



Part 2: Empire Rising 1600-1850

Contents

Introduction

Part 1 Britain Before Machines Pre 1600

Part 2: Empire Rising 1600-1850

Part 3: Peak & Decline 1850-1950

Part 4: Human Rights

Part 2 Highlights

Part 2 explores the societal changes which led to the First Industrial Revolution and visits several of our ancestors of the day:

- *The Royal Navy gets bigger and better and British possessions grow*
- *The East India Company is formed by wealthy investors to pursue trade in the Far East*
- *Landowners evict tenant farmers to maximize their profits*
- *Inventions increase production but displace workers*
- *Sugar, slavery and huge profits trigger a 'gold rush' in the Caribbean*
- *A slave trading physician makes his fortune*
- *An apothecary changes the law and general practice medicine is born*
- *A physician to the rich starts the British Museum*

Inside Part 2

The Times

Masters of Land & Sea

Upheaval

Sugar!

Slavery

Tales

Indomitable Mary

Black Plague

Great Fire of London

The West Indies

The Rose Brothers

Hans Sloane

Hester



The Times

Masters of Land & Sea

Foreign Wars

For hundreds of years prior to 1600 Britain had been at war with her European neighbours almost continuously. The toll on the nation's men, materials, coffers and energy was incalculable. Ultimately, however, Britain's fast, maneuverable ships, gunnery engineering, seamanship skills and a good measure of luck made her the undisputed master of the seas and a major political, military and economic force on the world stage.

A Modernized Royal Navy

Samuel Pepys (1633-1703) was born a tailor's son in London. When a young man, he obtained a job through his cousin, Edward Viscount Montagu, as a Clerk of the Acts to the King's Ships. Pepys knew nothing of ships and the sea, but undaunted, he tucked in and worked hard to learn everything required. Pepys was blessed with an enquiring mind, integrity, a penchant for detail and political and social acumen. He rose quickly through the ranks earning himself a reputation as the most influential man in the administration of the Royal Navy.

Pepys soon discovered that cheating and theft were seriously limiting Navy efficiency and effectiveness and that no standards of practice existed. Strict procedures were put in place to

regulate the procurement of supplies at fair market value. Standard shipbuilding designs were implemented allowing multiple ships to be built at once using assembly line-like procedures, reducing build time and costs dramatically.

Sailors rations had been notoriously bad. Mouldy bread and bad meat were common. Pepys established agreements with suppliers to provide fresh food and he specified specific quantities of each food item to be served to sailors. Each day, sailors were to receive one gallon of beer, 500g. of biscuit, 100g. of salt beef or fish, butter and cheese.

Unfortunately, fresh fruit and vegetables were not included and the scourge of scurvy continued to take the lives of mariners at a horrific rate.

Scurvy

The story of finding a cure for scurvy makes for frustrating reading. Vasco de Gama's crew, in 1497, discovered that lemons would eliminate scurvy. Yet for hundreds of years, that knowledge was forgotten, confused and generally not applied. Countless thousands of sailors continued to die.

Then in 1747, a Scottish physician called James Lind carried out controlled experiments which confirmed the effectiveness of citrus fruits. His findings were made public but not adopted by the Royal Navy for 40 years!

When the Royal Navy began dispensing daily doses of lemon juice to its crews, scurvy disappeared. In a well-meaning attempt to cut

costs, lemons were substituted for limes, which could be obtained cheaper from Britain's West Indies colonies.

Limes, however, have only a quarter of the vitamin C of lemons. Worse, the copper receptacles used to produce the lime juice eliminated even the small amount of vitamin C the limes would have provided.

Thus, by the 1870s, the 'citrus cure' had been discredited (the limes were completely ineffective) and the killer disease continued to mow down mariners. Finally, in 1932, the cause of scurvy was determined — an absence of vitamin C — and scurvy was quickly and easily eliminated. An

estimated two million sailors died needlessly of scurvy between 1500 and 1800.

Efficient ship designs were developed which improved sailing characteristics and allowed for more guns and provisions. Pepys emphasis on a 'scientific and mathematick approach to navigation' resulted in the creation of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich in 1675. From Greenwich research came new sea routes and improvements in the accuracy of navigation.

Pepys comprehensive rationalization of the British Navy was instrumental in its domination of the high seas for over 200 years which, in turn, assured the growth and supremacy of the British Empire.

The East India Company

By 1600 Britain was a seasoned sea-going nation, anxious to win a share of the world's riches, riches the Spanish, Dutch and Portuguese had been amassing for half a century.

