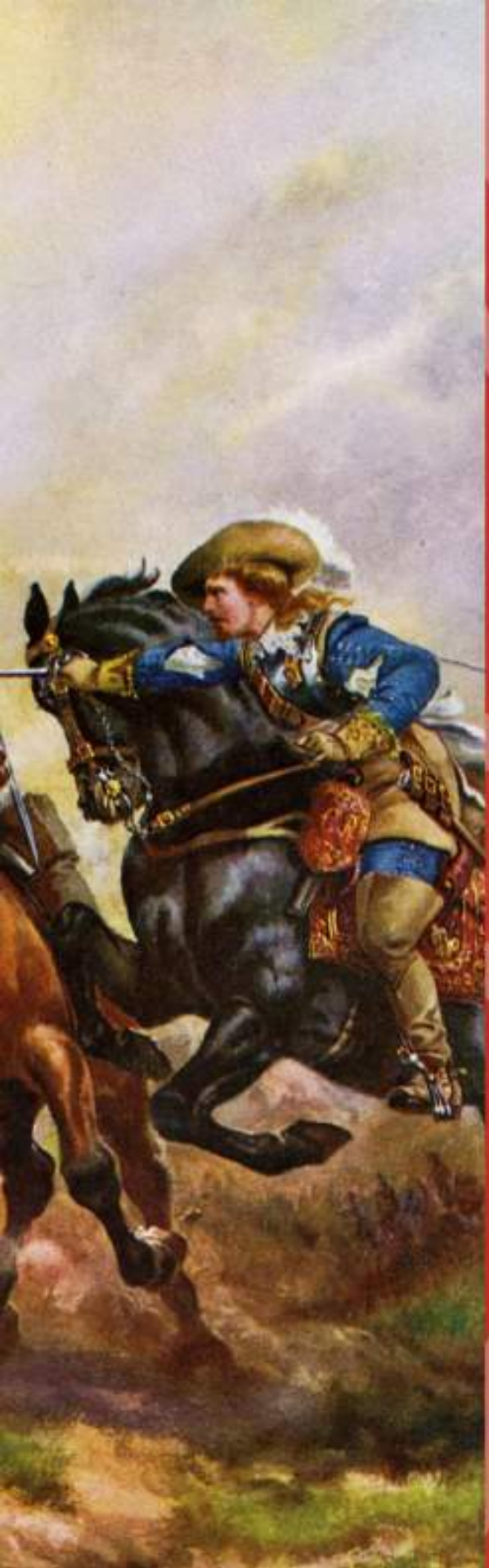

GCMUN '22

JCC

STUDY GUIDE

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Letter from the Secretary-General

Honorable participants,

My name is Arda and I, as the Secretary-General of the Gazi College Model United Nations 2022, am very honored to welcome you all to the fourth annual session of GCMUN on behalf of our Director-General Deniz Başak and also our well-prepared academic and organization team members.

While organizing GCMUN our aim was to provide all of our participants significant and remarkable experiences; and consequently, rising awareness through global issues that our world is facing has been our main purpose. In this conference, we ensure you that you will gain diversified world visions about the current situation from our agenda items and it will redound your debating and negotiating skills, therewithal your knowledge and sensibility.

As the academic team of GCMUN'22 we have chosen our committees in order to make you focus on various topics and they are suitable for various levels of MUNers, so you will be able to enjoy. We have 6 different committees for both highly experienced and unexperienced delegates. Our first GA committee is GA-1:DISEC and our second one is UNEP. Moreover we have United Nations Security Council, North Atlantic Treaty Organization, JCC: British Civil Conflicts and lastly a JR United Nations International Children's Emergency and Fund committee which we only opened for middle school students in order for them to state their opinions confidently about the current issue of the world since every child are affected from every single conflict that composed in our world.

I highly encourage all of you to be well-prepared and enthusiastic in order to be efficient during the conference.

Best regards,

Letter from the Under Secretary-General

As your Under-Secretary General, I have the utmost pleasure to welcome you all to the fourth session of the Gazi College Model United Nations conference.

Our generation enjoys unprecedented technological, scientific, and financial resources; which we should use to chart a course towards a more sustainable, equitable, and inclusive future. Yet perhaps this is the first generation to take the world to the brick of a systematical breakdown. Still, there are many signs of progress and many reasons for hope which is where the United Nations comes into play.

Humanity has become remarkably adept at mitigating conventional risks, solving multiplicative interconnected issues, and concluding colossal crises. As long as we enjoy unprecedented freedom and substantial growth there will be a dire need for highly intelligent, experienced, and enthusiastic diplomats to carry this prodigious, massive burden. These people should be ready so that when the risks and crises cascade, they can act in an agile and appropriate fashion. As an activist and enthusiast, I believe there is no better alternative, to start or better yet set a strong foundation for such intellectuals, than Model United Nations. Although this is probably the most important value MUN advocates, it's most definitely, not the only one. Participants will improve their critical thinking, public speaking, and most remarkably their confidence.

