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**COURSEWORK**

**Theme: Chronology of Events in English History (Middle English)**

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# Introduction

Christianization marked significant changes not only in the social cultural sphere of the countries of medieval Europe and England in particular, but also had a significant impact on changing the language situation.

When describing the language situation in a diachronic perspective, it is necessary to build a hierarchy of language forms that are used in a certain historical period. This allows us to make a model that has received the scientific name "functional paradigm" (hereinafter – FP). The concept of AF was first used by M. M. Gukhman in one of her studies.

The time period for which use Latin alphabet for writing the Germanic languages was not yet characteristically, known for the use of a two-member type of FP, which was introduced two types of usage – processed language on the one hand and various forms speaking on the other.

At the highest level of the structure of the two-term paradigm was the oral processed language. It was an ancient variant of the supra-dialect form, and among the genres in which it was used, epic poetry had a special status. V. V. Vinogradov calls this linguistic form a literary tradition based on the oral-poetic folk tradition.

According to the works of some researchers, this was due to the performance of the epic canons of the stabilizing function in the absence of written sources of information, as well as the fact that only epic poetry, as a form of poetic creativity, was historically recorded. The lowest level of AF belonged to the language forms used in everyday communication. They had different territorial variants. Their characteristic features were poorly traced.

The Christianization of England has largely transformed the linguistic situation. The development of culture, education, and medicine was largely determined by the use of Latin as the dominant language in the higher spheres of communication. Such a situation was characteristic of all Germanic languages. Language situations in the German-speaking countries of the early Middle Ages represented the coexistence of national (native) and "international", in the words of V. M. Zhyrmunsky, languages by which the author understands the languages of religion, religious writing, and education, state and judicial documents in the care of clerics, who were perceived as the only literate and educated representatives of society. Latin began to serve as a full-fledged tool of communication, a language form that occupies the highest stratum of FP in England, gradually replacing Old English from everyday use. However, despite the fact that the Latin alphabet came to the fore, some communication areas assumed the joint use of Old English and Latin on equal terms, which, according to the author, according to T. G. Logutenkova, it could contribute to the provision and expansion of the communicative capabilities of the Old English language. This made it virtually impossible to talk about the diglossian situation in the British Isles after their Christianization, which was typical of other German countries. In the first centuries after the adoption of Christianity, the linguistic situation in England was characterized by the coexistence of two different languages with equivalent functions and, therefore, equal opportunities for use. In a similar situation, I used the term "bilingualism" in my research. It is worth noting that the concepts of "diglossia" and "bilingualism" proposed by B. A. U Spensky, which he applied in the classification of language situations characteristic of the development of the Russian literary language, show similarities with the theory of C. A. Ferguson. Such terms, in our opinion, are quite applicable to the German-speaking countries of the early Middle Ages, since they have sufficient flexibility to describe the differences and development of bilingual situations determined by specific historical conditions. [1]

# 1 Beginning of the Middle English History

In the Middle Ages, the tales of the brave and powerful King Arthur of England and his companions — the Knights of the Round Table-were widely known. Knights performed many feats in the fight against wizards, giants and other monsters. These tales formed the basis of many medieval poems and novels. Probably, Arthur really existed in the VI century, but he was not a king, but a leader of the Britons-the ancient inhabitants of the island. Arthur led the British resistance to the invasion of Britain from the continent by the Germanic Angles and Saxons, which began after the withdrawal of the Roman troops from the island. [2]

Britain was a possession of the Roman Empire from about the middle of the first century. Over the next four centuries, Roman culture greatly influenced British culture. The people who lived in Roman Britain were loyal to the Roman emperor, and he, in turn, provided protection for the borders. However, in the fifth century, the province began to be threatened. In 406, the Vandals, Alans, and Suevi began to move rapidly through the territory of Gaul. Whereupon the Britons, fearing an invasion, elected their emperor, Constantine. However, his campaign was a failure and the troops were defeated. Britain appealed to the Roman emperor, saying that she was still loyal to him. However, there were also difficulties in Rome at that time, and the province was left to its own devices. [3].

Soon after the independence of Britain, it could not resist the invasions of the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes and was conquered. As a result, seven independent kingdoms were founded on the territory of the former Roman province, which was united only at the end of the IX century under the leadership of Alfred the Great.

In the middle of the eighth century, England was threatened by the Vikings. In 865, they landed in East Anglia and its inhabitants, instead of fighting, paid tribute to the Vikings and provided everything necessary for the continuation of hostilities. York fell in March 867, and Nottingham a few months later. In 870, with renewed strength, the Viking army marched into Wessex. Having lost one king and nine earls by the end of the year, the conquerors decided to make peace. However, the Viking raids did not stop completely until 896.

For a time, England was ruled by Danish kings, but in 1042 the throne returned to the Saxon Edward the Confessor. However, after his death, the kingdom was invaded by the Normans under the leadership of William the Conqueror and remained in it for the next year. [2]

# The Norman Conquest

By the middle of the eleventh century, the feudal order was largely dominant in England, but the process of feudalization was not yet complete. A significant part of the peasants, especially in the north-east of the country, in the area of “Danish law” (“Denlo”), remained free, and the feudal dependent landholders had not yet merged into a single layer of serfs. The feudal estate and the feudal hierarchy have not yet taken a complete form and have not yet become widespread.