The enormous treasure brought home from the Far East by privateers Sir Francis Drake, Sir Walter Raleigh and the Earl of Cumberland prompted a syndicate of investors to seek permission to launch bona fide trading ventures into the Far East. In 1600, Queen Elizabeth I consequently granted a Royal Charter to the 'Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading into the East Indies or the Honourable East India Company (HEIC). The charter gave the HEIC a monopoly on trade by English companies between the Cape of Good Hope and the Straits of Magellan.

By 1612 the HEIC had established a highly profitable foothold in India and by the early 1700s it had maneuvered the Mughal Emperor Shah Jahan into extending full duty-free trading rights within the region of Bengal.

All the while, the huge, well-established Dutch East India Company was aggressively competing with the HEIC. By 1620, it was "the wealthiest commercial operation in the world with 50,000 employees worldwide and a private fleet of 200 ships. It specialised in the spice trade and gave its shareholders 40% annual dividend." [Wikipedia]

Tensions became so high between the two trading companies that it sparked the four Anglo-Dutch Wars between 1652 and 1784. Around 1670 King Charles II passed acts which strengthened the

powers of the HEIC, specifically “the rights to autonomous territorial acquisitions, to mint money, to command fortresses and troops and form alliances, to make war and peace, and to exercise both civil and criminal jurisdiction over the acquired areas.” [Wikipedia] The HEIC had become a nation within a nation.

The company was actively involved in slave trading as early as 1620, although officially the HEIC puts the date at 1684 when it bought and transported 250 slaves from Madagascar to the Island of Saint Helena. Saint Helena is a small, strategically located island deep in the South Atlantic. In 1659, the British snatched it from the Dutch who had largely ignored it. Saint Helena served for 200 years as an important re-provisioning stop for sailing ships on the long voyage back to Britain

from the Far East. For much of that time, it was also home to my father’s Caldwell family and from 1815 to 1821, St Helena served as Napoleon’s final place of exile.

Prior to 1750, the HEIC employed several hundred soldiers to guard its assets. Then between 1750 and 1778 the HEIC amassed a private corporate army and navy of 67000 largely well-trained Indian troops, becoming the most powerful fighting force on the Indian sub-continent.

Along with the Americans, the HEIC was a major player in the horrifically damaging opium trade of the 1800s. Prior to trading in opium, the HEIC was doing a brisk and highly profitable trade in tea, silk and porcelain in high demand by the British elite. A trade condition imposed by China, however, was

that all goods must be paid for in silver, as China had no interest in British manufactured products.

That led to a massive trade imbalance for Britain — her imports were greatly exceeding her exports. The HEIC came up with a devious strategy to fix the problem. From its Indian-controlled territories, it would grow and ship opium to Canton (China's sole trading port) where it would be used to pay for black market purchases of the sought-after luxury goods. It worked and the trade imbalance shifted in favour of Britain.

The massive influx of opium, however, devastated Chinese society. Widespread addiction including the royal court and the military rendered China a helpless state. It fought back in three Opium Wars in which Britain dominated. Treaty terms required

China to continue to allow trade with foreign nations and to allow the sale of opium. It was a shameful chapter in British history.

By the early 1800s, it became obvious that the days of the HEIC were numbered. It had long struggled with financial difficulties. Pressures from competing companies proved too great a challenge. The affairs of the company were officially wound up on 1 June 1874. The Times of London said this:

It accomplished a work such as in the whole history of the human race no other trading Company ever attempted, and such as none, surely, is likely to attempt in the years to come.

Thank God for that. Whatever one's view of the Honourable East India Company, none can deny that it had a profound influence on shaping the fortunes of the British Empire while making fortunes for its investors, two of whom were our Samuel Pepys and Sir Thomas Bloodworth (see Great Fire of London).

Territorial Expansion

In the 17th century, Britain's newly acquired sea power was quickly put to use. By 1655, Britain had acquired the West Indies islands of Barbados, St Kitts, Nevis and Jamaica. Trading posts were established in Bengal and Madras. Bombay, India was gifted to Charles II by the Portuguese. A settlement was started at Jamestown, Virginia in 1607. Through the 1700s, British North America expanded (and the United States was lost to

Britain in 1783), settlements were established in Australia and the domination of India completed. In the 1800s, Britain acquired multiple interests in Africa forming a contiguous belt from Egypt in the north to South Africa in the south. As well, she gained significant military and economic control through key trading centres in the Far East, notably Penang, Singapore and Hong Kong as well as trading rights in China, won at the end of a gun barrel in the Opium Wars.

At its peak, the British Empire was the largest empire in history. For over one hundred years, it was the foremost global power. By 1913, it controlled 413 million people, almost one quarter of the world's population and by 1920, it covered one quarter of the earth's land mass.



