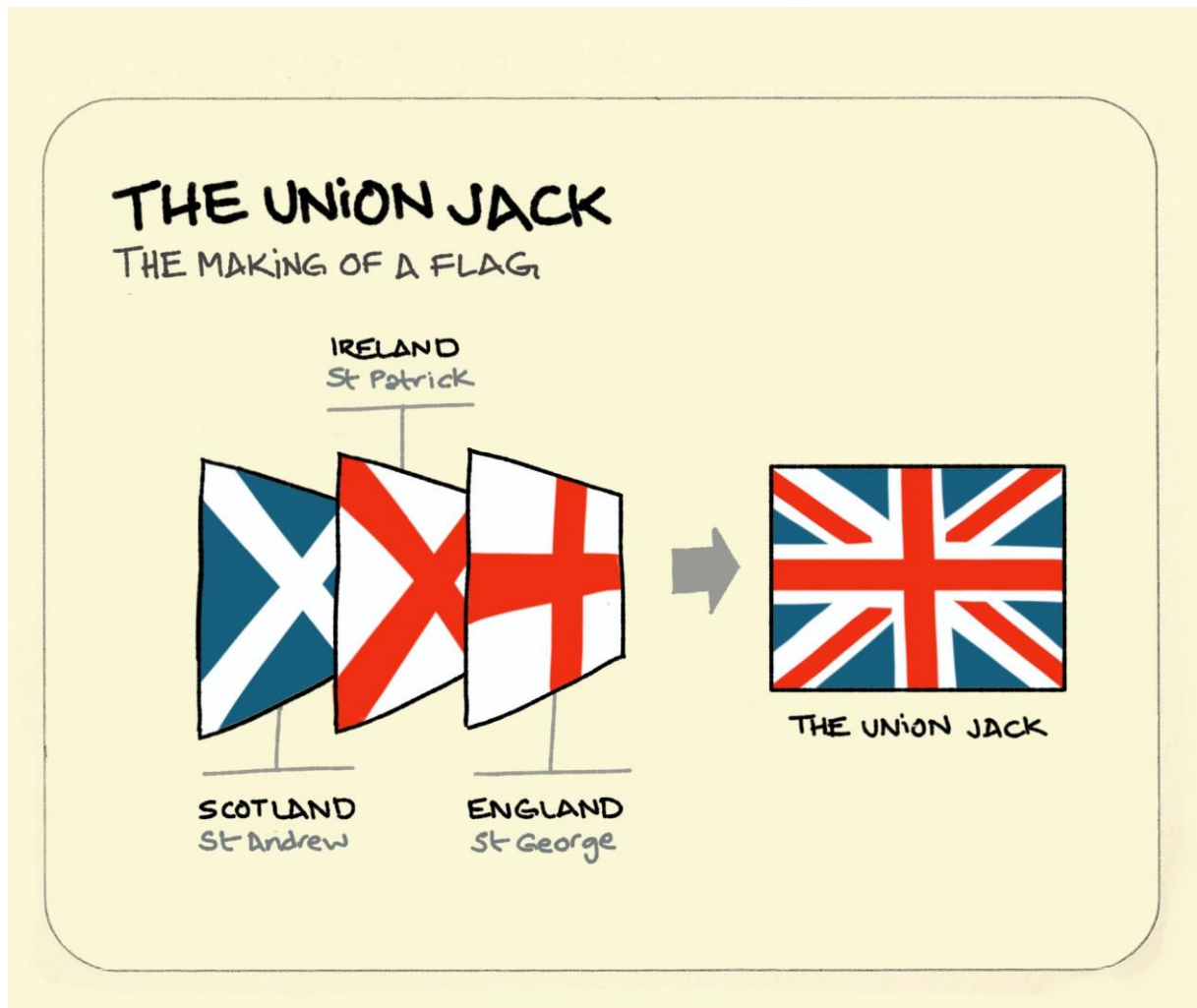
I.4. Union Jack

The Union Flag, or Union Jack, is the national flag of the United Kingdom. It is so called because it combines the crosses of the three countries united under one Sovereign - the kingdoms of England and Wales, of Scotland and of Ireland (since 1921 only Northern Ireland has been part of the United Kingdom). The flag is a combination of three older national flags; St George’s Red Cross of the kingdom of England, St Andrew’s white saltire

of Scotland, and St Patrick's red saltire of the Irelands. The cross of St George, patron saint of England since the 1270's, is a red cross on a white ground. After James I succeeded to the throne, it was combined with the cross of St Andrew in 1606. The cross saltire of St Andrew, patron saint of Scotland, is a diagonal white cross on a blue ground. The cross saltire of St Patrick, patron saint of Ireland, is a diagonal red cross on a white ground. This was combined with the previous Union Flag of St George and St Andrew, after the Act of Union of Ireland with England (and Wales) and Scotland on 1 January 1801, to create the Union Flag that has been flown ever since. The Welsh dragon does not appear on the flag. This is because when the first Union Flag was created in 1606, the Principality of Wales by that time was already united with England.

The union story is clear, but what about the "Jack" in the name? The term's origin is unclear, and it accepts more than a possibility. It may come from the 'jack-et' of the English or Scottish soldiers, or from the name of James I who originated the first union in 1603. It may date from Queen Anne's time, too. The term 'Jack' once meant small, and this possibly confirms the alternative that says it was already in use by the Royal Navy for the maritime bowsprit flags they used to mount on the front of their warships, and they only added union to the term (Flag Institute) See the figure below.

Figure1: The Union Jack



Source: www.sketchplanations.com/the-union-jack

Task One

1. Read more and find out the most famous Classical writers who had written about the British Isles?
2. What is the story behind the word 'Great' becoming attached to 'Britain'?
3. Find out details about the link between the terms Jack and small.

II. Prehistoric Britain

Archaeologists and historians use the term 'Prehistory' to refer to a time in a people's history before they used a written language. In Britain the term Prehistory refers to the period before Britain became part of the Roman Empire in AD 43. To illustrate, it is the period of extreme cold when the landscape was treeless tundra full of rhinoceros, and the time when humans who passed used handaxes and hunted wild horses and red deer. It is also the time back to which the Red Lady of Paviland's² tomb was discovered. In addition, it is the period over which these islands underwent huge climactic, societal, geological, political and technological changes. The artefacts, hillforts, henges, and burial sites give us insights into the lives of prehistoric Britain. Prehistory was traditionally divided by archaeologists into three main periods: the Stone, Bronze and Iron ages, named after the main technologies used at the time. Each period is subdivided – for example, the Stone Age into the Palaeolithic, Mesolithic and Neolithic (Old, Middle and New Stone Ages).

II. 1. Stone Age People

They used stones, crafted and shaped their tools, and some of those flint knives cut like a razor. They made tools out of bones too. They knew they needed tools for some jobs, and we can see those jobs growing in sophistication. They could identify the best materials. Picking the best materials probably started as trial-and-error, but this knowledge got passed down through the generations. That suggests skill and education. They were highly skilled and imaginative. Every tool they made had to be invented first. As far as we know, the first people

² The find was made by William Buckland, Oxford University's first Reader in Geology. The presence of the beads and other ornaments led him to conclude that the bones were of a woman, and the find quickly became known as the 'Red Lady of Paviland'. Buckland also assumed that the 'Red Lady' was from the Roman period, around 2,000 years ago. We now know that they are the remains of a young man, and far more ancient

to work out that you could get food by sowing seeds and waiting for them to grow came from the “Fertile Crescent” in the Middle East. The idea really caught on, and when it spread to Europe, it created what historians call the Neolithic Revolution. People stopped following wherever the deer went; instead, they settled down and learned to plough.

You can date big human impact on the environment to the New Stone Age. The people who brought the techniques to the island must have travelled from Europe by boat. The innovation did not stop with farming. Neolithic people learned how to tame pigs, horses, cattle and how to use them for work or for food. They farmed pulses, barley and wheat, but they still relied on wild food and resources. And rather than settling in one place, they still moved around within territories. These territories were focused on great communal monuments. Some were gathering places like the causewayed enclosure at Windmill Hill, Wiltshire (built about 3650 BC). Others were burial sites with impressive long barrows. Many had stone chambered tombs, such as Belas Knap, Gloucestershire, West Kennet Long Barrow, Wiltshire (both about 3650 BC), and Wayland's Smithy, Oxfordshire (about 3400 BC). (English Heritage)

And then there is religion. Burial customs and cults of the dead say a lot about the belief in life after death in some form. The corpses were especially protected, “whether or not that meant that the dead were to be cared for lovingly or that their return was to be feared” (Encyclopedia Britannica) If you are hunting, you invoke the spirit of the deer or wild boar. When you take up farming, however, you are putting your life entirely in the hands of the sun, the rain, the earth, and the British weather. No wonder these things began to get worshipped as gods. What survives from the Neolithic period is amazing! Beautifully crafted jewellery and pottery have been found. These were highly resourceful and sophisticated. Burial chambers under long grassy mounds called long barrows have been discovered.

II. 2. Stonehenge

New types of monuments appeared in the middle and late Neolithic periods, including timber circles like Woodhenge (about 2300 BC), earth mounds such as Silbury Hill, Wiltshire (about 2400 BC), stone circles like Castlerigg, Cumbria (about 3000 BC), and earthwork henges such as Knowlton, Dorset. Henges and circles were sometimes combined. The stone circles at Avebury and Stonehenge (both about 2500 BC) are among the best examples of this. And in some places, several different types of monuments were built in the same area over long periods. You can get a good sense of these sacred landscapes at Marden Henge, Avebury and Stonehenge.