The completion of the feudalization process in England was associated with the Norman conquest of the second half of the XI century. At the head of the conquerors was the Duke of Normands, William. The desire to seize the spoils, to acquire new estates and serfs rallied around him not only the feudal lords of Normandy, but also many knights from other regions of France and even from Italy. The reason for the march on England was the duke's claim to the English throne, based on William's kinship with the English King Edward the Confessor, who died in 1066. William's claim was supported by the Pope. [4]

In September 1066, after crossing the English Channel, William landed with his army in the south of England. The Norman Duke's cavalry and infantry were more numerous and better armed than the army of the new King Harold of Anglo-Saxon, who had been chosen by the Witenagemot after Edward's death, consisting of his personal retinue and a hastily assembled peasant militia. The large feudal lords - the earls of Middle and North-East England - did not provide Harold with the necessary assistance. In the decisive battle near Hastings in October 1066, despite stubborn and courageous resistance, the Anglo-Saxons suffered a complete defeat. Harold fell in battle, and William, having captured London, became King of England — William I the Conqueror (1066-1087). [5]

But it took him and the Norman barons several years to subdue the whole country. In response to the mass confiscation of land from the Anglo-Saxons, accompanied by the enslavement of the peasants who still retained their freedom, a number of uprisings broke out. The largest peasant uprisings occurred in 1069 and 1071 in the north and north-east of the country — in “Denlo”. The conquerors savagely dealt with the rebellious peasants, burned entire villages, and killed the inhabitants. The flourishing York Valley and much of County Durham-the main areas of the rebellion-were turned into a desert and for several decades remained almost uninhabited. After the final conquest of the country, almost all the land possessions of the Anglo-Saxon nobility were taken away and given to the conquerors. Only the lowest stratum of Anglo-Saxon feudal lords — small-scale landowners-retained most of their holdings, but had to submit to the Norman “barons”, as they now began to call the large feudal lords in England. The middle and small feudal lords were then and later called knights in England. In the highest ecclesiastical positions, as in the secular administration, the Anglo-Saxons were replaced by Normans-natives of France. [4]

Thus, as a result of the conquest, the upper part of the ruling class was almost entirely renewed.

The distribution of land was carried out gradually, as it was confiscated, and the Norman barons fell into the hands of the lands located in the various counties of England. As a result, the possessions of many barons, although extensive, were scattered, which prevented the formation of large territorial principalities in England, independent of the royal power. About one-seventh of all the cultivated land William left to himself as the "domain of the crown". It also includes a significant part of the forests that were turned into hunting reserves. Peasants who dared to hunt in the royal forest were threatened with a terrible punishment — their eyes were gouged out.

Most of the cities were also in the King's domain. The possession of vast material resources was one of the essential conditions for a strong royal power in England. [5]

After the Norman dynasty, the Plantagenets came to power. The most famous king of this dynasty was Richard the Lionheart, but not for his internal affairs, but for his participation in the Crusades. The kings of the Plantagenet dynasty improved the state apparatus, carrying out numerous reforms. Henry II created a system of royal courts, and partially exempted the feudal lords from serving in the army. In return, they had to pay "shield money", which supported the regular army. [6]

In 1215, John the Landless, under pressure from the barons, adopted the Magna Carta. It consisted of 63 articles, which fixed the basic rights and privileges of barons. This was the first normative document in history, which fixed and guaranteed the rights of a certain group of the population. This was the first, very distant, but still a step towards human rights.

50 years after the Charter, in 1265, there was growing discontent with the king in England. In order for the king to take into account the interests of the population, the knights created the first class-representative body in Europe – the Parliament. There were representatives of the knights, clergy and burghers, the knights were chosen by all the free taxpayers, and the burghers-by the city government. Thus the Republican-Democratic elements appeared in England. At the same time, there was a complex conflict between the two authorities, which was resolved only at the end of the XVII century during the English Revolution. Then the parliamentary monarchy, which became famous all over the world, was established in England. [4]

# Approximate date of the earliest surviving texts in Middle English

A rich prose literature in the Wessex dialect has survived to this day. The earliest extant monuments are the glosses, which were written in the 8th century, but their number is not numerous. The bulk of written monuments in this dialect were created in the 10th-11th centuries.

On it was written the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" - the oldest part of the chronicle of the country.

In the Northumbrian dialect, runic inscriptions dating back to the 8th century were created. Only a few number of texts in this dialect have survived: “The Hymn of Caedmon (7th century), “The Death Song of Bede” (8th century), a translation of the Gospel (10th century). In Northumbria lived and worked Bede the Venerable (672-735), an outstanding writer, the author of more than 40 works, most of which are historical and theological in nature. He wrote in the Latin. Bede's early writings include manuals on grammar and spelling, writing poetry and oratory, and essays on history and chronology, the main of which are “On the Reckoning of Time” and “On the Six Ages of the World”. In the latter, Bede argues for the time from the Birth of Christ, and it is to him that we owe the universal introduction of this principle of chronology.

Bede wrote commentaries on the Gospel and on the works of the church fathers, treatises on natural history, and lives. The life of Saint Cuthbert, Bishop of Lindisfarne was written in verse (705-716) and in prose (before 721).

