

# A Short History of Wales

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## Foreword

This "Short History" has been compiled from a study of a number of other works, in particular "Life in Wales" by A.H.Dodd

## Chapter 1. Ancient Britain: Iberians and Celts

The British Isles in the Bronze age (about 2000-500 B.C. in these islands) were mainly inhabited by a short dark-haired people known as Iberians, who probably came originally from the Mediterranean lands. Towards the end of this period taller fair-haired Nordic Aryans advanced across western Europe from their land of origin in eastern Europe and western Asia. The Aryans who first came to Britain were the Celts. They came in two waves, starting perhaps about 600 B.C. The first wave – the Goidelic Celts or Gaels – settled in Ireland and the highlands of Scotland. The second – the Brythonic Celts or Britons – settled in England, Wales and the Scottish lowlands. The name Britain is, of course, derived from them.

The Celts, skilful in ironwork, conquered the Iberian tribes and became a ruling aristocracy; and the subsequent population of Britain was a mixture of the two races. The proportion of Celts and Iberian blood in the mixture is impossible to estimate; but in the more inaccessible parts of Britain – Wales and Cornwall – and in Ireland and the Highlands of Scotland, the resulting physique and colouring seems predominantly Iberian. (the inhabitants of these districts are rather misleadingly known today as the “Celtic fringe”, thus giving the erroneous impression the Celts were dark and smallish.) The Welsh language comes from that of the Brythonic Celts.

The Celts had a tribal organisation, the basis of their society being ties of kinship; and the tribes were constantly at war with each other. There was some agriculture in the plains but their main occupations hunting, fishing, herding and, above all, fighting. Second in importance only to the kings and chiefs were the Druids, the priests and administrators of justice. Knowledgeable in astronomy, the Druids had a monopoly on education, and exerted great influence over tribesmen. Their religion included cruel rites of human sacrifice. The great stronghold of the Druids was Anglesey.

## Chapter 2. Roman Wales.

Between A.D. 43 and A.D. 47 the invading Romans subdued the lowlands of southern England. They then pursued into the Welsh highlands the British leader Caractacus (or Caradoc), who there organised the resistance of the Silures in the south and the Orodovices in the North. By A.D. 51 Caractacus was defeated and captured; but many of the hill tribes were still unconquered, and resistance continued, spurred on by the Druids. In A.D. 60 the Romans drove the Britons of north Wales into Anglesey, defeated them in a great battle, and then massacred the Druids and destroyed their alters and sacred groves.

It took another twenty years to complete the subjugation of the Silures of the south, and by A.D. 80 the conquest of Wales was virtually accomplished- virtually because the two western promontories and Anglesey were never fully under Roman control. They remained in close touch with Ireland, which the Romans never invaded. Within these limitations Wales for the next three centuries was part of the Roman Empire. Order was maintained by the usual Roman system of roads and fortresses, the main strongholds being Chester in the north and Caerleon in the south.

During these centuries Britain, including Wales, was a peaceful and prosperous Roman province. To Rome, Britain was a source of corn, minerals, and manpower for her legions. The Britons, in return, enjoyed the amenities of Roman civilisation – an orderly existence and increasing agriculture and trade. The Celtic aristocracy became “Romanised”. They copied Roman habits and their system of government, and learned to speak Latin. When Rome adopted Christianity many of the more Romanised Britons did so too.

### Chapter 3. From the Roman Withdrawal to the Coming of the Normans: Independent Welsh Principalities

During the 4<sup>th</sup> century Rome had to withdraw her legions gradually from Britain to meet the Germanic invasions of her empire on the continent; and so she became increasingly unable to protect the western extremities of Wales, which were subject to raids – and settlement – by the Gaelic Celts of Ireland. There was an Irish dynasty in south-west Wales from the end of the 3<sup>rd</sup> century; and in the 5<sup>th</sup> century, after the final departure of the Romans – while England was being conquered by the Anglo-Saxons – Wales was divided between Gaels and Britons.

In this period all the aspects of Roman civilisation – trade, tillage, mining, roads, government – disintegrated; and the disunited tribes seem to have lost their former vigour and love of independence. On the credit side, though, Gaels brought with them their Irish culture (on the collapse of the Roman Empire Ireland became an isolated outpost of western civilisation); and Irish monks – and missionaries from Gaul – re-established Christianity in Wales. In the 6<sup>th</sup> century the leading figure in south Wales in this Christian revival was the Briton David, later to become patron saint of Wales.

The Gaelic conquests and settlements in Wales, however, were not permanent. In the 6<sup>th</sup> century Cunedda, a Briton from the north (perhaps Northumbria), started to drive out the Gaels. His successors, notably Maelgwyn Gwynedd, extended these conquests, and established the kingdom of Gwynedd, covering much of northern Wales, with its capital at Deganwy, near Conway.

The Britons of Wales then had to contend with the Anglo-Saxons, who by the beginning of the 7<sup>th</sup> century had reached the Bristol Channel, and by the middle of the century had conquered northern Britain. The Britons of Wales now had no land link with the Britons of the north (Cumbria) and those in the south-west (Cornwall). Their isolation from the rest of Britain was completed by the construction of Offa's Dyke. This was built late in the 8<sup>th</sup> century by Offa, king of the midland Saxon kingdom of Mercia, to confine the Welsh to the land west of a line from the Dee in the north to the Wye in the south (roughly the land which is now Wales).

During the struggles with the Anglo-Saxons the western Britons began to call themselves Cymry, or compatriots; and after the isolation of

Wales\* their country (Cymru) became a distinct entity, and the Welsh language\*\* evolved. Cymru, however, was never fully united. Apart from Gwynedd, which dominated the north, other powerful principalities were Powis in central Wales, Deheubarth in the south, and Dyfed in the south-west.

Unlike the rest of the British Isles, Wales was not to any great extent harassed by the raids and invasions of the Vikings during the 9<sup>th</sup> to the 11<sup>th</sup> centuries. Their main incursions seem to have been repulsed by Rhodri Mawr (King of Gwynedd, died about 878) – who went on to become ruler of all Wales except the extreme south-east and south-west. The Viking conquests, however, did have some lasting effect on Wales. They largely cut off the Welsh from their former contacts with Ireland (whose civilisation was virtually destroyed) and western Europe. This, and the Viking threat itself, tended to promote a closer involvement of Wales with Saxon England – some Welsh kings recognised the overlordship of Wessex.

Rhodri Mawr's successors maintained a precarious rule over most of Wales until the time of Hywel Dda (Howell the Good, died about 950). Hywel added Dyfed to his dominions, and is famous for being the first ruler to codify the tribal laws and customs of the various parts of Wales – the basis of a legal system which remained in force until the conquest of Wales by Edward I.

After Hywel's death Wales once more split into several principalities – Gwynedd, Powis, Deheubarth (now including Dyfed), and Morgannwg in the south-east. The princes quarrelled among themselves for supremacy. Such was the situation when the Normans conquered England, though shortly before that Gruffyd ap Llewelyn briefly united the Welsh and led formidable raids into the English territory until he was defeated by Earl (later King) Harold.

\* 'Wales' is derived from the Anglo-Saxon "Wealas" or "foreigners".

\*\* Cornish and the Breton language of Brittany are closely allied to Welsh. In the 6<sup>th</sup> century, as Anglo-Saxon pressure increased, many Britons from Wales and Cornwall emigrated to Armotica, then re-named Brittany.