I, Massih Bayat, am an undergraduate at Kings College London studying Neuroscience. I have more than thirty experiences in Model United Nations academics and helped organize more than ten model united nations and debate events as well. My life has improved significantly since I

joined Model United Nations and throughout my journey in the Turkish Model United Nations community, I have enjoyed observing my delegates improve as well.

You participants must understand that model united nations, not unlike everything else in life, will not offer you anything of worth if you don't give it an honest effort. If you don't prepare or don't participate in the discussions your time and money will most definitely be wasted.

Lastly, if you have any inquiries in regards to our conference or topics please don't hesitate to contact me through social media,

Sincerely yours,

Massih Bayat

Preparation Guidance

Dear participants, in this section I want to stress the fact that thorough preparation is an absolute necessity for this committee.

This guide is to serve as a starting point for delegates by giving them a general understanding of the background and the events leading to the conflict at hand. Therefore, it falls upon the participants to read up on the events in the war, key people of interest, and other involved parties. Furthermore, you are expected to read up on the people mentioned in this guide as most played a major role in the civil war.

For highly experienced delegates this extra level of preparation is going to be useful as it will help them produce better directives.

For less experienced delegates this extra level of preparation is an absolute necessity as joint crisis committees can be difficult to get used to and the extra preparation could be significantly advantageous.

Please read through the following study guide carefully and do pay extra attention to the last section of the guide.

1. British Empire

The origin of the British Empire as territorial expansion beyond Europe started with the foundation of the maritime policies by King Henry VII, who reigned from 1485 to 1509. By building on commercial links in the wool trade promoted, he established the modern English merchant marine system, which greatly expanded English shipbuilding and seafaring. Furthermore, the merchant fleet supplied the basis for the mercantile institutions that would play such a crucial role in Britain's future, such as the Massachusetts Bay Company and the British East India Company which was started by Elizabeth I. Henry's financial reforms made the English Exchequer solvent, which aided in underwriting the development of the Merchant Marine. Henry also oversaw the construction of the first English dry dock at Portsmouth and significantly improved the Royal Navy. Additionally, he sponsored the voyages of key people such as the John Cabot who was an Italian voyager between 1496 and 1497. Cabot established England's first overseas colony in Newfoundland, which he claimed on behalf of Henry.

King Henry VIII founded the English navy (which remains the primary navy force of the United Kingdom). He more than tripled the number of warships and constructed the first large vessels with long-range guns. He initiated the Navy's formal, centralized administrative apparatus, built new docks, and constructed the network of beacons and lighthouses that made coastal navigation much easier for English and foreign merchant sailors. Henry established the munitions-based Royal Navy that was able to hold off the Spanish Armada in 1588.

In the 16th century, Great Britain made its first tentative attempts to establish overseas settlements through a series of maritime expansions motivated by commercial ambitions and

competition with France, which accelerated in the 17th century and resulted in the establishment of settlements in North America and the West Indies.

By 1670, British American colonies had established footholds in New England, Virginia, and Maryland, as well as settlements in the Bermudas, Honduras, Antigua, Barbados, and Nova Scotia. In 1655, the Hudson's Bay Company conquered Jamaica, and from the 1670s on, the Hudson's Bay Company established itself in what would become northeastern Canada. In 1600, the East India Company established trading posts in India, and the Straits Settlements (Penang, Singapore, Malacca, and Labuan) became British as a result of their activity.

In 1661, James Island in the Gambia River became the first permanent British colony on the African continent. The Slave trade had begun in Sierra Leone earlier, but it was not until 1787 that the country became a British dominion

Almost all of these early settlements were founded on the initiative of private enterprises and magnates, rather than any effort on the part of the English crown. The crown had some appointment and oversight powers, but the colonies were mainly self-contained businesses. As a result, the empire's construction was a disorganized process based on piecemeal acquisition, with the British government frequently being the least eager partner in the venture.

The crown ruled over its colonies primarily in the sectors of trade and shipping throughout the 17th and 18th centuries. The colonies were viewed as a source of necessary raw resources for England by the mercantilist mindset of the time and were awarded monopolies for their products, such as tobacco and sugar, in the British market. In exchange, they were expected to use English ships for all of their trade and to serve as markets for British manufactured goods. The

Navigation Act of 1651 and subsequent legislation established a closed economy between Britain and its colonies, requiring all colonial exports to be carried to the British market aboard English ships, and all colonial imports to pass through England. [1-2-3-7-10]

2. British Royal Lineage

A. Queen Elizabeth 1

Elizabeth I, also known as the Virgin Queen and Good Queen Bess, was the queen of England from 1558 to 1603, reigning during the Elizabethan Age, when England asserted itself as a major European power in politics, commerce, and the arts. She was born on September 7, 1533, in Greenwich, near London, England, and died on March 24, 1603, in Richmond, Surrey.

