ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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INFORMATION FOR TEACHERS

This educational resource pack has been devised with reference to the aims and attainment targets of ‘Programmes of study for History’ at Key Stage 3, which forms part of the National Curriculum in England and are available here:


The lesson plans and class activities are designed to assist with teaching on ‘the development of Church, state and society in Medieval Britain 1066-1509’.

PUPILS WILL LEARN:

• Who the Angevin Kings were and what England was like under their rule
• Why King John and his Barons quarrelled with one another
• How historians have viewed John’s reign
• Why Magna Carta was issued in 1215
• Why Magna Carta was important in its own time
• Why Magna Carta is still important today

NOTE

The definitions of words in the text that appear in bold are included in the ‘glossary of medieval terms’ at the end of this pack.

Professor Louise Wilkinson would like to acknowledge all those who have helped in the production of this resource: Canterbury Christ Church University’s Department of Marketing, Design and Production and the Outreach Team.

Written by Professor Louise Wilkinson, Professor of Medieval History, Canterbury Christ Church University
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TIMELINE: ENGLAND IN THE TWELFTH AND THIRTEENTH CENTURY

1199–1216 | JOHN, KING OF ENGLAND

1199 | John succeeds his brother as ruler of the Angevin Empire. John crowned King of England at Westminster Abbey (27 May).


1202 | Philip Augustus declares John’s continental lands forfeit. John captures his nephew Arthur of Brittany at Mirebeau (1 August).

1203 | Arthur of Brittany presumed to be murdered.

1204 | Philip Augustus captures the ducal capital of Rouen in Normandy (24 June); loss of Normandy to Philip Augustus.

1205 | Death of Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury (13 July).


1208 | Papal interdict imposed on England (24 March).

1209 | John excommunicated by Pope Innocent III.


1213 | England becomes a papal fief (15 May).
1214  John goes to France (February). Interdict ended (2 July). John’s allies defeated by Philip Augustus at the Battle of Bouvines (27 July).

1215  Baronial rebels take London (17 May).

1216  Louis of France lands in Kent (21 May). Death of John (October).

1216-1272  HENRY III, KING OF ENGLAND

1216-1227  The minority of Henry III, when the King was legally a child and a series of great lords governed England for him.

1217  Royalist victory at the Battle of Lincoln (20 May). Royalist naval victory off the coast near Sandwich (24 August). Peace of Lambeth (also known as the Peace of Kingston) between Henry III and Louis of France (September). Magna Carta reissued for the second time (November). Charter of the Forest issued by the King.

1218  Henry III crowned at Gloucester (28 October). Magna Carta reissued for the first time (12 November).

1218  Magna Carta reissued for the third time by Henry III.

1225  Henry III captured by the supporters of Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, at the Battle of Lewes (14 May).

1258-1267  The period of baronial reform and rebellion in England.

1264  Simon de Montfort killed at the Battle of Evesham (4 August). Henry III resumes power.

1265  ‘Model’ Parliament.
LIFE IN ENGLAND
UNDER THE ANGEVIN KINGS

HENRY II (REIGNED 1154-89)

Henry II was the first member of the Angevin dynasty. He was born in 1133, became Duke of Normandy in 1150, Count of Anjou in 1151 and King of England in 1154. His wife, Eleanor, was the heiress to the great French Duchy of Aquitaine and a former Queen of France.

This meant that at the age of 21, Henry II became the ruler of a vast collection of territories - known today as the Angevin Empire. It stretched from the English borders with Scotland in the north, all the way down through modern France (Normandy, Anjou, Maine and Touraine) to the Pyrenees in the south. Henry II ruled these lands until his death in 1189, and ruthlessly established his lordship over the Duchy of Brittany, Scotland, and large parts of Ireland and Wales.

Henry II’s reign was not without controversy. It witnessed a bitter quarrel between Henry and Thomas Becket, his Archbishop of Canterbury, which ended in the Archbishop’s murder by four knights in Canterbury Cathedral in 1170. Henry also faced a great rebellion in 1173-4, when Henry’s own wife and sons went to war against him.

On Henry II’s death in 1189, he was succeeded by his eldest surviving son, King Richard I or Richard ‘the Lionheart’.

A map of the Angevin Empire. The shaded areas of land were ruled by Henry II by 1172. [available at http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Henry_II,_Plantagenet_Empire.]
Richard, who was crowned King at Westminster on 3 September 1189, spent just six months of his ten-year reign in England.

He is remembered, primarily, for his absence on the Third Crusade (1190-92), which attempted to recover Jerusalem from the Muslim leader Saladin. Richard, who had quarrelled with other Christian leaders of the crusade, was captured on his way home from the east by his former fellow crusader, Leopold, Duke of Austria. Leopold handed Richard over to Henry VI, the Holy Roman Emperor, and the English King only secured his release in February 1194 after agreeing to pay a large ransom. The remaining years of Richard’s reign were dominated by warfare and diplomatic manoeuvring against the French King, Philip Augustus, who had taken advantage of Richard’s captivity to overrun many of Richard’s territories on the continent.