Bede wrote a "Church History of the Anglo People" in 5 books. It covers the period from the campaigns in Britain of Julius Caesar (55 and 54 BC) to the modern era of the author. "Histor" is written in an accessible language and is characterized by a consistent presentation. In the sections that relate to the 7th-8th centuries, this work is in many ways the only source on the history of England. This part of the "History" was created by Bede according to oral traditions. The previous period was described by him according to the works of his predecessors - Orosius and Gildes.

In the period between 731 and 766, Bede's contemporaries, perhaps with his participation, wrote a continuation of the "Church History" ("Continuation of the Trouble"). In the 9th century, under King Alfred the Great, the book of Bede was translated into Anglo-Saxon.

There are few written monuments in the Mercian and Kentish dialects. Hymns and translations of the Psalter (9th century) are preserved in the Mercian dialect, while translations of psalms and ancient legal documents are preserved in Kentish.

In the language of most written monuments, dialect features are mixed, they show features of both Wessex and English dialects. This is usually explained by the fact that although all the surviving poetic monuments date back to the 10th-11th centuries, when the Wessex dialect was essentially a common written language, they were created and first recorded in Northumbria, and later rewritten in Wessex. There are other explanations for the mixed nature of the poetic monuments. It is believed that there was a common literary language of Old English poetry and that this language differed from the prose language by the presence of different dialect features in it. [3]

# The University of Cambridge was formed by scholars from Oxford

However, Cambridge became world famous not because of its commercial importance and ancient churches, but because of the local university.

The history of the University of Cambridge began in 1209, when a group of Oxford students escaped from their alma mater, committing a series of outrages that ended with the death of several university teachers.

Arriving in Cambridge, the daredevils found shelter in St. Peter's Church. The students quickly settled down, settled down, and returned to their studies. A new academic community required a new building and Bishop Hugh de Balsham of Yale ordered the construction of the "Peter's House" next to the church, which later became the college of the same name - the first of the 31 colleges of the University of Cambridge.

The church of St. Peter, near which the college was built, collapsed shortly after the events described above, and the students built a new one in its place – the small church of St. Mary. In this church there is a monument to one of the members of the college – Godfrey Washington, whose descendant became the first president of the United States. The family coat of arms of Washington depicted stars, stripes and an eagle, which were later reflected in the American state symbols.

St Peter's College, the smallest of Cambridge's colleges, now has just 300 students-it is the smallest of all Cambridge University colleges. This college is proud of its brilliant graduates, including the inventor of the computer, Charles Babbage, and the brilliant chemist and physicist Henry Cavendish, who was the first to calculate the mass of the globe.

In 1231, King Henry III, having issued a law protecting scientists from the arbitrariness of local feudal lords and granting scientists the exclusive right to royal protection and education, allowed only permanent residents of the city, as well as students studying at the university, to live in Cambridge.

University students at that time used teaching methods similar to those of Italy and France. First, the "basic disciplines" - grammar, logic and rhetoric-were studied. Later, the list of subjects was supplemented with arithmetic, music, geometry and astronomy. After full completion of the training, students received bachelor's and master's degrees. There were no professors: the training was conducted by masters who studied the course and were recognized by their colleagues as specialists in teaching, which was reduced to reading and explaining texts. The exams were interviews in which candidates discussed a series of questions or theses with masters or senior students.

Given the vagueness of the title of "scholar", soon after the granting of royal privileges, it became necessary to prevent abuse of them. It was decided that students were required to confirm their bachelor's or master's degree in order to use the privileges. It was also desirable to note the stages of progress of the scientist, for which a special commission of masters, headed by the Chancellor, conferred various degrees, which were reflected in the change in the type of dress, hood and cap shape. Echoes of these traditions still exist in Cambridge today.

As the number of colleges and students grew, the university became an increasingly complex structure and needed to draw up its own rules-laws. The earliest known version of these laws, created in the middle of the thirteenth century, is kept in Rome.

The royal power helped the loyal university not only with money, but also with special decrees protecting scientists and giving the university the right to prosecute market speculators who "endangered the health of people, falsified food and alcoholic beverages, interrupted the supply of fresh water or deliberately infected them with the plague." In fact, the laws adopted by the university became mandatory not only for its students, but also for all citizens. [13]

The acquisition of these powers became a source of conflict between the city and the scientists, resulting from time to time in armed clashes and attacks on university property. The conflict began to fade only in the XIX century, but even today the attitude of the inhabitants of the outskirts of Cambridge to the university is not always characterized by loyalty and tolerance.

Despite various obstacles, the university was actively developing. In 1441, King Henry VI personally laid the foundation stone of the building of the next college, called "King's College". The fountain in the courtyard of this college depicts Henry and symbolizes his "Determination and Will": to clear the place for construction, the king ordered the demolition of about a quarter of the city…

Initially, all places at King's College, Cambridge were reserved for graduates of the privileged Eton School. Over time, this tradition was abandoned, and now about three-quarters of British students at Kings College are graduates of ordinary schools.

The Cathedral of King's College, Cambridge is the most famous building of the university and one of the most beautiful Catholic cathedrals. The main attraction of the building is the perfectly preserved medieval stained glass windows. During the Second World War, the stained glass window was dismantled and placed in a special storage to protect it from enemy air raids.

But the richest and most famous Cambridge college is founded in 1548 by Henry VIII Trinity College (Trinity-trinity), the most famous student of which was Isaac Newton. In front of the college building is an apple tree, grown from a seed planted in 1954, brought from the home of Sir Isaac's family.

