A Level History Transition Pack

North Oxfordshire Academy

Paper 1– England 1509-1603: authority, nation and religion

Paper 2– Luther and the German Reformation

Paper 3– The witch craze in Britain, Europe and North America, c1580-c1750

Coursework

Introduction

As with other subjects you need to demonstrate a knowledge and understanding of a range of key terms. These terms form the basis of the historical language that you will become familiar with over the course of Year 12, and you will become experienced in using this language in essays and short answer questions.

You are required to work your way through the following tasks, completing them by the end of the summer holiday, and submitting them as the Sixth Form team has asked at various deadlines.

This booklet contains tasks for you to complete, the tasks should give you a flavour of some of the areas we will be looking at over the course of the Sixth Form study. Some tasks are directly relevant to the content, others focus on enhancing the skills. Read carefully!!

This is a detailed and comprehensive assignment. Do not rush it. Break it down into small tasks and plan how you are going to spend your time over the coming weeks. This will provide you with the opportunity to develop excellent study skills in preparation for your studies in September.

You are about to embark upon an exciting stage of your learning – so expect to be challenged and expect to take longer over these tasks than you may have been used to in Year 11. Don't forget, you will now be spending all your time doing 3 or 4 subjects – so at first it may seem strange to be spending so long on one thing - but you'll get used to it. It's all part of the learning process and moving you on to become confident independent Sixth Form learners.

Study and Examination Skills

Differences between GCSE and Sixth Form History

- The amount of factual knowledge required for answers to Sixth Form History questions is much more detailed than at GCSE**. Factual knowledge in the Sixth Form is used as supporting evidence** to help answer historical questions. Knowing the facts is important, but not as important as knowing that **factual knowledge supports historical analysis.**
- **Extended writing is more important** in Sixth Form History. Students will be expected to answer either structured questions or essays.
- **Reading is absolutely vital** – if you don't enjoy reading then have a good think about how much you are going to engage with History!

Similarities with GCSE

- **Source analysis and evaluation**

The skills in handling historical sources, which were acquired at GCSE, are developed in Sixth Form History. In the Sixth Form, sources must be analysed in their historical context, so good factual knowledge of the subject is important.

- **Historical interpretations**

Skills in historical interpretation at GCSE are also developed in Sixth Form History. The ability to comprehend the interpretations of others and put forward different historical interpretations of your own is important. Students will also be expected to explain why different historical interpretations have occurred.

Extended writing

When faced with extended writing in Sixth Form History students can improve their performance by following a simple routine that attempts to ensure they achieve their best performance:

Answering the question

What are the command instructions?

Different questions require different types of response. For instance, 'in what way' requires students to point out the various ways something took place in History. 'Why' questions expect students to deal with the causes or consequences of an historical event. 'How far' and 'to what extent' questions require students to produce a balanced, analytical answer.

To what extent/How far do you agree? Here you will have a series of different points to answer a question and to decide how far a statement is true. You have to decide if one factor on one side of the argument holds more weight than another factor on the other side of the argument. Usually, this will take the form of the case for and the case against an historical question.

To do this you need to **form a criteria** to help you decide what your view is of the question.

In history essay questions you will generally be asked about different concepts such as:

- **Change**
- **Causation**
- **Interpretation**
- **Significance**

'How far do you agree with' a selected statement

- The **extent of change**:

To judge this, you have to consider the start and end point. How far away is the end point from where you started? Are some similarities or differences more significant than others?
If you were asked in paper one how far the economy changed under the Tudors, you could discuss the following:

- Role of migration from abroad
- Change in industry – focusing on exporting different goods.
- Role of the various trading ports and the changing nature of their prominence.
- Role of war
- However, debt remained a problem throughout despite legislation passed through by Mary I.

- The **main cause of event.**

In general, I consider the main cause of an event to have one fairly consistent theme, it would be the cause that is 'necessary' for the other causes to take place. In paper two, I would collect many causes for the German Reformation. Then I would potentially decide that:

- The controversy over indulgences to fund the rebuilding of the Basilica in Rome triggered the Reformation.
- There was a level of anti-clericalism in the Holy Roman Empire due to absenteeism of the clergy.
- The printing press meant humanist messages could spread widely across Europe to scholars such as Luther.

- Despite those two significant causes the structure of the Holy Roman Empire – it's lack of centralisation – meant that it was exploited by Rome having to pay more tax than anywhere else in Europe which exacerbated the anti-clericalism.

- Interpretation: How **positive an event** was:

If you are asked to what extent you agree that a change has improved society, or how effective a policy is, then you must weigh up the arguments on both sides.
You must then decide:

- If some of the positives/negatives are more significant than others. Did they have a greater positive impact?
- For example, in paper one, some groups may believe that the latter years of Elizabeth's reign constituted a general crisis in government as she was losing control, having to call parliament more and was being challenged. However, other's would look at the legislation passed and argue that the increasing number of times parliament was called means little if the legislation passed did not alter her policies.
- Did the positives therefore outweigh the negatives due to the impact on more people?

- How **significant** an event was:

Quite often the concept of significance links to other key concepts elsewhere as you are deciding on the most significant cause, or you are deciding how some events have greater positive significance to others.
In paper two, you may be asked what the most significant turning point was in development of Lutheranism. For example:

- Diet of Worms
- Philip of Hesse's bigamous marriage
- Peasants' War
- Augsburg Confession
- Melanchthon writing his *Loci Communes* in Luther's absence to condemn Karlstadt and the Zwickau Prophets.

It is important for students to show that they understand the meaning of the question. To do this, certain historical terms or words require explanation. For instance, if a question asked 'how far' a reformer was an 'innovator', an explanation of the word 'innovator' would be required.
Does the question have specific dates or issues that require coverage?

If the question mentions specific dates, these must be adhered to.
In Breadth study questions it is vital you consider areas from across the different periods within the question, the start, middle and end.

Planning your answers

Once you have decided on what the question requires, write a brief plan. For structured questions this may be brief. This is a useful procedure to make sure that you have ordered the information you require for your answer in the most effective way. For instance, in a balanced, analytical answer this may take the form of jotting down the main points for and against and the historical issue raised in the question.

Writing the Answer- Court Case Structure

Communication skills

The quality of written English is important in Sixth Form History. The way you present your ideas on paper can affect the quality of your answer. Therefore, punctuation, spelling and grammar require close attention. Looking at the mark schemes for each unit will show you this.

- **Introduction**

These should be both concise and precise. Introductions help 'concentrate the mind' on the question you are about to answer. Remember to answer the question and outline briefly the areas you intend to discuss in your answer. Outline your judgement and acknowledge the other views.
State your criteria for judgement. This is what will prove your argument is stronger than the other argument.

- **Paragraph One**

Explain why your argument is strong. Give details and examples that link back to the question and your criteria. You can exemplify this over more than one paragraph.

- **Paragraph Two**

Acknowledge a differing argument. Explain how it is a valid alternative view, but how your view is stronger because of your criteria. Repeat this process in following paragraphs for different points. This is like how a lawyer would argue, they argue for the prosecution but can see the case for the defendant. However, it isn't as strong.

Balancing analysis with factual evidence
It is important to remember that factual knowledge should be used to support analysis. Merely 'telling the story' of an historical event is not enough. A structured question or essay should contain separate paragraphs, each addressing an analytical point that helps to answer the question. Good A-level essays integrate analysis and factual knowledge.

