

Master1 British Civilisation Course

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THE BRITISH POLITICAL INSTITUTIONS

Introduction

The term Britain is normally used for the sake of brevity. Britain's full political title for international purposes is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. It is part of that group of islands, described geographically as the British Isles, which lie off the Northwest coast of continental Europe. The main islands of England, Scotland, and Wales form the largest island, and are known politically as Great Britain. Northern Ireland shares the second largest island with the republic of Ireland (or Eire) which is politically independent and not part of the United Kingdom. Other smaller Islands such as Anglesey, the Orkneys, the Shetland Islands, Hebrides, the Isle of Wight and the isles of Silly, are also included in the British political union. But islands like the Isle of Man in the Irish Sea and the Islands off the French coast are not part of the UK although they are members of the commonwealth. They are self-governing Crown Dependencies which have a special relationship with the British Crown but possess their own legislatures, legal systems, and administrative structures. However, the British government as a royal representative is responsible for their defense and international relations and could interfere if good administration is not maintained.

The Political Institutions

The history of British politics over the 800 past years has been one of curbing monarch's former supreme power, and vesting that authority in parliament as the legal voice of the people. This struggle has produced bitter conflicts as well as slowly evolving political institutions. The original structures were inevitably monarchical, aristocratic, and non-democratic. These have been gradually adapted to the requirements of parliamentary sovereignty, changing social conditions and the mass democracy of today. However, the roles of the institutions are still vigorously debated in contemporary Britain. British governments are frequently accused of being too secretive, too centralized, and insufficiently responsive to the wider needs of the country. It is usually argued that parliament is executive. It is felt that political power has shifted overwhelmingly to the sitting government and to the Prime Minister with in the cabinet. This view suggests that authority in the British governmental system now rests with the prime minister, as it had once belonged exclusively to the monarch. Let us have a historical retrospective of the development of British politics.

In Anglo-Norman England, between 1066 and 1215, the monarch had absolute power until the French-Norman barons united against the dictatorial rule of King John. They forced him to sign Magna Carta in 1215. Although this document was initially intended to protect the aristocracy it is one of the few British constitutional papers that came to be regarded as a corner stone of British liberties. It restricted the monarch's powers, forced him to take advice, promoted a non-royal influence in national affairs, stipulated that no citizen could be punished or kept in prison without a fair trial Later monarchs tried to ignore Magna Carta, but could not succeed initially against the

military strength of aristocracy. In 1265, Simon de Montfort called England's first parliament which was composed of the nobility and commoners. This was followed in 1295 by the model parliament which was to serve as an example for future structures. Its two sections consisted of the Lords and Bishops who were chosen by the monarch and the commons which comprised elected male representatives. These two units gradually moved further and eventually evolved into the present parliamentary division between the House of Lords and the House of Commons. However, the combined parliament of aristocrats and commoners was too large in the thirteenth century to rule the country effectively. A large Privy Council was created which was really an expansion of the succeeding centuries. This body was to become the dominant ruling government outside parliament until it also gave way to the present structures in the late-18th and early 19th centuries. Although, these early developments did give parliament some limited powers against the monarch, there was return to royal dominance in Tudor England from 1485. The nobility had been weakened by wars and internal conflicts, and Tudor monarchs deliberately chose non-aristocratic landed gentry as members of their privy councils. The nobility were often excluded from policy-making and the landed gentry became dependent upon royal patronage. Consequently, Tudor monarchs summoned Parliament only when they needed to raise money.

Parliament began to show more resistance to the monarchy under the Stuart succession from 1603 by using its weapon of financial control. It was influenced by the gentry who had now become more independent, had expanded economically, and had a majority in the House of Commons. Parliament began to refuse royal requests

for money and eventually forced Charles I to sign the petition of Rights in 1628 which further restricted the monarch's powers and was intended to prevent him from raising taxes without Parliament consent. Charles I tried to ignore these developments until he was obliged to summon Parliament for finance. Parliament again refused the request.