 In 1805, George Gordon Byron also entered Trinity, who at first spoke very negatively about Cambridge and even tried to quit his studies. However, after writing several essays and being surprised to find that his works made him extremely popular among students, he decided to stay. In the aftermath, Byron never regretted this decision. [14]

Next to Trinity is St John's College, one of the largest colleges of the University of Cambridge. Within the walls of this college, under the guidance of 120 teachers, about 800 students study. The college was founded in 1511 on the site of St. John's Hospital with the money of Lady Margaret Biofort, whose coat of arms adorns the main entrance. Lady Margaret was married at the age of 12 and two years later gave birth to a son, who later became King Henry VII of England. A graduate of St. John's College was the great English poet William Wadsworth.

Over time, university colleges and faculties spread throughout the city, so that in modern Cambridge, passing through any of the streets, it is impossible not to pass by one of the university buildings.

Cambridge's first Protestant college was, founded under Queen Elizabeth I in 1584, Emmanuel College, which was instrumental in the founding of the English colonies in North America. From the beginning of the 17th century, Emmanuel became the center of Puritan ideas. Many of its graduates emigrated to New England to be able to practice their religion without being harassed by the state. These colonists largely shaped the religious structure of the inhabitants of the future United States.

One of the students who left was John Harvard, who emigrated to America in 1637. A year later, he died of tuberculosis, leaving all his money and books to a school in New Town, Massachusetts. In his honor, the school was renamed Harvard University, and New Town was renamed Cambridge.

The first women's college was founded in 1873 in the nearby village of Girton, Cambridge. Students were trained there exclusively in the presence of older companions (usually relatives). The lecturers had to come to Girton from Cambridge specifically. In 1875, the women's College of Newnam was opened, whose students (also accompanied by mentors) already attended lectures shared with male students. In 1881, women were allowed to take the final exams, but only in 1948 did they achieve academic degrees.

Between 1972 and 1988, one after another, the colleges became mixed, and women now occupy about a third of the undergraduate places at Cambridge. The last all-male college of the university was St. Magdalene's College. Students and professors, in protest against emancipation, wore black mourning armbands on their sleeves, and the college flag was half-lowered.

The level of research of the university staff is marked by sixty Nobel Prizes. The University's Development Department and its associated charitable organization are constantly looking for funds around the world to organize new departments. Many modern educational and residential buildings are being built and designed, such as the Law Faculty building and the Institute of Judicial Administration, opened in March 1996 by Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II. [13]

# 2 Late 13th century

After it became clear that the House of Anjou was mired in the struggle against Aragon, Venice and Genoa were able to return to their natural pattern of mutual relations.

The reason for the breach of the peace was the following events (Norwich):

When on Friday, May 18, 1291 the Mameluke armies stormed Acre and killed almost all its inhabitants, Venice was hit harder than its commercial rivals. With the destruction of the Overseas Territory, Venice simultaneously lost not only its most valuable markets, but also a significant part of the warehouses for the caravans going to the East. In spite of the Pope's vigorous attempts to launch a new crusade and the threats to any Christian state that dared to deal with the infidels, Venice almost immediately entered into negotiations with the Sultan, and he subsequently granted her very favorable terms. However, in the near future, its trade in Central Asia was in serious danger. Everything now depended on the northern route through the Black Sea ports and the Crimea, and this again pitted Venice against her old enemy, Genoa.

Genoa, with its growing trading posts in Galata on the Bosphorus, still dominated the region... Crimean Kaffa (modern Feodosia) grew grain, extracted salt, fished, and also sold furs and slaves from the Novgorod land... In 1270, the two republics were forced to sign a truce agreement, then twice extended it, but in 1291, before the fall of Acre, interrupted its action. An extension was out of the question this time, with Genoa intending to maintain its control, and Venice equally determined not to allow it.

Neither side was in a hurry to declare war. The preparations lasted three years. Venice entered into an alliance with Pisa... Finally, on October 4, 1294, the fleet sailed... [Which was unsuccessful for Venice] ...The defeat seems to have brought Venice out of its lethargy... In 1298, the Venetians suffered another crushing defeat at the hands of the Genoese off the Dalmatian coast near Curzola... The Venetians, tired as they were, were even now preparing another fleet of a hundred ships and recruiting Catalan mercenaries to replace their dead rowers...

The peace treaty was signed in May 1299. The third-party was Matteo Visconti, who recently came to power in Milan. The treaty did not humiliate any of the parties, since it was not about the victor and the vanquished.

Like any war between a European hegemon and a European sub-hegemon, this war was bound to become a "world war".

And indeed, in 1294-1297, a new Anglo-French war breaks out, as a result of which the French capture part of Guienne.

Relations between England and France were almost cloudless. In 1286, Edward even made a vassal oath to the new King of France, Philip IV, for his possessions in his territory.

But then the clouds thickened, and in 1294, English pirates suddenly took and burned La Rochelle.

After the fall of Acre, Edward changed his role in international relations from that of a diplomat to that of an antagonist.

It's just that Edward's temper has deteriorated. Things happen.

In response, Philippe declared Gascony confiscated. Then Edward formed an anti-French alliance. While the English troops were advancing on Gascony, Edward formed alliances with the princes of the Netherlands, Germany, and Burgundy, who were to attack the French from the north. These alliances proved unstable. At the same time, Edward faced problems at home, both in Wales and in Scotland. It was not until August 1297 that he was able to sail for Flanders, but his allies had already been defeated. German support never materialized and Edward was forced to seek peace. His marriage to the French Princess Margaret in 1299 ended the war. In the same year, 1299, Edward made peace with France.