Seeing connections between reasons
In dealing with 'why' – type questions it is important to remember that the reasons for an historical event might be interconnected. Therefore, it is important to mention the connections between the reasons. Also, it might be important to identify a hierarchy of reasons – that is, are some reasons more important than others in explaining an historical event?

Using quotations and statistical data
One aspect of supporting evidence that sustains analysis is the use of quotations. These can be from either a historian or a contemporary. However, unless these quotations are linked with analysis and supporting evidence, they tend to be of little value. It can also be useful to support analysis with statistical data. In questions that deal with social and economic change, precise statistics that support your arguments can be very persuasive.

- **Conclusion**

If you have followed your structure, your explanations have alluded back to why your point is stronger than the others, due to your criteria, then consequently you have achieved what the examiners would call a **sustained conclusion**. All structured questions and essay require conclusions.

If, for example, a question requires a discussion of 'how far' you agree with a question, you should offer a judgement in your conclusion. Don't be afraid of this – say what you think. Students who write analytical answers, ably supported by factual evidence, under-perform because they fail to provide a conclusion that deals directly with the question.

This can be summed up by the four C's of Court Case:

1. What **concept** is the question about? (change, cause, significance, interpretation)
2. What **content** would be relevant to this concept?
3. What **criteria** could you use to support your judgement?
4. How could you organise your paragraphs to make your argument **coherent?**

How to Handle Sources in Sixth Form History

During the course of your study, across paper two and three, you will be asked to consider how valuable/useful a source is to an enquiry. This means you have to decide how much you could literally use that source, or in the case of paper two the sources together, to help you find the answer to a particular enquiry.

One thing that I have noticed is that there are several different techniques and acronyms that different teachers use to answer and structure these questions.

Students often long for an 'exact science' to answer these questions but they don't quite exist. With this in mind, there isn't one set way of ordering or structuring a source answer in the way that you would an essay. I have, however, identified some common mistakes and then suggested common solutions followed by some general advice on features of a good source investigation.

Mistake 1

- **Students focus solely on reliability rather than utility**

Just because a source is unreliable does not mean it isn't useful. If for instance we, hypothetically, read a source by the leader of a rebellion proclaiming that a rebellion was going incredibly well then this may well not be reliable. That does not mean the information is useless.

Solution: we can learn that the rebel leader's proclamation is being misleading but with the purpose of encouraging more people to join their rebellion. Therefore, the inference drawn from the author's purpose helps us to learn that the rebellion was not going as planned. Therefore, we have learnt something useful from the source.

Mistake 2

- **Students forget to link back to the enquiry**

Students may discuss strengths and weaknesses of the source but without saying why, even if the source is useful, it would help the student into an enquiry into the question. Sticking with the example of a source about a rebellion, if you reached the conclusion above through a thorough analysis that the source's author is misleading us but then you didn't link back to the enquiry (e.g. 'this therefore helps us into an enquiry as to how threatening the rebellion was') this isn't answering the question.

This is of vital importance. This can undo a lot of really good source work so make sure you always link back to the enquiry. You are being asked to find out how useful a source is for an enquiry. So, if the rebel leader's proclamation is useful then it is useful in finding out more about the seriousness of the rebellion.

Common Features of Answers Relating to Source Utility- Paper Three Example

Content/Source Details

- What does the content tell you, on face value first, about the rebellion?
- Is there anything useful about this that may help you learn about how serious the rebellion was (the enquiry)?
- Does content seem consistent with what you know about the context of the period? If so, you could develop your knowledge and say how this makes the source useful in finding out about the enquiry.

Origin/Provenance

- Does the author have a unique perspective? Such as being a monarch, or a private secretary, so therefore they would have knowledge that many others wouldn't have.
- Alternatively, does the author represent the views of how the majority of people/a large group felt that will allow us to reach conclusions about the seriousness of the rebellion?
- Does the author's perspective seem consistent with what you know about the context of the period? If so, you could develop your knowledge and say how this makes the source useful in finding out about the enquiry.

Purpose

- Is the author trying to achieve something that might help you answer the enquiry?
- Are they inferring a message either deliberately or not?
- For instance, if a rebel leader is appealing for additional help but is claiming the rebellion is a success then they are also revealing a lot about the threat the rebellion posed in that they aren't that threatening at this stage.

Progression in Sixth Form History

The ability to achieve high standards in Sixth Form History involves the acquisition of a number of skills:

- Good written communication skills
- Acquiring a sound factual knowledge
- Evaluation of factual evidence and making historical conclusions based on the evidence
- Source analysis
- Understanding the nature of historical interpretation
- Understanding the causes and consequences of historical events
- Understanding themes in history which will involve a study of a specific topic over a period of time
- Understand the ideas of change and continuity associated with themes

Students should be aware that the acquisition of these skills will take place gradually over time. At the beginning of the course, the main emphasis may be on the acquisition of factual knowledge, particularly when the body of knowledge studied at GCSE was different.

Course Aims & Content

You will study two units in Year 12 to complete your first year of A-Level. These constitute a periodic study which enables you to develop a strong contextual understanding, which is vital for historical writing.

Unit One – England 1509-1603: authority, nation and religion

This unit consists of an in-depth study of the Tudor reign.. It is examined by a traditional essay–based examination paper lasting 2 hours 15 minutes. There will also be an exercise where you examine historical interpretations of the last years of Elizabeth I's reign and why they differ so greatly.

Unit Two – Luther and the German Reformation, c1515-55

This is the source-based study of one of the biggest turning points in History: the Reformation. It will be examined by a 1 ½ hour source paper.

Tasks

Task 1 (5 hours): Working with interpretations
Task 2 (10 hours): Understanding the context of the Tudors

Please bring both tasks to your first lesson – Geraint Evans (Head of History)
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At the end of this pack you will also find some wider reading for extension tasks.

Task 1: Working with interpretations

What are interpretations?
Much of what we understand about the past is based on our interpretation of it. The photograph below is of the monument at the site of the Battle of Naseby, which took place in Northamptonshire in 1645 during the English Civil War between the Royalist forces of Charles I and the Parliamentarians, led by Thomas Fairfax. Constructed in 1936, the monument bears an inscription that reads, 'from near this site Oliver Cromwell led the Cavalry charge which decided the issue of the battle and ultimately that of the Great Civil War'. In erecting this monument, those involved in its commission and construction made a number of interpretations about the past:

- The sheer fact that a monument was constructed at all demonstrates that a particular interpretation of the past was prevalent at the time. It was felt by those who constructed it that this battle was enough of a turning point to merit a permanent memorial.
- It gives weight to the specific role of Oliver Cromwell rather than other battlefield commanders present on the day.
- It refers to the conflict as the 'Great Civil War'. This suggests that is was of historical and national significance.

Someone else studying the battle may view it very differently.

- If you were an Irish Catholic you might view the monument as a representation of the beginning of Cromwell's rule and subsequent oppression of Ireland through his military campaigns there.
- If you were involved in archival research for a PhD thesis and found compelling evidence that another battle was in fact the key turning point in the war, you may feel that a monument at the site is unnecessary.
- If you were involved in historical research that focuses on conflicts in the rest of Britain – rather than just in England – in the 1630s and 1640s, you might come to the conclusion that the term 'Great Civil War' is misleading.