Even though the little kingdom was beset by internal strife at the time, Elizabeth's blend of wit, courage, and grand self-display prompted fervent expressions of allegiance and helped unite the country against foreign adversaries. The adoration showered on Mary during her lifetime and in subsequent ages was not entirely spontaneous. It was the culmination of a meticulously planned and flawlessly performed campaign in which the queen positioned herself as the gleaming symbol of the country's future.

This political symbolism, which is customary in monarchies, was deeper than usual because the queen was far more than a mere figurehead. While she did not have the ultimate power that Renaissance rulers fantasized about, she steadfastly maintained her authority to make crucial choices and set the major policies of both the state and the church. In England, the latter half of the 16th century is aptly renamed the Elizabethan Age: rarely has the collective life of age been imprinted with such a distinctively personal mark.

Sir Francis Drake circumnavigated the world from 1577 to 1580 while fleeing the Spanish, becoming just the second person to do so after Ferdinand Magellan's expedition.

Drake arrived in northern California in 1579 and claimed what he called Nova Albion for the English Crown (Albion is an ancient term for England or Britain), but the claim was never settled. The following maps show Nova Albion to be to the north of all of New Spain. The term "British Empire" was created by John Dee (1527-1609), who pushed England's interests outside of Europe. Many of the early English explorers visited him before and after their trips since he was an experienced navigator.

The Elizabethan era expanded on the imperial roots of the previous century by increasing Henry VIII's navy, encouraging English sailors to explore the Atlantic, and fostering maritime commerce, particularly with the Netherlands and the Hanseatic League, a Baltic commercial consortium. The nearly twenty-year Anglo-Spanish War (1585-1604), which began well for England with the sack of Cadiz and the defeat of the Spanish Armada, quickly turned against England with several major defeats that sent the Royal Navy into decline and allowed Spain to retain effective control of the Atlantic Sea lanes, thwarting English hopes of establishing colonies in North America. It did, however, provide invaluable expertise to English sailors and shipbuilders. The rivalry between the British, the Dutch and the Spanish reflected both commercial and territorial competition but also the Protestant-Catholic divide.

Queen Elizabeth resisted establishing the order of succession in any form because she feared for her safety if a successor was designated. She was especially concerned about England's ability to create a fruitful relationship with Scotland, whose Catholic and Presbyterian bases were hostile to female leadership. Catholic ladies who would be subservient to the Pope rather than English

law were turned down. From her accession in 1558 through her death in 1603 when the throne went to James VI of Scotland, the succession of the childless Elizabeth I remained a mystery. While the accession of James went smoothly, the succession had been the subject of much debate for decades. It also, in some scholarly views, was a major political factor of the entire reign, if not so voiced.

When Elizabeth I died in 1603, the throne was supposed to pass to Lady Anne Stanley, a granddaughter of Henry VIII's sister Mary Tudor, according to Henry's will (queen consort of France). (Elizabeth's second cousin once removed, Viscount Beauchamp, son of Lady Catherine Grey, was older, but his parents' marriage was dissolved, thus he was deemed illegitimate.) Nonetheless, James was the only genuine contender for the English throne: neither Beauchamp nor Lady Anne, nor anyone else, had the authority to oppose him. As a result, an Accession Council was formed, and James was declared King of England. On July 25, 1603, he and his wife were crowned at Westminster Abbey. Scotland and England were independent states until 1707 when the Acts of Union united the two countries to form the Kingdom of Great Britain. [2-5]

B. James VI and I

James VI of Scotland/James I of England and Ireland (Charles James Stuart) (June 19, 1566 – March 27, 1625) was the first monarch of Great Britain. From July 24, 1567, until the death of Elizabeth I of England in 1603, he governed Scotland as James VI. Then, from March 24, 1603, until his death, James I reigned in England and Ireland under the "Union of the Crowns." He was the first ruler of England to come from the Stuart family.

James is regarded as one of the most intelligent monarchs to have ever sat on the English or Scottish thrones. Much of Elizabethan England's cultural flowering continued under him; science, literature, and art, thanks to individuals like Sir Francis Bacon and William Shakespeare, advanced by leaps and bounds throughout his reign. In Scotland, James was a successful ruler, but in England, he was not. He was unable to deal with an adversarial Parliament; the House of Commons' unwillingness to levy high enough taxes ruined the royal coffers. The basis for the English Civil War was laid by his predilection for political absolutism, mishandling of the kingdom's money, and cultivation of unpopular favourites.

In 1605, Parliament passed four subsidies to the king, who still thought the money was insufficient. He levied customs taxes without parliamentary approval, even though no king had done so since Richard II of England's reign (1377-1399). The merchant John Bates contested the validity of such an action in 1606; nevertheless, the Court of Exchequer found in the king's favour. The court's judgement was slammed by Parliament. The failure of Parliament to adopt the king's plan to enable unfettered commerce between England and Scotland strained relations between James I and Parliament.