Mercantilism

By 1600, mercantilism was a well-established and very successful trade policy of the British government, designed to grow a trade imbalance in favour of British exports and thus ensure robust industrial growth, growth at the expense of generating trade deficits among its trading partners. Its empire of colonies fit perfectly with this policy. Britain required its colonies to trade exclusively with it while disallowing the colonies to industrialize. The colonies job was to provide commodities for British mills. The mills, in turn, sold finished goods back to the colonies at monopolistic prices.

It was mercantilist policies such as these which pushed the American colonies into insurrection and ultimately independence. Indeed, Britain's

self-interested control over its colonies, although enriching its elite in the short-term, led to the ultimate demise of the empire.



Major-General Robert Clive
(1725-1774) 1st Baron Clive KB FRS

A controversial figure who is credited by some with co-securing India for the British Empire, damned by others for how he went about it and pleased with himself for how rich he got in the process.

Upheaval At Home

Parliament

As Kings and Queens and Cromwell's Republic came and went, Parliaments grip on the national treasury increased and with it, its power over the monarchy. At first glance, this would seem to be a good thing for the fortunes of the populous, whose lives, for the most part, had never risen above subsistence, and even that was hit and miss. However, the reality was that Parliament was dominated by the House of Lords, the landowning

titled elite of Britain. Yet something else was happening. A merchant class was growing and with the advent of industrialization, capitalized by sugar and slavery, merchants and investors were amassing sizeable fortunes, fortunes which broadened the power structure beyond the elite.

Non-Conformists

By the 1700s, a significant number of non-conformist religious groups had appeared, the most notable being the Quakers and Puritans, but there were many others. These groups formed out of rejection of the Protestant Church which had largely cloned itself on the Catholic Church before it. It was dictatorial, corrupt and wrathful. Along with government taxes and obligations, the church kept people in a state of severe and unrelenting

servitude. Non-conformists paid a price for their defiance. They were imprisoned, fined and thrashed and stripped of their assets. Thousands left seeking freedom in the new world, an exodus which came to be known as The Great Migration, and which jump-started Britain's colonies in British North America, Australia and New Zealand. Those Non-conformists who stayed in Britain, stayed the course, until eventually, they were tolerated, even accepted by the mainstream.

Inclosure Acts

Now known as the Enclosure Acts, these acts of Parliament were pursued by landowners to allow for the rationalization of their estates. For hundreds of years, large estates owned by a single family were divided into a multitude of strip farms worked

by families of tenant farmers who paid the landowner rent.

With the advent of the Agricultural Revolution (a term coined to describe the application of inventions, new methods and changes to land tenure which dramatically increased agricultural output) came new, more efficient and far more profitable ways of farming, by managing the land as a single agricultural entity. Between 1604 and 1914, 5200 of these Enclosure Acts were passed, often without the participation of the tenant farmers affected. In this way, hundreds of thousands of tenant farmers and their families were removed, often by force and without mercy from 6.8 million acres of land, a process which was brutally quick in the late 1700s and 1800s.

It happened that just at that time, the industrial revolution was getting into full swing and factories were begging for workers. The displaced flocked to the mill sites and towns, overburdening town infrastructure and generating horrific living conditions for the poor.

The Perfect Storm

Add to the aforementioned social forces the Black Plague of 1665 which, in the space of a year, swept away a quarter to a third of Britain's population, the Fire of London in 1666, the disruptions of the Industrial Revolution of the 18th and 19th centuries and the Irish Potato Famine of the 1840s and you have a 200 year maelstrom of change on every dimension — political, economic and social. How ever did people cope?

First Industrial Revolution

Historians identify two periods of the Industrial Revolution — the First Industrial Revolution occurring roughly between 1760 and 1840 and the Second Industrial Revolution between 1840 and 1920.

The Factory System

The factory system changed the nature of work in Britain entirely. In factories, efficiency, speed and low wages were paramount, as the overarching objective was maximizing profit for the factory owner or investors. Factories divided the labour required to complete a product into a number of

simple, unskilled tasks — one person, one task. Machines were introduced which completed much of the work rapidly and accurately. Tasks were repetitive, excruciatingly boring and completed under strict supervision and in terrible working conditions.

The early textile factories employed large numbers of children. In the 1780s it was common for children to hold two-thirds of the jobs in a textile mill. They were nimble, obedient and would accept lower wages than adults. However, that figure dropped to 43% by 1835 as mill owners came to realize that self-initiating adults offered a net advantage.

Besides changing how people worked, the factory system changed where they worked. Factories

located in towns where there was a good supply of labour and proximity to raw materials as well as canals and trains to transport the finished product. Thus, country dwellers by the thousands moved to the towns, many of them pushed off the land by the Enclosures Act. Villages became towns and towns became cities. Britain urbanized.