## Chapter 4. Norman Encroachment: Wales in the 12th Century

William the Conqueror's policy towards Wales was to restrain the turbulent Welsh by establishing along the border the "Lords Marcher", warlike Norman Barons who were encouraged to extend their territories at Welsh expense. Their main headquarters were at the border towns of Chester, Shrewsbury and Hereford. This policy was continued by William I's successors, and for the next two hundred years the struggle between the Lords Marcher and the Welsh principalities went on, with varying fortunes.

In William II's reign the Normans overran most of south Wales, securing their position by building castles. Many of them married into the families of Welsh princes, and had thoughts of founding independent realms. But Henry I (1100-1135) dealt effectively with both the barons and the Welsh, and consolidated the Norman gains in the south. He also planted large colonies of English and Flemings in Pembrokeshire and the Gower peninsula (in Glamorgan) – where their descendants remained, speaking no Welsh, and with traditions very different from those of the surrounding Welshmen.

In the north the Normans were less successful. They advanced along the valleys of central Wales to Cardigan Bay, and along the north coast; but the mountainous region of Snowdonia (Caernarvon and Merioneth) and Anglesey remained in the possession of the rulers of Gwynedd. When England was in the throes of civil war, as in the reign of Stephen (1135-1154), the Welsh descended from the mountains and ravaged Cheshire and Shropshire; but their own family feuds and lack of unity prevented them from being a serious menace.

Sometimes, for instance after a punitive expedition by Henry II, Gwynedd recognised the feudal overlordship of the English crown, and the title "Lord" was substituted for "King". The Kings of Powis and Deheubarth also became Lords – the latter known as lord Rhys; and after an alliance of the three had checked Henry's military successes Lord Rhys was recognised by Henry as "Justice of South Wales" – where he ruled in great splendour. (Henry had other preoccupations, including the invasion of Ireland, for which the Norman barons of Wales provided the spearhead.)

Norman encroachment was not solely military in character. It affected the Welsh in many ways. The Welsh aristocracy built Norman-style castles, and followed the Norman example of creating towns. This

promoted trade, and work in the towns gave opportunities to the "bondsmen" – presumably descendants of conquered peoples – to escape from servitude. Hitherto they had greatly outnumbered the freemen.

In the Church, too, Norman influence is seen. The old Celtic Welsh Church had long ago (in the 8<sup>th</sup> century) conformed to the usages of Latin Christendom. Now, under Norman pressure, Wales adopted the diocesan organisation of the Roman Church. In the first half of the 12<sup>th</sup> century cathedrals were built at Llandaff (Cardiff), St. David's (Pembrokeshire), Bangor (Caernarvon) and St. Asaph (Flint). And later in the century many Cistercian monasteries were founded.

But in spite of Norman encroachment Welsh tradition was still very much alive. During this period the epic poems of the Cymry, previously transmitted orally, were committed to writing; and the Norman Geoffrey of Monmouth (later Bishop of St. Asaph) inspired the Welsh with pride in a glorious past by the production of his "Historia Regum Britanniae", a (mainly fictional) history of the ancient kings of Britain, which became one of the most popular books of the Middle Ages. The climax of this "history" was the romantic story of King Arthur.

The Welsh also retained the national characteristics which distinguished them from Saxon and Norman. The Welshmen at the end of the 12<sup>th</sup> century is described in the writings of the half Norman half Welsh Gerald of Wales (Giraldus Cambrensis) – light and active, hardy and warlike, stubborn and quick to take offence, full of family pride, frugal in food, drink and dress, religious and passionately devoted to poetry and song. (The Welsh were probably one of the first peoples to practise part-singing, a new development in music which may have started some time earlier but which was established by the end of the 12<sup>th</sup> century.)



## Chapter 5. The 13th Century: The Llewelyns: The Conquest of Wales by Edward I

In the 13<sup>th</sup> century the two Llewelyns (the second one grandson of the first) for a time restored the glories of Gwnedd and the unity of nearly all Wales; but the result of the second Llewelyn's attempt to repudiate the feudal overlordship of the English crown was the conquest of Wales by Edward I and the end of Welsh independence.

The first Llewelyn (the Great) became ruler of Gwnfedd in 1194. He made himself master of all northern and some southern Wales, in fact all of Wales not held by the Normans – and as well forced the surrender of a number of Norman Castles. He married Joan, a natural daughter of King John, and five of his children married into aristocratic Norman families. His aim was to achieve the overlordship of all Wales. He joined the English Barons in their revolt against King John, and obtained in Magna Carta clauses conceding Welsh rights. After a long and successful reign he retired in 1238 to the Cistercian Abbey of Conway, where he died in 1240.

On his death, Llewelyn the Great's efforts to create a united Welsh nation collapsed. A disputed succession and civil war followed, until in 1255 his grandson Llewelyn ap Gruffydd established his authority. Like his grandfather he took advantage of the strife between the King (now Henry III) and barons in England to recover the mastery of most of Wales. He allied himself with Simon de Montfort against Henry and devastated the lands of the Lords Marcher. He went on fighting for two years after Simon de Montfort's fall and in 1267, by the Treaty of Montgomery, was recognised by Henry to be "Prince of Wales".

But, unlike his grandfather, Llewelyn refused to acknowledge feudal allegiance to the English crown; and by this refusal brought upon himself the wrath of a formidable adversary in Edward I, who came to the English throne in 1272. It was Edward's aim to achieve the union of the British people (of England, Wales and Scotland) under the English crown; and it was clear that Llewelyn, so far as Wales was concerned, was determined to thwart this aim. Llewelyn's hostile intentions towards the English king were further shown when he planned to marry Eleanor, Simon de Montfort's daughter; and soon after this became known, in 1277, Edward invaded Wales.

Llewelyn retired into Snowdonia, where Edward was too wise to follow him. Instead he blocked the outlets from the mountains with a series

of fortresses, and with a fleet blockaded the coast. In a few months the Welsh were starved into submission. Edward's terms were generous. Llewelyn was made to do homage, but was allowed to keep much of Gwynedd – and to marry Eleanor.

In the districts ceded to England, Edward proceeded to substitute English laws and customs for the old Welsh usages. This aroused much discontent, and in 1282 Llewelyn and his brother David rebelled and swept through the northern coastline. Edward once more invaded Wales, using the same strategy as before. Llewelyn this time slipped through the English forces investing Snowdonia, with a view to stirring up rebellion in mid-Wales; but he was killed in a chance encounter. David held out for some months in Snowdonia, until he was betrayed by his starving followers – and was captured and executed as a traitor.

With the deaths of David and Llewelyn the cause of Welsh independence collapsed. In fact Llewelyn had by no means had unanimous Welsh support for his plan for a united Wales under his rule. Many of his allies had deserted him, and the Lords of Powis had always opposed him.

Edward stayed in Wales for two years after the fighting ended, organising his conquests. Under the "Statute of Rhuddlan", 1284, the core of the ancient Gwynedd was converted to the shires of Caernarvon, Merioneth and Anglesey. Together with the shires of Cardigan and Carmarthen they became the Principality of Wales under the direct rule of the English throne, administered from Caernarvon. Later, in 1301, in a bid for the goodwill of the Welsh lords and to appease their national pride, Edward conferred the title of Prince of Wales on his son, the heir to the English throne – a custom which has endured to the present time. (Though the future Edward II was born in Caernarvon Castle in 1284, there appears to be no truth in the popular story that he was presented to the Welsh chieftains as a Prince who could speak no English).