Lord Salisbury suggested the Great Contract in the last session of his first Parliament (which began in 1610), which would have resulted in the crown foregoing feudal dues in exchange for a yearly parliamentary stipend. However, due to political factionalism in Parliament, the proposal failed. James dissolved Parliament in 1611, frustrated by the members of the House of Commons and the failure of the Great Contract.

James openly sold accolades and titles to obtain revenue for the kingdom, which was deeply in debt. In 1611, he used letters patent to create an entirely new dignity, the Baronet, which

anybody might obtain for £1,080. For around £5,000, a Viscount for around £10,000, and an Earl for around £20,000, one may become a Baron, Viscount, or Earl.

After that, James began to get involved in areas that had previously been handled by his ministers. James' administration was financially catastrophic, and a new Parliament was convened in 1614 to seek the imposition of more taxes. Because it failed to adopt any laws or impose any taxes, James' second Parliament was known as the "Addled Parliament." When it became evident that no progress could be made, James grew enraged and dissolved Parliament.

Following the dissolution of the Addled Parliament, James ruled for seven years without a Parliament. Faced with financial troubles as a result of Parliament's inability to authorize new levies, James wanted to form a beneficial relationship with Spain by marrying his eldest surviving son, Charles, Prince of Wales, to the Spanish king's daughter. In Protestant England, the intended alliance with a Roman Catholic monarchy was not favourably embraced.

From 1618 to 1648, Europe was immersed in a religious struggle known as the Thirty Years' War. Because his daughter, Elizabeth of Bohemia, was married to the Protestant Frederick V, Elector Palatine, one of the war's main players, James was compelled to get involved. He was also persuaded to join the religious battle because England was one of the biggest protestant nations at the time. [1-2-5]

C. Charles I

From March 27, 1625, until he died in 1649, Charles I (November 19, 1600 – January 30, 1649) was King of England, King of Scotland, and King of Ireland. He notably engaged in a power war with the English Parliament. Many in England worried he was seeking to seize ultimate authority

because he believed in the Divine Right of Kings. Many of his acts drew significant criticism, including the imposition of levies without Parliament's approval.

Charles' reign was marked by religious strife. Over Parliament's and popular opinion's protests, he married Henrietta Maria, a Catholic princess. Richard Montagu, an ecclesiastic, and William Laud, whom Charles named Archbishop of Canterbury, were among the problematic religious personalities Charles linked himself with. Many of Charles' people believed that Laud's reforms to the Church of England's liturgy moved the Church of England too close to Roman Catholicism. Later attempts by Charles to impose religious changes on Scotland resulted in a conflict that weakened England and contributed to his demise.

The English Civil War highlighted the latter years of Charles' reign, in which he was opposed by both Parliamentary forces (who questioned his attempts to expand his authority) and Puritans (who were averse to his religious policies and apparent Catholic sympathies). After Charles' loss in the first Civil War (1642–1645), MPs expected him to adopt their demands for a constitutional monarchy. Instead, he resisted, igniting a second Civil War (1648–1649). Charles was tried, convicted, and killed for high treason because this was deemed intolerable. The monarchy was then deposed, and the Commonwealth of England was established as a republic. After the monarchy was restored in 1660, Charles' son, Charles II, became king. [1-2-3-5]

3. The Commonwealth of England

Following Charles, I's execution and the destruction of the monarchy, the newly formed Commonwealth replaced the monarchy with a Council of State, which sought to rule alongside the Rump Parliament instead of the Crown. However, during the following four years, this

system of administration proved to be inadequate, particularly in the eyes of the army, and in 1653, Oliver Cromwell marched into Parliament with troops in tow and forcibly dissolved Parliament.

Oliver Cromwell, lacking any real constitutional legitimacy, ruled England as 'Lord Protector,' a military dictator wielding more power than Charles I had ever dreamed of, much to the dismay of many of those whom he had led or fought alongside in the cause of Parliament against a king whom they had deemed a tyrant, although not without support from others who feared that the alternative was a clerical monarchy. [2-4-6]

A. Oliver Cromwell

0liver Cromwell, (born April 25, 1599, Huntingdon, Huntingdonshire, England—died September 3, 1658, London), English soldier and statesman, who led parliamentary forces in the English Civil Wars and was lord protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland (1653–58) during the republican Commonwealth.

Cromwell assisted in the overthrow of the Stuart monarchy as a general on the parliamentary side in the English Civil War against King Charles I, and as Lord Protector, he restored his country's status as a leading European power after the decline it had experienced since the death of Queen Elizabeth I. He was one of the most amazing rulers in modern European history, a guy of exceptional abilities and a commanding personality. Despite being a devout Calvinist, he firmly believed in the need for religious tolerance.

At the same time, Cromwell's successes at home and abroad aided in the expansion and maintenance of a Puritan mentality in Great Britain and North America, which influenced political and social life until recently.

Cromwell earned a reputation as a military organizer and a fighter in 1643. He required from the start that the men who served on the parliamentary side be carefully recruited and thoroughly trained, and he went out of his way to locate men who were loyal and well-behaved regardless of their religious views or social class. In February, he was promoted to colonel and began recruiting a first-class cavalry unit. While he required that his soldiers be treated well and paid on time, he also maintained tough discipline.