Richard died in 1199, after being wounded by a crossbow bolt during a siege. His younger brother John succeeded to the English throne.

Richard’s participation in the crusade, the raising of his ransom and his wars in France all placed a great financial burden on the King’s English subjects.
What was life like in twelfth and early thirteenth century England

Since at least the eleventh century, English society had been loosely organised into three broad groups: (1) those who fight (the aristocracy); (2) those who pray (churchmen and women religious); and (3) those who work (the peasantry and others who earned their living through labour, manufacture or trade).

The aristocracy, England’s Earls and barons, formed a wealthy social elite. Much of their wealth was based on the possession of land and on the rights that they were able to exercise over their own tenants. They lived in stone castles which served as lordly residences, centres for managing their estates, and military strongholds. In the year 1200 there were between 250 and 300 castles that were in use in England, about one third of which were in the hands of the barons.

In order to fulfil their military or financial obligations to the Crown, the Earls and barons expected service from their tenants, who were often lesser lords and were usually knights. These local landholding knights, in their turn, demanded services from those below them in society - free tenants and peasants, who farmed the land. Each level of society was therefore tied together by a series of mutual obligations.

The earls and barons usually held their lands directly from the King, in return for performing homage, that is making a formal declaration of allegiance to the King, and for promising to provide him with military or other services. The Earls and barons who held their lands by these terms were known as ‘tenants-in-chief’. They were often expected to provide knights to serve in the royal army. This was also true of most bishops and important abbots who held lands from the Crown. In practice, military service was repeatedly substituted for the payment of a sum of money from the reign of Henry II onward. The money that was paid in lieu of military service was known as scutage (or ‘shield money’).

Sons were usually preferred over daughters as heirs because they were able to perform military service in person.

The money that was paid in lieu of military service was known as scutage (or ‘shield money’).

Written records suggest that you could expect to live until 25 years of age from the moment you were born.

Then, if you were lucky enough to live past the age of 25, you might only reach your 40s.
How did the Angevin Kings govern England?

There was no Prime Minister or Parliament in twelfth and early thirteenth century England, as there is today.

The King was the supreme source of authority within his realm, answerable to no one other than God.

He was, though, expected to seek the advice of his wealthiest subjects – the earls, barons, bishops and abbots – and summoned them to great councils, the forerunners of Parliament, to discuss important matters of state. For the day-to-day government of his Kingdom, the King relied on a fairly basic system of administration. At its heart were government departments like the Chancery, the King’s writing office that issued government orders, and the Exchequer, which collected, counted and spent the King’s revenues. In the localities, England was divided into counties, as it had been since Anglo-Saxon times.

Each county was headed by a sheriff, who was the King’s chief local agent. His job was to collect the King’s revenues, and safeguard and enforce the King’s rights. The King’s income came from a variety of sources, including rents, different forms of taxation, profits from the Royal Forest and profits from the operation of the law courts.

One of the great strengths of the English crown under the Angevin Kings was that it presided over an impressive legal system. During Henry II’s reign, wide-ranging reforms were introduced to improve and expand the operation of royal justice in England. The Assize of Clarendon (1166) and Assize of Northampton (1176) were two particularly important statements of legal procedure in Henry’s reign. New methods were introduced for establishing whether a person accused of committing a serious crime was guilty and harsh punishments were set in place for convicted criminals. Greater use was made of sworn juries, who in this period were essentially groups of local men appointed to report on crime and assist the Royal Justices in reaching verdicts in legal cases. In addition to this, a series of legal procedures developed that were open to all free men within the realm and that allowed people to recover lands and defend their property in the Royal Courts.

All that a person needed to do in order to begin a legal case in the Royal Courts was purchase a Royal writ.

During Henry II’s reign, a litigant could either have their case heard by Royal Justices at Westminster or by travelling Royal Justices who visited the counties. The new legal procedures were very popular and brought some of the King’s lowliest subjects into direct contact with the crown.

A thirteenth-century drawing of a mounted knight falling off of his horse
What was a King expected to do in the twelfth and early thirteenth centuries?

**Figures 1 & 2**
The Great Seal of King John (Front & Back)

**Figure 1 & 2 Images:** The Great Seal of King John © Canterbury Cathedral Archives, CGA-DCC-ChArt/C109, reproduced by kind permission of the Dean and Chapter of Canterbury Cathedral.

**Figure 3**
The Seal of Robert FitzWalter, A Leading Northern Baron

**Figure 3 Image:** The seal die of Robert fitzWalter, 1213-19, showing a knight fighting a dragon (British Museum, available at https://www.britishmuseum.org/explore/highlights/highlight_objects/pe_mla/s/seal-die_of_robert_fitzwalter.aspx).
This activity will help you to understand the roles and responsibilities of the Angevin Kings.

In the Middle Ages, important government documents were not signed by the person authorising them. Instead, documents were sealed which meant that a special decorated disc made out of coloured beeswax was attached to the document.