To maintain order in the Principality, Edward built the great castles of Caernarvon, Beaumaris and Harlech, and completed others at Fleet, Rhuddlan, Builth and Aberyswyth. Attached to the castles, boroughs were formed, where colonies of English were encouraged to settle, and where Welshmen could not legally acquire land nor engage in trade. (But there was no large-scale "plantation" of Englishmen, as there had been earlier in Pembroke – and as there was later in Ireland.

Outside the Principality Wales remained divided into the largely self-governing Marcher Lordships (in Denbigh, Montgomery and most of the south) and some small Welsh Lordships; for instance, southern Powis survived as a Welsh Feudal barony. There was no defined frontier to Wales, and Edward made no attempt to unite the whole country under a central authority.

Though the higher positions in the administration of the Principality were held by Englishmen, many of the lesser officials were Welsh. And though Welsh criminal law was abolished in favour of English, Welsh civil law was allowed to survive (but died out over the course of the next century as English processes were found to be quicker and cheaper). In the cultural world the status of the Bards was diminished, but Welsh tradition did not die.

The Edwardian settlement of Wales, then, was severe on the Welsh, but for those times not unduly so. It ensured English political authority – but a rather tenuous authority. The spirit of the Welsh was certainly not broken. The tribes continued to fight each other in the mountains, sometimes erupting into the valleys to harass the English or the Marcher Lords.

## Chapter 6. The 14th Century: Owen Glendower's Rebellion (1400-1415)

The Edwardian settlement was nevertheless, understandably, not popular with the Welsh. There were several rebellions, but these were suppressed without very great difficulty, and Wales seemed to settle down under the new conditions. And though Welshmen fought for France against England in the wars of the 14<sup>th</sup> century, many thousands joined the English army – which provided an outlet for the warlike qualities of the Welsh and led to a period of peace in Wales. Welshmen played a conspicuous part in the great English victory at Crécy, where the long-bow, a Welsh invention, was a decisive weapon. (It had impressed Edward I when used against him in his Welsh campaigns.)

In the latter half of the 14<sup>th</sup> century, however, Welsh discontent grew. Officials became rapacious and overbearing, and the misery and distress following the Black Death (1348-9) had its effect. The explosion came at the end of the century with the rebellion of Owen Glendower.

Glendower, a Welsh lord who had been educated in England and served under Richard II, was descended from the princely houses of Powis and Deheubarth – and so had great appeal to Welsh national sentiment. The trouble started soon after Richard's deposition, when one of the Marcher Lords took possession of land belonging to Glendower, and Henry IV refused redress. Glendower declared himself Prince of Wales and (in 1400) started a struggle which went on for fourteen years and devastated much of Wales and border lands.

At first all went well for Glendower, a brilliant leader in guerilla warfare. He took Harlech and Aberystwyth castles, and soon held sway over most of Wales. He made a treaty with the King of France for French support, and negotiated with the anti-Pope at Avignon for the independence (from England) of the Welsh Church. At home he entered into an alliance with the Duke of Northumberland and Edmund Mortmimer (who married Glendower's daughter), leaders of an English revolt against Henry IV – the three allies agreed to divide England and Wales between them. Henry made a number of expeditions against him, with complete lack of success.

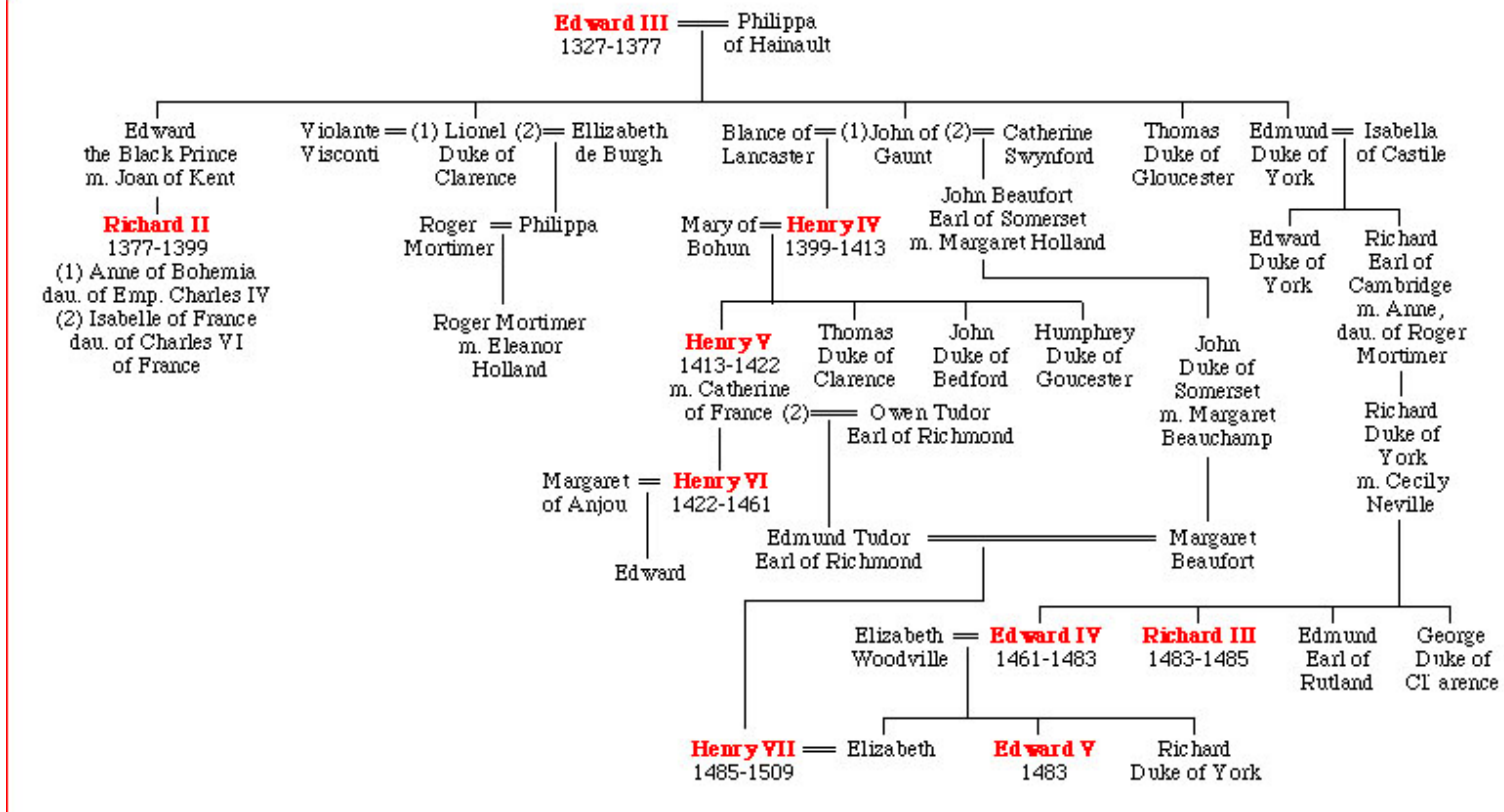
But from about 1405 Glendower's power began to wane. The support of his allies was of little avail, and his Welsh followers began to drift

away, accepting the free pardon offered by Henry IV. Having advanced into England as far as Worcester, Glendower was there repulsed by Prince Henry (later Henry V), who went on in 1408 to re-capture Aberystwyth and Harlech. Glendower continued his guerrilla activities, but Wales was exhausted and defeat now inevitable. In 1415 Glendower disappeared and was heard of no more – presumed to have died in some unknown hiding place.