The Industrial Revolution was the shift from hand production methods to machines, the use of chemicals in manufacturing, new iron smelting processes, and the application of steam and improved water power technology. This period also saw the advent of machine tools and mechanized factory systems.

Textile production was the dominant industry in terms of the number of people employed, the

profits to be made and the amount of capital invested. The textile industry was also the first to use modern production methods. The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain and many of its advances were British in origin.

It was the Industrial Revolution which, in large part, powered the growth of the British Empire. In turn, it was the raw materials and cheap labour provided by the colonies along with Britain's restrictive, monopolistic trade agreements which fed the British engines of industry.

By the mid 18th century, Britain was a global trading empire and the world's largest economy, backed by the supremacy of the British Navy, the administrative and military might of the East India Company and Rule of Law.

Economic historians largely agree that the Industrial Revolution was the most important event in the history of humanity since the domestication of animals. Its effect on virtually every aspect of daily life was profound.

Whether or not the Industrial Revolution improved the quality of life is up for debate. On the one hand, wages rose significantly and some, for the first time, had access to a wide range of goods unimaginable in years prior. As well, people had steady work which was not subject to the unpredictability of harvests. On the other hand, factory work was often mind-numbing and dangerous, the working day and week were insufferably long, air quality in cities was deplorable, health care and leisure activities for workers were nonexistent and child labour was

common. Numerous poor, displaced from farms by the Enclosures Act, were drawn to the cities where they were subject to the whims of self-interested employers and hard-nosed overseers. The owners got rich; the workers simply survived.

Although the First Industrial Revolution brought with it significant economic and social change during the 1840s and 1850s, the new technologies were not sufficient to drive high and sustained rates of growth. Rapid economic growth really began after 1870 as a second generation of innovations in steel making, mass production, assembly lines, machine tools and steam power were employed. This era became known as the Second Industrial Revolution.

Yet even by the 1830s, the impact of

mechanization was massive. Cotton spinning machinery increased a worker's output by a factor of 500, the power loom by a factor of 40, the cotton gin, which removed seed from cotton, by a factor of 50. Efficiencies in steam engines reduced energy consumption by up to 90%, the use of coke instead of charcoal significantly reduced the fuel costs of iron-making and the introduction of machine tools led to more precise, sophisticated production machines.

As the power of James Watt's steam engines improved, Manchester became the epicentre of cotton textile production, largely because of its existing, extensive canal system which could transport the finished product economically.

In 1772, 2000 tons of cotton were being imported

per year. By 1816, that figure had risen to 45,000 tons. In 1816 there were 86 cotton mills in Manchester; by 1825 there were 110. Even in this early stage of the Industrial Revolution, the output capacity of these mills was staggering. Edward Baines wrote:

“We may see in a single building a 100 horse power steam engine [which] has the strength of 800 men, set in motion 50,000 spindles. The whole requires the service of but 750 workers [who]...produce as much yarn as former could have ... spun [with] 200,000 men....”

By the early 1900s, cities of the midlands region of England — Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds, Sheffield, and Birmingham — had collectively

become a global manufacturing powerhouse
which both contributed to and benefited from the
rise of the British Empire.



Tales

Emancipation day, West Indies

Indomitable Mary

Mary Fisher (c.1623-1698)

In December of 1651, in the small town of Selby, Yorkshire, a man gave a talk to the Tomlinson family. Invited to listen was their indentured serving maid Mary Fisher (27). The man was George Fox who several years prior, had begun to preach his new religion, later known as Quakerism. George was a year younger than Mary, affable, magnetic and well-spoken.

Mary listened intently and by the end of the talk she had committed her life to the cause of spreading the word of Fox's simpler, individually

defined way of relating to God. Mary lost no time with her quest. Within the year she was imprisoned in York Castle for 'speaking to a priest.' She remained there for 16 months.

Following her release in the autumn of 1653, Mary and Ann Austin, a 50 year old mother of five, arrived at Cambridge University where they admonished the students of the seminary for choosing a life in a church filled with privilege and corruption. The incensed Mayor William Pickering demanded the Constable to "whip them at the Market Cross till the blood ran down their bodies."

Mary was on a roll. Within two months she was again imprisoned, this time in Castle Garth, York, where she was thrown in with 60 Dutch prisoners



Quakers Meeting, Egbert van Heemskerck the Elder

of war. The men soon made threatening sexual advances. But the courage shown by Mary and the other Quaker prisoners so moved both the prisoners and their gaolers that they ceased to harass them.