The images, symbols and words used on medieval seals offer important clues about the role, identity and status of the person issuing the document. Seals were, after all, important as visual images of authority at a time when most ordinary people were unable to read or write.

What do the images on both sides of the great seal of King John reveal about the role of the Angevin King? How does the King’s seal differ from that of the seal of the great baron Robert fitzWalter?

BELOW DRAW OR MAKE YOUR OWN SEAL. WHAT DOES YOUR SEAL SAY ABOUT YOU?

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or Facebook CCCU Outreach.
In popular culture, King John is regarded as a disastrous ruler. He is most famously associated with the legend of Robin Hood. In the legend John is portrayed as the deceitful, grasping and greedy younger brother of King Richard I who plots to take the English throne when his brother is captured travelling home from the Third Crusade. In fact, the Robin Hood story is a legend that only came to be set in Richard’s reign centuries later.

It is, however, true that John caused trouble for Richard during the King’s absence from England in the early years of his reign.
To make matters worse, John also became involved in a bitter quarrel with the Pope over the appointment of a new Archbishop of Canterbury. The Roman Catholic Church, headed by the Pope, was an extremely influential institution in the Middle Ages, which attempted to govern the spiritual and moral lives of all men and women. The Archbishop of Canterbury was the most important churchman who lived in England.

John’s own reign as King is widely regarded as a catalogue of failures. Yet it did not get off to a bad start. When John secured the English throne in 1199, he wanted to take over his elder brother’s vast continental empire. The French lands which John claimed included Normandy, Anjou, Maine and Touraine. John was faced with a rival candidate for the throne – his twelve-year-old nephew, Arthur. Arthur was the son of John’s older brother Geoffrey. His claim was supported by the barons from Brittany, Anjou, Maine and Touraine. John, however, won the day. In 1200, the French King, Philip Augustus, recognised John as Richard’s heir.

Things went wrong for John after he married Isabella of Angoulême, a young heiress, who was probably no more than twelve years old. Isabella had already promised to marry a French nobleman, Hugh de Lusignan. Hugh was furious when she married John instead. He appealed for help to the French King, Philip Augustus, who condemned John and went to war against him. At first John met with success. In 1202, he captured Arthur, who allied with Philip, and a large number of prisoners at a place called Mirebeau. When, soon after, Arthur disappeared, John was rumoured to have murdered him in a drunken rage. Arthur’s fate helped to turn many of John’s French barons against him, so that they changed sides and began to support Philip Augustus.

By 1204, King John had lost the bulk of his French lands to the French King.
QUARRELLING WITH THE ENGLISH BARONS

As a result of losing the greater part of his family’s continental lands, John’s reign in England was dominated by his attempts to raise as much money as possible from his English subjects to pay for a military campaign to recover his lost territories.

King John taxed his barons and his other subjects very heavily. This placed John’s English subjects under great financial pressure as they struggled to meet his demands. Numerous English barons became heavily indebted to the Crown, including many who lived in the North of England.

If this was not bad enough, John also interfered in the marriages of his Earls and barons. He insisted on large payments from barons who wanted to marry important heiresses and widows.

King John also demanded payments from aristocratic widows who did not wish to remarry. If women refused to pay, they faced the danger of being forced to marry again, no matter how young or old they were and no matter how often they had been married before.

John attempted to raise money by other methods.

He collected scutage on more occasions than any of his predecessors (11 times in 16 years) and sometimes for military campaigns that did not take place.

Yet it was not just the aristocracy who bore the brunt of John’s desire to increase his revenues. Those lower down in society were affected too by the activities of his officials within areas of Royal Forest, by his exploitation of Royal Justice (his justices exacted large fines), by John’s handling of debts owed to Jewish moneylenders, and by the taxes John imposed on people’s incomes and possessions.

The loss of Normandy in 1204 also meant that King John spent far more time in England than his father and brother. He constantly travelled around the realm, and visited the north more regularly than any other earlier Angevin ruler.

Unfortunately, John’s disagreeable personality and his harsh treatment of all who opposed him made him deeply unpopular. As his reign progressed, John came to rely upon a small, unpleasant group of foreign favourites like Philip Mark, the Sheriff of Nottingham, who committed robbery and false arrest. This left John’s English barons feeling isolated and resentful at their exclusion from the King’s circle of advisers. They were unable to influence his policies or make them less oppressive.

John’s relationship with his barons was also not helped by the fact that he was a deeply suspicious King who doubted their personal loyalties. John even went so far as to seize the sons and daughters of many barons, and kept them as hostages for their parents’ good behaviour. John is believed to have starved to death the wife and eldest son of a baron called William de Briouze. William had served John as one of his closest advisers, but when he fell from favour in 1208 John pursued William for the great debts that he owed to the Crown. Although William escaped with his life and died in exile in France in 1211, his wife, Matilda, and one of his sons were not so lucky. Matilda and the couple’s eldest son were captured and starved to death in one of John’s castles, most probably Windsor.