It is the Neolithic equivalent of a massive public works project. Stonehenge was a huge, impressive and massive circle of upright stones supporting lintels, with another horseshoe-shape set of stones inside it, and an altar stone inside that. It is aligned with the sunrise at the summer solstice and the sunset at the winter solstice, so it seems a pretty safe bet that Stonehenge was a religious or ritual centre of some sort. If size and scale are anything to go by, we are looking at a place of national importance. For a long time archaeologists were surprised because the effort, the organisation, and the sheer number of people required to pull off such a massive undertaking were enormous. Stonehenge meant meticulous planning, technical know-how, communication, logistics, and some very good rope-making (History.com) (See the figure below).

Figure 2: Stonehenge



Source: History.com

Stonehenge is not the only circular formation of importance, but what did they build it for? Stonehenge was almost certainly a sort of capital to which the chiefs of other groups came from all over Britain. In general, the henges were centres of religious, political and economic power. In the modern times, these circles became touristic sites. As for Stonehenge, it did not receive its necessary protection since tourists took pieces of the stones as souvenirs, and others painted graffiti on them. But since 1978, preservation efforts have been made by the English government (Doeden 29).

Task two

- Read more to find about both the hardships and secrets of Early Neolithic human control of the environment.
- Learn about John Aubrey's full study of Stonehenge.

II. 2. The Bronze Age (2300 - 800 BC)

The British are so used to the idea of “waves” of invaders. There is no clear division between the Stone and the Bronze Age in Britain. Some sources say that the Bronze Age lasted from around 2500 to 700 BC. Around 2500 BC the Beaker people (originally from Spain) began to immigrate to Britain bringing the interesting technique of making bronze tools with them, starting in Cornwall, where the metals were, and spreading out from there. They would be called the metalworkers or something suitable like. A scientific study by Natural History Museum scientists from 2017 study suggests that more than 90% of Britain's Neolithic gene pool was replaced with the coming of a people genetically related to the Beaker people of the lower-Rhine area at the start of the Bronze Age. The DNA data also suggests that the culture that brought Bronze Age technology to Britain was connected to a migration that almost completely replaced the island's earlier inhabitants (Warwick classics network)

Archaeologists called them the Beaker People. The Beakers knew how to mix copper with tin –Britain had lots of both – to make bronze. But the Beaker culture was named after the distinctive beakers which appeared in the archaeological record from this culture. These famous beakers were ornate drinking cups. Early Bronze Age Britons buried their dead beneath earth mounds known as barrows, often with a beaker alongside the body. The Neolithics had buried their chiefs under great long mounds known as barrows. The Beakers went for round barrows or individual graves. The Bronze Age people lived in round houses and divided up the landscape.

Like the Neolithics, the Beakers were hunters to start with, but settled down to farming in time. Archaeologists have found remains that look like the foundations of cattle enclosures, though they might have been the Beakers' huts. With bronze pins and needles you could make

finer clothes, and with bronze shears you could cut them to a better fit. A bronze plough cuts better and straighter than a bone one and a bronze sickle harvests more easily. You could have really fancy brooches and highly decorated daggers and belt buckles.

The Beaker people brought with them from Europe a new cereal, barley, which could grow almost anywhere. They probably spoke an Indo-European language. People of this period were also largely responsible for building many famous prehistoric sites such as the later phases of Stonehenge along with Seahenge. Many stone circles were erected within existing "henges" - (i.e. circular earthworks consisting of a ditch and bank surrounding a central table). As for Stonehenge, the ditch was dug and the earthen bank built far earlier - around 3000 BC. The stones were erected (and repeatedly moved) between 2500 BC and 1600 BC. The stone circles may have been used to help with the astronomical observations necessary to establish the correct days for seasonal festivals - midsummer solstice, the first day of spring and so on. The origins of the stones, their construction, and the remains of those who lived and died near Stonehenge are telling us profound things about what life was like for ancient ancestors of the British.

The first thing the great stone circles tell us is that, for at least some of the time, life in prehistoric Britain was pretty good. Communities were settled. Agriculture was well developed and efficiently practised. Compared with modern Britain, streams were teeming with fish and woods were alive with game. "... Britain at the time was something of an Eden. But above all, it was their crops that gave them the leisure time to build great communal projects like Stonehenge "a professor said (Wilson BBC) People were not static; there was a big industry in trading stone axes, and axes were traded right across Britain and into Europe.

Task 3:

A- Do more research about who was at the origin of the round house idea and what that was for.

B- Match each activity with its right period

Activities	Period
More land is cleared for farming and single grave replace communal burial	2500-800BC
Metalwork becomes increasingly sophisticated	3300-1200BC
Simple pottery begins to be made	3000-1500BC
First stone circles and 'henges' are built	4000-3500BC
Specialists' create highly decorated 'beaker' pottery	2400-2200 BC

II. 3. The Iron Age in Britain (800 BC— AD 43)

It was a period of profound social and economic change, which saw the end of the prehistoric cycle of the Neolithic and bronze Ages, and the beginning of a world that was to change little in its essentials. The transition from Bronze Age to Iron Age is now dated to the eighth century BC, the clearest archaeological indicator being the cessation of bronze hoarding, although this was not simultaneous across Britain. It should be stressed how little is known about social and economic developments in the first four or five centuries of the Iron Age in most of Britain. Much evidence relates to the later part of the period, from c. 300 BC onwards (Armit 27).

Towards the end of the Bronze Age a new technology began to make its way into Britain from the continent – iron. And a new people – the Ancient Britons. The Britons mastered iron, that most powerful but difficult of metals, and changed Britain into a land of tribes and nations, of traders, and of huge hill-top cities. They had craftsmen who created artefacts of stunning beauty which still take your breath away, and the Druids (men high in rank with religious and political power) who took more away than just your breath.

The Iron Age in Britain generally goes from about 800 or 750 BC up to the Roman invasion in AD 43 (though obviously the Iron Age people were still around after that). In England and Wales, the Iron Age ended with the arrival of the Romans in AD 43. In Scotland and Ireland, Iron Age ways of life continued after this date, and for some people in other parts of Britain aspects of Iron Age ways of living may have carried on for a long time after the Roman conquest. Iron smelting originally came from the Middle East, and it came into Britain through contacts with continental Europe. We have got a lot more evidence about the Iron Age in Britain than we have about the Bronze Age. There are the usual sites and artefacts: burial chambers, traces of buildings (thatched roundhouses with wooden or wattle and daub walls), and bits and pieces of cooking pots or farming tools (Iron axes and iron tipped ploughs).

The Druids had a thing about water and were always throwing things into rivers as a sacrifice to the gods. Because of that way a lot of objects got preserved in the mud. Many decorated Iron Age weapons and other objects have been found in rivers, lakes and bogs including the Witham Shield found near Lincoln and the elaborately crafted bronze Battersea Shield found in the River Thames (Fig.3)

Battersea Shield



Source: www.bbc.co.uk/history/ancient/british_prehistory/ironage_whatsurvived_01.shtml

Most of the objects related to the Iron Age whether on display in museums, or in books and television documentaries were not found in Iron Age farms, villages or forts. They were neither lost, nor thrown away. The way they were discovered shows that they were deliberately buried.

... Objects, such as the Deskford Carnyx (the head of an Iron Age wind instrument in the National Museum of Scotland), the gold Broighter torc in the National Museum of Ireland, the Llyn Cerig Bach hoard of iron objects in the National Museum of Wales, or the Waterloo Helmet in the British Museum, were accidental finds made when people were draining bogs, dredging rivers or ploughing fields (JD Hill)

By looking at the things they left behind carefully, there are two main styles of the Iron Age culture in Britain: the Hallstatt style, named after a village in Austria where a lot of it has been found, including very long and powerful swords. There is some evidence of Hallstatt culture in Britain, but not much; La Tène style is the second one for the largest cultural grouping of the Iron Age, named after a village in Switzerland where archaeologists have found pottery and iron work decorated with circles and swirling patterns. Lots of La Tène culture has turned up in Britain (Oakland)

Task 4:

- A- Another form of community space was the **hill fort**. Describe how it became in larger and more elaborate use in the Iron Age.
- B- The range of objects all buried together are called a ‘hoard’. Archaeologists believe that **Iron Age hoards** were precious things hidden for different reasons. Look at the most famous hords that were discovered, and find out why these objects were buried in the ground during the Iron Age

II.3.1.The Celts

The Celts (pronounced ‘kelts’) first appeared on the European scene in about 500 BC. They lived in Britain and northwest Europe during the Iron Age. In Britain, the Celts settled in areas such as Cornwall and Wales. They were a very advanced society, but Julius Caesar³ thought they were a bunch of savages and for a long time historians tended to follow his lead: They used to talk dismissively of the “Celtic fringe”. It is only recently that people have learned to respect the Celts for their craftsmanship or for their technology. Apart from a few heroic figures like Boudica and Caratacus (and even they lost in the end) they are everyone’s favourite losers: invaded by the Romans, overrun by the Angles and Saxons, conquered by the Normans and then hammered by Edward I and the English. They are on the losing side in every civil war.