When Mary was again released she set her sights on spreading the word of Quakerism abroad. In 1655, she and her companion Ann Austin boarded a ship in London and became the first Quakers to arrive on the shores of Barbados. Their conversion attempts were not well received by the largely Anglican residents, many of whom were too busy cavorting and drinking good Barbados rum to listen. And more than likely, most were not of a mind to free their slaves who allowed them the luxury to drink and cavort. However, Mary and

Ann did manage to convert the Lieutenant-Governor.

After a brief stay, they must have decided that Barbadians were a hopeless cause and that discretion was the better part of valour, for they sailed for New England. Their ship, the Swallow, docked in Boston, Massachusetts Bay Colony on the 11th of July, 1656. Word had reached authorities earlier that the women were coming and they were immediately imprisoned without food, water or visitors.

In the last half of the seventeenth century witch-hunts had become common practice in both England and New England. At its peak in England (1645-1647) over a hundred people (largely

women) were put to death; in New England, thirteen women and two men were executed in the witch-hunts of 1647 to 1663. In the Salem trials of 1692-1693 20 more were put to death; five died in prison.

The two women, suspected of being witches, were intimately examined for any sign. A mole or any unusual mark on their skin would be a death sentence. None were found. For five weeks, they were imprisoned. Mary and Ann survived only through the kindness shown by the elderly owner of a Boston inn, Nicholas Upsall, who through bribes, brought the women food and water. The captain of the *Swallow* was ordered to return the women to Barbados. From there, they found their way back to England.

What happened to Ann at that point, we don't know. But for Mary, this was merely a test run. She next decided that the entire Muslim world was needful of enlightenment and that the quickest way to convert the unwashed millions of the Ottoman Empire was to convert their leader, Sultan Mehmed IV, aka 'The Warrior.'

After a lengthy sea voyage, Mary and her five companions arrived at Leghorn (Livorno), northwest Italy. There she sought the help of the English Consul to arrange an audience with the Sultan. The consul quickly realized that such a meeting could result in political disaster for England, in no small measure because the English navy had just the previous year sunk nine of the Sultan's ships, and too, that Quaker zeal was likely

not a good match with Muslim propriety. The consul suggested that her quest was perhaps, unwise. Undaunted, Mary persisted until the harangued official relented; arrangements were made for Mary and her companions to board a ship, then in the harbour, which would take them to the Sultan.

Once underway, Mary discovered that she was the victim of a ruse; the ship was heading only for Venice. However, en route, a terrible storm drove the vessel well to the east of Greece. Mary saw an opportunity. She arranged with the captain for her group to disembark at Zante in the Greek islands. Mary had learned that the Sultan was not in Constantinople; he and his army were encamped at Adrianople on the modern day border with

Greece. At Zante, the party of Quakers went separate ways, leaving Mary to make her way to Adrianople alone. For four or five weeks she walked through Greece, Macedonia and over the mountains of Thrace, relying on the freely given generosity of Greek peasants for food.

In the autumn of 1657, just prior to Mary's arrival at Adrianople, the Sultan had decided to move his capital from Constantinople, a place he loathed and feared for its disloyal and mutinous elements, to Adrianople. With him came his court and his 20,000 man army, now camped on the outskirts of the city. Two thousand tents were arranged in circles along the banks of the River Moritza. It was a dazzling display of power. In the centre were the sumptuous, gold-embroidered tents of the Sultan

Mehmed IV and his Grand Vizier, Köprülü Mehmed Paşa (1575-1661). These central tents together constituted a fabric castle complete with administrative offices, accommodation for pages, summer houses and of course, lavish dwellings for the Sultan and Grand Vizier. The opulence and magnificence of it all took the breath away.

The Sultan (1642-1693) was but sixteen at the time of Mary's visit. He came to the throne at the age of 6, after his father was killed in a coup. Titles came with a risk. Young Mehmed IV had a rough start. When he was an infant, his parents had a violent argument. In a rage, his father tore him from his mother's arms and tossed him into a cistern. The harem saved young Mehmed but he wore a scar to remind him that in his world, even family

can become deadly enemies.

Mehmed IV came to power in the midst of turmoil. The empire was crippled with internecine struggles, failed foreign campaigns and a demoralized army. The Ottoman's lost an important battle with the Holy Roman Emperor, Leopold I and a naval battle with the Venetians. Morale among his troops collapsed and the entire Ottoman army walked off. His mother realized that the Ottoman Empire itself was on the edge of collapse, and that a strong and strategic Grand Vizier was required to retrieve control and reverse Ottoman fortunes. The man she chose was Köprülü Mehmed Paşa.