£6,666 was demanded by the Crown from Nicholas de Stuteville, an important northern baron, for succession to his brother’s lands. This sum was significantly greater than his family’s annual income of around £500 per annum. £4,666 was demanded from another baron, John de Lacy, who was the heir of the Constable of Chester and lord of Pontefract in Yorkshire, for succession to his father’s lands even though he was still a youth.

King John’s financial dealings, and his mean-spirited personality all damaged his relationship with his barons and other English subjects.

In 1211, John executed the sons of 28 Welsh lords whose families he suspected of disloyalty.
This activity will encourage you to think about different interpretations of King John’s reign.

Explain to the class that historians who have written about King John at different times in history have viewed him differently from one another.

- In the sixteenth century, historians of the Tudor period praised John for standing up to the Pope (like the Tudor King Henry VIII) and criticized the barons for rebelling against him.

- In the nineteenth century, Victorian writers criticised King John for being an evil and incompetent King, basing their portrayals of him on medieval chronicles by monks such as Roger of Wendover and Matthew Paris.

- In the 1950s and 1960s, historians began to examine the government records for John’s reign more closely than before, and argued that John was a hardworking King and an unlucky ruler. These historians dismissed the work of chroniclers like Roger of Wendover and Matthew Paris as unreliable because they were written after John’s death and were prejudiced against him.

- Since the 1980s, historians have had more varied views about King John, and some modern writers have been more willing to acknowledge John’s personal contribution to the disasters of his reign than earlier historians.

Divide into small groups. Next, ask each group to read the worksheet and think about which statements support the view that John was a hardworking King, which support the view that he was a bad King and which support the view that he was an unlucky King. Look at when each extract was written and think about: (1) where it sits in the history of historical writing about King John, and (2) whether there are similarities of views.

Tweet us your findings to @OutreachCCCU or Facebook CCCU Outreach.
**WAS KING JOHN A BAD KING OR JUST UNLUCKY?**

### The reasons for the French invasion of Normandy, 1202-1204.


‘In August 1200, having divorced his first wife, John married Isabella, daughter and sole heir of the count of Angoulême…. But instead of compensating Hugh de Lusignan, the great Poitevin noble to whom Isabella had already been engaged, John tried to bully him into submission. Hugh appealed for justice to the King of France, and thus gave Philip his chance. His [Philip’s] court in the spring of 1202 sentenced John to forfeit all his continental fiefs’.

### The quarrel between Pope Innocent III and King John, 1205-1214.


To John’s catalogue of crimes, after 1205 was added a final self-inflicted injury: an open breach with the Church. Since the murder of Thomas Becket in 1170, although obliged to tread warily, the Kings of England had been allowed very much their own way in appointments to bishoprics. In 1205, for example, and despite some resistance, John had been able to secure Winchester for his henchman Peter des Roches. Determined to prevent another such infringement of ecclesiastical privilege, in the following year the Pope, Innocent III, refused all inducements to promote a courtier as successor to the late Archbishop of Canterbury, Hubert Walter. Instead… the Pope secured promotion to Canterbury for a scholar in late middle age… Master Stephen Langton’.

### How England was governed by King Henry II and King Richard I.


‘It would be a mistake to imagine that 1204 [the loss of Normandy by King John] marked a rough dividing line between lawful and reasonable government on the one hand, and increasingly harsh tyranny on the other. The government of Henry II and Hubert Walter had already placed heavy burdens on the country. Since 1194 especially, with the dual burdens of King Richard’s ransom and the crisis in the Norman wars, the strain had become intolerable; England paid early for the vainglorious military luxury of Château Gaillard [an expensive castle Richard built] and King Richard’s soldierly energy’.
King John’s approach to government.


‘Throughout his reign John’s overriding objective was to rule his inheritance in peace: to be able to ride, like his father, from the Cheviots to the Pyrenees, wearing his crown in undisputed majesty, receiving the homage of his vassals, doing justice. ‘Greatest of earthly princes’, Richard fitzNigel had called Henry II. His father’s position appeared to John not so much a challenge as a birthright…. From the moment he [John] began to rule, rivals and traitors conspired to cheat him of his inheritance. His reaction was a display of ruthless determination: anyone who impeded him ruling as his father had done was his enemy, be he baron, King of France, or pope; but as he wrestled with one, more foes sprang upon his back…. It could have been an epic struggle, but the story is marred by flaws in the character of the protagonist’.

John’s behaviour towards his English subjects.

J. R. Green, Short History of the English People (first published 1875).

‘In his inner soul John was the worst outcome of the Angevins…. [John’s] punishments were the refinements of cruelty, the starvation of children, the crushing of old men under copes of lead…. He scoffed at priests and turned his back on the mass, even amidst the solemnities of his coronation…’.
The emergence of opposition to King John in England

FAILURE

1205

King John gathered an army at Portsmouth in Hampshire in the hope of launching an invasion to recover his French lands. The invasion was called off when many of John’s barons refused to serve the King overseas.