The Romans called these people Britons, not Celts; in fact, the Romans only grouped these folks together under one name at all because they all happened to inhabit the same island. The

³ **Julius Caesar**, in full **Gaius Julius Caesar**, (born July 12/13, 100? bce, Rome [Italy]—died March 15, 44 bce, Rome), celebrated qo general and statesman, the conqueror of Gaul (58–50 bce), victor in the civil war of 49–45 bce, and dictator (46–44 bce), who was launching a series of political and social reforms when he was assassinated by a group of nobles in the Senate House on the Ides of March.

name Celt is a modern one as these folks were not called Celts until the 1700s. It is used to collectively describe all the many tribes of people living during the Iron Age. There were three main branches of Celts in Europe – **Brythonic**, **Gaulic** and **Gaelic**. Brythonic Celts (Britons) settled in England. The Celts who settled in England were split into many different tribes, each ruled by a king or queen. Most Celts were farmers, and they lived in houses that were round instead of square. In battle, Celts mainly fought with swords and spears, and they used long shields to protect themselves. Some people can still speak Celtic languages such as Welsh and Gaelic.

Then, the people of Britain seem to have developed a very strong tribal structure. It is probably okay to talk about “tribes” in a loose way for the Beaker folk and the Neolithics before them, but there was nothing loose about Iron Age tribes. In fact, tribe is a bit misleading: Iron Age tribes were something closer to nations. Following are some tribes of note: the Ulaid in Ulster, this tribe built an impressive fortified capital at Emain Macha, still one of the most important Iron Age sites in Ireland; the Brigantes, named from the Celtic briga, meaning a hill, and these people dominated the North Country; and the Pictii living in what would later be Scotland were the mysterious Pictii, also known as the Painted People, who could be very violent. (Woad Rage and Chariots: The Iron Age in Britain)

An Iron Age tribe was not just a bunch of people in a village with a chief. These people had a clear order of classes – four classes, to be precise. The first group represents the nobles and included the King (or Queen – a number of British tribes were led by women) and other highly respected people like the warriors, Druids, poets, and historians. Among the Gaels of Ireland a tribal chief was called a toisech, which is where we get the word taoiseach for the Irish prime minister. The middle class was made up of farmers, craftsmen, and merchants. These people paid rent to the nobles. The working class people who did all the chores belong to the third class. Iron Age tribes may not have had a permanent working class. They may

have used children for things like shepherding or washing up and older people for heavier jobs like harvesting or mining (though it sounds a bit dicey to rely for your supply of iron on the most clapped-out people of the tribe). The last class consists of the slaves who were usually criminals or prisoners of war, known as *mug*, which sounds about right.

Broadly speaking, the Celts were tall with fair or red hair and blue eyes. “They are very tall in stature, with rippling muscles under clear white skin. Their hair is blond, but not naturally so: they bleach it to this day, artificially, washing it in lime and combing it back from their foreheads. They look like wood-demons, their hair thick and shaggy like a horse’s mane. Some of them are clean and shaven, but others, especially those of high rank, shave their cheeks but leave a moustache that covers the whole mouth” (Siculus *The Library of History*).

They love bright dazzling colours. They dyed their woolen trousers and tops bright colours. Clothes were made from wool and dyed with natural vegetable dyes (plants and berries) and woven by hand on a vertical loom. The wool cloth material made on the loom would then have been sewn together using a bone or metal needle and wool thread. They loved to wear jewellery made from bronze, gold, tin, silver, coral and enamel. Important people like chieftains, nobles and warriors wore a torc. Tunics were mainly worn by men in general (New World Celts)

II.3.2. Celtic Women

The Iron Age Celts established patriarchal societies where men had the ultimate control over politics and at home. However, Tacitus said that Celtic women were as large and frightening as the men, and Diodorus of Sicily describes Gaulish women as being nearly as tall as the men, whom they rival in courage (Siculus)

The practice of bearing arms was relatively common among them. If this is true, no wonder they took part in the fighting too! Boudicca (or Boadicea) is a famous female fighter, chief of the Iceni tribe in southeastern Britain. She is described as having thick red hair down to her knees. She wore a colourful tunic, a gold torc around her neck and a cape of thick tweed pinned with a brooch. When she went to fight, she held a spear in her hand. She did not like the Romans and revolted against them. Boudicca's ability to unite her people in revolt was remarkable, but this was short-lived, and Boudicca herself died at its end, perhaps by her own hand in order to avoid capture (Matthews Boadicea: Warrior Queen of the Celts). Another well-known ancient female ruler was Queen Cartimandua. She ruled the Brigantes, a tribe of northern Britain. A contemporary of Boudicca, Cartimandua is remembered more as a traitor than a heroine for her betrayal of Caradoc, the leader of the Celtic resistance in the West (Wilde Celtic Women in Legend).

Among the Celts, there were prominent women who acted as priestesses, poets, and healers. They could conduct business, serve as diplomats, and act as mediators or judges in political and military disputes.

II.3.3. Religion in the Iron Age (The Druids)

The religion of the Britons was based on reverence for nature and its surroundings, and the Druids were its priesthood. In fact, Druidism was Britain's ancient faith. These Druids were surprisingly learned, and represented over the centuries as noble sages, mystics, philosophers, the enlightened among the savages. Their name may have come from a Celtic word meaning "knower of the oak tree." An interesting image of Druids can be men in white robes, long beards, mistletoe or oak leaf wreaths, sometimes golden accessories inspired by archeological finds (Sames Britain Antiqua)

They probably knew how to read and write, and they certainly had a good grasp of mathematics. They knew something of medicine and law, and they could trace the stars and the planets. They even had a sort of holy headquarters on the Isle of Anglesey. They also had immense power. They could tell everyone what to do, even kings and chiefs. They shut themselves away in sacred groves and offered up sacred mistletoe and led all the sacred rituals the tribe needed to get through another year. They could read the future in the flight of birds, and they could weave dark and terrible magic. Above all, they knew when to offer the gods blood and (Druid opens envelope, whole tribe holds its breath) whose blood it should be. One thing about the Britons that the Romans found really revolting was all that human sacrifice. The Druids triple-killed their human sacrifices, not just to make sure the sacrifice was dead but as three different ways into the afterlife. They believed that the soul was immortal and passed at death from one person into another. Roman writers also stated that the Druids offered human sacrifices for those who were gravely sick or in danger of death in battle (Encyclopedia Britannica)

The early period of Druidism witnessed Druidic rites being held in clearings in the forest. Only later under Roman influence sacred buildings were set up. Druids were excused from military service, did not pay tribute or go to war and had an allowance in all matters - and many therefore chose the profession. To become a druid did though take up to twenty years since they had to learn many verses by memory. This was the rule because the druids were not to depend on written texts, and so that the doctrine would not spread freely among the people. The Druids were suppressed in Gaul by the Romans under Tiberius (reigned 14–37 Ce) and probably in Britain a little later. In Ireland they lost their priestly functions after the coming of Christianity and survived as poets, historians, and judges.

II.3.4.The Belgians

Some time in the second century BCE, a final wave of immigrants began to arrive. This group originated from the Belgic territory in northwestern Gaul (France and Belgium) and shared tribal names with those in the Belgic territories on the continent. Caesar claims that this group occupied the maritime portion of Britain; he presumably meant Kent and perhaps the mouth of the Thames estuary. The Belgae (also called Belgians) turned from raiding to settling for unknown reasons (Caesar, *The Gallic War*, 5.12)

The most obvious feature about Britain is that it is an island separated from northern France and Belgium by a channel 34 kilometers wide at the narrowest, to 241 kilometers at the widest. Up until the present day, the channel has served as both a conduit for trade as well as a barrier to invading forces (Encyclopædia Britannica). The Belgians stayed in close touch with their “parent” tribes back in Gaul, a thing that was maintained across the channel. So they knew all about Caesar launching his invasion of Gaul, and they seem to have sent some of their men over to help in the fight against him. That the Belgae and the Atrebates (the places from where they came) in Britain were sending reinforcements back home to participate in the revolt of the Belgae in 57 BCE was one of the main reasons Caesar thought about crossing over to Britain and teaching the inhabitants a lesson.

Task 5:

- Were the Iron Age Britons, in general, backward or advanced?

III. Roman Britain

When the Romans arrived in Britain, they changed the course of British history and their legacy was felt for many centuries. The Romans brought order and law, and the Britons learned to live peacefully in the Roman world. But Roman rule stopped at Hadrian's Wall, and the Roman legions never crossed the sea to Ireland. Modern estimates suggest that incomers were outnumbered by native Britons by at least twenty to one – but of course this minority was politically, militarily and culturally dominant ruling elite. The result of the interaction of the two groups was an interesting cultural hybrid, not simply Britons adopting Roman ways, but a story of adaptation on both sides. While the people of southern Britain lived the Roman way, with roads and cities, the people of the north rejected Rome and all it stood for.

There are many things that the Romans brought to Britain during their invasion. Some are still used widely today, they include the calendar, straight roads, central heating, aqueducts, towns, indoor plumbing, and the census. The Romans also introduced a lot of food to Britain, including apples, turnips, pears, celery, asparagus, grapes and wine (winkl.co.uk)

III.1. Causes of the Roman Invasion

Britain in 55 BCE on the eve of Caesar's invasions was relatively unknown to both the Romans and the wider Mediterranean region although it was relatively densely populated and an integral part of a European trade network. In the absence of written sources by pre-Roman inhabitants or details on the history of the islands, we are dependent on archaeology, coinage and local traditions.