From this we can begin to see why different historians form different interpretations of the same event. A particular interpretation of the past may be formed for a number of reasons

- The focus of a historian's research.
- The questions historians are addressing.
- The chronology historians are studying.
- The kind of evidence the historian is working with.

i) Establishing criteria

Historians will place varying emphasis on the importance of an event, individual, place or idea based on criteria that they establish. In the case of the battlefield monument those who constructed it felt that Cromwell was a driving force in instigating change and the battle was of major significance. The criteria they used when deciding if the event was significant includes how important the role of key commanders was and how far it had changed the course of the war. It is important to remember that there is no generic set of criteria that should be used when answering all historical questions and it will vary depending on the period, theme, enquiry and evidence being studied.

In order to begin thinking like a historian it is useful to practise establishing criteria for a specific question. For example, imagine you were answering the question: **'What is the most important historical site in your home town?'**. A range of possible answers could be put forward to this question.

Resident 1:
'I think the **church** is the most important site because as far as I know, it is the oldest building in the town (built in 1450) and therefore it helps us to trace the entire history of the town and the people who have lived in it. It was also where our most famous former resident – an engineer who build bridges all over the country in the nineteenth century – was baptised'.

Resident 2:
'I think the **canal** that runs through the town (built in 1830) is the most important site. This is because it was used to transport coal from the nearby colliery in much greater amounts than would have been possible previously. This led to economic prosperity and growth'.

Resident 3:
'I think the **railway station** is the most important site because before it was built in 1840, the town was very small and its economy relied almost solely on agriculture. After the station was built, communication improved and new people moved in. It is still important today because commuters rely on it to get to work'.

The three residents have come to different conclusions because they have used different criteria.

- Resident 1 has decided that **age** is an important criterion. The older something is, the more significant it is. They also value **wider impact** outside the town as important, as was the case with the bridge engineer baptised in the church.
- Resident 2 has used **economic impact** and prosperity as their criteria
- Resident 3 has also used economic impact as a criterion but has decided that they would also take into account how important a site is **today** when deciding its value.

Answer the following questions in order to help you select the criteria you would use when assessing which site in your home town is the most important.

1. What is the most important historical site in your home town/village/city?

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2. Why is this most important site?

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3. Look at your answer to Question 2. What criteria did you use when giving value to your chosen site?

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4. Would anyone else you know choose a different site? Why is this? Why might they use different criteria to you?

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ii) **Selecting interpretations**

Interpretations at A Level will present a view that can be **corroborated** and **challenged**. If it simply states facts, it would not very useful to use an interpretation. This is a slight change from your GCSE course.

Read the following Extract and identify the interpretation being put forward, together with the criteria the author has used in order to form their view.

Extract: J Whittam, *Fascist Italy* (1995)
When the Duce [Mussolini] visited Germany in September 1937 he found Nazi power a much more compelling argument; in November he joined the Anti-Comintern Pact and in December he withdrew from the League of Nations. Diplomatically and ideologically, the Duce appeared to have made his choice. He had turned his back on the democracies and opted for the Axis.
The intervention in Spain [on Franco's side in the Civil War] had never been popular with the Italian people, especially as it seemed to lead to closer collaboration with Germany. The racial laws [similar to those found in Nazi Germany] … indicated subservience. Asserting Italy's great power status by humiliating the British and French was, ironically, converting her into the satellite of Nazi Germany. The Czech Crisis [when a European war was narrowly avoided after the British agreed to Germany annexing part of Czechoslovakia] of the summer and autumn of 1938 at least offered Mussolini the appearance of being independent. With Europe on the brink of war after Chamberlain's failure to reach an agreement … the Duce welcomed the chance to emerge as a mediator. To the outside world it was Mussolini who had persuaded Hitler to meet with Chamberlain … He was in fact merely aiding and abetting the Nazi leader. It was, however, 'peace in our time' and the Duce had played his part, even if the script had been written in German.

1. What is the overarching argument of the extract? Summarise this in one sentence.

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2. What evidence as the author put forward in coming to this view?

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3. What criteria has the author used when making their **judgement** about how far Italy was a great power?

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iii) **Identifying the aim of the author**

One reason why historians come to different conclusions is because they may have conflicting aims when carrying out their research. Imagine, for example, two historians have researched the causes of the First World War.

- One historian might start with the aim of finding out what role German imperial ambitions had in causing the war. This would lead them to seek out sources related to this, perhaps in German archives and perhaps never published before, which might support the argument that German imperial ambition was the most important cause.
- If a historian embarked on research with the aim of finding out more about advanced in military technology in the early twentieth century, they might conclude that the war started because of increased investment and militarism from great powers.

Therefore, in order to help you understand why the authors of your chosen works have formed contrasting views, it is useful to begin by determining what their aim was in carrying out their research.

Read the extract below, and the commentary alongside it.

Extract: E. P. Thompson, *The Making of the English Working Class* (1968)

The question, of course, is how the individual got to be in this 'social role', and how the particular social organisation (with its property-rights and structure of authority) got to be there. And these are historical questions. If we stop history at a given point, then there are no classes but simply a multitude of individuals with a multitude of experiences. But if we watch these men over an adequate period of social change, we observe patterns in their relationships, their ideas, and their institutions. Class is defined by men as they live their own history, and, in the end, this is its only definition.

I am convinced that we cannot understand class unless we see it as a social and cultural formation, arising from processes which can only be studied as they work themselves out over a considerable historical period. In the years between 1780 and 1832 most English working people came to feel an identity of interests as between themselves and as against their rulers and employers.

The ultimate aim of this work is to establish how the class system was formed.

The author aims to track development over an extended period of time.

The author aims to track this process from 1780 to 1832 and relate it to the issue of class.

How does knowing the aim of an author help us understand their interpretation?

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Read the extract below. What is the aim of the book? Provide as much detail as possible.

Extract: Joanna Arman, *The Warrior Queen: The Life and Legend of Aethelflaed, Daughter of Alfred the Great* (2017)

In literature and fiction, Aethelflaed is often cast as the archetypal warrior queen, but also as a frustrated wife trapped in a loveless arranged marriage who seeks romantic fulfilment elsewhere … Leaving aside the tropes of romantic fiction, and the mythologizing of past ages, is it possible to learn something of the real Aethelflaed? We do not have a full-length biography of her like the *Life of Alfred*, which was written for her father by the Welsh monk Asser. As a consequence, the contemporary sources have little to say about her childhood and early life. When she enters the historical record in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, it is as an adult in her forties, and she is dead within a few years. Such is the nature of this source, with its terse narrative style, reporting major events with only brief entries. It is little wonder that 'other contemporary sources' are included with the best-known modern edition of Asser's *Life of Alfred* – to truly get to know him, and learn about his life and career, it is sometimes necessary to read between the lines and consult other available sources, such as characters, legal codes and writings from neighbouring kingdoms. Thus, to see the bigger picture of Alfred's life it is necessary to look at the wider context of his times, and his relations with his family and contemporaries. It is only sensible to assume that the same applies to his daughter.

She too was a product of her times. Her life was dominated by the conflict with the Danish and Norwegian Vikings. Her father's kingdom was the last to stand alone against their onslaught, and it is possible that her uncle, King Aethelred, died as a result of military engagement against them. In this sense, it was the war with the Danes that made Alfred king and placed his family on the political and military stage. Aethelflaed was probably born a year or so before her father succeeded the throne of Wessex, and she would have been raised at his court. For this reason, it is possible to discover something about how she spent the first sixteen or so years of her life from examining the actions and movements of her family, who must have shared many experiences with their patriarch. For instance, Alfred's wife and children almost certainly accompanied him into his famous exile in the Somerset marshes. At the time Aethelflaed would have been around seven or eight years old – old enough to remember that desperate time when all seemed lost, and to remember her father's legendary victory at Edlington, when his great enemy Guthrum was defeated and he won back his kingdom. She would not, of course, have fought in the battle, but she would certainly have known about it, and it had a very real impact on her family. In the years following the battle she would have been educated alongside her older siblings, and it is hard to believe that a young girl of keen intelligence and ability (these features would be displayed later in life) would not have observed her father, and learned from him the rudiments of rule and statecraft.