REBELLION

1212

A group of northern barons banded together in opposition to John and plotted to murder the King. The two main conspirators were Eustace de Vescy and Robert FitzWalter. Both men had strong financial and personal grievances against the King. John, who was staying at Nottingham Castle when he learned of the conspiracy, immediately called off a planned campaign to Wales and marched north to deal with the threat. Vescy and FitzWalter fled abroad to safety, where they remained until 1213.

FAILURE AT THE BATTLE OF BOUVINES

1214

Although John met with some success in the south, his northern allies met with disaster. At the Battle of Bouvines in 1214, an English army, led by the Earl of Salisbury, was heavily defeated, along with John’s most important allies. John was forced to agree to a truce with King Philip. The defeat had important consequences for John in England. It left John penniless, with his reputation as a war leader in tatters. Recognising that John was vulnerable, many of his English subjects decided to rebel against him.

At the Battle of Bouvines in 1214, an English army, led by the Earl of Salisbury, was heavily defeated,
The Road to Magna Carta (Great Charter)

By the autumn of 1214, there was widespread discontent in England. King John’s English subjects simply felt that they had suffered enough under his harsh rule. Many of John’s barons refused to pay the King scutage and planned to resist him.

In November 1214, John’s opponents, many of whom were ‘Northerners’ (i.e. from counties in the north Midlands and north of England), met at Bury St Edmunds. Inspired by the coronation charter of King Henry I from the year 1100, in which this earlier King had promised to reform Royal government, the rebels began to draw up their own list of grievances against King John. The new Archbishop of Canterbury, Stephen Langton, helped them.

On 17 May 1215, the baronial army, which was known as the Army of God, successfully took possession of London. Both sides in the conflict realised that it would be difficult to defeat the other. As a result, negotiations began late in May and the rebels met with King John at Runnymede, a meadow near the River Thames, in the hope of making peace in June 1215. Runnymede was probably chosen because it was a place that was neutral territory between the two parties, and so was a suitable spot to negotiate a peace treaty. It was here that a settlement was drafted, known as the ‘Articles of the Barons’. The ‘Articles’ formed the basis for Magna Carta (called the ‘Great Charter’ in English), the final agreement that was written down between King John and the barons, whereby the King promised to accept many of the rebels’ demands.

In January 1215, John summoned a Royal Council at Oxford, at which the barons hoped to discuss them. The barons who attended the council demanded changes to royal government, but John was reluctant to discuss matters. When the rebels’ attempts to negotiate further with John failed, they rose in rebellion against him in the spring of 1215.
Magna Carta was a very important document. It was issued by King John on 15 June 1215 and placed wide-ranging restrictions on how the King should rule the country in the future. Written in Latin, the language of medieval government records, it attempted to place new limitations on the King’s power. Its 63 clauses dealt with a wide variety of issues. The most important, though, were those that:

1. **RESTRICTED THE KING’S ABILITY TO DEMAND EXCESSIVE SUMS OF MONEY FROM HIS SUBJECTS**
2. **TRIED TO IMPROVE THE BEHAVIOUR OF ROYAL OFFICIALS**
3. **TRIED TO IMPROVE THE FAIRNESS AND AVAILABILITY OF ROYAL JUSTICE**

Magna Carta also imposed upon the King a committee of 25 barons who were to make sure that John observed its terms and who were empowered to go against John with armed knights if he broke any part of their agreement.

As these clauses demonstrate, Magna Carta was more than simply a baronial document; it addressed the interests of all free men within the English Kingdom and, in its detail, reflected the concerns of a wide section of society, including women, orphaned children, the knights, lesser landholders, peasants, and people who lived within the Royal Forest.

The contents of Magna Carta stand as a testimony to the unpopularity and burdensome nature of Royal government under King John. More than this, however, it also upheld the belief that the King himself should follow the same standards of just behaviour as his subjects were expected to follow.
## WHY WAS MAGNA CARTA ISSUED

### King John on Trial

Transform the classroom into a courtroom, where you (in groups) will assume the role of the rebel barons to sit in judgement on King John. Using source extracts, draw up a list of charges against King John. Report these to the rest of the class. Then use charges to draw up your own mini version of Magna Carta.

**Notes:** In order to give each group’s Magna Carta an authentic appearance, as though they are written on parchment like the original document, the paper used for them can be stained with the juice from cold, damp teabags and left to dry before the lesson takes place.