If they cursed, they were fined; if they were intoxicated, they were placed in the stocks; if they nicknamed each other Roundheads—thereby adopting the derogatory term the Royalists used to describe them because of their short hair—they were cashiered; and if they defected, they were lashed. He trained his cavalrymen so well that he could inspect and re-form them after they stormed into battle. Cromwell's fighting ability was one of his greatest assets.

Oliver Cromwell was the first chairman of the Council of State, the executive body of a one-chamber Parliament after the British Isles were declared a republic and renamed the Commonwealth. However, for the first three years after his death, Charles I was mostly consumed by wars against the Royalists in Ireland and Scotland. He also had to put down a rebellion in the Commonwealth army, which was sparked by the Levelers, an extreme Puritan organisation who claimed to be striving for a "levelling" of the rich and poor.

He led a relentless campaign against them as commander in chief and lord-lieutenant, while he noted that refusing quarter to most of the garrison at Drogheda near Dublin in September 1649 would "tend to save the effusion of blood for the future, which otherwise must but cause guilt and regret." Cromwell was instructed to lead an army into Scotland after his return to London in May 1650, where Charles II (who subsequently restored the British empire) had been recognized as its new monarch.

The war was tough, and Cromwell was ill during the winter of 1650. However, on September 3, 1650, he beat the Scots with a smaller force in the Battle of Dunbar, and a year later, when Charles II and the Scots moved into England, Cromwell crushed that army at Worcester.

The Civil Wars came to a close with this conflict. Cromwell now wished for peace, political stability, and social change. He insisted on passing an "act of forgetfulness" (amnesty), but the soldiers grew more dissatisfied with Parliament. It thought that the members of Parliament were corrupt and that a new Parliament should be convened. Cromwell attempted to negotiate between the two adversaries once more, but his sympathies were with his men. When he ultimately decided that Parliament ought to be dissolved and replaced, he summoned his musketeers and evicted the members of the House on April 20, 1653.

Cromwell and his Council of State issued more than 80 ordinances enacting a constructive domestic policy before calling his first Protectorate Parliament on September 3, 1654. He wanted to change the law, establish a Puritan Church, allow for toleration outside of it, encourage education, and decentralize government. Although the lawyers' opposition to legal reform hindered his zeal for change, he was able to pick excellent judges in both England and Ireland. "To watch folks, lose their life for trifling matters...is a thing that God will reckon for," he said of

harsh punishments for minor offences. Only murder, treason, and insurrection were punishable by death in his eyes.

During his Protectorate, he established committees known as Triers and Ejectors to ensure that clergy and schoolmasters maintained a high level of behaviour. Despite the opposition of certain members of his council, Cromwell allowed Jews to return to the nation. He was a great chancellor of Oxford University, created a college in Durham, and ensured that grammar schools grew as they had never grown before.

Cromwell brought the Anglo-Dutch War to a satisfying conclusion in 1654, which he had long despised as a battle between Protestants. The dilemma of how to effectively deploy his army and fleet surfaced next. His Council of State was split, but in the end, he decided to ally with France to fight Spain. He dispatched an amphibious expedition to the Spanish West Indies, and Jamaica was taken in May 1655. He got the port of Dunkirk as a reward for deploying an expeditionary army to fight with the French in Spanish Flanders.

He was particularly interested in Scandinavian issues; despite his admiration for Sweden's King Charles X, his first thought in seeking to intervene in the Baltic was the benefits to his nation. Despite the focus in some of Cromwell's speeches on Protestant interests, the overriding reason for his foreign policy was a national rather than religious gain.

His economic and industrial policies were mostly conventional. However, he was against monopolies, which the populace despised and which had primarily benefitted the court gentry during Queen Elizabeth and the first two Stuarts. As a result, the East Indian trade was opened for three years, but Cromwell eventually awarded the firm a fresh license (October 1657) in

exchange for financial assistance. Because satisfactory borrowing techniques had not yet been developed, Cromwell's governmental finances, like those of virtually other European governments at the time, were not without problems.

Oliver Cromwell was far from a zealous Puritan. He was neither harsh nor intolerant by nature. He was concerned about his men and did not punish them harshly when he disagreed with his generals. (When he fired John Lambert, for example, he paid him a substantial pension.) He was completely dedicated to his elderly mother, his wife, and his children. (The claims circulated by Royalists that he was a fan of several ladies are unfounded.). While he was concerned about his children's spiritual well-being because he believed that "often the children of great men have not the fear of God before their eyes," he made the mistake of not preparing his eldest son, Richard, for the practical tasks of government, whom he nominated to succeed him as the protector in the final days of his life.