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iv) Identifying arguments in interpretations

Identifying arguments in interpretations and distinguishing these from factual evidence is vital. It is also useful to establish whether sufficient and accurate evidence has been presented to support any arguments. If an interpretation makes **assertions** without backing these up with evidence the author would not be practising good history.

Look at the example below that distinguishes between the interpretation and evidence in two extracts. The examples come from interpretations that could be used to answer the enquiry '**What is your view about how successful Margaret Thatcher's government was in the years 1979-90?**'

- Interpretation
- Evidence

Extract 1: Selina Todd, *The People: The Rise and Fall of the Working Class* (2014)

In 1984 the Government's determination to destroy the labour movement was made starkly clear. In February Ian MacGregor, head of the National Coal Board (NCB) announced plans to close twenty pits with the loss of 20,000 jobs – often in areas that offered little alternative employment. On 12 March 1984, Arthur Scargill, president of the national Union of Mineworkers (NUM) called a national strike against the closures.

When explaining her reforms, Margaret Thatcher was fond of invoking the so-called 'TINA' phrase: 'There is no alternative'. But in the case of the miners, there was an alternative. It did not make economic sense to close the mines. The Oxford economist Andrew Glyn convincingly argued that even if the pits were as uneconomic (and in fact many still had sufficient resources to merit mining for decades to become) the resulting unemployment would oblige the NCB and the taxpayer funding larger retirement pensions, thousands of redundancy payments and millions of pounds in unemployment benefit. It was cheaper to keep the miners in work.

The decision to close the mines was politically motivated and had a long history.

Extract 2: Terrance Casey (ed), *The Social Context of Economic Change in Britain* (2012)

On numerous measures Britain's relative performance since 1979 has been on a par with – and in some respects even superior to – that of other G7* economics. Improved relative performance has not been sufficient, however, to close the absolute haps in income and productivity arising from decades of decline. The long-term trend of economic decline bottomed out under Conservative stewardship, but the Tories were unable to reverse the process. Even if the Conservatives did not meet their stated goals, halting the process of decline was a major feat. The period of Conservative rule thus represents a positive improvement in the trajectory of the British economy.

Indeed, the Conservatives' economic legacy would probably be more widely praised had it not been for the 1990-92 recession, which seriously marred an otherwise favourable record. Hard won economic gains, particularly on inflation and employment, evaporated – which critics took to indicate the shallowness of the economic improvements. In reality the economy was allowed to overheat in the 1980s, but the supply side improvements were real.

*Group of the world's seven most industrialised economies (Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, UK, USA).

As you can see both extracts from interpretations and use evidence in order to back these up. The interpretation given in Extract 1 is that the government was wrong to close down the mines and is generally negative about Thatcher; whereas Extract 2's interpretation is that the economy improved.

Read the following extracts. Use two different colours to highlight:

a) the argument or interpretation;
b) the evidence used.

Extract 3: Ellis Wasson, *A History of Modern Britain* (2009)

For some, Thatcher was a figure of Churchillian stature, a saviour who altered the course of Britain. She took command of a derelict wreck, ready to sink, and guided it not just to safe harbour but to repair, relaunching, and a new beginning. Her accomplishments were prodigious, and she led her party to three electoral victories. Her privatisation policies took a dramatic turn, the sale of state asserts tripled the number of owners of stock between 1979 and 1989. This strategy and war with the unions decisively reshaped the class structure of Britain. 'Thatcherism' split the working class into winners and losers.

However, Thatcher was actually more cautious than she sometimes seemed and less effective in putting many of her ideas into practice than one might expect. She abandoned her initial economic program in 1981 when it clearly was not working. The frontiers of the state, outside the sale of assets, were not rolled back. Welfare and expenditure on healthcare expanded during her tenure.

Extract 4: Earl A. Reitan, *The Thatcher Revolution: Margaret Thatcher, John Major, Tony Blair, and the Transformation of Modern Britain* (2002)

The GLC (Greater London Council), led by 'Red Ken' Livingstone, was Thatcher's thorn in the flesh. From 1981 to 1986 Livingstone increased GLC expenditures by 170 percent. He greatly expanded the number of employees and other dependents and made generous grants to activist groups. He claimed to be creating 'urban socialism' as the people's alternative to Thatcherism. He hung red flags on the GLC building across the Thames from the houses of Parliament, invited foreign revolutionaries to the council chambers, and posted a banner listing the figures for unemployment. In 1981, the GLC cut fares of the London Underground by 32 percent, a popular step, and raised the rates to make up the difference. The government intervened and London Transport was nationalised.

Thatcher's answer to urban noncompliance was a demonstration of raw power, fuelled not a little by anger. In 1985, the Thatcher ministry proposed abolition of eighteen urban councils whose fiscal management was regarded as irresponsible. Labour controlled all but two. The list included six metropolitan counties established by the Heath government plus the GLC.

Which argument is more convincing? Explain your answer.

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V) Turning arguments into questions

In order to establish what a historian is attempting to achieve in their work, we have already seen that establishing their aim early on is a good idea. It is also helpful to turn their arguments into a series of questions. This can help when you come to explain the differences between your chosen works. See the example below, which could be used in the enquiry **'What is your view about the reasons for the fall of the USSR?'**.

Extract 1: Richard Sakwa, *Soviet Politics in Perspective* (1998)

In its final years the Soviet economy faced significant problems, including systematic difficulties arising from problems internal to the socialist economy, and which could be remedied by actions taken by the leadership itself. Most of the latter arose from the pattern of Stalinist super-industrialisation which created a vast top-heavy bureaucracy managing the country's economic life. At a certain stage the enormous costs and wastage involved in maintaining the managing mechanism, the heart of the command economy, condemned Soviet-type economies to relative stagnation. In the absence of the invisible hand of capitalist market forces, and the increasingly palsied condition of the visible hand of command planning, such economies had no self-sustaining mechanism to imbue them with dynamism. These problems were not new, and the issue of economic reform had been at or near the top of the agenda at least since the death of Stalin.

In Extract 1, the author could be seen to be posing the following questions:

1. What problems did the Soviet economy face in its final years?
2. What was the impact of Stalinist super-industrialisation?
3. How did the Soviet economy cope without capitalism?

Extract 2: Paul R. Gregory, *The Political Economy of Stalinism* (2004)

The Soviet administrative-command economy continued to have positive economic growth until 1989. The negative growth thereafter is indicative of an economic system in collapse. Although the USSR began the postwar era with high rates of growth (which were matched by much of Europe and exceeded by the economic miracles in Germany and Japan), its growth declined steadily after 1970. Whereas growth in Western industrialised economies turned down in response to energy crises in the mid-1970s and early 1980s, they bounced back to that no long-term declining trend was evident.

The fateful decision in favour of radical economic reform was not forced by outright collapse. The party elite were reasonably satisfied, and the Soviet population was not in open opposition. The administrative command system, on the eve of its radical change, was inefficient but stable. Gosplan's projections called for an annual growth rate of some 3 percent through the year 2000. Declining Soviet growth rate, coupled with the acceleration of growth in China, Southeast Asia, and the marked recovery of the U.S economy, were troubling but do not fully explain the fateful steps that eventually spelled the demise of the system.