Basically, most Romans thought, Britain was a long way away and not doing Rome any harm. The best thing to do was to leave it alone. The pretext was that the Britons had participated in various Gallic uprisings against Roman dominance, and therefore Gaul would not be secured so long as Britain continued to be independent to encourage resistance and harbour fugitives. Beyond the threat to Roman domination of Gaul, there were two possible reasons: Britain was reputed to be rich in mineral resources and in trade opportunities, and there is also the Roman competitive politics to make a name in places never confronted by their army before. Julius Caesar landed in Britain in 55 BC, but he left the job unfinished. After Julius Caesar's failed invasions of 55 and 54 BC, a successful Roman invasion, led by Aulus Plautius and ordered by Claudius, quickly took control of the country, conquered most of Britain in AD 43, and built alliances with local tribes.

The Romans were not great ones for original thinking: They built on other people's ideas and inventions, especially the Greeks'. With regard to Britain, it was by no means all plain sailing when they did, but once they got settled, things went very well. They even "borrowed" the local gods: they built Roman temples to British gods. Britain became totally integrated into the Roman world; it even produced some emperors (Mc Dowall)

III.2. Romanisation of Britain

Probably the most famous thing the Romans built in Britain was Hadrian⁴'s great wall, which extends from the River Tyne over to the Solway Firth (which is roughly Newcastle to Carlisle). It was because of the Brigantes that Hadrian came to Britain to have a look –and he probably built his wall specifically to keep the Brigantes apart from the Caledonians, who were always causing trouble as well. The wall does not, and never did, mark the boundary

⁴ In AD122 the Emperor Hadrian ordered his soldiers to build a wall between Roman Britain and Scotland. It was the north-west frontier of the Roman Empire for nearly 300 years. Hadrian's Wall was made a World Heritage Site in 1987.

between England and Scotland. Hadrian's Wall still looks impressive today, as it snakes its way across the countryside, but it was a lot higher in Roman times. Its construction was a tremendous feat of engineering.

When the Romans arrived, they took large centres and built them up in the Roman style, which was sensible in two ways: taking advantage of a good thing. Usually, if a town already exists somewhere it is there for a good reason – good water supply or easy access to the river, or whatever.

Romanising the population started by making the Britons' towns Roman, which helped to give the Britons a sense that they were now part of the Roman Empire whether they liked it or not. The Romans also set up three types of towns (the town was the basis of the Roman administration and civilisation) with planned streets, markets and shops. The *coloniae* towns were sort of settlements for soldiers who had left the army and were looking to settle down. The first big *coloniae* was at Colchester, but others followed at places like Gloucester, Lincoln, Wroxeter, and York. The second type was the *municipia* that were large cities for the whole population given Roman citizenship. And lastly there are the *civitas* as old Celtic tribal capitals for the Celtic population of the countryside. (Mc Dowall)

The Romans left about twenty large towns of about 5000 inhabitants and almost one hundred smaller ones, most of them were initially army camps (In fact, the term 'camp' in Latin is 'castra' which is the ending of many town names to this day : chester, caster and cester of each of Lancaster, Leicester and Winchester). They also contributed to the growth of large farms called *villas* which belonged to richer Britons, who were more Roman than Celts (Fig.4)

Figure 4: **Roman Britain**



Source: www.pinterest.com/pin/643944446714702750/

They brought the skills of reading and writing to Britain. The Celtic peasantry remained illiterate and spoke only Celtic languages; the sons of chiefs and most town dwellers started to speak Latin and Greek. Hence, Britain was probably more literate under the Romans than it was to be again until the 15th century.

Apart from Boudicca's revolt, the Roman better trained armies had little difficulty in the conquest of Britain. The army, which on its arrival was a centre of Roman culture, albeit provincial Roman culture, underwent a profound change; it literally went native as it switched to local recruitment. In the third and fourth centuries, most Roman soldiers in Britain were British born, not foreigners.

The Romans brought some better agricultural techniques over with them, along with the latest in ploughs (cutting edge technology!) and showed the Britons how to grow things like cabbages and carrots.

Some leading Britons took to the Roman way of life. For one thing, they stopped talking about "chiefs" and called themselves "Kings". Despite some changes – new crops, new tools, new roads, most Britons still lived in their villages, doing things pretty much as they had

always done them. They remained in poor rural communities, using a perfectly effective pre-Roman farming technology and Iron Age style houses (British Museum)

Though it was still hard life, Roman Britain seemed very civilized. The Greco-Roman civilisation displaced the 'Celtic' culture of Iron Age Europe: these islanders actually became Romans, both culturally and legally (the Roman citizenship was more a political status than an ethnic identity). By AD 300, almost everyone in 'Britannia' was Roman, legally and culturally, even though they were of indigenous descent and still mostly speaking 'Celtic' dialects

As for religion, The Romans brought their state gods to Britain (Jupiter, Juno, Minerva, Mars, Mercury, etc.) and the imperial cult (worship of the genius, or guardian spirit, of the emperor). Besides bringing their own gods, the Romans also brought to Britain many of the gods of other provinces, from the Greek world and the East, including Egyptian Isis, and Christianity. Concerning the latter, we do not know exactly who first brought Christianity into Britain, but Christianity only became widespread when the Romans started to worship as Christians. After Emperor Constantine gave Christianity the thumbs up in AD 312 (and he became Emperor at York – a local lad, by Jove!) and Emperor Theodosius made it the official religion in AD 380, the Christians could come out of hiding and worship in the open.

III. 3. The Fall of the Romans

By the fourth century AD the Roman Empire was no longer the mighty edifice it had been in Caesar's day. It was divided into two halves, and there were continual power struggles, which often ended up with Roman armies fighting each other, or commanders in one part of the empire declaring war on other parts. The Romans could not recover the discipline and organisation that had once made them seem invincible. They were well into decline, and about to fall. Roman Britain was no exception.

In AD 410, the Roman Emperor Honorius sent a goodbye letter to the people of Britain. He wrote, “fight bravely and defend your lives... you are on your own now” (Emperor Honorius Letter). The city of Rome was under attack and the empire was falling apart, so the Romans had to leave to take care of matters back home. After they left, the country fell into chaos. Native tribes and foreign invaders battled each other for power. Many of the Roman towns in Britain crumbled away as people went back to living in the countryside. But even after they were gone, the Romans left their mark all over the country. They gave new towns, plants, animals, a new religion and ways of reading and counting.

Task 6:

A- Can we say that Roman Britain meant Britain being civilized for the first time in history?

B- The following list includes some of the key individuals in the history of Roman Britain. Rewrite the name next to its corresponding identity : (**Prasutagus, Hadrian, Claudius, Tacitus, Gaius Suetonius Paulinus, Boudicca, Aulus Plautius**)

- 1– General who led Roman invasion army in 43
- 2 – Emperor who ordered the invasion
- 3– 1st Governor
- 4 – King of the Iceni
- 5 – Queen of the Iceni
- 6– Emperor who orders the building of the wall between Scotland & Roman Britain
- 7– Roman historian who writes an account of the Iceni revolt.

IV. The Anglo-Saxons in Britain

This period is traditionally known as the Dark Ages, mainly because written sources for the early years of Saxon invasion are scarce. It is a time of war, of the breaking up of Roman Britannia into several separate kingdoms, of religious conversion and, after the 790s, of continual battles against a new set of invaders: the Vikings.

Anglo-Saxon mercenaries had for many years fought in the Roman army in Britain, so they were not total strangers to the island. Not only were they oftentimes employed in their armies, but they also raided, fought and traded with them. Their invasions were slow, and began even before the Roman legions departed. When the Romans left Britain, the Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians began to arrive in small invading parties at first, but soon in increasing numbers. Initially, they met little firm resistance from the defenceless inhabitants of Britannia. Around 500 AD, however, the invaders were resisted fiercely by the Romano-British, who might have been led by King Arthur – who led a sort of resistance movement against the Saxons.

Arthur is supposed to have beaten the Saxons in a great battle at a place whose Latin name is Mons Badonicus, or Mount Badon, until eventually he was killed by treachery in AD 500. If you really go for myths and legends, then he is still supposed to be sleeping somewhere with his men, ready to come charging out whenever England is in deadly danger (Sean Lang).

The term Anglo-Saxon is a relatively modern one. It refers to settlers from the German regions of Angeln and Saxony. The Jutes and the Frisians from Denmark were also settling in the British Isles, but the Anglo-Saxon settlers were effectively their own masters in a new land (Fig.7). They all shared the same “*mutually intelligible tongue despite there being regional differences*” (kveiland 24), but were each ruled by different strong warriors. The Anglo-Saxon period lasted for 600 years, from 410 to 1066, and in that time Britain's political landscape underwent many changes. The English are descended (in theory) from the Anglo-Saxons; the word England comes from Angle-land.

Figure7: where the Anglo-saxons came from?



Source: David Simpson 2021

Is it difficult to be certain exactly how and why the Angles and Saxons settled in Britain? It was for all sorts of reasons – a taste for adventure, overpopulation at home, and even plague coming in from Asia. Some Anglo-Saxons moved their whole families across the sea to live in Britain. They brought tools, weapons and farm animals with them. They built their own homes in areas that became villages. It is also a story of finding land to farm because it was difficult to grow crops as their land was too wet. But earlier when the Romans left Britain, the Picts and Scots started attacking from the north. The Britons asked for help from some Anglo-Saxons to defend their country. Yet, they did not leave! They took over instead.

Once the Anglo-Saxons arrived, in about AD 450, however, things changed. The conditions of post-Roman Britain are said to have largely contributed to the rapid adoption of Anglo-Saxon culture among the Romano-British elite, in that the population was very much accustomed to a foreign and culturally different people being superior, and as such were more inclined to accept and adapt to the changes.