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<tr>
<th>Charges against King John</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>1. Source:</strong> A description in <em>The Flowers of History</em> by Roger of Wendover of the fate of Matilda de Briouze and her son.</td>
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<tr>
<td>'In this year [1210]… the noblewoman Matilda, wife of William de Briouze, and her son and heir William… who had been imprisoned at Windsor by order of the English King, died of starvation in that place.'</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>2. Source:</strong> A description in <em>The Flowers of History</em> by Roger of Wendover of a military campaign led by King John.</td>
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<tr>
<td>'About Whitsuntide in this same year [1205], King John assembled a large army as if he was about to cross overseas and, although the Archbishop of Canterbury and many others dissuaded him from it, he ordered a large fleet to be collected at Portsmouth; he afterwards embarked with only a small company on 15th July and put to sea… but, changing his purpose, on the third day [after he set off] he landed at Studland near Warham [in England]. On his return he took an immense sum of money from the Earls, barons, knights and religious men, accusing them of refusing to accompany him to the continent.'</td>
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<td><strong>3. Source:</strong> An entry in Royal government records concerning marriage.</td>
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<tr>
<td>'Richard de Lek offers [to give] the lord King 80 marks [a sum of money] to have the widow of Stephen de Falconbridge as his wife, with her inheritance and dowry.' [This entry was then crossed through because the widow later offered the King £100 for the right to remain unmarried]</td>
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### 4. Source: An entry in Royal government records concerning widows.

‘Alice, countess of Warwick, gives £1,000 and ten palfreys that she may remain a widow for as long as she pleases and that the King shall not compel her to marry.’

**Charges against King John**

### 5. Source: Entries in Royal government records concerning children whose fathers had died.

‘Philip FitzRobert offers to the lord King £200, 100 bacon hogs and 100 cheeses to have in custody the land of Yvo de Mumby and his heir until the heir be of age [is an adult] and ought to marry.’

‘Gundreda, widow of Geoffrey Huse offers to the lord King 200 marks [a sum of money] to have the custody of Geoffrey [junior] his son and heir, with all his land.’

**Charges against King John**

### Source: An entry in Royal government records concerning the King.

‘Peter son of William of Derby offers to the Lord King 40 marks and one palfrey [a horse]… to have the King’s goodwill.’

**Charges against King John**

### Source: A description in the Annals of Waverley Abbey, describing the events of 1215.

‘In this year [1215] a great discord arose between the King of England and the barons… for in the time of his father and more especially in his own time [the free customs and liberties conceded by previous Kings] had been corrupted and diminished. For some [people] had been disinherited without judgment of their peers; some he had condemned to a cruel death… and so instead of law there was tyrannical will.’

**Charges against King John**
1215 MAGNA CARTA

1215, Magna Carta placed a wide range of restrictions on King John’s activities as King of England and protected his subjects. No earlier King had been faced by demands for a written programme to reform his government.

In 1215, John’s opponents therefore tried to make the King improve his behaviour and reduce the financial burden for his subjects caused by his heavy-handed government of England. In the short term, however, Magna Carta failed dismally as a peace treaty. King John’s promise to observe its terms was soon proven to be hollow.

MID - 1215

By mid-July 1215, King John had written to Pope Innocent III, asking him to annul and condemn Magna Carta. In September, Innocent’s reply arrived in England, denouncing Magna Carta as a ‘shameful and base’, and ‘illegal and unjust’ document on the grounds that it had been obtained from the King by force. By the time the Pope’s letters arrived, civil war had already broken out again.

1216 KING DIES

When King John died at Newark in October 1216, the country was still bitterly divided. The rebel barons had invited Louis, a French prince, to England to take the English throne and rule in John’s place. Had the supporters of Henry III, John’s young, innocent nine-year-old son and heir, failed to mount a successful comeback under the leadership of great barons like William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke, England might well have been joined with the French crown.

1217 PEACE

The Peace of Lambeth brought an end to the civil war in England in September 1217 and secured Henry III’s place on the English throne.
If Magna Carta was an abject failure as a peace treaty in 1215, how can we explain its reputation today as one of the most important documents in the world?

The answer to this question lies in the fact that Magna Carta effectively embraced the idea that the King himself should be subject to, and not above, the law. This helped to make Magna Carta popular with the King’s subjects. Indeed such was Magna Carta’s appeal as a benchmark for good government that it was reissued during the reign of Henry III in 1216, 1217 and 1225, with the clauses that were most damaging to the interests of the English Crown removed. From the reissue of 1217 onward, this Royal Charter of liberties was joined by a companion document, the Charter of the Forest. It was from around this time that the name Magna Carta was first used to distinguish it from this new, smaller Forest Charter. It was, however, the 1225 version of Magna Carta that became the definitive version and was, in its turn, reissued on numerous other occasions. With each reissue, Magna Carta’s fame grew, thanks to the fact that its contents were publicised widely throughout the realm.

During the 1250s, for example, Magna Carta was proclaimed in the counties in three different languages, the Latin of the medieval Catholic Church, the English of the ordinary people (freemen and peasants), and the French of the aristocracy, allowing its contents to be understood by as many of the King’s subjects as possible.
By the reign of King Henry III, however, the English political community had expanded to include all free men of the realm, thanks to the shared burden of Royal government and thanks to the employment of many local men in the administration of Royal justice (e.g. staffing juries and so on). Henry III was a very different man from his father, King John, but he was incompetent, politically naïve and adopted some deeply unpopular foreign policies.