In Extract 2, the author could be seen posing the following questions:

1. How did the Soviet economy perform in comparison to major Western nations?
2. How successful was the Soviet administrative command system in the late 1980s?
3. Why did the system collapse?

If a historian's argument is turned into the questions they seem to be asking, it can be much easier to distinguish between arguments and see clearly what the aim of their research is.

Read the extracts below and identify the questions that the authors seem to be asking. The extracts could be used in the enquiry **'What is your view about whether there was a crisis in late Elizabethan government (1589-1603)?'**

Extract: Ian W. Archer, *The Pursuit of Stability: Social Relations in Elizabethan London* (2003)

People's fears in later Elizabethan England did have some grounding in reality, and the evidence that crime was committed by organised gangs was growing in the later 1580s and 1590s, because of the problem of disbanded soldiers. Their identification with crime was a commonplace well before the continuous war of the closing years of the century. The habits of violence soldiers had acquired in the wars were compounded by the difficulties of reintegrating with civilian society, particularly in circumstances of rising unemployment and dearth. It was therefore often only by crime that the discharged soldier was able to support himself, and the protests of the privy council against the gangs of highway robbers and burglars terrorising the city and its environs become a depressing theme of its correspondence in the 1590s, as waves of discharged soldiers repeatedly hit the south coast ports and headed for London.

What kind of questions does the author of the above extract seem to be asking?

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Extract: B. Kane and V. McGowan-Doyle, *Elizabeth I and Ireland* (2014), Cambridge University Press

Unlike some of her subjects, Elizabeth had a fairly well-developed ability to interpret Ireland from a culturally relativist point of view. At a time when official policy was to confine the Irish churches to using either English or Latin, Elizabeth showed an interest in Gaelic … Elizabeth had some grasp of Irish culture, or at least of the fact that the Irish possessed a distinct culture as opposed to an absence of culture. She was frequently inclined to pardon Irish rebels so long as she was not 'touched in her honour' and so long as her clemency was not mistaken for weakness … Elizabeth described herself as married to her realm, but in Ireland she was a distant figure, and her authority even over her own deputies, let alone her Old English or Gaelic subjects, was arguably more tenuous because of her gender

What kind of questions does the author of the above extract seem to be asking?

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VI) Identifying and explaining differences between works

At A-Level you are expected to show an understanding of the basis of the arguments of the authors. One important reason why historians form different arguments is their use of source material.

It is important to note that different works you will come across at A-Level may not be diametrically opposed (at completely opposite extremes), and it is not unusual to find common ground between them. Therefore, it is worth considered the **similarities and differences** in interpretation, as well as discovering ways in which works may be different but compatible.

No tasks are required for this section, but it is important to understand this when considering the next stage.

VII) Applying knowledge to support and challenge interpretations

A key determining factor in achieving success with interpretations is how successfully you integrate a sound knowledge of debate into your argument. A good way to do this is to integrate knowledge into your discussion of interpretations throughout your essays. In general, you need to remember the following when applying knowledge to your interpretations:

- The knowledge that you apply to the interpretations must be accurate and relevant to the issue.
- It must be linked to the interpretation to show it supports or challenges the view in the interpretation.
- Large amounts of knowledge should not simply follow after an interpretation with no comment suggesting whether that knowledge makes the view of the interpretation more or less valid.
- The link between the interpretation and the own knowledge should come through evaluative words or phrases.

Although it might appear rather mechanical it would be greatly useful to build up a working list of evaluative words and phrases that you can call upon when writing your essay. Once your structure is mastered, you can then play around with introducing a more nuanced method.

Evaluative words and phrases

Words	**Phrases**
However	This is supported by …
Conversely	This is challenged by …
Although	The view is valid because …
Opposes	The view is questionable because …
Illustrates	The interpretation can be criticised …
Confirms	The view can be exemplified with the example of …
Endorses	On the other hand …
Refutes	Their argument rests on the premise that … however…
	Too much significance is given to … whereas …
	The historian makes a generalisation that excludes …
	There is sometimes no evidence to support a claim, such as …

Consider the following question and the interpretation to accompany it:

What is your view about how much support there was for the English Church on the eve of the Reformation?

Extract: A.G. Dickens, *The English Reformation* (1964)

Anti-clericalism had reached a new intensity by the early years of the sixteenth century, attitudes towards monasticism were muted and support for monasteries commanded little support outside the cloister. Clerical power and influence in society was more apparent than was the case in practice. The clergy were beginning to lose their intellectual and educational dominance. They might stand in a favourable position to wage any conflict against the growing threat of the laity and of the State, but their leaders lacked inspiration, unity and loyalty to the supranational [across international borders] concept of Christendom. The English Church remained too full of conflicting self-interest to bring about it's own reform.

Having worked out what the view of the interpretation is about the issue in the question, consider the two following attempts to evaluate the view Dickens offers.

Response A:

Dickens argues that the English Church on the eve of the Reformation was in a weak position. He puts forward the view that there was little support for monasticism, while clerical influence was also on the decline. He explains this decline as being due to the loss of the educational and intellectual dominance of the clergy. He suggests that the leaders of the clergy were not inspirational and were divided, suggesting that they would be unable to defend the Church should it come under attack. Dickens firmly believes that the Church lacked popular support.

Response B:

Although Dickens has argued that the Church lacked popular support, with both monasticism and clerical influence in decline, his view is not entirely accurate. While he is correct to note the numbers entering the monasteries dropping as the monastic ideal lost its appeal, he is far from correct to argue that there was a decline in clerical influence or appeal. Dickens' view ignores the 1520s when laymen entered the priesthood in numbers only ever exceeded in the previous decade and there was little evidence of clashes between priests and laity. It is very unlikely that large numbers of men would join an institution that was in decline and under serious attack from the laity.

1. What is the difference between the two responses?

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2. Which of these responses simply describes Dickens' view?

_____

3. Which one of these responses evaluates Dickens' view?

_____

4. Which evaluative words are used?

_____

5. Identify and highlight where the own knowledge is directly linked to the interpretation.

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Task 2: Understanding the context of the Tudors

This task should take you approximately 10 hours.

Task 1 focused on a skills progression from GCSE to A-Level. Task 2 aims to build on this by integrating Unit 1 of the course.

This task will be quite challenging so please feel free to email Mr. Evans if you are stuck.

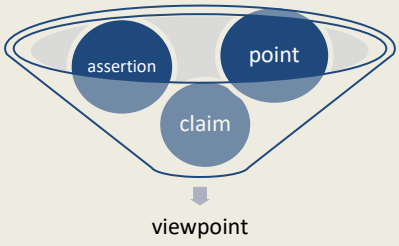
Task outline:

1. **In Our Time podcast –** use the worksheet to take notes on the podcast. Pause the video as you go.

2. **Scholarship reading –** use the reading provided to help you answer the three questions provided. You may want to create subheadings for notes and leave plenty of space to add as you go.

3. **Learning from the expert –** watch all available sections of the film series created by Susan Doran on the Tudors. Create a large timeline and attempt the other tasks as well. This will help create the foundations for the next task.

4. **Write an essay** – we are not expecting mastery at this stage. This should be a chance for you to integrate what you have learnt over this Task 2 assignment.