The Jutes settled mainly in Kent. However, they did not call themselves 'the Jutes', they called themselves 'the Kentings' because they lived in Kent. The Angles settled in East Anglia. The Saxons settled in areas of Essex (East Saxons), Sussex (South Saxons), Middlesex (Middle Saxons), and Wessex (West Saxons).

Only a handful of writers chronicled the events of these years. First up there is a British monk called Gildas. In spite of his important historical writings, many historians disregarded him as fictitious. Next up is Bede, who was a Northumbrian monk living about a hundred years after Gildas. Bede's greatest work is his "**Ecclesiastical History of the English People**", which is often called the first history of the English. However, Bede writes several centuries after the Germanic societies arrived in Britain (White 593).

IV. 1. Impacts of the Anglo-Saxon Conquest in Britain

England had a population of about two million people. Almost everyone farmed land. England was a Christian country, and religion played a large role in everyday life. For centuries England had been under threat from the Vikings, and parts of northern England had Viking settlers. Edward the Confessor was king from 1042 to 1066, but the kings before him (Cnut and his two sons) had been Vikings. England had a very well-organised government.

The Anglo-Saxons soon replaced the Roman stone buildings with their own wooden ones; they spoke their own languages, which gave rise to the English spoken today. They also brought their own Germanic religious beliefs, but St. Augustine⁵ converted most of the country to Christianity. (James & Ibeji)

⁵**St. Augustine**, also called **Saint Augustine of Hippo**, original Latin name **Aurelius Augustinus**, (born November 13, 354, Tagaste, Numidia [now Souk Ahras, Algeria]—died August 28, 430, Hippo Regius [now Annaba, Algeria]; feast day August 28), bishop of Hippo from 396 to 430, one of the Latin Fathers of the Church and perhaps the most significant Christian thinker after St. Paul.

By the end of the seventh century, seven major Anglo-Saxon kingdoms had already been established: the Heptarchy⁶. The Angles were setting up Northumbria which was made up of two smaller kingdoms, Bernicia and Deira, Mercia, and East Anglia. Each of Sussex, Essex, and Wessex were established by the Saxons. Kent was possibly the work of the Jutes from Jutland, but more likely the Saxons, too (Crabtree 89)

Over time, these kingdoms united to counteract fierce attacks from Viking settlers in the east and north of England. Around the mid-ninth century the former Anglo-Saxon kingdoms coalesced leaving only four: Northumbria, Mercia⁷, East Anglia and Wessex.

It was only Alfred of Wessex (Alfred the Great⁸) who managed to keep the raids of the Vikings at bay for a long time. All the others were overcome, their kingdoms plundered and populations massacred or forced to flee. He also secured his shores by a strong navy. He negotiated a treaty with the Danes which granted him control over West Mercia and Kent whereas the conquering Danes received settlements in the north and east regions (the territory was later referred to as the Danelaw).

The Anglo-Saxon culture is felt in many English words. Days of the week come from some Germanic Gods' names such as Tig, Wodin, Thor and Frei. Place names are one of the ways that the Anglo-Saxon settlement can be tracked. The suffix "*ing*" meaning "son of" or "family of" is often found; hence, Hastings is where Haesta's children lived. A "*ham*" was an

⁶ From Greek, and means the seven kingdoms

⁷ Of the four Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, Mercia was the strongest. Its supremacy dates back to the eight century to 757 AD when its most notable ruler King Offa ascended to the throne. No sooner had the king come to sit upon the throne of Mercia that he applied himself to extend his dominion over the neighbouring kingdoms. He gained control of Kent and Sussex and forced East Anglia, Wessex and Northumbria to acknowledge him as overlord

⁸ King Alfred has proven to be valiant and resourceful ever since he became king of Wessex after his older brother died in one of the Vikings raids. He was in his twenties when he ascended to the throne, but he was smart in politics and extraordinary as a strategist. He created a strong defensive system to protect his kingdom by creating fortified towns and organizing the militia into a standing army (Williams 2012:11)

enclosure or farm, so Waltham was the farm near the wood (weald/ walt). (The two - *ing* and *ham* - are combined in many cases, e.g. Nottingham, Wokingham, Birmingham). An "*over*" was a shore; therefore, Andover, Wendover &c. "Stoke" was a place with a stockade, and this was sometimes corrupted to Stow. (Again the elements were sometimes combined - e.g. Walthamstow.) A "*ton*" was a place surrounded by a hedge or palisade and is one of the commonest endings, as is "*wick*," a word used for a village or a marsh, or anywhere salt was found (Droitwich).

As regards government and society, they created the king's council (the Witan) which was a group of warriors or churchmen acting as supporters or advisors of the king in difficult matters. It discussed threats and disputes, had a large role in choosing a new king, and could even issue laws by the 10th century. It was not at all democratic because in many cases the king ignored their advice. The king decided who was on the Witan and when it met. Today, it is the Privy Council. The Saxons divided the country into earldoms controlled by earls. Each earldom was divided into administrative areas called shires. They appointed a local administrator for each shire – the shire reeve. Over time, his name became the sheriff. Each shire was divided into hundreds (equal to 100 hides⁹ in some areas), and each hundred was divided into tithings (a group of 10 households). (Marsh)

At the top of the Anglo-Saxon society were the King and the elite aristocracy, and at the very bottom were the slaves who could be freed by their masters to become like the rest of peasants. Earls were the most important people after the king, and the area controlled by them was called an earldom. The slaves made up about 10% of the population and were considered as a property, but the peasants made up most of the population and worked for their local lords. Some peasants could sell themselves to support their families. Others were free to go

⁹ A hide was a measurement of land equal to about 120 acres.

and work for another lord while still doing their duties to their local lord. These were called ceorls (“curls”).

Economically speaking, they brought heavier ploughing techniques that required 6 or 8 oxen to pull it. And this led to changes in land ownership and organization. Because heavy plough was difficult to turn, land was divided into large fields which again were divided into long thin strips. Each family had a number of strips, and oxen were shared cooperatively. In each district, there was a manor which is a large house where local villagers go to pay taxes, for justice affairs, meetings, or to join the Anglo-Saxon army. The latter was named the fyrd, and was made up of one man from every five hides. The manor had a lord who is a simple local official. The local lords who lived in the manor house and held more than 5 hides of land in addition to the duty of providing men for the fyrd were called thegns (“thanes”). They could be promoted to earls while an earl could also be demoted into a thegn. All this was the beginning of the manorial system to be developed under the Normans later on. It also was the beginning of a class system (kings, lords, soldiers, workers). The fyrd was made up of well-equipped thegns and their followers. Their service was fixed at a period of 40 days, because they could not leave their farms for too long.

The men of learning came from the Christian Church, and religion was an important part of everyday life because people worried about what would happen when they died. For instance, Edward devoted time to rebuilding Westminster Cathedral. The English Church was organised into large areas controlled by bishops, who were rich, important people. Local priests were often quite ordinary people and not especially well-educated. Abbots and abbesses ran monasteries and nunneries, though the number of these was shrinking (Anglo-Saxon and Norman England, c.1060-1088). In the course of speaking about the religious impact under the Anglo-saxons, Pope Gregory sent a monk, Augustine, to reestablish Christianity in England. He went to Canterbury, the capital of Kent, whose king’s wife came

from Europe already Christian. Augustine wanted to bring rulers to the faith to build a Christian authority. In fact, the Roman churches were interested in ruling classes and were helped by Saxon kings.

In reality, however, the Celtic church is what brought Christianity to ordinary people. But when the Roman church extended, the Celtic church retreated. The church's power is clear in that the Roman church also increased the power of Saxon kings and gave them their support (absolute power and God's approval). The eldest son of Saxon kings did not automatically become king; he must have enough soldiers before he tries for the throne. Royal successions were done at Christian ceremonies led by bishops. The church was a type of political propaganda suggesting king were chosen by god.

With regard to literacy, churches established monasteries (eg. Westminster), which were also places of learning. The literate men of church made law systems and gained much power over the peasants who lost their rights because they could not read and write. The increased literacy of Anglo-Saxon England helped increase economic contact with Europe (trade), so English trade with Europe prospered and Latin was the common language.

Task 7:

- 1- Did the Anglo-Saxons leave Britain, like the Romans?
- 2- What is the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle?
- 3- Reorder the following members of the Anglo-Saxon society according to their social status:

Thegns, kings, slaves, earls, peasants, ceorls

4- who was responsible for :

- Collecting taxes?
- Choosing a new king?

- Protecting the kingdom?
- Enforcing the laws in each shire?

IV. 2. The Vikings

Anglo-Saxon history tells of many Viking raids, the first of which was recorded in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle around AD787. Other sources speak about several Viking raids which occurred during the 8th Century, and with increasing numbers towards the end of the century. They state that the period is often considered to have begun with the raiding of Lindisfarne¹⁰ in 793. Over time the Vikings took control of several Anglo-Saxon kingdoms. Eventually the Anglo-Saxons and Vikings made a peace agreement, but the fighting continued for many years. They divided up Britain with the Anglo-Saxons living mainly in the west and the Vikings in an area to the east, known as the Danelaw. Because of their Scandinavian invasions in the 8th and 9th centuries, it was said Britain was part of the Viking world up the millennium or beyond.

The Vikings were largely from Denmark, Norway and Sweden, and it is not known for certain why they began to raid other lands and settle in places such as England. Viking incursions continued into the 9th Century. In 865, a substantial army was raised to conquer England, known in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle as the Great Heathen Army. The Army landed in East Anglia and reached York by the following year. Over the next 10 years the Vikings took over more land. Within a century the Vikings had taken over large parts of the land in northern England, although they failed to over-rule the large kingdom of Wessex.