Realizing that he could not control parliament, Charles next failed in his attempt to arrest parliamentary leaders in the House of Commons itself. Because of this episode, the monarch was in future prohibited from entering the House of Commons. Charles' rejection of developing political ideals provoked anger against the Crown and eventually a Civil War broke out in 1642. The mainly protestant Parliamentarians under Oliver Cromwell won the military struggle against the largely catholic Royalists. Charles I was beheaded in 1649, the monarchy was abolished and England was made a republic under the Cromwell's (1649-60). During the republican period, Parliament consisted only of the House of Commons, which met every three years.

However, Cromwellian military rule was harsh and increasingly unpopular, so that most people wanted the restoration of the monarchy. The two houses of parliament were re-established, and in 1660 they restored the Stuart Charles II to the throne. Initially, Charles co-operated with parliament, but eventually his financial needs, his belief in the divine right of kings to rule without opposition, and his support of the Catholic cause lost him popular and parliamentary backing. Parliament, then, ended his expensive wars, forced him to sign the Test Act of 1673 which excluded Catholics and Protestant dissenters from holding

public office and passed the Habeas Corpus Act in 1679 which stipulated that no citizen could be imprisoned without a fair and speedy trial.

In addition to this growing power of parliament against the monarch, the seventeenth century also saw the beginning of more organized political parties. These derived largely from the ideological and religious conflicts of the civil War. Two groups dominated the political scene. This new situation gave rise to the future British two-party system, in which political power, like the pendulum, shifted between two main parties. The Whigs were mainly Cromwellian Protestants and gentry who refused to accept the Catholic James II as successor to Charles II and who wanted religious freedom for all Protestants. The Tories generally supported royalist beliefs namely the divine right of kings and helped Charles II to secure James's right to succeed him.

But James II did little to appease the political tensions raised by successors. He ruled without parliament, ignored its laws, and tried to repeal the Test Act.

His manipulations forced his Tory allies to join the Whigs in inviting the Protestant William of Orange to intervene. Supported by Dutch military help, William arrived in England in 1688. James fled to France and William succeeded to the throne. Since no bloodshed was involved, this event has been called the Glorious or Bloodless Revolution. William's arrival at the head of the British State, as some modern historians have thought, brought some remarkable changes to British Constitution and politics. Indeed, William III became Britain's first constitutional monarch, and because of conditions imposed upon him, it was in

future practically impossible for the monarch to reign without the consent of parliament.

A series of Acts at this time laid the foundations for later political and constitutional developments. The Declaration of Rights in 1689 tried to establish basic civil liberties, and prevented the monarch from the making of laws or raising an army without parliament's approval. The Act of Settlement in 1701 gave religious freedom to all protestants, and stipulated that all future English monarchs had to be Protestant. A Triennial Act established that parliament was to be called every three years.

The Glorious Revolution effectively abolished the Monarch's claim of divine right. It also attempted in practice to arrange a division of powers between an executive branch (the monarch through the government of the Privy Council) a legislative branch (both houses of parliament and formally the monarch), and the judiciary (a legal body independent from monarch and parliament). This division of power in which the legislature was supposed to control the executive, evolved slowly into its modern counterparts. Parliamentary power continued to grow gradually in the early 18th century, initially because the Hanoverian George I lacked interest in English affairs of state. He also mistrusted the Tories with their Catholic sympathies and appointed Whig ministers such as Robert Walpole to his privy council. Eventually, Walpole became Chief Minister, Leader of the Whig Party, and head of the Whig majority in the Commons, which was composed of wealthy land and property owners. Walpole's control of political power enabled him to increase parliamentary influence, and he has been called Britain's first

Prime Minister. But, such control was not absolute and later monarchs sought a return to royal dominance.