Title of show The Tudor State	**Guest 1** John Guy	**Guest 2** Christopher Haigh	**Guest 3** Christine Carpenter
Questions by Melvyn (*try to include time stamps*)	*Opinions, quotes, key evidence*		
How I would summarise this historian's view  			
Key points from the episode		**Things to find out more about**	

i) **Use the following link to complete this worksheet:**

https://www.bbc.co.uk/sounds/play/p00546xd

ii) **Scholarship reading:** Read this article and answer the questions below. I recommend reading the questions before reading the article. This will not be a simple comprehension to check understanding.

Questions:

1. Did the Tudors rely more upon consent than coercion to maintain their authority?
2. How serious were the challenges to authority in the sixteenth century?
3. How far, and why, did the Tudor regime grow between 1485 and 1603?

R.E. Foster – *Maintaining Order in Tudor England*

The idea of a divinely ordered world came naturally to 16th-century Englishmen. In Henry V the Archbishop of Canterbury explains how:

heaven divide
The state of man in divers functions,
Setting endeavour in continual motion;
To which is fixed an aim or butt
Obedience.

When, in times of rebellion, the links in the 'Great Chain of Being' appeared in danger of snapping, the reaction was bewilderment at acts so unnatural. As Secretary Paget informed Lord Protector Somerset during the widespread disturbances of 1549, 'As for the law, the foot takes on him the part of the head, and the common people are behaving like a king'.

1485—Henry Tudor becomes king after the Battle of Bosworth
1486-7 Lambert Simnel's rebellion
1491-7 Perkin Warbeck's rebellion
1497—Cornish rebellion
1525—Amicable Grant rising
1536-7—Pilgrimage of Grace
1549—Western rebellion; Kett's rebellion
1553— Northumberland's (Jane Grey) coup
1554—Wyatt's rebellion
1569-70—Rising of the Northern Earls
1601— Essex's rebellion

Paradoxically, the frequency of references to order and obedience suggests an underlying concern for the stability of the social order. The undeniable fact of the Tudor dynasty's survival masks much dynastic uncertainty. Henry VII fought for his throne in 1487; Henry VIII's determination to leave a male heir was achieved only by his revolutionary decision to become Supreme Head of the church. Even so, the accession of the nine-year-old Edward VI was hardly reassuring. His two half-sister successors, Mary and Elizabeth, had both at various times been declared illegitimate, quite apart from the fact that England had had no queen regnant prior to 1553. In the event, attempts to seize the crown were few. But the river of disorder could flow from many tributaries: most importantly a rising population, natural disasters such as harvest failure, and man-made problems such as the religious divide which accompanied the Reformation. Given that, in Conrad Russell's memorable words, Tudor England was 'a police state without police' – and with no standing army either – the means by which the Tudor dynasty managed to run its natural course surely merit careful attention.

Monarchy and Order

The crown was integral to the maintenance of order. Kevin Sharpe's recent investigation into how the Tudor monarchy 'spun' itself reveals just how important image was as an adjunct to its authority. Henry VII, given the circumstances of his accession, was anxious to mythologise an ancient royal lineage: what purported to be King Arthur's Round Table was displayed, bedecked in Tudor livery, in the ancient royal capital of Winchester. But it was Henry VIII who really grasped the need, because of his break with Rome,

to ‘sell’ himself. His royal image was projected through media as varied as coins, portraits, poems and plays. Whilst both Edward VI and Mary lacked the time and savvy to ape their father, the Tudor dynasty’s self-projection reached its apotheosis in the person of Elizabeth, who became more icon than reality. Both Henry and Elizabeth died genuinely popular amongst the great body of their subjects.

The passage of time undoubtedly strengthened the Tudors’ authority. Henry Tudor owed his throne to the triumph of force majeure (superior power) in 1485; in 1553 and 1558 it mattered that Mary and Elizabeth were indubitably the daughters of Henry VIII in face of those who argued the blood claims of Lady Jane Grey and Mary Stuart. Tudor monarchs’ authority was strengthened further by the church for all were crowned and anointed by it. To rebel against the king was to rebel against God, a notion which even rebels themselves were reluctant to offend. Those who led the opposition to the Amicable Grant in May 1525 characterised themselves as ‘the kings moste humble and faithefull subgiettes’. Even the murdering, usurper king, Claudius reassures Queen Gertrude in Hamlet that he will be safe from his vengeful nephew because ‘There’s such divinity doth hedge a king,/That treason can but peep to what it would ...’

But the fictional case of Claudius also reminds us that the strict hereditary order could be ignored. (If treason do prosper, as Ovid observed, none dare call it treason.) Henry VI was twice deposed; Richard III died violently. Henry VII might easily have perished by the hand of Yorkist pretenders. Mary Tudor would probably have been executed if Wyatt’s rebellion had succeeded in 1554, as would Elizabeth had the Northern earls prevailed in 1569. And James VI of Scotland ascended the throne peacefully in 1603 notwithstanding the fact that both Henry VIII’s will and the 1544 Act of Succession specifically excluded the Stuart line. What ultimately mattered was the real power of the monarch. The church was happy to endorse this power as revealing the judgement of God, but in so doing it was confirming, not making, the monarch.

Though the Crown became more powerful in the 16th century with regard to its relationship to the church, in other respects it became less formidable. Its landed stake, for example, rebuilt by Henry VII and bolstered by the windfall of the monasteries, was thereafter diminished. This contributed to the Crown’s declining financial well-being. Henry VII’s acumen meant that he died in the black: Henry VIII’s wars plunged the royal finances into the red, and even Elizabeth’s legendary parsimony could not reverse the trend. The Crown consequently became more dependent upon what might be called the governing order to sustain it in the business of maintaining order. It is to that governing order that the Tudors owed the fact of their survival.

The Governing Order

The governing order encompassed the leading members of both secular and religious society. Of these the titular aristocracy were the most important. The number of nobles remained relatively static during the Tudor period: 42 in 1509, rising to 54 in 1529 and 55 in 1603. No Tudor risked creating ‘super-nobles’ such as Duke Richard of Gloucester had been; indeed there were no Dukes following Norfolk’s execution for treason in 1572. Norfolk was an exception: crucially, the Tudors enjoyed overwhelming loyalty from those who might be called mini-monarchs. The Percy earls of Northumberland had 11,000 tenants at the peak of their influence. When the crown needed support, these estate-based retinues often provided it: the third Duke of Norfolk alone provided 600 of the 19,000 force which dealt with the Pilgrimage of Grace. The mere presence of a ‘name’ could, by itself, do much to ensure order. Conversely, Lord Russell’s absence from the West country in 1549 arguably contributed to the spread of the Prayer Book rebellion.