¹⁰ **Lindisfarne raid**, Viking assault in 793 on the island of Lindisfarne (Holy Island) off the coast of what is now Northumberland. The monastery at Lindisfarne was the preeminent centre of Christianity in the kingdom of Northumbria. The event sent tremors throughout English Christendom and marked the beginning of the Viking Age in Europe.

The Vikings are known for their horned helmets, great long boats, and to have led plenty of rape and pillaging. Everyone (kings, commoners, and clergy) suffered at their hands. Their raids helped to bring all the people of Britain closer together. No matter how often they were beaten, they always came back, and in the end their tenacity paid off (Mc Dowall)

It was finally the Norse of Normandy who finally conquered England in 1066 and changed British history forever. Many heroes resisted the Vikings (Brian Boru in Ireland, Kenneth Mc Alpin in Scotland and Alfred the Great in England). Some English kings even paid them to go away. This one was King Ethelred. With some invasions in the 10th Century, invaders were bought off with silver, known as *Danegeld*, which was raised by taxing locals. The *Danegeld* land tax became permanent. Battles between the two groups continued until the Battle of Edington, at which King Alfred (the Great) defeated the Vikings. Consequently, the Treaty of Alfred and Guthrum was agreed which separated England into parts ruled by the Saxons and others by the Vikings. The two populations co-existed, although not without on-going battles, until 954. In this year, Eric Bloodaxe – king of the Vikings – was killed, perhaps as part of an internal Viking feud¹¹, from which time the Saxon king, Ethelred took control of the kingdom. Following this period, a series of Saxon kings ruled, interrupted by the reign of Danish king Sweyn and later Cnut and his grandsons, before Edward the Confessor.

The English language was greatly affected by the invasions of the Vikings, in particular through town and village names in the north and east of England. It is also thought that Vikings may have been the first Europeans to have explored the Americas, around 1000. The Vikings also were responsible for the world's now oldest parliament – the Tynwald – in the Isle of Man.

¹¹ **Blood feuds** were grudges between families which often lasted generations. If someone was killed, the victim's family had the right to kill someone from the murderer's family.

Task 8 :

- 1- Were Vikings really brutal invaders?
- 2- Who was the last English king?

V. The Norman Conquest

Introduction

In 911, a large Viking chief, called **Rollo**, was said to be so big that a horse could not carry him. Rollo accepted the offer of King Charles II of France of a large area of Northern France as part of a peace treaty (now it is known as **Normandy**). Rollo and his men settled there, and he became its first Duke. Over a century, they became the Normans who adopted the French language and culture.

V.1. The Story of their Arrival

King **Ethelred** had two wives. One of them is Emma of Normandy with whom he had two sons: Alfred and Edward. She was afraid of the Viking threat, so for their own safety she took the boys to Normandy where they grew up more Norman than English. Edward¹² became king because he was of the Royal house of Wessex, but he never liked England. Upon taking up the throne, he brought a lot of Normans over with him, and was having Westminster Abbey built. He was childless, but he didn't want a Godwin (half-brother) on the throne. He wanted the throne to go to William, the Duke of Normandy. William claimed that Edward promised the throne to him. Edward was known as the Confessor for his interest in church more than kingship. By the time he died, there was a church in almost every village. In January, 1066

¹² **Edward the Confessor** was king from 1042 to 1066. Every boy swore an **oath** to the king when they reached 12 years old. The king controlled law-making, money, land ownership, the military and taxation. **Earl Godwin** had been made Earl of Wessex by King Cnut in 1018. Godwin helped Edward the Confessor become king, and Edward was married to Godwin's daughter Edith.

King Edward died, causing a succession crisis. The next day, the Anglo-Saxon witan elected his brother in law, Harold Godwin¹³, to succeed him. Harold had several challenges: the powerful earls – including old rival the Earl of Mercia; in the north – would they accept Tostig’s brother as their new king?; Tostig¹⁴ who was looking for allies in Europe, and Duke William who was reportedly getting ready to invade . The other claimants for the throne included Harald Hardrada who pretended he had inherited the right from previous Viking kings; Edgar Aethling who was Edward’s nephew and a natural heir (Carter 2). Attacks started from different directions, namely those at Gate Fulford and Stamford Bridge in September, 1066. Then, a great battle near Hastings began and was in Harold’s favour, but his strong **shield wall** gradually broke down. At one point a rumour went round that William had been killed, so he tipped his helmet to show he was still alive. Harold Godwinson and his brothers Gyrth and Leofwine held their position on the top of the hill. Eventually they were killed, but their housecarls fought on to the last. This most famous battle in the English history put William on the throne of England. William the conqueror was crowned on a Christmas day 1066. He built castles across England, and by 1072, his rule was firmly established.

V. 2. The Norman Impact

The Norman conquest of England, led by William the Conqueror, was achieved over a five-year period from 1066 CE to 1071 CE. Cartwright writes about their achievements enthusiastically:

Hard-fought battles, castle building, land redistribution, and scorched earth tactics ensured that the Normans were here to stay. The conquest saw the Norman elite

¹³ Succeeded the elder Godwin as Earl of Wessex. He was remembered in history through his embassy to Normandy (1064) in which he was said to have made an oath to William – possibly swearing to support William’s claim to the English throne. After Harold took over as king from Edward in 1066, the Normans used this embassy to portray Harold as an **oath-breaker**.

¹⁴ Tostig Godwinson, earl of Northumbria in 1055.

replace that of the Anglo-Saxons and take over the country's lands, the Church was restructured, a new architecture was introduced in the form of motte and bailey castles and Romanesque cathedrals, feudalism became much more widespread, and the English language absorbed thousands of new French words, amongst a host of many other lasting changes which all combine to make the Norman invasion a momentous watershed in English history (World History Encyclopedia)

The Normans were the first rulers to discover knowledge is power. They had a genius for order, good government (the ruling apparatus was made much more centralised with power and wealth being held in much fewer hands), architecture (massive stone castles, churches, cathedrals and monasteries were erected) (See Fig.7), and Norman motte and bailey castles (See Fig. 8) were introduced which reshaped warfare in England, reducing the necessity for and risk of large-scale field engagements. King William introduced the first doorstep survey in history. His men went to every single village and asked who owned what and how much land. The findings were recorded some 20 years after the battle of Hastings in a vast book known as The Domesday Book¹⁵. The feudal tenure didn't exist as a legal theory before the Norman Conquest even if it were followed practically. The Church was similarly restructured with the appointment of Norman bishops. By 1087 CE there were only two Anglo-Saxon bishops left. Another change was the move of many dioceses' headquarters - the main church or cathedral - to urban locations, and this helped William to control the church. With regard to trade and international relations, France and England became much more intertwined in the decades after the conquest owing to the fact that Norman nobles held lands in both countries. Therefore, places like London, Southampton, and Nottingham attracted many French merchant settlers, in addition to other groups such as Jewish merchants from Rouen. Sales

¹⁵ Domesday Book reveals William's total reshaping of land ownership and power in England. It was the most comprehensive survey ever undertaken in any medieval kingdom and is full of juicy statistics for modern historians to study.

multiplied across the English Channel, for example, huge quantities of English wool were exported to Flanders and wine was imported from France.

Modern English has got bits of Norman French such as the animal names: pork, mutton, and beef because upon the coming of the Normans the vocabulary of the Anglo-Saxon Germanic language was significantly influenced by the French language.

Figure 08: Norman Castle



Source: castlewales.com

Figure 09: Motte and bailey



Source: Spartacus-educational.com

Task 9:

1- Put the following events of 1066 into their correct chronological order:

- a- Battle of Stamford Bridge
- b- Harold crowned king of England
- c- Battle of Hastings
- d- Death of king Edward
- e- Beginning of the Norman Conquest
- f- Battle of Gate Fulford
- g- Defeat of Harold

2- a/ what did the Norman conquest do with the fate of the two countries of England and France?

b/ Do research about the names of people and places throughout England which remind of the lasting influence of the Normans there.

VI. Feudalism

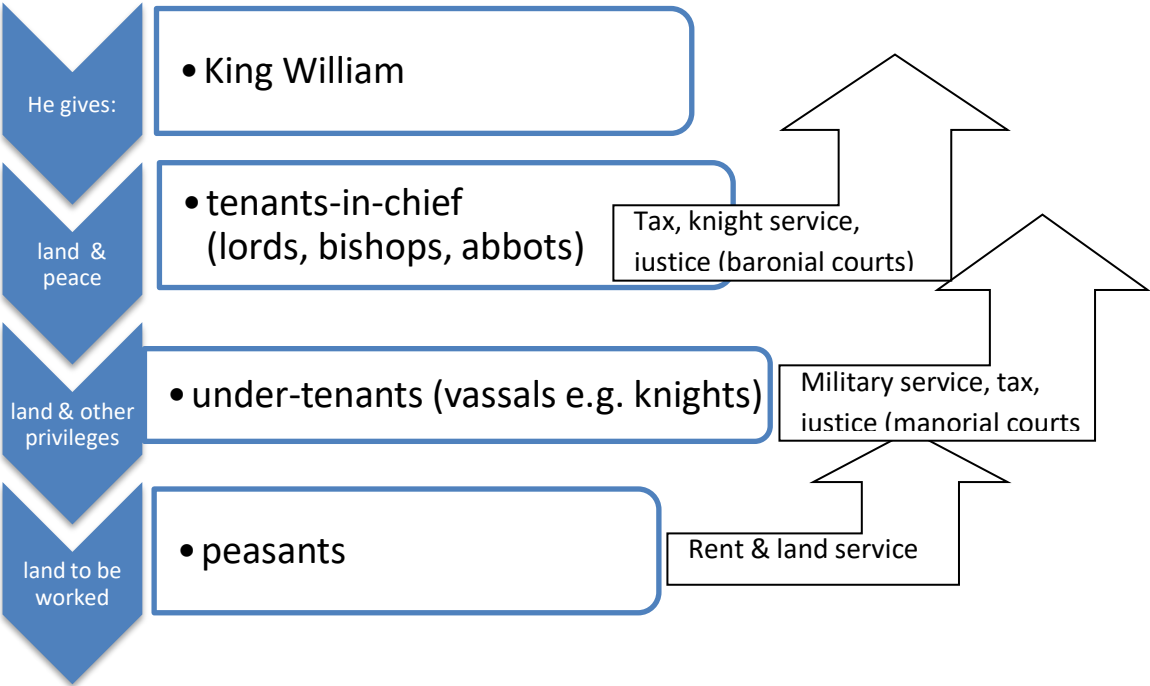
"Feudal" is a word which, over the centuries, has been used in many ways by different writers. Concerning its origins, there are two reputable opinions that set as its roots both the Frankish word 'febu' meaning possession or property, and the modern German term 'vieh' or cattle. Over time, it acquired different forms. One of its variant forms, *feodum* or *feudum*, began to prevail over the others and became the standard Latin term for what today we call the fief. The latter connote a concrete object – a piece of land, conveyed not absolutely but with conditions attached (Herlihy xiv)