Music and hunting were two of his favourite pastimes. He loved to listen to the organ and was an exceptional horse judge. He was known to smoke, drink sherry and tiny beer, and love English food; during his youngest daughter's wedding, he allowed dancing. He used to play horses with his soldiers when he was younger, but he was a respectable king. Sir Peter Lely, a prominent Dutch painter, depicted him in his prime (albeit the portrait was not painted from life); Robert Walker's numerous paintings from life dating from the start of the Civil War depict him as a zealot.

Cromwell was far more lenient as Lord Protector than he had been as a fiery Puritan youngster. He was happy after bishops were gone and congregations were permitted to pick their preachers. He allowed all Christians to practice their religion outside of the church as long as they did not

cause chaos or discontent. Even English Roman Catholics were better off during the Protectorate than they had been previously, as he authorized the use of The Book of Common Prayer in private homes.

Cromwell is known to have suffered from kidney stones or other urine/kidney problems, and in 1658, following a bout of malarial fever, he contracted a urinary infection, which led to his deterioration and death on September 3rd at the age of 59. Soon after, his son Richard took over as his successor. [1-2-3-4-5-8]

B. Richard Cromwell

Richard Cromwell, (born Oct. 4, 1626—died July 12, 1712, Cheshunt, Hertfordshire, Eng.), lord protector of England from September 1658 to May 1659. Richard Cromwell, the eldest surviving son of Oliver Cromwell and Elizabeth Bourchier, failed in his bid to succeed his father as Commonwealth leader.

During his father's guardianship, he served in the Parliamentary army in 1647 and 1648 and was a member of the Parliaments of 1654 and 1656. He was named to the committee of commerce in 1655, but he lacked his father's competence, and it wasn't until 1657 when a new constitution gave Oliver the power to pick his successor, that the Lord Protector began grooming his son for a high position. Richard succeeded his father as chancellor of the University of Oxford in July 1657.

On December 31, he was elected to the council of state, and about the same time, he was given a regiment and a seat in Oliver's House of Lords. Oliver may have named Richard as his successor

on his deathbed; Oliver died on September 3, 1658, and Richard promptly declared himself Lord Protector.

The new king quickly ran into major problems. By seizing personal leadership of the army and dismissing their desire for the appointment of an experienced general as commander in chief, he insulted high-ranking army commanders. In addition, the army formed a committee to plan its strategy as a result of the struggle between Parliament and the army. The council seized control and forced Richard to dissolve Parliament when Parliament barred the council from meeting without Richard's consent (April 21, 1659). The officers brought back the Rump Parliament, which Oliver had dissolved in 1653. Richard was fired by the Rump, and on May 25, he formally abdicated. After amassing significant debts during his service as governor, he fled to Paris in 1660 to avoid his creditors, posing as John Clarke. He eventually settled in Geneva. He returned to England in 1680 and lived in isolation at Cheshunt until his death.[4-5]

4. Charles II, Reinstation of British Monarchy

King of Great Britain and Ireland (1660–85), Charles II (born May 29, 1630, London—died February 6, 1685, London), was returned to the throne after years of exile during the Puritan Commonwealth. The Restoration period in English history refers to the years of his reign. His political agility and understanding of persons helped him to guide his kingdom through the turbulence of the Anglican-Catholic-Dissenter conflict that characterized most of his reign.

He made strenuous efforts to save his father in 1648, and when the Scots proclaimed him Charles II in defiance of the English republic after Charles I's execution in 1649, he was willing to go to Scotland and swallow the stringently anti-Catholic and anti-Anglican Presbyterian Covenant as

the price for an alliance. But the cost of sacrificing friends and ideas was in vain, and he was left angry. The English under Oliver Cromwell crushed the Scottish army at Dunbar in September 1650, and Charles' invasion of England in 1651 culminated in defeat at Worcester. The young monarch became a fugitive, pursued for 40 days across England but shielded by a few loyal subjects before escaping to France in October 1651.

Cromwell's diplomacy barred him from France and the Dutch United Provinces, so he went to Spain, with whom he signed a treaty in April 1656. He convinced his brother James to renounce leadership of the French army in exchange for certain Anglo-Irish battalions in Spanish service, but poverty rendered this nucleus of a royalist force ineffective. European princes were uninterested in Charles and his cause, and his marriage proposals were turned down. Even Cromwell's death did not affect his chances. However, one of Cromwell's best generals, George Monck, recognized that the kingdom was in danger of being ripped apart under Cromwell's successors and, with his powerful force, established the conditions favourable to Charles's restoration in 1660.