Severe repressive laws followed the end of the rebellion, and Welshmen were barred from all aspects of public life. Nevertheless the Welsh had experienced a great revival of national feeling, and the bards kept alive the old prophecy that a prince descended from the ancient Britons would one day rule in England.

## Houses of Lancaster and York

### Houses of Lancaster and York



Catherine Swynford was John of Gaunt's mistress when their children were born. After his second wife's death Catherine became his third wife, and their children were later legitimized.

Anne was descended through the Mortimer family from Lionel of Clarence, who had no sons.

## Chapter 7. The 15th Century: The Wars of the Roses: The Accession of Henry Tudor.

The renewal under Henry V of the Hundred Years War against France gave Welshmen an opportunity to seek further adventure and honour in the English armies. Many returned with knighthoods; and during this period a new Welsh gentry class arose, some of them through military service, others through civil advancement. Small estates grew up, with the amalgamation of farms. But, though the new gentry owed their promotion to serving England, they did not forsake the Welsh language and culture. Indeed, the 15<sup>th</sup> century was a flourishing time for Welsh literature.

In the middle of the century came the Wars of the Roses, a period of disturbance in Wales as much as, or even more than, in England. Both York and Lancaster had claims on Welsh support. Edward, Duke of York, who became the first Yorkist king, Edward IV, derived much of his power from the Marchers of the Elsh border; while Henry VI, so long as he was on the throne, held for Lancaster the crown lands and the castles of the Principality. Harlech Castle in fact held for Henry for seven years (1461-1468) after he had been deposed by Edward. Its heroic defence against the Yorkist siege is said to have inspired the famous national song "The March of the Men of Harlech".

For the rest of Edward IV's reign Wales was quiet. He was lenient to those who had opposed him; and he sent a council to Ludlow (the centre of the Yorkist estates in the Marches) to deal with Welsh affairs. But with Edward's death (1483), and the seizure of the throne from the boy King Edward V by his uncle Richard III, Welsh support for the House of York waned. Welsh hopes became centred on the person of Henry Tudor.

The main Lancastrian line had come to an end with the death, in prison, of Henry VI; and the only surviving male Lancastrian claimant to the throne was Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, grandson of Owen Tudor, an Anglesey squire who had married Henry V's widow. Through his mother, Margaret, Henry was descended from John of Gaunt (see genealogical table). Henry had spent many years in exile in Brittany; and his plans for his bid for the throne were mainly the work of his uncle, Jasper Tudor, Earl of Pembroke. These plans seem to have included a propaganda exercise to ensure Welsh support – the bards, who earlier in the Wars of the Roses had been divided in loyalty between York and Lancaster, were now unanimous in hailing the

accession of the Welshman Henry Tudor as fulfilment of the old prophecy.

In 1485 Henry landed at Milford Haven in Pembrokeshire. The Welsh flocked to his standard, not only through fervour to place a Welshman on the throne, but also because of promises that "they would be delivered from their miserable servitude, and their erstwhile liberties restored", (The restrictions imposed after Glendower's rebellion had eased during the Wars of the Roses, but had not been abolished). Henry was joined by Lancastrian Marcher Lords, and other nobles who turned against Richard III. At Bosworth (In Leicestershire), though his forces were heavily outnumbered, he defeated Richard, who was killed in the battle.

Henry Tudor was crowned Henry VII; and six months later he brought the long feud between York and Lancaster to an end by marrying Elizabeth of York, daughter of Edward IV. This marriage had been planned and arranged (by Jasper Tudor) long before Henry's arrival in Wales, to strengthen Henry's claim to the throne.



## Chapter 8. Wales under the Tudors (1485-1603): The Acts of Union

Under Henry VII many of the Welsh gentry found positions around the royal court in London; and the Tudor period opened new prospects for Welshmen, who embarked on careers in England in the army, navy, learned professions, the Church and politics. The gentry in fact, while not forgetting that they were Welsh, were becoming anglicised. Not to the peasantry the Tudor accession made little difference. They remained poor, and Wales remained mainly pastoral.

But, even in the case of the gentry, the advancement of Welshmen by Henry VII probably did not come up to their expectations – that the administration of Wales, if not of England, would be their prerogative. In Wales itself this happened only to a limited extent. And many Englishmen were appointed to the “Council of Wales and the Marches” at Ludlow, which Henry placed on a permanent basis. (Ludlow, though in England, became a sort of subsidiary capital of Wales, much frequented by the Welsh gentry.)

Henry did, however, defer to Welsh tradition by naming his eldest son Arthur, reviving for him the title of Prince of Wales. He also sent Prince Arthur to preside over the Council at Ludlow (where he died).

In spite of the efforts of the council, Welsh affairs were still plagued by feuds, and by the administrative confusion of Principality and Marches. This confusion was resolved in Henry VIII's reign by the Welsh Act of Union (1536), the work of Thomas Cromwell, and a supplementary Act in 1542. The Marches were abolished. Their eastern rim was added to the neighbouring English counties, and the rest divided into the eastern shires of modern Wales, which for the first time had a definite boundary. Wales now comprised the present-day thirteen counties (including Monmouthshire which, though Welsh in character, was administratively detached from Wales by the Acts of Union).

The Welsh shires, and groups of boroughs, were represented in the English Parliament by one member each. English common law was made universal, and the language of the courts was English – but Welshmen enjoyed the same status before the law as Englishmen. Justices of the Peace were appointed from the local gentry, and the Council of Wales was put on a statutory basis. This council, originally mainly concerned with suppressing disorder, became increasingly an administrative and judicial body.

All in all Welshmen participated more fully in the government of Wales since the days of independence. Thomas Cromwell may have adopted this policy in order to placate the Welsh and so lessen the risk of foreign intervention – via Wales – against Henry VIII's breach with Rome. In the event, anyway, the Reformation met with no more opposition in Wales than passive resistance. The dissolution of the monasteries – the main centres of learning – had more effect. Welsh cultural traditions were disrupted, and the monastic lands usually passed into the hands of the local gentry, strengthening their position vis-à-vis the Church.

Though the Reformation caused some of the best Welsh scholars to flee to the Continent, many equally able remained. These scholars of the "Welsh Renaissance" were of crucial importance to the future of the Welsh language, particularly as the bardic\* order rapidly declined as the gentry withdrew their patronage. The outstanding achievement of the scholars was the translation of the Bible and Prayer Book into Welsh, a work decreed by Act of Parliament early in Elizabeth's reign. This was an event, not only of paramount importance for the Welsh language, but for the acceptance of the Reformation by the Welsh people. The New Testament and Prayer Book were translated by William Salesbury, a Denbighshire squire, assisted by Richard Davies, Bishop of St. David's. Later, the Old Testament was added, and the whole work revised, by William Morgan, a Denbighshire vicar and subsequently Bishop of St. Asaph.