It was purely by chance that this peace was concluded in the same year as the peace of Venice with Genoa.

At the same time, a conflict broke out in Scotland.

If the reader remembers, during the XIII century, England almost completely subdued Scotland, taking advantage of the fact that France, for various reasons, did not support Scotland. First, France fell under the influence of Venice (before 1223), then the world was in a stupor from Friedrich Hohenntaufen (before 1250), then the House of Anjou quarreled with Genoa because of the ambitions of Charles of Anjou, then Venice and Genoa just had a good mood (1270-1291) and Europe had a little rest from the conflicts.

Meanwhile, England (or rather, someone with the hands of England) all this time continued to put gentle but relentless pressure on Scotland. In the end, by the end of the century, Scotland seems to have finally fallen under the control of London.

After the death of Queen Margaret of Scotland in 1290, leaving no direct heir, King Edward personally chose the new King of Scotland and appointed (1292) John I of Balliol. [7]

# 2.1 Edward II

Edward was born on 25 April 1284 at Caernarvon Castle (Gwyneth) in the north of Wales. He is sometimes called Edward of Carnarvon by his birthplace. At that time, Wales had been under English rule for less than a year, and perhaps Carnarvon was deliberately chosen as the birthplace of another royal son: it was a symbolically important settlement for the Welsh, which had existed since Roman Britain, as well as the center of the new royal administration in the northern part of the region.

King Edward II of England was also the Duke of Aquitaine. This meant that, despite the fact that Aquitaine had English laws and English soldiers, the king constantly had to travel to France and recognize the French king as his master. In Aquitaine itself, many local landowners turned to the French parliament, rather than the English court, to solve problems.

For the most part, all cases, unsurprisingly, were decided in favor of France. One by one, villages and landholdings came under direct French control. In the end, it all came together in the Aquitaine city of Saint-Sardo.

The local monks wanted to turn the village into a border fort for the French king, while other landowners wanted to remain under English rule. Then the local governor burned Saint-Sardo and killed his sergeant. The French accused the British of the crime. The British ambassadors tried to resolve the situation, making various promises and tirelessly apologizing, but saying that they would solve the problem themselves.

The French king saw this as an opportunity for himself and invaded Aquitaine. The British were not prepared for this, and the war was over in a month and a half. Most of the duchy was in the hands of the French, and the English suffered several painful defeats. Diplomatic setbacks turned many landowners in England against the king, leading to his death from the 1327 plot.

Lasting from 1337 to 1453, the Hundred Years ‘ War gave the English some of the most famous victories in their country’s history. At Crecy, Poitiers, and Agincourt, the English longbow shooter proved to be the most effective soldier in late Medieval Europe. But the war itself was a decisive victory for the French, ending England’s four-century influence on the continent.

The victories at Crecy and Poitiers created a false impression among the British and forced them to invest in a war in which the enemy significantly outnumbered them in manpower and other resources. Agincourt was a glorious victory for the English, but before that there were thirty years of their defeats in every battle with the French.

The last battle of the war was the Battle of Castillon. The French army pretended to retreat, and the English, led by the impulsive Lord Talbot, pursued them enthusiastically. The British were ambushed, where the French artillery, one of the best in Europe, opened fire from fortified positions located in the French camp, which the enemy considered abandoned.

A cavalry charge followed, destroying the British army. The British casualties numbered in the thousands, while the French had only about a hundred men killed. The English Civil War, known as the War of the Roses, made any continuation of the war on the continent impossible. King Edward II of England was also the Duke of Aquitaine. This meant that, despite the fact that Aquitaine had English laws and English soldiers, the king constantly had to travel to France and recognize the French king as his master. In Aquitaine itself, many local landowners turned to the French parliament, rather than the English court, to solve problems.

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# 2.2 Edward III

Edward III (13.11.1312, Windsor, -21.6. 1377, Shin, sovr. Richmond), king since 1327. From the Plantagenet dynasty. He has ruled independently since 1330. Taking advantage of the end of the Capetian dynasty in France, E. III, who was the maternal grandson of the French King Philip IV the Fair, laid claim to the French throne and declared war on France in 1337 (see the Hundred Years ' War of 1337-1453). After the plague of 1348 (the so-called "black death"), which caused an increase in the demand for labor and a certain increase in wages, e. III issued in the interests of the feudal lords a number of laws aimed at forcing them to work for wages that existed before the plague. In an effort to subordinate the English Church to the royal power, he forbade the transfer of the affairs of the English subjects to the papal curia (1353) and refused to pay the pope some monetary levies. Since 1371, the decrepit E. III actually handed over all state affairs to his son John of Gaunt.

First period of the Hundred Years' War

In 1337, King Edward III declares war on France. But the next two years pass without military action: the parties conclude agreements with the allies, seek money for military needs and raise armies.

The British army consisted of professionals-knights or peasants, but with combat experience. The French army consisted mainly of citizens. There were also mercenaries, but they were a minority.

One of the greatest naval battles in history and the first major battle of the Hundred Years ' War took place on 24 June 1340 in Sluys Bay near the city of Bruges in Flanders.