However, the American Revolution and its Declaration of independence in 1776 resulted in the weakening of both personal and royal authority of King George III who was obliged to appoint William Pitt the Younger as his Tory Chief Minister and it was under Pitt that the office of Prime Minister really developed. But, although parliamentary control grew in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, there was still no widespread democracy in Britain. Political authority was now in the hands of land owners and merchants in Parliament, and the vast majority of the people did not possess the vote. Bribery and corruption were common, with the buying of those votes which did exist and the sale of public offices. The Tories were against electoral reform, as were the Whigs initially. But the country was now rapidly increasing its population and developing economically and industrially, so that it became imperative to undertake reforms. The Whigs extended voting to the rising middle class in the First Reform Act 1832. The Tory Disraeli later gave the vote to men with property and a certain income. The large majority of the working class were consequently unrepresented in Parliament because they had no votes. It was only in 1884 the Whig Gladstone gave the franchise to all male adults. But most women had to wait until 1928 for full democracy to be established in Britain.

The main elements of modern British government developed in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and were based on the 1688 Revolution and its division of powers. Ministers gradually became responsible to the Commons rather than to the monarch. A growing collective responsibility meant that the y

all shared joint responsibility for policies and acts of government, in addition to their individual responsibility. The prime Ministership developed from the monarch's Chief Minister as First among equals to eventually the leadership of all ministers. The ministers and the government belonged to the majority party in the House of Commons. The largest minority party became the official opposition striving, by its party manifesto and its performance in the Commons and the country, to become the next government chosen by the people.

The growth of more sophisticated and organized political parties in the nineteenth century was conditioned by changing social and economic factors. These produced the modern struggle between opposing political ideas as represented by the political parties.

The Tories, who also became known as the Conservatives around 1830, had been a dominant force in the British politics since the eighteenth century. They believed in established values and the preservation of traditions, supported business and commerce, had strong links with the Church of England and the liberal professions, and were opposed to what they perceived as radical ideas. The Whigs, however, were developing into a more progressive force. They wanted social reform and economic freedom without government restrictions. In the period following the parliamentary reforms of 1832, the Whigs were changing into what later became the Liberal Party. They were to create an enlightened programme of liberalism in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The Liberal Party has always been a mixture of people and ideas, often held together by the basic principle of utilitarian reform (or the greatest happiness for the greatest number of people).

But, a more radical wing had emerged during the nineteenth century. It had formed links with the growing Labour movement, and wanted greater social, political and economic reform. A split within the Liberal Party occurred at the end of the nineteenth century, and many radicals left the party. In 1906, some of them helped to form the new Labour Party, which was to play an increasingly important role in British politics after the First World War (1914-18). However, the Liberal Party grew less and less popular. This decline was visible during the early inter-war period after 1918. The Labour Party became, therefore, the main opposition party to the conservatives, and continued the traditional two-party system in British politics. It grew rapidly, and was supported by the trade unions, the majority of the working class, and some middle-class voters. The first Labour government was formed in 1924 under Ramsay MacDonald, but only achieved real majority power in 1945 under Clement Attlee. It then embarked on a radical programme of social and economic reform, which was to lay the foundations of the modern welfare and corporate state. Meanwhile, in this lengthy period of changing politics and the eventual triumph of the House of Commons in the parliamentary system, gradual reforms had been made to the House of Lords.

The Parliament Acts of 1911 and 1949 effectively diminished much of the Lords' political authority, leaving them with only a slight delaying and amending power over parliamentary bills. They could no longer interfere with finance bills. These reforms finally demonstrated that political and financial matters were now decided by the members of the Commons as elected representatives of the people. Other acts have allowed the creation of non-hereditary titles which supplement the

old tradition in which most peerages were hereditary.

The British system of government has been stable over the centuries albeit the Civil War and the 1688 Revolution. Rather, existing institutions have been pragmatically adapted to new conditions. This accounts for the fact that Britain, unlike many other countries, has no written constitution contained in any one document. Instead, the British use a mixture of statute law, Acts of Parliament, common law, ancient judge-made law and conventions (or practices and principles of government which, although not legally binding, are generally accepted as having the force of law). Since Parliament is for most purposes the supreme legislative power, law and institutions can be created or changed by a simple Act of Parliament. Conventions can be altered, formed, or abolished by general agreement. Once a problem has been solved satisfactorily in the British system, this solution tends to be used again in similar situations and becomes a precedent to govern future governmental actions. Precedents are vital devices in the operation of Parliament, the administrative bodies, and the courts of law. These elements which together with some ancient documents make up a largely unwritten constitution are said to be flexible and simple enough to respond quickly to new conditions. This non-fixed constitutional system, which is largely dependent upon conventions and observing the rules of the game, has been admired in the past. The arrangements were said to combine stability and adaptability, so that a successful balance of authority and toleration was achieved.