The reign of Elizabeth was, indeed, a period when Welshmen were achieving distinction in many walks of life. (An example of Welsh enterprise at that time was the founding of Jesus College Oxford, by Dr. Hugh Price of St. David's). By the end of the Tudor period the Welsh gentry were happy to accept the name "British", to which Welshmen had a particular right, as applying to the three nations of Britain; and they loyally transferred their allegiance from the Welsh Tudors to the Scottish Stuarts.

On the material side, Wales enjoyed increasing prosperity in the 16th century. There was some expansion in trade and industry, though this was mainly as a by-product of the basic activities of sheep and cattle rearing and agriculture. The population – between 250,000 and 300,000 – was mostly rural; the largest towns – the ports and market towns – had no more than about 2000 inhabitants.

\* The great traditional bardic competitive festival was the eisteddfod. The first eisteddfod of which there is a record was held at Carmarthen

in 1451, though the history of the gatherings extends back for centuries before that – Lord Rhys (see Chapter 4) is known to have presided over one in Cardigan Castle in 1176. In the Tudor period two were authorised by royal proclamation – in 1523 and 1568 at Caerwys in Flintshire. After that the eisteddfod disappears until the national revival in the late 18<sup>th</sup> century.

## Chapter 9. The 17th Century: The Civil War: Early Puritan Efforts in Wales

With the accession of the Stuarts the special position enjoyed by Welshmen under the Tudors came to an end; and to English eyes Welsh affairs rather faded into the background, with the Council of Wales declining in importance. (It continued to function, apart from the civil war period, until 1689, when it was abolished.)

In the struggle between King and Parliament, Wales was for the King, the only notable exception being the anglicised area of south Pembrokeshire. In Wales there was practically no urban middle class, from which the Parliamentarians drew much of their support; and the rise of Puritanism in England had so far found few adherents in Wales. So, with the gentry loyal to the King, Wales provided men for the Royalist armies and a haven for them in retreat. The last fortresses to capitulate to the Parliamentary forces were in Wales – Raglan (in Monmouthshire) in 1646 and Harlech in 1647.

One effect of the Civil War was the impoverishment of the lesser Welsh gentry and the expansion of the larger estates at their expense. As a result the gentry became a smaller and richer class, which after the restoration of the monarchy was increasingly identified with the English upper classes, with whom they inter-married. The Welsh gentry in Tudor times had still been strongly Welsh. By the late 17<sup>th</sup> century they were English in speech and outlook.

In Wales itself the 17<sup>th</sup> century saw the beginning of the religious and educational movements which in the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries revolutionised the life of the Welsh people. But this beginning – the efforts of the Puritans to gain adherents – did not get far. During the Commonwealth period English Puritans tried to spread their teaching through itinerant preachers and by setting up schools under Puritan auspices; but Wales remained firmly attached to the established Church. Again, in 1674, the Puritan Thomas Gouge, an ejected London minister, founded the Welsh Trust, providing for the distribution of religious books and the founding of charity schools. After some initial success the movement faded out after Gouge's death in 1681. At the end of the 17<sup>th</sup> century the Welsh Dissenters, though they had held their own in spite of persecution\* after the Restoration, only numbered about five per cent of the population.

More successful was the nationwide Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. Initiated within the Church in 1699. One of its founders was Sir John Philipps, a wealthy Pembrokeshire landowner, and some of its chief supporters had worked for the Welsh Trust. In Wales it provided religious literature in Welsh and attacked illiteracy by founding schools where children could learn to read in their own language. Its greatest success came in the middle of the 18th century when Griffith Jones, a Carmarthenshire clergyman, conceived the idea of "circulating schools", moving from parish to parish, and opening at hours when adults, as well as children, could attend. The resulting increase in literacy and religious knowledge contributed substantially to the rise of Methodism in Wales in the late 18th century.

\* The main Welsh sufferers from the persecution were the Quakers, large numbers of whom emigrated to the Quaker colony of Pennsylvania.

## Chapter 10. The Rise of Methodism and a Cultural Revival (1735-1850)

In the 18<sup>th</sup> century there were many abuses in the Welsh Church; and, administered from England, it was out of touch with the Welsh people. Under the Hanoverian kings the Welsh Bishops came to be regarded as rewards for public services and as stepping stones to more lucrative appointments in England. From 1713 to 1870 no Bishop could preach in Welsh. This lack of interest in Welsh affairs on the part of the Church, the abuses within it, and the recent educational advance of the people, provided fertile ground for dissention and a religious revival.

The revival started in the 1730s, led by Howell Harris, a Breconshire layman, and Daniel Rowland, a Cardiganshire curate. The movement was similar to, though independent of, the great crusade of evangelical preaching started at about the same time in England by John and Charles Wesley and George Whitefield – nicknamed Methodists. Like the Wesleys and Whitefield, Harris and his followers did not intend to start a separate denomination, but to restore the Church to its spiritual mission. (So they were not originally Dissenters like the Quakers, Baptists and Independents, all of whom had chapels in Wales dating from the 17<sup>th</sup> century, but who had not – as we have seen – made a great impact.)

One of Harris's earliest adherents was William Williams, preacher and writer of over 800 hymns. Better known as Williams Pantycelyn, after the name of the Carmarthenshire farm where he lived, his magnificent hymns, together with his other religious poetical and prose works, became part of Welsh national literature.

The emotional appeal of the Methodist preaching and hymns gained many converts. In its early days the movement was mainly in the south, with most of the converts coming from the smaller farmers or prosperous tenants. In the 1780s it was carried through the north by Thomas Charles, an Anglican parson, from his settlement at Baya. Charles, who was one of the founders of the British and Foreign Bible Society, also introduced the Sunday School. Like the earlier Methodist leaders, he had no wish to break with the Church, but it was he who – driven by Church opposition and pressure from his followers – took the final step in the rupture in 1811 by ordaining Methodist ministers.

Long before this, in 1742, Wesley and Whitefield had disagreed on the issue of Predestination. Harris and the Welsh Methodists had adopted

Whitefield's doctrine, and became Calvinistic Methodists. (And when, nearly two hundred years later, several Methodist sects united, in 1932, to become the "Methodist Church", the "Calvinistic Methodist Church of Wales" – the only church of purely Welsh origin – remained separate. By the Act of Parliament in 1933 it secured autonomy in spiritual matters.) John Wesley himself left Wales to Harris and Whitefield, but after his death (1791) Wesleyan Methodists began to infiltrate into Wales. The total numbers of Methodists and of members of dissenting Sects by the end of the 18th century were not large in Wales, but then the movement really caught fire, in spite of belated efforts by the church to set its house in order. By 1850 it was estimated that 80% of the population belonged to one or other of the Nonconformist bodies. Their adherents came mainly from the farming and labouring classes. The gentry remained Anglican – and so were now different in both speech and religion from the bulk of the Welsh people.

The spread of Methodism and other Nonconformist doctrines affected the moral life of the country, bringing about more sober and serious ways – virtues perhaps of the middle classes who formed the majority of the early converts to Methodism.

At the same time another trend in national life was the revival of interest in Welsh culture and tradition. The Cymmrodorian Society "for the encouragement of literature, science and art as connected with Wales" was founded – by Welshmen in London – in 1751; and the national Eisteddfod came to life again in 1789 after a gap of over two hundred years. (From 1800 it has been held annually, and other regional eisteddfodau are now held all over Wales.)