The French fleet was commanded by Hugo Chiere and Nicolas Beguchet. Anlian — Edward III himself, who was wounded in this battle.

The victory was won by the British. Kieret was beheaded, and Beguchet was hanged. The dead on the French side are 20 thousand people, out of 200 ships, only 20-30 managed to escape.

In the summer of the same year, Edward III besieged Tournai for two months, but he failed to capture the city.

The French feudal lord who was exiled from France, Robert III d’Artois leads the combined Anglo-Flemish forces to Saint-Omer, where the battle takes place on July 26, 1340. The British failed to capture this city as well. They lost a large number of soldiers (8,000 killed, mostly Flemings) and were forced to retreat.

Edward III agrees to negotiate with Philip IV. On September 25, 1340, the parties hold a formal meeting and conclude a temporary truce that will last until 1345.

Edward III did not give up his claim to the French throne. However, he did not intend to give the Duchy of Guienne to the French.

On August 12, 1346, another significant battle takes place near Crecy (a city in northeastern France). The armies were led by the kings themselves-Edward III and Philip IV.

The victory was won by the British army. The English archers inflicted great damage on the French cavalry.

It is believed that after this battle, the knights were no longer used as the main force of the army.

In 1347, Edward III besieged the fortress city of Calais. Philip IV's attempts to break through to the city were repulsed by the British. And after 11 months, the city fell.

The English king turns the city into a strategic point for his army. Thus, the British consolidate their position on the continent.

In 1355, the son of Edward III, Edward Prince of Wales, nicknamed "The Black Prince", becomes the commander of the army in Hyena. His army marches inland to the east, seizing land and ravaging cities.

On September 19, 1356, two armies-the Black Prince and John the Good — fought to the southeast of Poitiers.

The victory is won by the British army. The King of France is captured. He is forced to conclude a truce on humiliating terms for France. All the captured lands remain with the British. The king himself would remain in English captivity for the rest of his life (1364).

The French king is succeeded by his son Charles V the Wise (1364-1380).

Second period of the Hundred Years' War

England enters into an exhausting war with Scotland, which, however, did not bring any results, except for losses — monetary and human.

And in 1389, the English King Richard II and the French King Charles VI sign a truce for three years. Richard marries Charles VI's daughter Isabella of Valois and seeks to prevent the war from continuing.

But in 1399, Richard II was deposed. The English throne is occupied by his cousin Henry IV (1399-1413), who belonged to the Lancastrian dynasty.

For several years (until 1414), England and France are busy with their own internal problems.

The King of France, Charles VI, is increasingly experiencing bouts of insanity, which become the reason for a new struggle for power. This time between two duchies (and dynasties) - Orleans and Burgundy.

Third period of the Hundred Years' War

In 1422, Henry V unexpectedly dies, and his son Henry VI, who was 10 months old at the time, becomes King of England. He is assigned a regent (temporary ruler) — his uncle Duke J. Bedford.

In the same year, Charles VI the Mad also dies. These events allow the heir Charles (the future Charles VII the Victor) to re-claim the French throne and try to take it away from the British.

The truce is canceled again. England and France once again enter into a confrontation.

The Duke of Bedford launches an offensive in northwestern France. However, a series of battles in 1423-1428 did not reveal the winner.

The future French King Charles VII The winner appoints fourteen-year-old Jeanne d'Arc of the Commander-in-Chief of the French army.

At the end of April 1429, Jeanne d'Ark leads the army to Orleans and in four days removes the siege from the city and drives the English out of it.

In the same year, 1429, the coronation of Charles VII the Victor takes place; he takes the French throne.

Jeanne liberates a number of other cities: Jargeau, Maine, Beaugency, Troyes, Chalons, Paté. But in 1430, while trying to liberate Paris, she is wounded.

In 1430, she was captured by the Burgundians and surrendered to the English for 10,000 livres. They accused her of making a deal with the devil, called her a witch, and sentenced her to be burned, which happened a year after her capture.

In 1436, the Duke of Burgundy besieged Calais, which at that time belonged to the English. But not having achieved success, he was forced to end the siege. A year later, the French King Charles VII captures Paris.

In 1444, the parties conclude a truce for 5 years-until 1449. This time the French spend on strengthening their army. Since 1449, the French army has continued to liberate the cities. At the end of 1449, they captured Brittany, and from 1449 to 1454. liberate Normandy.

Results and consequences

The war ended 116 years later with a French victory. The British army was driven out of France. Of the captured cities, she managed to hold only Calais.

England lost not only its territory, but also its influence on the continent.

A peace treaty between France and England was never concluded. Therefore, the English rulers did not stop claiming the French throne.

The French knight cavalry showed their shortcomings in the battles against the English archers. This led to the fact that the knights gradually ceased to be part of the army.

# 3 Late 15th century

On August 30, 1483, King Louis XI died, leaving the throne to his 13-year-old son Charles VIII, whose regent, according to the last will of the king, was to be the elder sister — Anne de Beaujeu. However, this decision was challenged by the closest male relative of the dynasty — Duke Louis of Orleans. He declared that the king should be placed in the castle of Amboise under his care. Anna agreed, on the condition that the castle garrison would swear allegiance to her. Thus, the claims of the "Orleans" were reflected, but the situation could not be fully normalized.