Most Englishmen now favoured a return to a stable and legitimate monarchy, and even though more was known of Charles II's vices than his virtues, he had avoided any damaging compromise of his religion or constitutional principles, thanks to the steadying influence of Edward Hyde, his chief adviser. With Hyde's assistance, Charles released the Declaration of Breda in April 1660, proclaiming his wish for a wide pardon, religious tolerance, equitable resolution of land issues, and full payment of army arrears. The unconditional nature of the 1660-1662 settlement owed little to Charles' participation and must have exceeded his expectations. He was bound by his father's concessions of 1640 and 1641, but the Parliament

elected in 1661 was hell-bent on a staunchly Anglican and royalist settlement. The Corporation Act of 1661 permitted Charles to cleanse the boroughs of rebellious officials, while the Militia Act of 1661 granted him unprecedented authority to keep a permanent army. Other laws restricted the press and public assembly, and the 1662 Act of Uniformity established educational regulations. The main benefactors of Charles II's restoration were an elite group of Anglican clergies and a well-armed landed aristocracy. [3-9]

5. Events of the Civil Wars

A. 1640–41: Parliament and Religious Tension

In 1640–41, a united Parliament exploited the king's weak position and reversed the unpopular policies of the previous 11 years, passing a law that all taxes needed its approval, and another that it could not be dismissed from sitting without its consent. The political struggle was becoming fierce: Archbishop Laud, who instigated Charles's church reforms, was imprisoned, and the king's foremost supporter, Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, was condemned and executed on charges of dubious legality.

Strafford's death had serious consequences. His firm administration of Ireland now gave way to a lack of authority, and the majority Catholic population there, fearing persecution by the English Parliament and the Scottish Covenanters, rebelled in October 1641. An army was needed to re-establish order, but Parliament did not trust the king – who was military commander-in-chief –

to command it, fearing he would turn it to his purpose, perhaps to re-establish his authority in England.

Parliament, therefore, the extended debate about constitutional questions, not only about military command but also about who should appoint government ministers, privy councillors and senior churchmen. The king saw all of these as his right: Parliament wanted a role.

Religion continued as a source of disagreement. Although the king was willing to return church practice to the form it had been under James I.

B. 1642: The Beginning of the First Civil War

The king could not agree to Parliament's demands and in January 1642 he tried and failed to arrest his leading opponents in Parliament, having accused them of treason. With Parliament in control of the London militias and the Tower of London, and fearing for his safety, Charles left London and by April had established his court in York. Both sides waged a propaganda war with broadsheets that were widely circulated. Sides and factions began to form in the regions, reflecting those at a national level, and both sides began to raise armies.

On 1 June, the Long Parliament published the Nineteen Propositions, a document that stated its demands to limit the king's powers, transferring most into its own hands. It was too much for Charles, who considered it subjugation: he rejected the document on 21 June. Minor fighting began in midsummer as each side competed in recruitment and started to take towns and cities

into their control. A formal declaration of war took place on 22 August when the king raised his standard at Nottingham.

C. 1642: Edgehill, the First Pitched Battle

All summer was taken up with recruitment. England did not have a standing army and its soldiers mainly comprised the county militias –ordinary men who trained part-time and who fought only when called to, usually in defence of their county or town. While the militias resolved their allegiances, extra recruiting drives took place. At summer's end, each side had amassed around 20,000 soldiers, most of them with little or no fighting experience.

The first large battle took place on 23 October. The Parliamentarian army, commanded by the Earl of Essex, met the king's forces at Edgehill (Warwickshire) with about 13,000–14,000 on each side. The result was inconclusive, though about 1,000 soldiers lost their lives. The king's army then marched on London but was stopped at Turnham Green (Middlesex) by Essex's expanded force of about 24,000. Small-scale fighting occurred over the winter of 1642–3, during which the king established his headquarters at Oxford.

D. 1644: The Tide Begins to Turn

Late in 1643, the king reached an agreement with the Irish Catholics to end the Irish Rebellion. Irish troops now joined the Royalists, fighting in north Wales and Cheshire in 1644. The king's use of Catholic troops proved to be counter-productive, as it gave rise to the idea of an Irish 'invasion' and Charles was further smeared with anti-Catholic propaganda.

Equally seriously, in 1643 Parliament allied with the Scottish Covenanters, who had no wish to see Catholic influence in England. As a result, in January 1644, a 22,000-strong Scottish army crossed the border to help Parliament, heading for York to join a Parliamentarian army. To counter this large force, a Royalist army under Prince Rupert hurried to Yorkshire.

The two armies clashed at Marston Moor, just east of York, on 2 July, in the largest battle of the First Civil War. Parliament's 28,000 soldiers routed the smaller Royalist force of about 18,000 in a decisive victory that caused the collapse of the Royalist cause in the North. Elsewhere, the Royalists did better, defeating the Earl of Essex at Lostwithiel (Cornwall), while the king eluded a much larger Parliamentarian army at the Second Battle of Newbury. In Scotland, a Royalist force under the Marquess of Montrose was making progress against the Covenanters. By the end of 1644, the North belonged to Parliament, apart from a few isolated Royalist outposts. The king lost ground in the Midlands too, but he held the important Royalist base at Newark, as well as much of the West and Wales.

E. 1645–6: Parliament is Victorious

Early in 1645, Parliament presented the king with the Uxbridge Propositions, another list of proposals to bring about peace. The proposals would have ended the king's command of the armed forces, given Parliament responsible for the education of his children, introduced Scottish-style Presbyterian religion to England, and obliged the king to sign the Covenant. It was firmly rejected.