## Chapter 11. The Development of the Mines and Quarries and Railways (to 1850): Social Unrest

The religious and cultural revivals were two of the main currents in Welsh history in the hundred years from the middle of the 18<sup>th</sup> to the middle of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. A third was the beginning of the industrial revolution.

Since the 16<sup>th</sup> century there had been mining on a rudimentary scale in various parts of Wales, the most productive being the lead mines of Cardiganshire and Flintshire. But it was not until the late 18<sup>th</sup> century that a large scale mining operation began, largely to fulfil the requirements for the series of wars from 1740 onwards. Then the centre of activity passed to the South Wales coalfields of Glamorgan.

In 1759 the iron industry was started near what was then the hamlet of Merthyr Tydfil, on the northern edge of the coalfield; and until the 1830s, when smokeless coal was discovered in the Aberdare district, coal mining was subsidiary to the production of iron. By 1800 Merthyr had a population of 7,000 – the largest town in Wales, but a town with all the attendant drawbacks of sudden expansion based on a coalfield – sprawling, unsanitary and surrounded by slagheaps.

The other main development in the mid-18<sup>th</sup> century was the re-discovery of large quantities of easily mined copper ore on Parys Mountain in Anglesey, which had been worked in Roman times. From the 1760s until early in the next century, when the accessible vein was exhausted, Anglesey had a brief period of predominance in world copper mining.

On the south coast copper smelting from imported ores grew into a major industry, centred on the port of Swansea, which became second in size only to Merthyr.

From the 1830s the production of coal was surplus to the needs of the local industries, and its quality such that it could be profitably exported to London, and later to France. Railway construction enabled increasing quantities to be moved to the ports, and led to a great expansion of Cardiff, the chief port for this trade. From being a small market town of under 2,000 inhabitants Cardiff by 1850 had a population of nearly 20,000. (Merthyr was still the largest town – nearly 50,000 – and Swansea about 30,000.)



In the north the great industry was slate quarrying. The Penrhyn quarries, in northern Caernarvonshire, were developed between 1780 and 1820 by Richard Pennant (Baron Penrhyn) into slate producers of world renown, and by 1850 quarrying had become the basis of the economy of North Wales. The Welsh slates were reputedly the best quality in the world.

The coming of the railways did little, however, to help industry in the north, where the great railway enterprise was the line along the north coast to Holyhead in Anglesey for the traffic to Ireland. It opened in 1850, crossing the Conway estuary and the Menai Strait by tubular bridges designed by Robert Stephenson (son of George Stephenson, the railway pioneer). Together with the roads built earlier for the same purpose – which cross the Conway and Menai Strait by Telford's famous suspension bridges, built 1819-1826 – these great improvements in communications, although of little use to industry, opened up North Wales to the seaside holiday makers, mountaineers and tourists.

In the first half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century the population of Wales doubled, from about 600,000 to nearly 1,200,000. Much of the expanding rural population went into mines and quarries – in 1800 Wales was about three quarters rural, in 1850 about two thirds. In the southern industrial area, where the increase in population was greatest, there was considerable immigration of miners from neighbouring English counties, from Cornwall, and from Ireland, but in the north the workers in the quarries were practically 100% Welsh. The emergence of an industrial working class living under conditions of great hardship, together with an economic depression following the Napoleonic Wars, over-population in rural areas, and political grievances, all contributed to social unrest during the second quarter of the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

Industrial strife took the form of occasional strikes, in the slate quarries as well as in the south, but with no organisation behind them they were soon broken. Trade Unionism started to spread from England in the 1830s, but did not take root in Wales until after the mid-century.

Poverty in rural districts, though to some extent alleviated by the movement of surplus population to the industrial areas, culminated in the "Rebecca" riots of 1839 and 1842, when mobs disguised in female clothes destroyed the turnpike gates, whose heavy tolls were a burden on the small farmer. The leaders took the name Rebecca from the scriptural blessing: "Rebecca, let thy seed possess the gate of those

who hate them". The riots were suppressed by the use of troops. Many of the grievances, however, were removed by legislation.

Agitation for political reform began with the Nonconformist middle classes, mainly the older Dissenting sects, who embraced the new Radicalism of the extreme Liberals of England. Most of them were, however, averse to the use of force; and the Methodists, who felt that interference with the supposed Divine will would be sinful, remained politically passive.

The Reform Act of 1832 made some much needed changes. Most of the "rotten boroughs" were abolished and seats were given to large towns – among them Merthyr; and the franchise was extended – but still less than one in twenty had the vote. Agitation for further reform was started by the "Chartists", who thought that their six-point People's Charter for parliamentary reform – including universal male suffrage – would cure all the ills of poverty. The movement attracted to it both middle and lower classes. It spread to Wales – to Montgomeryshire, where the unemployed due to a slump in the old woollen industry were faced with the workhouses built under the Poor Law of 1834, and to the industrial south east. The Monmouthshire coalfield became its centre. (It flourished in the north, the stronghold of the Calvinistic Methodists, who deplored political agitation. The Chartists organised massive petitions and demonstrations. In Wales the largest demonstration, at Newport in 1839, was easily suppressed and the leaders transported. Chartism lingered on in Wales until 1848, when it finally collapsed in England – but after 1839 it had little momentum. The Welsh labouring classes then turned their attention to building up the trade union movement.

Meanwhile in 1847 the Government published the report of an enquiry into the state of education in Wales. The report, while drawing attention to many shortcomings in the system, went much further – it showed a strongly anti-Nonconformist bias and it regarded the survival of the Welsh language as an evil. This incensed the hitherto passive Methodists, in whose Sunday Schools (for adults as well as children) Welsh was taught as a basis for scriptural study. Henceforth Radicalism became the creed of the Welsh Dissenters, and Nonconformist Liberals began to challenge for seats in Parliament, which had so far been the preserve of the gentry.

## Chapter 12. 1850-1914: Industry: Politics: Nationalism

The salient development in the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century was the huge expansion in the coal industry in South Wales, as the growth of the railways and the transition from sail to steam created new demands both at home and for export, particularly for the high quality coal from the Rhondda valleys. Before the end of the century the Navy was using exclusively Welsh coal, and the coal exports from Cardiff rose to ten million tons a year. The population of Cardiff rose from 18,000 in 1851 to 164,000 in 1901, making it easily the largest town in Wales.

The iron, and later steel, industry still flourished, though now outstripped by coal; and also copper smelting until about 1890, when it declined through foreign competition. Swansea had by then become a great port, and also the centre of the tin-plate industry. By 1875 about three quarters of British tin-plate production came from South Wales.

AS well as in the south, industrial development took place in the north-east corner – in Denbighshire, the site of the North Wales coalfield, and Flintshire. But the traditional industries declined. The Cardiganshire lead mines were exhausted by 1870; and the slate quarries from the 1880s suffered from foreign competition, the advances in other forms of roofing material, and domestic strife. The Penrhyn quarries were crippled by a year-long strike in 1896-97, and another in 1900 which went on for nearly three years. By 1914 the numbers employed there were only half what they had been earlier.

The great industrial expansion was as usual accompanied by a vast increase in population. In the sixty years from 1851 to 1911 the population of Wales more than doubled, from about 1,200,000 to nearly 2 ½ million, practically the whole of the increase being in urban areas. From being two thirds rural in 1851 the population in 1911 was two thirds urban. And the move to the towns was no longer mainly from rural Wales; there was a large influx into Glamorgan and Monmouthshire of Englishmen, not easily into the Welsh, and Welsh speaking, communities.