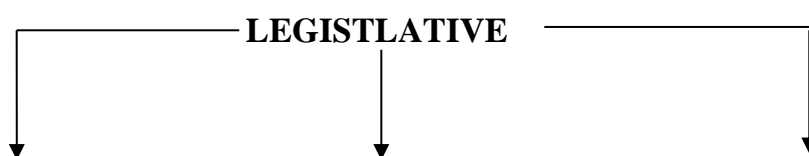
Most British governments tended to follow a pragmatic line in their domestic policies in spite of very ideological party manifestos at election time. Indeed, their emphasis was on whether a particular policy worked and was acceptable by the voters. But the

system has been increasingly criticized in recent years. Governments have become more radical in their policies, and have been able to implement them because of strong majorities in the Commons. There has been concern as the apparent absence of constitutional safeguards for the individual citizen against state power, especially since there are few legal definitions of civil liberties in Britain. There also appear to be few effective parliamentary restraints upon a strong government such as Thatcher's whose economic and social policies were often opposed with much anger and bitterness. The lack of adequate constitutional definitions in the British system has been seen as potentially dangerous. The British governments and their administrative bodies have a reputation for being too secretive. Therefore, various campaigns for more effective civil protection have been undertaken. They have come in the form of a bill of rights, a written constitution, greater judicial scrutiny of the merits of parliamentary legislation, a Freedom of Information Act, and the incorporation of the European Convention on Human Rights into British domestic law. But none of the suggested reforms has been achieved, and there is considerable opposition to the various proposals. Critics argue that the British political system is archaic. They maintain that its institutions are too centralized and that the traditional bases are no longer adequate for the organisation of a complex, mass society. It is felt that political policies have been conditioned by politics at the expense of consensus. Fundamental reform of the existing political institutions is felt necessary as to reflect contemporary diversity. However, changes continue to be introduced in the old system in order to adapt the ancient principles to new demands and conditions.

The government model that operates in Britain today is usually described as a

‘constitutional monarchy’, or parliamentary system. While the monarch still has a role to play, it is Parliament which possesses the essential political power. The correct constitutional definition of Parliament is the ‘Queen-in-parliament’ because the monarch retains a position in the British system. All state and governmental business is therefore carried out in the name of the monarch by the politicians and officials of the system. In constitutional theory, the British people hold the political sovereignty to choose the government, while Parliament, consisting partly of the elected representatives in the Commons, possesses the legal sovereignty to make laws.

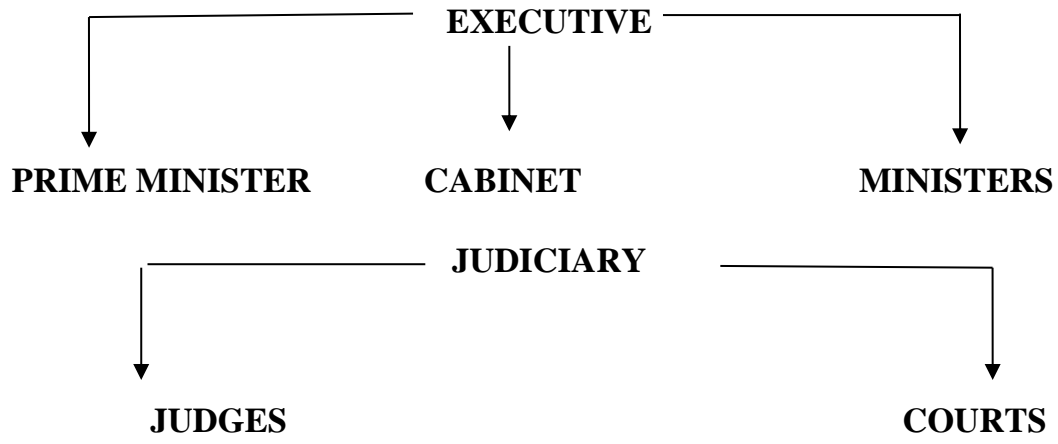
The various branches of the political system, although easily distinguishable from each other, are not completely separate, as in a more absolute separation of powers model like the American one. Indeed, the functions and memberships often overlap. Thus, a Member of Parliament (MP) in the House of Commons and a member of the House of Lords may both be in the ruling government. A Law Lord from the House of the Lords also serves the House of Lords as the highest appeal court. The legislature, which consists of both Houses of Parliament and formally the monarch, is for most purposes the supreme law-making body. The executive comprises the sitting government and its Cabinet, together with government ministries or departments headed by ministers or secretaries of state. The judiciary is composed mainly of the judges of the higher courts, who determine the common law and interpret acts of Parliament. The judiciary is supposed to be independent of the legislative and executive branches of government. Here is a diagram illustrating the divisions of powers in the British political system:



MONARCH

HOUSE of LORDS

HOUSE of COMMONS



TRADE UNIONS

Introduction

The history of the trade unions in Britain could be traced back to Guilds of the medieval times. They were aiming at regulating wages, prices and the number of apprentices in a trade. Following the changes that occurred in Britain with industrial revolution and even since the seventeenth century these organizations started to flourish in Britain with almost the same objectives; fighting for the rights of workers including wages and conditions of work.

Trade Union and Political Legislation

There continued an ebb and flow of restrictive measures against unions, but gradually it was accepted even by their opponents that they were there to stay.

1799 and 1800 Combination Acts

In 1799 and 1800 William Pitt, the Prime Minister, decided to take action against political agitation among industrial workers. The Combination acts were passed making it illegal for workers to go on strike and condemning them to three months imprisonment and consequently trade unions were made illegal.

1817 Gagging Acts

The Habeas Corpus Act passed by Parliament in 1679 guaranteed that a person detained by the authorities would have to be brought before a court of law so that the legality of the detention may be examined. In times of social unrest, Parliament had the power to suspend the Habeas Corpus act.

William Pitt did this in May 1793 during the war with France. Parliamentary

reformers such as Thomas Hardy and John Thelwall were imprisoned as a result of this action. Habeas Corpus was also suspended in January 1817 after a missile had been thrown through the glass window of the Prince Regent's coach on the way to the opening of parliament. Supporters of parliamentary reform were blamed for this act of violence and Lord Liverpool and his government rushed through Parliament the Gagging Acts. These measures banned meetings of over fifty people and instructed magistrates to arrest everyone suspected of spreading seditious libel. The Gagging Acts severely hampered the campaign for parliamentary reform. However, as soon as Parliament decided to restore Habeas Corpus in March, 1818, there was an immediate revival in the demands for universal suffrage.

1819 Six Acts

Lord Liverpool and his Tory government responded to the Peterloo massacre by introducing the Six Acts. When Parliament reassembled on 23rd November, 1819, Lord Sidmouth, the government's Home Secretary, announced details of what later became known as the Six Acts. By the 30th December, 1819, Parliament had debated and passed six measures that it hoped would suppress radical newspapers and meetings as well as reducing the possibility of an armed uprising.

1- Training Prevention Act:

A measure which made any person attending a gathering for the purpose of training or drilling liable to arrest. People found guilty of this offence could be transported for seven years.

2- Seizure of Arms Act:

A measure that gave power to local magistrates to search any property or person

for arms.

3-Seditious Meetings Prevention Act:

A measure which prohibited the holding of public meetings of more than fifty people without the consent of a sheriff or magistrate.

4-The Misdemeanors Act:

A measure that attempted to reduce the delay in the administration of justice.

5-The Blasphemous and Seditious Libels Act:

A measure which provided much stronger punishments, including banishment for publications judged to be blasphemous or seditious.