The crucial social distinction for contemporaries, however, was that between gentlemen and others. In De Republica Anglorum, Sir Thomas Smith defined gentlemen as those who ‘studieth the laws of the realm, who studieth in the universities, who professeth liberal sciences, and to be short, who can live idly and without manual labour and will bear the port, charge and countenance of a gentleman’. Given that the size of the aristocracy stayed more or less constant, it was these gentry who really comprised the bulk of the

governing order. Their relative importance, moreover, was increasing over the period, for the number of gentry families rose from roughly 5,000 to 15,000 between 1540 and 1600. The middling and lesser gentry held a quarter of England's cultivated land in 1500 and nearly half by 1640.
Much of the gentry's advance after 1540 was due to the fact that they had acquired former monastic land. The Church nevertheless remained integral to the governing order: the institution literally preached obedience from the pulpit, the most obvious vehicle of communication between rulers and ruled. Henry VIII's break with Rome consequently risked an enormous threat to order. As one historian has put it, 'the church, the Supreme Headship and religion were what most destabilized the Tudor monarchy and threatened civil war'. This was because for a generation after 1534 (except during Mary's reign), the Crown became a reforming force against the hitherto immutable Catholic Church. Only when Elizabeth determined that her church should be equally immutable did the Crown revert to its religiously conservative type. The longer-term consequence of this was to strengthen the governing order, for Elizabeth's peculiarly English Church became an essential element in the national identity. With headship of both state and church fused in the Crown there could be no divided loyalty. The frontispiece of Henry VIII's Great Bible, showing him being handed the Bible from God, and in turn handing it down to his people, is one of the most memorable images of the Tudor period.

Central Instruments of Order

Tudor monarchs sought to maintain order through a machine that was already well established by 1485. Central to this was the royal council. The micro-manager, Henry VII, did not allow his councillors much autonomy. Henry VIII was more inclined to macro-manage, facilitating the emergence of powerful councillors such as Wolsey and, to a lesser extent, Thomas Cromwell during the 1530s. A key change of that decade was the formalisation of the council as the Privy Council, possibly as a response to the disorder of 1536. This met and functioned independently of the monarch, employed a clerk, and kept records. It was briefly eclipsed by Protector Somerset during Edward VI's minority and became unwieldy under Mary, but it re-emerged under Elizabeth as the hub of the wheel for maintaining order. Elizabeth's Privy Council, of approximately 20 members, was unrecognisable from her grandfather's predecessor. Its badgering of the Oxfordshire gentry to be vigilant was a main reason why the economically-inspired disturbances there in 1596 did not develop into anything more widespread.
The central machine also included the great law courts such as King's Bench, Chancery and Common Pleas. Ordinary mortals would have had little knowledge of them, but they might have encountered some of the royal judges who inhabited them in their capacity as judges of assize. England's counties were grouped into six assize circuits. Twice a year, a brace of royal judges visited over 70 towns for the assizes held to try major or difficult cases. Such occasions also allowed them to explain law and royal intent.
Laws, of course, were made by parliament, the most famous point of contact between ruler and ruled. Though Parliaments were brief and infrequent, and most laws were local in scope, the Crown could invariably rely upon Parliaments to do its bidding if it wanted to arm itself with new statutory authority. There were, for example, no fewer than 29 alterations to the treason laws after 1529 as the Crown sought to maintain order in a period of economic, political and religious turmoil: by the 1580s it had become treasonable simply to be a Jesuit priest in England.

Local Instruments of Order

Laws, however draconian, need people to enforce them, as also to deal with breaches of the peace. The key royal official in a county for such purposes had been the high sheriff, though the office had lost most of its medieval importance by 1500. In theory the sheriff could still raise the hue and cry which required able-bodied males to join him in the posse comitatus in pursuit of wrongdoers. Yet in practice the sheriff 's main responsibilities were to meet the assize judges and swear juries.
The Tudor official who superseded the sheriff was the lord lieutenant. The first such appointments were an

ad hoc response by the Duke of Northumberland to the unrest of 1549. By the mid-1580s most counties had them. The attendant kudos guaranteed that it was a much sought after position. Of the 17 lords lieutenant covering 29 counties in 1595, 16 were nobles and nine were privy councillors. To assist them there were, by 1603, over 200 deputy lieutenants drawn from the ranks of the county gentry. The lieutenancy's major responsibility was the county's militia force. All able-bodied males aged 16-60 were liable for militia service. Intended for home defence against invasion or domestic disorder, it was a force of 10,000 militiamen which proved instrumental in suppressing the 1569 Northern Rising. As many as 25,000 militiamen had undergone some rudiments of training by the lieutenancy by 1588.

The official who was the real lynchpin of the Tudor regime, however, was the justice of the peace (JP) or magistrate. Sir Thomas Smith, in 1565, described them as 'those in whom at this time for the repressing of robbers, thieves and vagabonds, of privy complots and conspiracies, of riots and violences, and all other misdemeanours in the commonwealth the prince putteth his special trust.' Originating in the 14th century, 16th-century justices were named annually for each county in a commission of the peace. Those eligible for appointment possessed land or tenements worth £20 per annum, but only those recommended by senior officials such as judges or lords lieutenant (the latter by 1603 usually doubled as a county's chief magistrate or custos rotulorum) actually made it into the commission. Notwithstanding that the office was unpaid, it was much coveted, marking as it did the badge of belonging to the governing elite.

Magistrates gathered four times a year in meetings known as quarter sessions. The business before them was primarily judicial. At the Derbyshire winter sessions of 1598, for example, 18 of the 65 people tried were hanged. Increasingly during the century, JPs also met less formally in smaller groups known as petty sessions. Much of the mundane everyday business of the office, however, was discharged by magistrates in pairs or alone.

The desire of gentlemen to enter the commission of the peace was one reason why JP numbers rose. An average of roughly 10 per county in Henry VII's reign had risen to between 40 and 50 by 1603. In 1580 there were 1,738 in total, ranging from Rutland's 13 to Kent's 83. But increased numbers were also the consequence of necessity, for the Tudor state recognised the JPs as the willing workhorses onto whom it could impose multifarious burdens. Even in 1485 there were 133 laws which had some bearing upon their jurisdiction. During Henry VII's reign, every parliament added at least one law relevant to their work. Some 60 more had been added by 1547, and another 38 followed during Edward's and Mary's reign. In 1552, for example, they were given jurisdiction over alehouses, presumably on the basis that at best drunkenness fomented disorder; at worst, that alehouse were centres for more calculated acts of sedition.

Both quantitatively and qualitatively, however, it was Elizabeth's reign which witnessed the greatest burgeoning of the magistrate's office. It is unsurprising that the first popular justices' handbook, Eirenarcha by William Lambarde, appeared in 1581. He listed over 300 statutes necessitating JPs' attention, 75 of which were enacted in Elizabeth's reign. Some of these were particularly onerous, notably the 1559 Act of Uniformity which required them to enforce fines for non-attendance at church. Others were complex, such as the 1563 Statute of Artificers which empowered magistrates to fix wage rates annually, bind apprentices to masters for seven years and adjudicate in labour disputes. This, like the codifying Poor Laws of 1597 and 1601, which confirmed magistrates as the chief administrators of poor law relief, would more appropriately be seen today as questions of social policy. For many amongst the Tudor elite, however, particularly during the difficult economic times of the 1590s, when the number of idle but able bodied under-employed was perceived to be spiralling ever upwards, they were, fundamentally, questions of order.

By 1603 the state required the JPs to be administrative-judicial jacks of all trades. But just how good were they? Sir Thomas Smith claimed that 'There was never in any common wealth devised a more wise, a more dulce and gentle, nor a more certain way to rule the people, whereby they are kept always as it were in a bridle of good order'. The truth of this must be doubted. A preamble to a statute of 1489 denied that law

was deficient and exhorted magistrates to competence. Elizabeth even took the relatively unusual step of removing some names from the commission of the peace in 1595. One undoubted problem was that the prestige of being in the commission could make it an arena for faction or patronage: the Earl of Essex, for example, lobbied successfully to get nine names into the commissions for Welsh counties during the 1580s. Another problem was that magistrates might baulk at imposing the royal will. The fact that 304 people were fined as recusants in Lancashire in 1578 and over 3,500 by 1603 is surely to be explained " the Tudor state recognised the JPs as the willing workhorses onto whom it could impose multifarious burdens " by a greater magisterial willingness to enforce the law than a recrudescence of Roman Catholicism.