Köprülü Mehmed Paşa was the revered and

feared chieftain of the Albanians,. Köprülü was a strong governor and a man of ruthless reputation. During his five years in office as Grand Vizier, Köprülü had 36,000 influential persons summoned to Constantinople and quietly strangled. By the end of the purge, not a man remained in the empire who could or would offer resistance to the Sultan. Beyond Köprülü's accomplishments with a garrote, he destroyed the Venetian Fleet (1657), restoring the dominance of the Ottoman Empire in the Region.

Enter Mary. Her challenge was to convince Köprülü to grant her an audience with the Sultan. There is no record of Mary's interview with Köprülü. What we do know is that he heard her out, then advised the young sultan to see her. The

following day, Mary, aged 35, was ushered into the throne room with all the pomp and ceremony of a visiting Ambassador. Ranks of servants, guards, eunuchs and pages surrounded the Sultan, all dressed in a splendour of gold-embroidered coats and feathered caps.

Amidst this riot of gold and scarlet stood Mary, dressed in a simple grey frock, her countenance quiet, her deportment confident, her face filled with intelligence, intention and the presence of God.

Mary was received by the Sultan with kindness and deference -- a sharp contrast to the treatment she had borne at the hands of her countrymen. In the way of Quakers, Mary said nothing, waiting for

the inward light to guide her words. There was an awkward silence. The Sultan offered to dismiss his courtiers, that Mary might feel more disposed to speak. She declined and at length, when the light came to her, Mary conveyed her message.

All in the room listened carefully and with gravity until she was done. Then she asked the Sultan if he had understood her message. He replied “Yes, every word of what you have said is truth.” He invited her to stay in Turkey, and when she declined, he offered her an escort to Constantinople, for the journey was treacherous. Again she declined and made her own way unimpeded.

This plucky young woman, Mary Fisher, with her

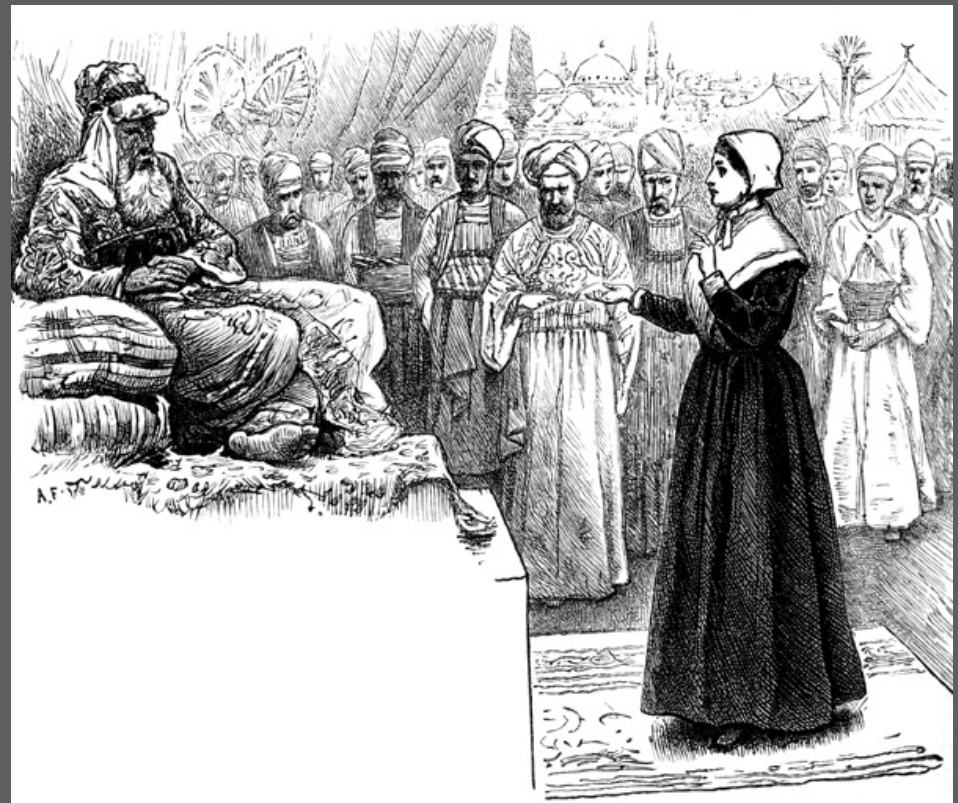
unwavering determination, courage and devotion inspired countless people across centuries to convert to and advance the Quaker cause.