It was brought full growth from France. Many historians say that on the eve of the Norman Conquest, the Anglo-Saxon institutions were already approaching the feudal model. It was the doctrine that the whole land was the property of the king and that the individual landowner wasn't in the full sense an owner, but held his land as a tenant of the king, by the grant of the king, on recognized conditions of military service. It is also referred to as **the process of commendation** in which the landowners had done **homage**¹⁶ to the king to become his men, and then receiving their land back on condition of military service. So every inch of land within the king's dominion was his property, and the landowner held it as the king's **vassal** on condition of military service but the king also carried obligations of protecting his vassals. The same process applied to minor landowners who received land by a grant from greater landowners originally or had become their vassals by commendation. Finally, they held land on condition of agricultural service or some equivalent.

¹⁶ Landholders had to carry out a ceremony of **homage** to William. They promised on the Bible to remain loyal to him, saying "I become your man". Tenants-in-chief would perform similar ceremonies with their under-tenants.

After the Norman Conquest all this was literally true in England. That is to say there was no theory that all the land was the king’s land and had been granted by him on condition of military tenure before the arrival of Normans. Now the king had assumed the ownership of all soil as being forfeited to him by rebellion (and could be distributed on condition of homage and under feudal tenure). Infact, William gave land to his tenants-in-chief, but they had to provide him troops when needed. Land with this obligation was called a fief (or feud). The king was the most powerful person in the feudal hierarchy, followed by the tenants-in-chief who had to provide unpaid knight service for 40 days. They were important people like barons, and some were Church leaders (e.g. bishops). They gave the king a share of the revenue earned in their fief and kept a share themselves. Vassals were not as powerful, and answered to the tenants-in-chief. Labour service was the work that peasants did in return for using the land. The following diagram explains this process:

Figure 10: the Feudal System



Task 10: write the name of the correct person in the feudal system next to each speech bubble

bubble

.....

I hold my land directly from the king. In return I must pay taxes and provide him with knights when needed

I'm at the bottom of the feudal hierarchy. I farm the lord's land. The person in charge of me is an under-tenant.

.....

I'm a soldier, and I answer to my tenant-in-chief. I give 40 days' military service to the king when required.

I'm the most powerful person in society. Nobody gets land without paying and showing their loyalty to me.

.....

.....

VII. The Crisis of Kingship

It became a family business. At that time nationalism did not exist. William controlled both the French of Normandy as their Duke, but recognized the King of France as the greater lord above him, and controlled the English because he won England in his war and was its king. The management of both areas after his death in 1087 was left to sons Robert and William Rufus (now **William II**). When childless William II died, shot by an arrow, their younger brother Henry rode to Winchester and took charge of the king's treasury. He then rode to Westminster where he was crowned king three days later. Robert was angry and led an invasion which was a failure. Upon his return to Normandy, Henry had already invaded and reunited it with England.

With regard to **Henry I** successor, problems also rose. He made everybody promise to accept Matilda, his daughter, after his death. But there was a second possible heir, his nephew Stephen. Stephen raced to England, and Matilda invaded it later. The fight led to a terrible civil war in which villages were destroyed and many people were killed. Finally in 1153 they reached an agreement that Stephen could keep the throne but only if Matilda's son Henry II could succeed him, which happened eventually. (Vitais)

Henry II was the first unquestioned ruler of the English throne for a hundred years with far more land than any previous king. However, he had quarrels with his wife and two sons Richard and John who often sided with their mother. They fought their father to do their duty to their feudal overlord, king of France, in payment for the lands they held from him. Henry died broken and disappointed. Richard Lionheart succeeded him as the most popular English king, a perfect feudal king who went to the Holy land to make war on Muslims. After he was killed in France 1199, the French king took over parts of his French land to rule himself. Richard was followed by his brother John who was unpopular with each of the nobles, the merchants and the church.

King John of England (also nicknamed John without land or Lackland) was capricious, lazy, untrustworthy and greedy. Feudal lords ruled only their law courts and benefitted from their fines, but John took many cases out their courts and tried them in his court to take the money for himself. John asked for more than was the custom for cases such as lords' married daughters. He increased the amount for those whose fathers died and needed to inherit their lands. A noble without a son, his land could be passed to another noble family, but John kept it for a long time. He taxed people at higher levels than ever before. In 1204 John failed to carry out his duty of protection to the nobles whose lands were taken by the French king who invaded Normandy. In 1209 he quarrelled with the pope over who should be Archbishop of

Canterbury. So the pope called on the king of France to invade England and he closed every church there. In 1214, King John gave in and accepted the pope's choice.

Scholars today dismiss King John's arbitrary governing (Turner 157), and believe his exercise of authority was despotic in that he demanded excessive military service or exorbitant payments of money; that he had sold offices, favoured friends, and extorted money from his subjects; that he had increased old taxes without obtaining proper consent from his vassals; and that he had shown little respect for feudal law, breaking it when it suited his ends. These grievances and others led the barons¹⁷ to unite to humble him in 1215.

VIII. Magna Carta or the Great Charter 1215

In 1215 the hopes of King John to recapture Normandy pushed him to call his lords to fight for him, but they were angry without trust in him and were joined by angry merchants. The rebels presented the "Articles of the Barons"¹⁸, which contained their demands for reform. Eventually, after a series of negotiations, King John was forced to sign an agreement known as Magna Carta (fig. 11), or the first important symbol of political freedom in which the king promised all freemen¹⁹ (to make sure he didn't go beyond his rights as feudal lord) protection from his officers and the right to a fair and legal trial. At the time perhaps less than one quarter of the English were "freemen". Most were not free, and were serfs or little better. The document was sealed on June 15, 1215 by the king, but it was drafted by the Archbishop of Canterbury with the intention of restoring peace between John and a group of commoners.

¹⁷ Members of nobility but considered the lowest order.

¹⁸ The barons were forced to pay a hefty amount of money (taxes and fines) to raise funds to reclaim Normandy. As a result, the barons were put into debt. The King allegedly seduced the daughters of the barons and mistreated the nobility. John also forced widows of the barons to marry men of his choosing. Instead of the barons advising the King, other men did that job. A small number of people advised the King on the affairs of the monarchy and state. At that time, King John had absolute control of the entire justice system in England, and also exercised arbitrary powers for his own sake.

¹⁹ Peasants who paid rent to the lord for their land.

Thus, it granted the protection of typical church rights. It also guaranteed rapid justice and the limitation of feudal payments to the crown.