6-Newspaper and Stamp Duties Act:

A measure which subjected certain radical publications which had previously avoided stamp duty by publishing opinion and not news, to such duty.

These measures were opposed by the Whigs as being a suppression of popular rights and liberties. They warned that it was unreasonable to pass national laws to deal with problems that only existed in certain areas.

1824 Repeal of Combination Acts

The campaign against the Combination Acts was led by the trade union leader, Francis Place. In the House of Commons, Joseph Hume and Sir Francis Burdett led the fight against this legislation. The Combination Laws remained in force until they were repealed in 1824. This was followed by an outbreak of strikes and as a result the 1825 Combination Act was passed which again imposed limitations on the right to strike.

1825 Combination Act

The 1825 Combination Act narrowly defined the rights of trade unions as meeting to bargain over wages and conditions. Anything outside these limits was liable to prosecution as criminal conspiracy in restraint of trade. Trade unionists were not allowed to "molest", "obstruct", or intimidate" others. This law worried trade unionists as everything depended on how judges interpreted vague words like obstruct and intimidate.

1867 Masters' and Servants Act

Trade Unions were unhappy with the 1825 Combination Act that narrowly defined the rights of trade unions as meeting to bargain over wages and conditions. Anything outside these limits was liable to prosecution as criminal conspiracy in restraint of trade. In 1867 Benjamin Disraeli and his Conservative government agreed to pass the Masters and Servants Act. Under the terms of this act strikers could only be prosecuted for breach of contract, but criminal action could still be brought for what was described as "aggravated cases"

1871 Trade Union Act

When the head of the Conservative government, Earl of Derby decided to set up a Royal Commission on Trade Unions in 1867, George Potter, writing for the *Bee-Hive*, called for a working man to be included or a "gentleman well known to the working classes as possessing a practical knowledge of the working of Trade Unions, and in whom they might feel confidence." The government rejected the idea of a working man but they did ask Frederic Harrison to serve on the commission. Harrison was a very useful member of the commission, preparing union witnesses by telling them in

advance what question would be asked and rescued them from difficult situations during their cross-examination.

Robert Applegarth, the general secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners was chosen as a union observer of the proceedings. Applegarth worked hard checking the various accusations of the employers and providing information to the two pro-union members of the Royal Commission, Harrison and Thomas Hughes. Applegarth also appeared as a witness and it was generally accepted that he was the most impressive of all the trade unionists who gave evidence before the commission.

Frederic Harrison, Thomas Hughes and the Earl of Lichfield refused to sign the Majority Report that was hostile to trade unions and instead produced a Minority Report where he argued that trade unions should be given privileged legal status. Harrison suggested several changes to the law:

- (1) Persons combining should not be liable for indictment for conspiracy unless their actions would be criminal if committed by a single person.
- (2) All legislation dealing specifically with the activities of employers or workmen should be repealed.
- (3) All trade unions should receive full and positive protection for their funds and other property.

The Trade Union Congress campaigned to have the Minority Report accepted by the new Liberal government headed by William Gladstone. This campaign was successful and the 1871 Trade Union Act was based largely on the Minority Report. This act secured the legal status of trade unions. As a result no trade union could be regarded as criminal.

Although trade unions were pleased with this act, they were less happy with the Criminal Law Amendment Act passed the same day that made picketing illegal.

1875 Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act

After the 1874 General Election, Benjamin Disraeli and the Conservative Party formed the government. As promised, Disraeli passed new legislation concerning trade unions. The Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act established the principle that a trade union could not be prosecuted for an act which would be legal if performed by an individual. For example, it was not illegal for an individual to stop work; therefore a union could not be prosecuted if it organized a strike. Under this act peaceful picketing was allowed to take place during industrial disputes.

1880 Employers' Liability Act

The Employers' Liability Act extended protection to workers concerning accidents caused by the negligence of managers. Railway companies were also made liable when their employees were injured through the negligence of signalmen, drivers and points men. However, the act did not protect employees against accidents caused by fellow workers.