When Henry III turned his back on this agreement, civil war broke out in England and the King was captured at the Battle of Lewes on 14 May 1264. From May 1264 until the royalist victory at the Battle of Evesham in August 1265, Simon de Montfort governed England. He called some of the earliest Parliaments composed not just of Earls, barons and bishops, as in the past, but also of representatives from each county (knights of the shire) and from important towns (burgesses who were usually important merchants).

During the reign of Henry III’s son, King Edward I (1272-1307), Parliament began to meet more regularly. Edward I pursued a series of extremely expensive wars, and his subjects looked to Magna Carta as a focus for their discontent with his financial demands. Edward I, for his part, appears to have realised that his subjects were more likely to agree to his requests for taxation if they were able to meet with him in Parliament and air their grievances. From the ‘Model Parliament’ of 1295 onward, Edward frequently summoned this assembly to secure his subjects’ assent to taxation, and later medieval rulers followed suit when they also needed money. Magna Carta thus helped to formalise the idea that the English King needed the consent of his subjects to impose taxation (recalling clause 12 of the 1215 Magna Carta).
Magna Carta and Parliament

1337-1453 THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR

Parliaments were summoned more regularly during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. England was frequently involved in expensive warfare against France, especially after the outbreak of the Hundred Years War (1337-1453). In order to pay for his armies, the English King was reliant upon the men who attended Parliament agreeing to his requests to collect more taxes. From 1332 onwards, knights of the shire and burgesses sat together and formed what became known as the Commons, a separate group from the Lords. Increasingly, these men began to discuss their grievances when Parliament met and asked the King to implement reforms before they would consider his requests for money. In 1401, the Commons secured an important concession from the Crown when King Henry IV recognised that they did not have to consent to taxation until he had dealt appropriately with their grievances. Even so, it was ultimately up to the King to decide when he wished to summon Parliament. Although medieval parliaments were often summoned annually, their sessions usually only lasted for a few weeks, unless there was a political crisis.

MAGNA CARTA TODAY

Magna Carta remained the first item on England’s statute books during the following centuries, in spite of the fact that many of its clauses were eventually repealed in the nineteenth century. In fact, three of Magna Carta’s clauses are still on the statute books today. These are:

CLAUSE 1

Clause 1, which promises that ‘the English church shall be free and have its rights undiminished and its liberties unimpaired’.

CLAUSE 9

Clause 9 (clause 13 in 1215), which lays down that ‘the city of London shall have all its ancient liberties and free customs’.

CLAUSE 29

Clause 29 (clause 39 in 1215), which is perhaps the most famous, which lays down that ‘no freeman shall be arrested, or imprisoned, or disposessed, or outlawed, or exiled, or in any way ruined, except by the lawful judgment of his peers or by the law of the land’ (i.e. people cannot be arrested or punished without a fair trial).
Much of Magna Carta’s subsequent fame, and the reason why it is remembered across the world today, is down to the use made of it in the seventeenth century by parliamentarians against the Stuart Kings of England. English lawyers such as Sir Edward Coke (d. 1634) felt that Magna Carta represented an ‘Ancient Constitution’ that was threatened by the early, absolutist Stuart Kings. Magna Carta was promoted by Coke as the product of a past Golden Age, embodying what Professor Nicholas Vincent has called ‘good old law’ that protected the English people’s rights against the King. This was especially pertinent in a political climate where King Charles I (reigned 1625-49) was heavily criticised both for reviving unpopular forms of taxation and for ruling without Parliament in the 1630s.

In the years leading up to the American Revolution, lawyers and writers used Magna Carta to make a stand against British government.

Tensions between the American colonies and Great Britain came to a head in April 1775, and a bitter war ensued that lasted until 1781, when the British surrendered at Yorktown. The United States won independence from Britain, and it was in order to strengthen the ties that bound the loose confederation of former colonies together that the U.S. Constitution began to be drafted in 1787.

The U.S. Constitution became the supreme or fundamental law of the new American nation. When amendments were added to it that set out the rights of U.S. citizens they drew on Magna Carta, ensuring its lasting legacy in North America.

The ‘due process’ clause, for example, found in the Fifth and Fourteenth Amendments to the U.S. Constitution was based on clause 39 of the 1215 Magna Carta. The Fifth Amendment therefore laid down that no person should ‘be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law’. The Fourteenth Amendment set out that no state should ‘deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law’. The principles of freedom expressed within Magna Carta meant that both British and American anti-slavery campaigners used it in the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries to support the abolition of slavery.
Magna Carta news report

Divide into small groups and put together a news report on why Magna Carta was issued and what it achieved. Each group should script and stage interviews between:

1. King John and a reporter who wants to find out why the King issued Magna Carta and how he felt about it.
2. Archbishop Stephen Langton and a reporter who wants to find out why it was important to protect the interests of the English church within Magna Carta.
3. A rebel baron (e.g. John de Lacy) and a reporter who wants to find out what Magna Carta meant to him and what he felt was its most important attachment.

GET CREATIVE WHY NOT FILM YOUR NEWS REPORT OR MAKE A RADIO NEWS PROGRAMME?