On the political front the challenge of the Nonconformist Liberals achieved a historic victory in the General Election of 1868. They won about two thirds of the Welsh seats, the result of the extension of the franchise in 1867 to classes where Nonconformity was strong. (And a

religious revival in 1859 probably contributed to the victory.) The Election also brought Gladstone to power. Although the high-churchman Gladstone acquired a great following among the Nonconformists through his tendency to regard all big political questions as moral issues. After the Election there were many evictions by defeated landlords of tenants who had dared to vote against them, a situation which led to the introduction of the secret ballot by Gladstone's Ballot Act of 1872. The swinging to the Liberals continued, and in the Election of 1885 they captured 30 out of 34 Welsh seats.

Towards the end of the century organised trade unionism was beginning to take over from the middle class liberals the leadership in the industrial areas. As well as the Penrhyn quarry strikes, a miner's strike in 1898 caused a six-month stoppage in half the pits of South Wales; and in the 1900 Election the Scottish ex-miner Keir Hardie, chief founder of the Independent Labour Party of Great Britain, was elected one of the M.P.s for Merthyr (which now had two seats). Hardie, who had become the first Labour Member of Parliament in 1892 (for an English constituency) remained M.P. for Merthyr until his death in 1915. The Labour Party's strength in Parliament grew from 2 in 1900 to 42 in 1910, of whom 6 represented Welsh constituencies (out of a total of 34 Welsh seats).

The Welsh Radicalism of the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century developed into a political nationalism. The revival of national feeling which had started a hundred years earlier, sponsored by the Cymmrodorion Society, had been confined to cultural affairs; but from 1850 onwards it was increasingly tinged with politics. The London-based Liberation Society, which aimed at the separation of Church and State, set up branches in Wales, where there was traditional opposition to the domination of the Welsh Church by the Church of England; and the Disestablishment of the Welsh Church became one of the main objectives of Nonconformist Radicalism. The political cleavage was between the Anglican, mainly conservative, English speaking gentry on the one side, and the Liberal Welsh speaking Nationalistic Nonconformists on the other.

One off-shoot of this new Welsh nationalism was a migration, mostly under Nonconformist leadership, to establish a settlement in Patagonia in South America. This settlement precariously survived, and their descendants still speak a Welsh Dialect.

The Nationalist movement reached its peak in the 1880s. Gladstone favoured Welsh aspirations, and became a hero of Welsh

Nonconformity. (He had also become the largest landlord in Flintshire.) In 1885 the Welsh Liberals formed a Welsh Parliamentary Party, which exerted considerable influence; and in 1886 they started the Cymru Fydd (Young Wales) movement, aiming at some sort of home rule for Wales. Their leader was Thomas Ellis, a Merioneth Methodist farmer's son. And Ellis was later joined by the young David Lloyd George, who was elected Liberal Member for Caernarvon in 1890 (and remained its Member until he was made a peer 55 years later).

Cymru Fydd collapsed when Ellis and Lloyd George took Government office, and from 1895 Welsh political nationalism fell into abeyance until revived in 1925. But the nationalist movement achieved Disestablishment – though it did not come until 1914; and it was also successful in establishing a largely autonomous system of education in Wales, from the elementary school to the university. State aided secondary schools were started, with a Welsh Board to control them (in 1907 becoming a Welsh Department of the Board of Education), and the teaching of Welsh was accepted. State aided University Colleges were founded at Cardiff in 1883 and Bangor in 1884; and in 1893 they were joined with the College at Aberyswyth, founded in 1872 and originally supported by voluntary contributions, to form the University of Wales. A fourth College, at Swansea, was added in 1920.

In spite of the educational encouragement given to the Welsh language, its use decreased, because advancement so often depended on fluency in English. In 1901 about half the population could speak Welsh. By 1921, although the number of Welsh speakers was about the same, they were now not more than a third of the population. But the Welsh cultural revival continued. As well as the impetus given by the University Colleges, the National Eisteddfod, as we have seen, became an annual event in 1880; and early in the 20th century the National Library was founded at Aberyswyth and the National Museum at Cardiff.

## Chapter 13. Lloyd George: The First World War and its Aftermath.

David Lloyd George was born in Manchester in 1863, son of a Welsh schoolmaster, who died soon afterwards. Lloyd George was brought up in a village near Criccieth in Caernarvonshire by his mother and his uncle, the village schoolmaster and a Baptist minister. He went to the village school. When he grew up he became a solicitor and, as we have seen, embraced the Cymru Fydd movement and was elected M.P. for Caernarvon in 1890.

Lloyd George had great personal charm and quickness of understanding. Although not devout, he had the eloquence, emotionalism and fervour of the Welsh Nonconformist; and with his wit and soft musical voice he was easily persuasive. But his lack of principle, in both public and private life, and his love of devious methods, caused many to distrust him.

He became the most distinguished statesman of Welsh origin, acquiring enduring fame for his leadership of Britain in the First World War as Prime Minister from 1916 to 1922. But he did not have any great impact on the history of Wales itself. In the first phase of his political career, from 1890 to 1905, he was a staunch Welsh Nationalist – and became unpopular in England through his pro-Boer attitude during the Boer War. He then became increasingly involved in British politics, as a social reforming radical. Before he became Prime Minister he held several important Government positions. After the War he disputed the leadership of the Liberals with Mr. Asquith, and the Party split in two. From 1922 onwards he never held office. Until 1931 he strove to re-unite and revive the Liberals. After that he led a tiny Liberal opposition group in Parliament and ceased to have any appreciable influence.

Encouraged by Lloyd George's disapproval of the Boer War, there was a strong element of pacifism in Wales in the early years of the 20th century. Nevertheless, when war broke out in 1914 Wales responded nobly. By the end of 1915 she had 50,000 men in the armed forces; and in the course of the War the Welsh regiments\* – the Royal Welch Fusiliers, the South Wales Borderers, the Welch Regiment, and the newly formed Welsh Guards – between them raised nearly a hundred battalions.

On the economic side, the War brought with it a vast expansion of agriculture and heavy industries, but this artificial prosperity collapsed with the return of peace. The economy depended basically on only three products – coal, steel and tin-plate – and on an export market

for them which rapidly dwindled. Agriculture too required progressively less labour. By the early 1930s the unemployed, mainly in the south but also in rural areas, reached nearly a quarter of a million, in spite of migration during the 1920s of a similar number to seek work in England. Government action and private enterprise to bring new industries to South Wales gradually alleviated the position.

The economic depression, and the unwelcome changes in employment and way of life which it caused, led to a re-awakening of interest in Welsh nationalism and the Welsh language. It also gave the Labour Party, backed by the now highly organised trades unions, a dominant position in Welsh politics. Nonconformist Liberalism, after half a century of political leadership in Wales, now held only a few seats. In the 1929 election Labour captured 25 out of 35 Welsh seats; and even in the conservative landslide victory of 1931 Labour held 17 seats in Wales – which provided over a quarter of all Labour Members of Parliament. (The total membership of the House of Commons as then 615. For political statistics see Appendix 2.)