Mary Fisher (1623-1698)

Quaker Missionary

Relation: Probable by surname and location (Yorkshire) but unconfirmed

Scene: Mary receives an audience with the Sultan



Mehmed IV (1642-1693)

Sultan Ottoman Empire

Relation: No relation

The Black Plague

The Romans

In 43 AD Julius Caesar and a sizeable number of his associates landed on the shores of Britain and marched across the land as though they owned it, and for 367 years they did. With them came a wealth of knowledge in agriculture, military techniques and equipment, construction methods, urban planning, pumps, levers, pulleys, advanced wheels, water management, sanitation,

wastewater disposal and public administration. They were a highly advanced society.

Londinium

By the start of the first century, Londinium, on the present site of London, became the administrative capital for the new Roman province they called Britannia. Londinium was about the size of today's Hyde Park and was as Roman as any other important Roman centre in the empire. Its buildings were grand. It had open spaces for the public, clean water, public fountains, toilets, a sewer system, clean streets, bathhouses, a planned street grid, designated spaces for markets and rule of law to make it all work.



The Black Plague

When the Romans left in 410 CE a remarkable thing happened. Everybody else left. Tragically, all the advances the Romans brought to Britain were left behind as well. For more than a thousand years, Britain reverted first to tribal societies, then feudalism.

London, City of Filth

Londinium became London, but in name only. Through the middle ages, London bore no resemblance to its illustrious ancestor. There were no impressive public buildings, no sewers, no clean water, no notion of sanitation. The poor lived in overcrowded tenements and garrets — airless, dank and filthy. Slops were thrown from windows, animal dung and debris littered the slippery cobbled streets, in the centres of which ran open

drains. In the summer London was beset with flies and mud, and in the winter, it was awash in sewer.

The city hired rakers who cleared the detritus from the streets and piled it outside the city walls. The stench was insufferable. The air was choked with the smoke of soap factories, breweries, iron smelters and 15,000 coal-burning fireplaces. Rats, fleas and haggard dogs were everywhere.

Wagons, horses and pedestrians filled the streets, congesting at the city gates and queuing to cross London Bridge. It was a medieval version of rush hour today.

Those who could afford it travelled in hackney carriages and sedan chairs to avoid the filth. Those who could not afford carriages suffered the splashes of their passing. Just beyond the Roman-

built city walls lived those poorer than poor in a shanty town of a quarter million souls. All told, the population of London had grown to 460,000 people. London was ripe for something terrible.

Samuel Pepys (1633-1703)

Living and working in London during the mid 1600s was Samuel Pepys (1633-1703), pronounced 'peeps.' Samuel came from an upper middle class family of notable politicians. He was well-educated, a quick study, articulate, politically astute and highly social. Through his extensive connections, hard work and his skill at administration he rose through the civil service to become Chief Secretary to the Admiralty under King Charles II and his successor King James II. Samuel's job was complex and demanding. He

was to keep the Royal Navy supplied with men, ships, materials, food and finances, and advise and report to the Admiralty, Parliament and the king.

Samuel's acumen brought a number of important modernizations to the Royal Navy. Yet he is notable in history not for those but for the diary he kept from 1660 to 1669. The diary provides a unique and entirely candid account of his personal and work life and of everyday life in London in the 1660s. Much happened during those years. Oliver Cromwell died and the republic collapsed, King Charles II was returned from exile, and the Second Dutch War, the Black Plague and the Great Fire of London occurred in quick succession. Here are the stories of the Black Plague and the Great Fire, as



A familiar scene from the days of the Black Plague

recounted by first hand observer Samuel Pepys in 1665 and 1666.

Arrival

In June of 1664 a seaman arrived at the port of Weymouth in South England. With him came the Black Plague (bubonic plague). The Black Plague was nothing new. Western Europe including Britain had been devastated by it on several occasions, the most deadly in 1348 when up to 60% of Europe's population was killed. Experts peg England's death toll in that year to two to four million of its six million people.

The Black Plague was a horrid disease. The skin turned black in patches. The glands of the groin

inflamed into 'buboes' and victims suffered vomiting, a swollen tongue and severe headaches. Death followed within several days.

Once infected, the victim's symptoms appeared in 4 to 6 days whereupon, the house was sealed, condemning the entire family to death. A red cross was painted on the door with the words "Lord have mercy on us." At night, carters hired by the city called through the streets "Bring out your dead," loaded the corpses on their carts and took them to the plague pits.

Within eighteen months of the seaman's arrival, the plague had engulfed all of England. In the fall of 1664 a bright comet appeared in the sky over London. It proved a portent of what was to come.

By June of the following year the plague was deeply entrenched in London, infecting the poor in the crowded boroughs with vengeance. There, wretched living conditions and plague infected rats and their fleas rapidly spread the disease. Seven months later, 100,000 Londoners, almost one quarter of its population, were dead. The wealthy including King Charles II and his court escaped the onslaught by retreating to their country estates. For the poor, there was no escape.