Tweet us your news reports to @OutreachCCCU or Facebook CCCU Outreach.
An image of King John granting Magna Carta to his barons still graces the doors of the U.S. Supreme Court in Washington today. Such is the strength of Magna Carta’s appeal to the American government and its people that in 1957 the American Bar Association funded a public memorial at Runnymede, on the site where King John first issued Magna Carta in 1215.

On 14 May 1965, Queen Elizabeth II and the British government gave an acre of ground at Runnymede to the American people.

The U.S. is not the only country that still acknowledges its debt to Magna Carta today. The spread of English common law procedures and principles to many British Commonwealth countries ensured that Magna Carta also influenced the law of Australia, New Zealand, Canada, South Africa and Zimbabwe (formerly Southern Rhodesia). It was a measure of the value that Australia placed on Magna Carta that in 1952 the Australian Parliament purchased one of the four surviving copies of the 1297 issue of Magna Carta. This Australian Magna Carta is now on display in Parliament House in Canberra. Magna Carta continues to be regarded throughout the world as a document that champions and protects the interests of ordinary people.
GLOSSARY OF MEDIEVAL TERMS

AID -
A payment demanded on special occasions from his tenants by the King or by other lords. ‘Aids’ were levied for making the lord’s eldest son a knight (see below in Glossary), for the marriage of his eldest daughter and for ransoming the lord’s person.

ANGEVIN -
The name given by historians to the descendants of the counts of Anjou who ruled England as Kings, from Henry II (ruled 1154-89) onward.

BARON -
The name given to a noble who held substantial estates and who paid a relief of £100 under cap. 2 of Magna Carta.

CRUSADE -
A military campaign undertaken by Christians and supported by the Church against non-Christians, most notably to recover the Holy Land from the Muslims in the east.

EXCOMMUNICATION -
A ban placed on a person from participating in the sacraments and services of the Church.

FOREST -
Areas of England that were owned by the Crown and used for hunting animals. They were usually partly wooded and had their own laws, known as Forest Law.

HOMAGE -
A formal declaration of allegiance to a King or a lord, usually by a tenant such as a knight.

INTERDICT -
A sentence that prohibited a place or person from participating in the life of the Roman Catholic Church. Its effect was similar to imposing a general strike of the clergy.

KNIGHT -
An armed, mounted warrior who had been through a special ceremony of dubbing to knighthood. By this period, many knights were local landholders, forerunners of the gentry who emerged in the later Middle Ages.

KNIGHT’S FEE -
An estate that was large enough to support one knight. This land was usually held from a lord in return for homage (see above in Glossary) and military service.

SCUTAGE -
Money that was paid to the King in lieu of military service.

WARDSHIP -
The custody of a child or young person whose parents, or often just the father, had died. The King was responsible for the care and control of all children and their lands if they were the sons and daughters of a tenant-in-chief. In other cases, it was usually the local lord who was responsible for looking after them as they grew up.

WRIT -
A written command or order; a type of legal document used in litigation.
Professor Louise Wilkinson, Professor of Medieval History at Canterbury Christ Church University.

Louise Wilkinson studied Medieval History at King's College London under Professor David Carpenter and Professor Dame Jinty Nelson, gaining her doctorate there in 1999. After spending four and a half fruitful and immensely enjoyable years working at The National Archives (U.K.) as a research fellow on the Completing the Calendar of Patent Rolls (Elizabeth I) Project, the Department of History and American Studies at Canterbury Christ Church University offered her a home. Since joining the Department in 2004, she has published several books on medieval women and the family, and her current research focuses on the involvement of aristocratic and royal women in thirteenth-century political life. Louise is also passionate about medieval documents, a legacy of her days at The National Archives.

Louise is a co-director of the AHRC-funded Henry III Fine Rolls Project (a collaborative project with King's College London and The National Archives of the United Kingdom) and of the AHRC-funded Magna Carta Project (a collaborative project with the University of East Anglia, King's College London, All Souls College, Oxford, and The British Library). She is also delighted to serve as councillor (and joint general editor) of the Pipe Roll Society and is on the Committee of the Canterbury Branch of the Historical Association.

Louise contributes to undergraduate modules on the Angevin Kings and Queens, and England in the age of Magna Carta. She is particularly interested in medieval queenship and in the lives of medieval women and medieval families. She is a frequent contributor on the subject of Magna Carta in the media including:

- 2012, contributor to ‘World At One’ on Magna Carta, BBC Radio 4 (26 September 2012)

The Outreach Team at Canterbury Christ Church University is committed to inspiring the next generation of students to aspire to higher education. Our work is motivated by our belief in inclusive education and a commitment to ensure fair access to higher education to people from all sections of society.

The Outreach Team believes in inclusive education which provides equal opportunities to those who have the potential to reach higher education, but may not consider it to be an option that is available to them.

The School of Humanities brings together several exciting and dynamic disciplines, offering a rich and thriving learning community in which students can develop their skills and talents.

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