At the States-General of Tours in January 1484, the Duke again voiced his claims, but the States decided to establish a regency council headed by Anne. In response, in April, Louis d'Orleans went to the Duke of Brittany, Francis II, with whom on November 23 he concluded a contract that provided for his marriage to the latter's heiress, Anne of Brittany. At the same time, a request was sent to the Pope to annul the previous marriage of the Duke of Orleans with the king's sister Jeanne.

The treaty between the two dukes served as the basis for the civil war. Soon a coalition of feudal lords was formed, called the "League of the Common Good". It includes:

Lorraine Rene II, Duke of Lorraine;

Brittany Francis II, Duke of Brittany;

Coat of arms of Olean Louis II, Duke of Orleans;

Charles of Angouleme, Count of Angouleme;

Albre Alain, Seigneur d'Albre;

Chalon Jean IV de Chalon-Arles, Prince of Orange.

First stage (1484-1485)

Returning to the court, Louis d'Orleans tried to capture the young king, but the regent strengthened the royal guard in time and the attempt failed. The Duke was placed under house arrest.

On January 17, 1485, he managed to escape from arrest, but it was much more difficult to leave Paris. On February 5, the duke arrived in the possession of his cousin-Alencon, from where he apologized to the king, hoping for a reconciliation. However, the royal troops nevertheless occupied the city of Evreux to prevent the flight of the head of the opposition to Brittany.

Then the duke changed his plan — he went to Orleans, from where on August 30 he announced the non-recognition of the power of Anne de Beaujeu. When the king's army approached Orleans, the duke slipped away to Beaugency, but was soon forced to leave from there. On 9 August, Francis of Brittany proposed a truce, which was signed on 2 November 1485 at Bourges. The term of the truce was set at 1 year.

Second stage (1486-1488)

The armistice was used by the League to prepare for a full-scale civil war. First of all, an agreement was reached with the newly elected King of Germany, Maximilian I of Habsburg, to whom, in exchange for assistance, the Duke of Brittany promised the hand of his daughter Anne. Nevertheless, the "League" suffered its first losses — Rene II, Duke of Lorraine, left it. Already in June 1486 — without waiting for the end of the truce — Maximilian invaded Picardy, but was pushed back by the troops of Marshal Philippe de Crevecoeur. In the south, with the support of Castile, the revolt was raised by Alain d'Albret.

Richard III's attitude to the conflict was complex. On the one hand, the Bretons helped Henry Tudor during his rebellion. On the other hand, the British and the Bretons had a common enemy — France. The York dynasty came to power under the slogan of continuing the war against France, and Richard himself, even when he was the Duke of Gloucester, was considered the most consistent supporter of military action. In addition, from 1483, the French king stopped the annual payments to the English treasury established by the treaty between Edward IV and Louis XI. Because of this, the English king constantly felt straitened in finances.

The idea of war was extremely popular in English society, so Richard III, who came to power not in the most legitimate way, could count on universal support for a military expedition to the continent.

Richard had no time to prepare for war — in the summer of 1488, the main forces of France entered Brittany under the command of the talented commander Louis de La Tremouille. The King therefore gave orders to the Lord Constable, Thomas Howard, Duke of Norfolk, who had distinguished himself at the Battle of

Bosworth, to land in Brittany with such force as he could muster in the meantime. The main army, led by the king, would arrive later.

Third stage (1489-1492)

Through the mediation of the Dowager Duchess Margaret of Burgundy-the sister of Richard III-an agreement was reached between the Yorks and the Habsburgs to wage a joint war against France. Maximilian I recognized the right of Richard III to the French throne and to the rejection of Normandy and Guienne. Richard, in turn, promised after the overthrow of Charles VIII to transfer to Maximilian the territories of Burgundy, Franche-Comte, Picardy and Champagne, as well as to grant independence to the Duchy of Brittany.

On September 9, 1488, Francis II died — his daughter Anne became Duchess of Brittany. Maximilian immediately asked for her hand in marriage, referring to the treaty with the Breton nobility. However, his forces were distracted by the conflict with the cities of Flanders. His strength was not enough, he had to seek help from his father-Emperor Frederick III, Duke of Saxony and King of England. Only on July 13, 1489, at the Battle of Dixmunde, the Anglo-German army defeated the Dutch rebels, which allowed them to fully concentrate on the war with France.

Consequences of the war

The war halted the process of centralization of France — some regions, like Brittany, gained de facto independence, while others (like Orleans and Albreux) gained significant autonomy. The king was forced to build relations with the feudal lords much more carefully.

The Habsburgs, despite the loss of Franche-Comté, acquired Brittany, which in the future created an additional threat to Paris from the west.

For England, territorial acquisitions were insignificant. Much more important was the payment by France of a pension of 50,000 — this money, as well as the profits received by the nobles as a result of the ransom of prisoners, allowed them to pay off the debts that the English crown had accumulated over the years 1483-1492. In addition, there was a surplus in the treasury, which was used in particular to finance the expedition of Columbus.

The war had an impact on the development of tactics-artillery showed itself as a branch of the army that is able to decide the outcome of battles, and in the future, all the monarchs sought to have an artillery park and professional gunners in the army.

The forces of France were considerably undermined by the war — in the future, the king did not dare to enter the war against Naples, fearing a new conflict with England and the Holy Roman Empire. [10]

# 3.1 The Great Vowel Shift

From the moment of its birth to the present day, the English language has undergone changes, primarily related to the borrowing of words and phonetics, which have influenced the rules of reading.