Parliament's war effort was helped by the professionalization of its army. It gradually removed aristocratic commanders and replaced them with trained soldiers and, at the same time, created a

permanent, professional New Model Army of 22,000 men under Thomas Fairfax. Among the senior commanders of the new army was Oliver Cromwell. Through his military prowess and political acumen, Cromwell would soon become the leading figure of the Parliamentarian cause.

The decisive battle of the war took place on 14 June when two armies – 15,000 under Fairfax and 9,000–10,000 under the king – fought at Naseby in Northampton shire, resulting in a decisive victory for Parliament. For the remainder of 1645 and early 1646, the Parliamentarian army moved into the shrinking Royalist areas, defeating their remaining forces in the West and South West.

On 10 March 1646, the Royalist army in the West, under Sir Ralph Hopton, surrendered at Truro (Cornwall). Most of Wales and the Marches fell without significant action and on 21 March the only remaining Royalist field army was defeated at Stow-on-the-Wold (Gloucestershire). The king left Oxford and surrendered to the Scottish army on 5 May at Newark. The last few Royalist strongholds were ordered to surrender but a few fought on until late summer.

F. 1648: The second Civil War

Royalist uprisings began in the spring and summer of 1648, many of them originating in discontent over taxes, the devastation of war and disillusionment with Parliament, while some were simply still loyal to the king. There was a Naval Revolt in the Downs, offshore from Deal (Kent), and an uprising in north Kent. Fairfax acted swiftly with 7,000 soldiers of the New Model Army, crushing the Kentish Royalists at Maidstone on 1–2 June.

Some Kentish Royalists escaped to Colchester (Essex) where the town was fortified against a Parliamentarian siege that lasted until late August. Meanwhile, the Naval Revolt spread to the

land, also lasting into August, with Royalists occupying Dover, Deal, Walmer and Sandown castles, all of which were eventually recaptured after serious fighting and sieges.

In the North, Oliver Cromwell took an army of 8,000 into south Wales as far as Pembroke to quell a revolt there, then marched rapidly north to engage a Scottish army of 10,000, which he defeated at Preston in mid-August.

The events of 1648 marked the end of Parliamentarian negotiation. The Army seized power, the leaders of the uprisings were executed, and the more radical MPs expelled the moderates from Parliament in what became known as Pride's Purge.

This left a much smaller body, the Rump Parliament, composed of hard-liners implacably opposed to the king.

G. 1649: King's trial

The Rump Parliament set up a high court and the king was put on trial in Westminster Hall. He was found guilty of attempting to 'uphold in himself an unlimited and tyrannical power to rule according to his will and to overthrow the rights and liberties of the people.

The court did the unthinkable and condemned the king to death. He was beheaded in Whitehall on 30 January 1649.

H. 1649–51: The third Civil War

The execution of Charles I was opposed by the Scots Parliament, which entered negotiations with the king's son, Prince Charles. He was asked to agree to the Presbyterian religion in England, and to sign the Covenant. Charles needed an army because Parliament had launched a new campaign in Ireland with Cromwell in command late in 1649, and all Royalist military resources were committed there. Cromwell's success in Ireland induced Prince Charles to accept the Covenant and he arrived in Scotland in June 1650 (but was not crowned as king until 1 January 1651).

The English Parliament sent an army north with Cromwell in command with Scotland now hostile. Initially, the Scots commander, Alexander Leslie, conducted a canny campaign of refusing pitched battle, allowing lack of supplies and disease to deplete the English force and cause its retreat. However, when Leslie finally offered battle at Dunbar on 3 September 1650, Cromwell defeated him. After another defeat at Inverkeithing on 20 July 1651, Charles went south and assembled a combined army at Worcester.

At Worcester, a huge Parliamentarian army gathered from all over England to confront what was considered a Scottish invasion – some 32,000 English soldiers confronted Charles's 16,000. It was another decisive victory for Cromwell and Parliament, and though Charles escaped, the third Civil War was at an end. [1-2-3-4-10]

6. Final notes

Many of the affiliations here in question have not been explored in this guide, although it is expected that delegates respect said affiliation the nature of the proceedings may dictate

alternative decisions therefore it is of utmost necessity to know your characters and their closest allies well.

This committee will sustain many different forms of crises. As mentioned before, the British government in the civil war had to diffuse the rebels in Ireland, continue and sustain the expeditions, and participate in international conflicts while in major economic turmoil.

During the same period, the parliament dealt with the economic turmoil and continuation of the expeditions while at war with the monarchy.

Delegates can expect a multitude of crises of different natures simultaneously therefore they need to be well aware of the History of the parliaments, sub-economy and rules of the expeditions and colonies, and international interests.

The conflict will begin before the start of the first civil war. It is important to note that this committee's proceeding will be different to the actual sequence of events. Therefore, the endpoint of the proceedings is up to the delegates' output.

Lastly, we expect delegates to be faithful to their assigned characters and therefore need to know the major roles and issues within said roles concerning their characters.

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