To try to stop the drift away from the Welsh language the Welsh League of Youth was founded in 1922; and in 1927 the Board of Education produced a programme of bi-lingual teaching in schools. Nevertheless the drift from Welsh continued.

Meanwhile Welsh nationalism was revived in 1925 with the formation of Plaid Cymru, the Welsh National Party, aiming at a separate Welsh Parliament. Its support came mainly from rural districts. Its ambitions were fired by the fact that in 1922 the Irish, after a long struggle, had obtained Dominion status as the Irish Free State. But not until after the Second World War did Plaid Cymru make any significant impact in Parliamentary elections.

\* The Royal Welch Fusiliers and the South Wales Borderers dated from 1689, the Welch Regiment from 1757. The Welsh Guards were formed in 1915.

## Chapter 14. Recent Trends

The Second World War brought full employment once more to Wales. It also brought circumstances which tended to weaken the traditional Welsh way of life. Rural Wales became a reception area for evacuees from English cities, and restrictions on crowds and travel limited eisteddfod activities. But Welsh nationalism and the use of the Welsh language were still kept in being by enthusiasts.

After the War, as it was after the First World War, economic necessity became the main preoccupation. The demand for coal and slate declined, mines and quarries were closed, and in both agriculture and industry less labour was required. Discontent and hardship led to increased pressure for more Welsh control of local affairs, and to increased support for Plaid Cymru which, impatient for Parliamentary action, started more direct protests in the form of demonstrations, "sit-downs" and daubing of slogans. Welsh aspirations were in fact to a considerable extent met by the grant of the status of "capital" to Cardiff in 1955, and by the raising of the post of Secretary of State for Wales to cabinet rank in 1964. The Welsh Office in Cardiff controls many aspects of Welsh life – as does the Scottish Office in Edinburgh for Scotland.

Also the survival of the Welsh language, which – unlike Scotland – has always been one of the main aims of Welsh Nationalists, was boosted by the establishment of a Welsh broadcasting station putting out programmes in both English and Welsh. The number of Welsh speakers, however, still declines. From over 900,000 in 1921 it fell to 656,000 in 1961, about a quarter of the population. Of these, 26,000 spoke Welsh only.

The total population of Wales remained static from 1921 to 1961 – in fact it was slightly less in 1961 (see Appendix 1). Natural increase was balanced by migration in search of work. But within Wales it was not static. There was substantial movement from rural areas and the coal mining valley to the south. The population of Breconshire, Cardiganshire, Merioneth, Montgomeryshire and Radnorshire was less than it had been a hundred years earlier; and that of Rhondda, owing to the closure of pits, was little more than half what it was in 1921 – an unprecedented urban decrease.



Politically, the dominance of the Labour Party continues. In the 1970 Election, when the Conservatives in the nation as a whole had a majority of some 40 over Labour, Wales returned 28 Labour members, 7 Conservative and 1 Liberal. (One of the most colourful Labour ministers in the post-War years was the Welshman Aneurin Bevan, son of a miner, M.P. for Ebbw Vale – his birthplace – and leader of Labour's left wing.)\*

Plaid Cymru has continued to make political progress. Its first, and so far only, Member of Parliament won a by-election at Carmarthen in 1966. And though it won no seats in the 1970 General Election, its candidates were second in the poll in eight constituencies, and overall obtained more votes than the Liberals.

Apart from politics the feeling of Welsh Nationhood is still very much alive. The investiture of Prince Charles as Prince of Wales at Caernavon Castle in 1969 was a great occasion, made memorable by the charm of the Prince who could address the Welsh in their own language. The National Eisteddfod is fully restored to its former glory. And Wales is proud of her national triumphs in Rugby Football and other sports.

\*Wales has not been lacking in distinguished men in other fields as well; for instance the explorer Stanley, who was born in Denbigh and brought up in a St. Asaph workhouse, the painter Augustus John, born in Tenby, the actor Emylyn Williams, born in Flintshire, and the poet Dylan Thomas, born in Swansea and who spent some of his childhood on a Carmarthenshire farm.

County Reorganisations. 1974.

In the 1974 reorganisation of counties in England and Wales, ancient Welsh names were revived - and most of Monmouth, which had previously been "English" for some purposes and "Welsh" for others, was included in the Welsh county of Gwent.

The new names, with their approximate geographical equivalents in the old counties are as follow:-

Clwyd - Denbigh and Flint.

Gwynedd - Anglesey, Caernarvon and Merioneth.

Dyfed - Cardigan, Camarthen and Pembroke.

Powys - Montgomery, Radnor and Brecon.

Gwent - Monmouth.

Mid Glamorgan )  
South Glamorgan ) Glamorgan.  
West Glamorgan )

## Appendix 1. Some Population Statistics

### Population of Wales, and Numbers of Welsh Speakers

(Monmouthshire is included. It is now considered to be part of Wales.)

Date	Population	Percentage of total in Glamorgan and Monmouthshire	Welsh speakers (over the age of 3)	Percentage of Welsh speakers
1700	400,000			
1801	587,000	20%		
1851	1,186,000	33%		
1901	2,018,000	57%	930,000	50%
1911	Nearly 2½ million			
1921	2,656,000	64%		37%
1931	2,600,000		909,000	37%
1951	2,600,000		717,000	29%
1961	2,644,000		656,000	26%
1971	2,723,000	63%		

The Welsh speakers are not evenly distributed. They comprise over 70% in the more sparsely populated western counties (other than Pembrokeshire) and only 10% or less in the east and industrial south.

Overall density of population (1961) – 338 per square mile – (England 908, Scotland 171)

The density varies from less than 60 per sq. mile in Merioneth, Montgomery and Radnor to over 1500 in Glamorgan.

### Population of the Main Towns (to the nearest thousand)

	1801	1851	1901	1921	1971
Cardiff	2,000	18,000	164,000	221,000	278,000
Swansea	6,000	32,000	94,000	158,000	172,000
Newport	1,000	19,000	67,000	94,000	112,000
Rhondha		2,000	114,000	163,000	89,000
Merthyr	7,000	46,000	69,000	80,000	55,000

## Appendix 2. Some Political Statistics

Welsh seats won by the main Parties in some of the General Elections in the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

Election	Conservative	Liberal	Labour	
1910	3	25	6	
1922	6	2	17	Also 8 "National Liberal"
1929	1	9	25	
1931	6	4	16	Also 4 N.Lib. 4 Ind. Lib. & 1 Nat.Lib.
1945	3	6	25	Also 1 N.Lib.
1951	5	3	27	Also 1 N.Lib.
1959	7	2	27	
1964	6	2	28	
1966	3	1*	32	* For Montgomeryshire
1970	7	1*	27	Also 1 Ind.Lib.

Percentage of votes cast in Wales for the main Parties in the 1970 Election:-

Labour	52 ½ %
Conservative	27 ½ %
Plaid Cymru	11 ½ %
Liberal	7 %
Communist	½ %

### Appendix 3. Religions

Very approximate percentages of the population by religion in the 1960s:-

Anglican	52%
Roman Catholic	11% (largely Irish immigrants)
Nonconformist	37%

The Nonconformists approximately divided into:-

Calvinist Methodists*	7%
Methodists	8%
Baptists	14%
Congregationalists	8%

\* Mainly in Caernarvonshire and Merioneth. The Calvinistic Methodist Church is still the most powerful religious influence in Wales.

## Map: Wales Past and Present