1906 Trades Disputes Act

In 1901 the Taff Vale Railway Company sued the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for losses during a strike. As a result of the case the union was fined £23,000. Up until this time it was assumed that unions could not be sued for acts carried out by their members. This court ruling exposed trade unions to being sued every time it was involved in an industrial dispute.

After the 1906 General Election the Liberal Government passed the 1906 Trades Disputes Act which removed trade union liability for damage by strike action.

1927 Trade Disputes and Trade Union Act

As a result of the 1926 General Strike, the Conservative Government passed the Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act. This legislation outlawed general strikes and sympathetic strikes, and banned civil servants from joining unions affiliated to the Trade Union Congress. This act also hurt the Labour Party by forcing union members to make a positive decision to pay a levy to a political party. As a result of this legislation, the Labour Party lost about a third of its subscriptions.

BRITISH IMPERIALISM (INDIA)

Introduction

Imperialism is usually defined as taking over by force of a weak nation by a stronger one. British imperialism in India can be a good example to illustrate how the British; looking for raw materials to their expanding industries and markets for their goods, came to subdue a whole nation for many decades. Pretending to safeguard their economic investments in India, The East India Company was allowed to fortify its holdings and opened up a new page of the history of Britain with imperialism.

The East India Company

Britain entered India in the 17th century through the East India Company, which was a private commercial company controlled by the British government. Its role was to export Indian products and to sell them in Britain. A century later, that is in the 18th century, the company received the Indian Emperor who gave it the great privilege of having the right to negotiate directly with the Indian producers without having to pay custom duties and in exchange the Indian government received annual payment. Following this privilege, Indians were slowly losing the control of the country.

From the 17th century to the 19th century, the company had great economic privileges in Indian. It bought the Indian cotton products, clothes, spices, perfumes at very low prices, then, it exported them to England, which finally re-exported these Indian products to the rest of the world at high prices. India was satisfied because she was encouraged to produce more, she earned money and could avoid to her people hunger and unemployment. The company came to control many Indian regions and ports from

where it could easily trade with powerful people.

In two centuries, the company came to have also political privileges in India; for example in the regions where they settled, they allied themselves with the powerful princes, groups or families. They often controlled the Indian administration through bribery, and they often interfered in local problems. The British in Indian were allowed by the Indians to have soldiers in order to protect their prosperity especially as France, a rival of England often tried to enter and obtain commercial privileges. So the British workers of the company were like settlers who have captured a territory. They started as traders settling around ports, then they slowly expanded inside India interfering in political life and acting as protectors.

In the 17th century the English adopted a very prudent policy in India. They never intervened in the cultural and religious customs of the Indians. They were capable of controlling India economically because the Indians were divided among themselves in religion and politics, and because some of them collaborated with the British. If they forget their differences and combined against them, then, it would have then been the end of the British rule But in the second half of the 19th century (that is after 1850, the period of Victorian prosperity in England), a new aggressive policy was adopted by the British in Indian. They wanted to change everything in Indian; manners, customs, the religion of the people. .For example, they encouraged the education of Hindu and Muslim women (this went against the Indian tradition); they also encouraged mission schools in which the missionaries preached more against Buddhism and Islam than for Christianity.

Other changes introduced by the British created a sense of displacement and anger

among the Indians. For example, free trade ruined the Indian artisans, that is, by the introduction of British articles into India, the British threw the Indian cotton cloth makers, the carpenters and shoemakers out of work. Most Indian artisans became beggars. It is clear that the arrogant behaviour of England in Indian (economically and culturally) created feelings of resentment and discontent among all the classes of the Indian population. That is why they took part in the revolt.

The revolt failed because the British were superior militarily, and half of the Indian soldiers took the side of the British and not the Indians, and also because the educated classes remained loyal to the British exactly as the Indian businessmen who benefited from the commercial activities with England. Finally the revolt failed because the Sikh (an Indian minority) betrayed. They allowed the British to cross their region the Punjab and attack the most important place of the revolt, and political centre of the country; Delhi. A year later 1858, with the failure of the revolt, India became a colony under the direct control of England.

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