Conclusion

The Tudors simply never had the money nor the inclination to develop the powers of a bureaucratic state. In Valois France there were 40,000 paid officials compared to not many more than 1,000 in England. The amateur and largely unpaid system which the Tudors relied upon was imperfect but it was accepted, in part because it was cheap, and in part because it was manned by those people in society to whose leadership the vast bulk of the population was anyway happy to defer.

The present survey has necessarily anatomised the system into some of its component parts. In reality it was an interlocking whole: church and state, centre and locality. Over the century the balance of forces within it changed but it remained very recognisably the same. Thus whilst it became more secular with the disappearance of the monasteries and with Wolsey proving to be the last great clerical minister, Bishop Stephen Gardiner acted as Mary Tudor's Lord Chancellor and Archbishop Whitgift sat in Elizabeth's Privy Council. Personnel intertwined or overlapped in numerous instances. Many gentry owned advowsons (the right to appoint the priest); many younger sons of gentlemen entered the priesthood. More or less all members of parliament were in the commission of the peace. Members of the Privy Council sat in parliament. Assize judges worked in tandem with JPs. JPs reported on clergy but in 1587 Lord Burghley asked bishops for comments on JPs in their dioceses.

Measuring the success of the system is a more difficult task. Kevin Sharpe claims that 'The economic, social and religious revolutions of the sixteenth century gave rise to a large number of rebellions and popular uprisings which shook the governments to the core.' This hardly points to the system being untroubled, but the revolutions would have tested any system in any period. The key fact remains that Tudor governments survived. If one escapes the myopia of focusing purely on the Tudor period, moreover, one can make a strong case for the period being one of relative success in terms of the maintenance of public order. There was no return to the dynastic disorder which had characterised the generation before 1485, whilst within the lifetimes of those who could remember the death of Elizabeth, England would be plunged into the Great Rebellion which culminated with the abolition of monarchy itself.

Such success as was achieved was partly the consequence of the fact that the system did not stand still. Even if only piecemeal and in response to specific public order challenges, there is a clear sense of development over the course of the 16th century. As the size of the governing class and the population overall increased, the role of the state, and thus the burdens upon it, did so too. In the sense that the transaction of affairs was more institutionalised, through such vehicles as parliament (which also grew in size) and the Privy Council, England became less personal and medieval and more bureaucratic and modern. The heart and bedrock of the system was, though, gentlemen as JPs; the standard history of the office rightly sees the 16th century as the one when that official came of age. At its best the system was in more than one sense truly magisterial, or as the Duke of Exeter put it in Henry V:

> *For government, though high, and low, and lower,*
> *Put into parts, doth keep in one consent,*
> *Congreeing in a full and natural close,*
> *Like music.*

iii) **Learning from the expert: Sue Doran**

Susan Doran is a historian we will look at extensively throughout Unit 1 – she is one of the leading Historians on within this era.

Complete the following tasks to accompany this film series created by the expert (please watch all the film sections from sections 1-11):
https://www.history.org.uk/historian/resource/9801/film-tudor-royal-authority

You will want to complete these tasks simultaneously:

1) Create a massive timeline of the key events Doran chooses to focus on.
Idea: you may want to highlight different themes that Doran touches on (personality; significance of advisers; religion; foreign relations; domestic politics)

2) Identify her interpretations. Based on your first five-hour task, can you spot her interpretations on events?
For example, does she mention that 'ideas have changed', or 'some historians believe', or dismisses evidence? State her interpretations (You may want to include these on your timeline!)

3) Stretch: Critique her interpretation(s). Based on your previous work in this booklet, and your GCSE knowledge, do you have any extra evidence that can either support or challenge her beliefs?

IV) Plan and answer the following essay question:

Andrew Gimson argues that Elizabeth I was England's greatest ever monarch. Based on your research so far, is it fair to say she is the greatest Tudor monarch?

Consider:

- Religion
- Foreign relations
- Domestic politics

Try to use the above bullet points as your paragraph, talking about multiple monarchs within each paragraph.

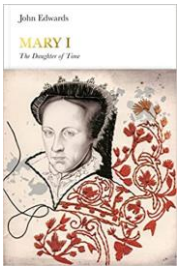
Success criteria: What does 'greatest' mean? Some ideas you may want to consider:

- Most successful
- Transformative impact – paving the way for others.
- Difficulty of task/achievement
- Importance of their legislative change (e.g. did Elizabeth do anything drastically new domestically? If not, can she be considered the greatest?).

Remember to use lots of specific detail (examples) and explain why you have used these (ask yourself 'so what?' How does this help me answer the question?). You should refer to the success criteria in your explanation. Mastery is not expected here, but this should evidence that you've engaged with the second task set. If you are stuck, refer back to the beginning of this booklet for guidance.

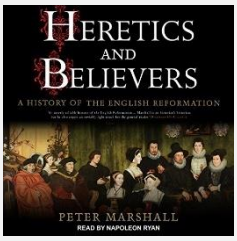
Additional reading opportunities

Unit 1 – England, 1509-1603: authority, nation and religion



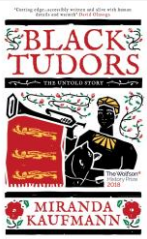
Penguin monarch series: Henry VIII, Edward VI, Mary I, Elizabeth I (Henry VII coming soon)

These are brilliantly concise and short (around 100 short pages each) reads overviewing each monarch. I highly recommend these as a gateway into each era. Written by experts for novices.



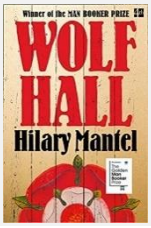
Heretics and Believers (Peter Marshall)

Winner of the 2018 Wolfson History Prize (award for best history book written for a general audience). This is a super long yet super intriguing read that goes into the delicacies of the Reformation and the beliefs in the afterlife that shaped how those in this era behaved.



Black Tudors: the untold story (Miranda Kaufmann)

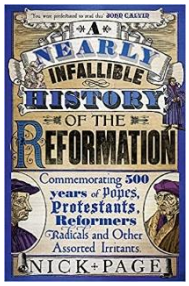
Tired of a curriculum that is male, pale and stale? This book transformed the game by opening a window to the unknown part played by black people in Tudor England, and not a slave in sight.



Wolf Hall (Hilary Mantel)

A wonderful piece of historical fiction that is gripping and enables you to gain an understanding of the context and framework we are working in. This has been turned into a BBC Two drama.

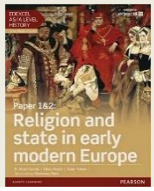
Unit 2 – Luther and the German Reformation, c1515-55



A Nearly Infallible History of the Reformation: Commemorating 500 years of Popes, Protestants, Reformers, Radicals and Other Assorted Irritants (Nick Page)

Laugh out loud funny. This is the most engaging book I have read in 2020. Not written by a historian but well-researched. A brilliant insight into the Reformation and the motivations behind it. A Christian point of view that challenges some misconceptions surrounding the 'evil Catholics' and 'heroic Protestants'.

Year 12 course textbook



Pearson's textbook: Paper 1&2: Religion and state in early modern Europe

A fundamental requirement for the course. I do not expect you to read this prior to starting Y12, however you will need this for most lessons. It is jam-packed with information.