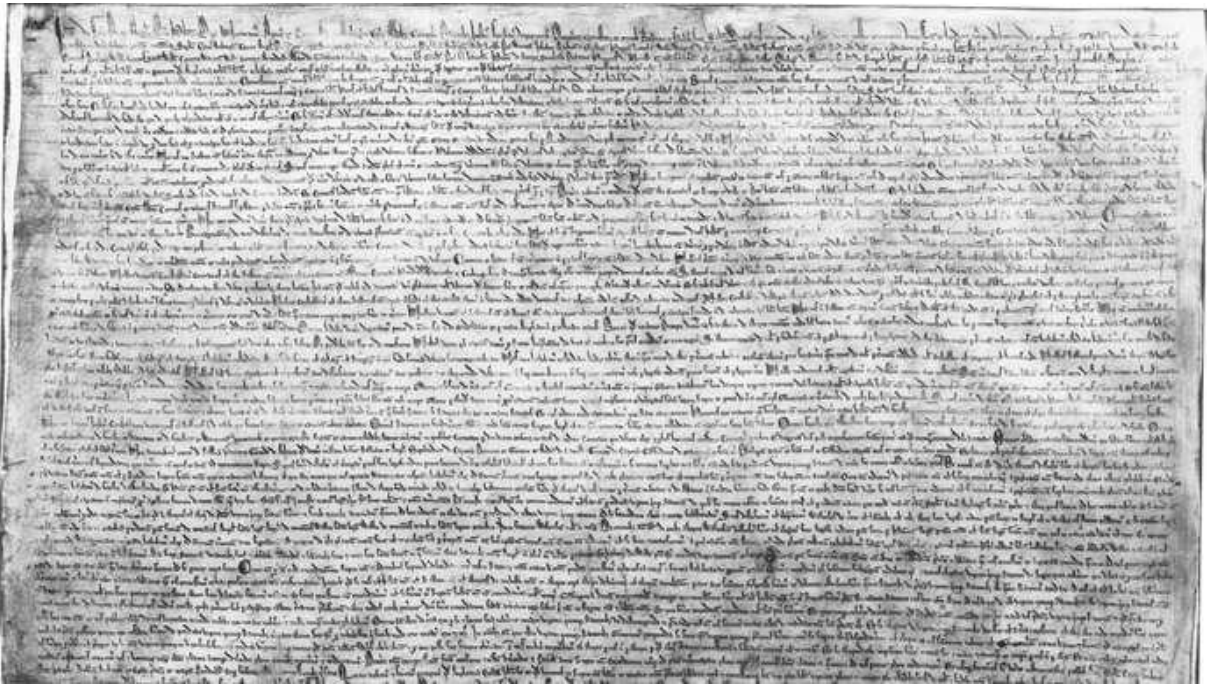
In later ages, it came to be regarded as the cornerstone of English liberty. It consisted of a preamble and 63 clauses, written in Latin, presented by the King to a group of rebellious barons, his royal vassals, at Runnymede, a meadow beside the Thames not far from London. One clause stated that the royal vassals must be summoned to councils to give their advice and consent to important affairs of the realm. Another stipulated that the king demanded military service and the royal vassals had the right to decide whether to serve or substitute a money payment, called scutage. To make sure that John abided by his promises, clause 61 established a baronial council to enforce adherence, if necessary by force of arms.

Magna Carta has been taken as foundational to the rule of law, for the reason that in it King John promised that he would stop throwing people into dungeons whenever he wished, a provision that refers to what is now known as due process of law and is understood not as a promise made by a king but as a right possessed by the people (Lepore). Hundreds of years later, Magna Carta was used by Parliament to protect itself from a powerful king.

In fact, the charter gave no real freedom to the majority²⁰. But this marks a clear stage in the collapse of feudalism in England since the nobles who forced the king to sign the document were the king's vassals, but they were not acting as such. The nobles acted as a class, in co-operation with the merchant class of towns, and they established a committee of 24 lords to make sure the king would keep his promises, which is not a feudal thing to do. These nobles worked not to allow any of John's successors to forget the charter's promises. Every king recognized Magna Carta until the Middle Ages ended in disorder.

²⁰ Most of the 63 clauses of the Magna Carta were primarily concerned with guaranteeing feudal law and benefited only the feudal nobility.

Figure 11: Magna Carta



Source: www.britannica.com

Task 11: A/ complete the following table with the right definition for each term

Terms	Definitions
Freemen	
Barons	
Scutage	
Dungeons	
Charter	
Clause	

B/ Describe the rule of England's King John (concentrate on his abuse of power)

Conclusion

There were other small signs that feudalism was changing. When the king went to war he had the right to forty days' fighting service from each of his lords. But forty days were not long enough for fighting a war in France. The nobles refused to fight for longer, so the king was forced to pay soldiers to fight for him. (They were called "paid fighters", *Solidarius*, a Latin word from which the word "soldier" comes.) At the same time many lords preferred their vassals to pay them in money rather than in services. Vassals were gradually beginning to change into tenants. Feudalism, the use of land in return for service, was beginning to weaken. But it took another three hundred years before it disappeared completely.

Works Cited

Books

Caesar, The Gallic Wars, 5.12

Crabtree, Pam J. *Early Medieval Britain: The Rebirth of Towns in the Post-Roman West*.

Cambridge UP. 2018. books.google.dz/books?id=GQdZDwAAQBAJ&dq

Doeden, Matt. *Stonehenge* Edge Books. 2007.

Donald A. White, "Changing Views of the Adventus Saxonum in Nineteenth and Twentieth Century English Scholarship," *Journal of the History of Ideas* 32, no. 4. 1971. p. 593.

books.google.dz/books?id=IbMI4Dd8m5IC&pg=PA29&dq=stonehenge&hl=fr&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjAyOiUr4vxAhXPhVwKHfMdDqgQ6AEwAnoECAsQAg#v=onepage&q=stonehenge&f=false

J. Harris, Paper 2 – Anglo-Saxon and Norman England, c.1060-1088 Sir Harry Smith
Community College

Lang, Sean. *British History for Dummies*. John Wiley & Sons. 2011

Matthews, J. *Boadicea: Warrior Queen of the Celts*. Dorset: Firebird Books. 1988

Mc Dowall, David *An Illustrated History of Britain*. Longman 2006

Oakland, John. *British Civilization An Introduction*. Taylor & Francis e-Library, 2003.

Ross Anne, Michael Cyprien. *A Traveller's Guide to Celtic Britain*. Routledge & Kegan Paul 1985.

books.google.dz/books?id=JiLvAAAAMAAJ&q=name+albion+for+britain&dq=name+albion+for+britain&hl=fr&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwj1i532nIjxAhVsx4UKHZ1eAPcQ6AEwAXoECAQQAQ

Sames, Aylett. *Britania Antiqua Illustrata or the Antiquities of Ancient Britain* (London, 1676)

Siculus, Diodorus, *The Library of History*, Bk5.21. Greek *Prettanike*

Vitalis, Ordericus. *The Ecclesiastical History of England and Normandy*. Vol. IV. London, Bohn 1853. archive.org/details/ecclesiasticalhi04ordeuoft

Wilde, L. W. *Celtic Women in Legend, Myth and History*. New York: Sterling Publishing Co., Inc. 1997

Articles and Theses

Carter, John Marshall. “The Norman Conquest: Ten Centuries of Interpretation”. Master’s Thesis. Greensboro 1975. libres.uncg.edu/ir/uncg/f/carter_john_1975.pdf

Cartwright, Mark. “The Impact of the Norman Conquest of England”. *World History Encyclopedia*. 23 January 2019. Web 15 Jun 2021

Herlihy, David (ed.) “History of Feudalism”, *The Documentary History of Western Civilization*. Palgrave Macmillan. 1970

James, Edward and Mike Ibeji. Anglo-Saxons. *Gaukartifact*.
gaukartifact.com/2013/03/25/anglo-saxons/

Kveiland, Thea. “Anglo-Saxon hegemony in Early Medieval Britain : *Cultural and political dominance by foreign minority groups*” Master’s Thesis in History. Department of Archaeology, Conservation and History. Faculty of Humanities. University of Oslo Spring 2019.

Lepore, Jill. “The Rule of History, Magna Carta, the Bill of Rights, and the hold of time”. *The New Yorker*. April 13, 2015. www.newyorker.com/magazine/2015/04/20/the-rule-of-History

March. Anglo- Saxon Society. *GCSE History Paper 2*. Y10_History_Week_2_and_3.pdf

Turner, Ralph V. “King John’s Concept of Authority”, *History of Political Thought*. [Vol. 17, No. 2 \(Summer 1996\)](#), pp. 157-178. *J stor*. www.jstor.org/stable/26217062

Websites

www.britannica.com/place/United-Kingdom/Ancient-Britain

www.nhm.ac.uk/discover/first-britons.html

www.britishmuseum.org/sites/default/files/2019-09/visit-resource_prehistoric-britain-KS2.pdf).

www.coursehero.com/file/36553154/visit-resource-prehistoric-britain-KS2doc

http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/ancient/british_prehistory/peoples_01.shtml

www.flaginstitute.org/wp/uk-flags/the-union-jack-or-the-union-flag/

www.sketchplanations.com/the-union-jack

www.english-heritage.org.uk/?_ga=2.97566687.1137227439.1623173577-81682173.1623173575

www.history.com/topics/british-history/stonehenge

www.english-heritage.org.uk/?_ga=2.100613277.2056602127.1623857520-315516471.1623857520

www.britannica.com/place/United-Kingdom#ref44671

www.britannica.com/topic/flag-of-the-United-Kingdom

www.bbc.co.uk/history/ancient/british_prehistory/ironage_what_survived_01.shtml

www.bbc.co.uk/history/ancient/british_prehistory/ironage_what_survived_01.shtml

erenow.net/exams/british-history-for-dummies-1st-edition/4.php

www.newworldcelts.org/celtic-history.html

penelope.uchicago.edu/Thayer/E/Roman/Texts/Diodorus_Siculus/5B*.html

www.google.com/search?q=history.com+picture+of+stonehenge&client=firefox-b-d&tbm=isch&source=iu&ictx=1&fir=GflcH-57zGxm8M%252CwZ1UaE0XhY1cbM%252C&vet=1&usg=AI4_kTbaMU-fT49Az9PGNWwQmkn-TPBHQ&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwj238j7wJzxAhWDOewKHT9mCugQ9QF6BAgNEAE#imgrec=GflcH-57zGxm8M

www.twinkl.co.uk/resource/t2-h-331-the-roman-invasion-of-britain-lesson-teaching-pack-powerpoint

warwick.ac.uk/fac/arts/classics/warwickclassicsnetwork/romancoventry/resources/prehistoric_britain/bronzeage/

www.researchgate.net/publication/262798800

www.bbc.co.uk/history/ancient/british_prehistory/stonehenge_stoneage.shtml

www.pinterest.com/pin/643944446714702750/

<http://datacenter.dusit.ac.th/dsi/8b2t00wf/emperor-honorius-letter>

faculty.history.wisc.edu/sommerville/