Historically, the British Isles were inhabited by Celtic tribes, but their dialect is almost not preserved in the modern language. Only a few words trace their roots back to their ancestors:

E. g. whiskey (irl. miscue beathadh - "living water")

The immediate progenitors of the English people are the Germanic tribes of the Saxons, Jutes, Angles and Frisians, who entered the territory of Britain in 449. The words of this period have common Germanic roots. These words are associated with nature, the sea, and everyday affairs. Being pagans the Germans filled the language with their own meaning: [11]

e. g. silk

sun from "sunno"

hand from "handus"

Saturday "day of Saturn"

moon from "mon"

Monday ''day of Moon''

In the middle of the XI century, Britain was conquered by the Normans. From this time in the history of the people begins the era of the three languages. The language of the aristocracy, the courts became French, the language of science remained Latin, and the common people continued to speak Anglo-Saxon.

E.g. court

servant

guard

prince

government

village

army

victory

religion

chapel

prayer

city

The artisans who lived in the village retained English names, while the urban ones acquired a French nature: butcher, mason, tailor.

The animals are called by English words, but their meat is called by French words: beef , mutton, pork, veal.

All this greatly influenced the mutual relations. The result of this union was the birth of the modern English language.

Fundamental changes in phonetics occurred later. The Great Vowel Shift divided the English language into two.

The sounds were not just transformed, they began to sound different.

For example, the Old English sound /ɛː / became [eː], then turned into [iː] (as in the word beak - beak). In a few words that start with a group of consonants, the sound has become different — [eɪ] (as in the word break).

The sound /eː/ turned into [iː] (as in feet).

The /oː/ sound turned into [uː] (as in boot, book).

Borrowing continued, but did not change the pronunciation dramatically. At various times, purists (supporters of a fanatical desire for the purity of the language, opposing foreign language elements) have tried to purify the English language from foreign words, replacing them with Anglo-Saxon ones. However, this was not successful.

Formed by the 17th century, the English language retained the rules of Middle English or "borrowed" spelling, which largely explains the "discrepancy" of what was seen with what was heard. [12]

# Conclusion

Within a century and a half or two, up to two million Normans moved to England from the continent. Their language, having been lexically influenced by English, became an Anglo-Norman dialect, which existed until the end of the 14th century. After the Norman conquest, the country became bilingual: the ruling classes spoke Norman, and the local population retained their native language. English of this period existed in the form of four regional dialects: Northern, East-central, West-central, and Kentish. The English orthography underwent a reform carried out by the Norman scribes, who ordered it according to the norms of the French language. During all the following centuries, up to our time, the spelling has changed very little and now represents a tradition that was fixed in Middle English.

In Middle English, the processes of disintegration of the inflectional system continue: the differences between the types of declension of names are consistently erased, which leads to their complete disappearance. The functions of cases take on intensively developing prepositional combinations, and a strict direct order of words in a sentence is established. The differences between the classes of strong verbs disappear, and many of them move into a weak paradigm. In fact, the conjugation system disappears, and the synthetic forms are replaced by analytical ones. Analytical constructions of the passive voice, the continued aspect, the perfect, and the continued perfect are developed. The nature of the English language grows from synthetic to analytical. One of the most important reasons for these morphological changes is the reduction of unstressed endings. The beginning of the processes of reduction of unstressed endings was laid back in the era of the Germanic community, when the stress was fixed on the root syllable. G. Sweet called the Middle English period a period of reduced endings.

In the Middle English period, the etymological character of the dictionary also changes dramatically. In the 13th-14th centuries, a huge number of French loanwords were added to the English language, relating to all semantic spheres, without exception. Along with significant words, prefixes and suffixes are borrowed, as well as some service parts of speech.

Throughout the Middle English period, Latin remains the language of the church and education; the language of the court, parliament, business correspondence, and legislation was the Anglo-Norman dialect. The English dialects of the Anglo-Saxon population existed equally, and an extensive literature was written in them. For example, in the east-central - the continuation of the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle", rhymed novels, didactic works; in the west-central-chivalric novels, the lives of saints, the satirical poem "The Vision of Peter the Plowman", etc.

Since the middle of the 13th century, the sphere of use of the English language has been expanding, and state documents are being compiled in it. The English language penetrates into the judicial system, the school, and parliament; it is also assimilated by the Norman nobility. Among the English dialects, the London dialect begins to occupy a special place. London was not only the political center of the country, it was also the largest economic center. Its dialect base was the east-central dialect, supplemented by a number of features of the south-western dialect. In the London dialect, the norms of other dialects were also concentrated, since the population consisted of representatives from all the provinces of the country. The spread of London written norms was facilitated by the work of Geoffrey Chaucer (1340-1400) and the translation of the Bible by J. R. R. Tolkien. Wycliffe (1320 – 1384). [3]

The London dialect rises above all other dialects, which since the 15th century have become unwritten, and becomes a national language. The question of normalization of the written literary language was raised when W. Caxton introduced printing in 1475-1477. With regard to spelling, Caxton cemented the tradition developed by the Norman scribes. This tradition was largely obsolete by the end of the 15th century, and there were discrepancies between pronunciation and spelling.

At the end of the 15th century, an absolute Tudor monarchy was established in England. The centralization of state power is also accompanied by the opposition of the state national language to local dialects. [10]

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