As a small child, I gathered in a circle with friends. We held hands and sung this song, versions of which children have sung for hundreds of years since those horrifying days of 1665:

“Ring around the Rosies,
A pocket full of posies,

Husha, husha, we all fall down”

The ring of rosies is a reference to the red rashes, the pocket of posies refer to posies of herbs carried to lessen the smell of the disease and as protection from the disease, and ‘husha, husha’ were the coughing fits, a final symptom before the victim fell down, dead.

The City of York also suffered terribly from the plague. When we visited York our B&B was several blocks beyond the old city wall. Each day, we walked down a road bordering the ancient city wall. The wall stood high above the road on a steep, grassy embankment at the bottom of which lay a ditch. What I now know is that the depression at the bottom of the embankment is an enormous

plague pit filled with the bones of countless victims.

From Pepys Diary

The Great Plague in London peaked in August 1665. Samuel's diary entries during that terrifying month reveal his horror and fear as he walked the eerily empty streets of London. Shops are closed, friends and acquaintances are dead and the few passersby are but shattered shells of souls:

Tuesday 8 Aug 1665

The streets mighty empty all the way, now even in London, which is a sad sight. And to Westminster Hall, where talking, hearing very sad stories from Mrs. Mumford; among

others, of Mrs. Michell's son's family. And poor Will, that used to sell us ale at the Hall-door, his wife and three children died, all, I think, in a day. So home through the City again, wishing I may have taken no ill in going; but I will go, I think, no more thither. Wednesday, 16 Aug 1665

... how sad a sight it is to see the streets empty of people, and very few upon the 'Change. Jealous of every door that one sees shut up, lest it should be the plague; and about us two shops in three, if not more, generally shut up.

Wednesday 30 Aug 1665

...Lord! how every body's looks, and discourse in the street is of death, and

nothing else, and few people going up and down, that the towne is like a place distressed and forsaken.

By the end of August Samuel could risk living in the city no longer. He and his wife Elizabeth join family in Woolwich, now Greenwich, beyond the city walls:

Thursday 31 Aug 1665

Up and, after putting several things in order to my removal, to Woolwich; the plague having a great encrease this week, beyond all expectation of almost 2,000, making the general Bill 7,000, odd 100; and the plague above 6,000... Thus this month ends with great sadness upon the publick,

through the greatness of the plague every where through the kingdom almost. Every day sadder and sadder news of its encrease. In the City died this week 7,496 and of them 6,102 of the plague. But it is feared that the true number of the dead, this week is near 10,000; partly from the poor that cannot be taken notice of, through the greatness of the number, and partly from the Quakers and others that will not have any bell ring for them.

Finally, in November of that year, plague deaths declined and a semblance of city life began to return:

Thursday 30 Nov 1665

Great joy we have this week in the weekly Bill, it being come to 544 in all, and

but 333 of the plague; so that we are encouraged to get to London soon as we can. And my father writes as great news of joy to them, that he saw Yorke's waggon (sic) go again this week to London, and was full of passengers...

The Great Fire of London

Shortly after midnight on Sunday 2 September 1665, a fire broke out in the bakery of Thomas Farriner of Pudding Lane, central London. In no time, 300 houses were ablaze and a strong east wind continued to jump the fire from house to house through the winding, closely packed warrens of streets that was 1600s London.

Sir Thomas Bloodworth, the Lord Mayor of London, was early on notified of the fire. Had he ordered the city militia and watchmen to begin making firebreaks, the outcome might have been different. He concluded the situation was inconsequential and retired back to bed.

When it finally became clear that the mayor was incapable of acting, the city council took action without him. Standard procedure was employed. Men were dispatched to create firebreaks by pulling down streets of houses with long hooked poles well in advance of the fire. However, stopping the fire was, by then, impossible. It was a conflagration of immense proportion moving at a speed never before experienced. Orders were given to abandon the fire fight and instead, save



Great Fire of London 2 September, 1665

irreplaceable plate from the churches and guildhalls, artwork and relics.

Samuel Pepys quickly reported the situation to King Charles II. The King promptly ordered large-scale demolitions but it was all to no avail. The fire pushed north on Monday into the heart of the city. The King himself manned a bucket brigade. The authorities resorted to gunpowder to create firebreaks. Rumours spread that foreigners were responsible and that the explosions heard were the French invading the city. Panic ensued and many French and Dutch were lynched and assaulted. Refugees poured out of the city, hampered by thousands of people who had come into London to witness the event. Saint Paul's Cathedral could not escape. As fire engulfed its

huge roof, acres of lead sheathing melted and poured down onto the streets below.

By Tuesday, the fire had spread across the entire medieval City of London inside the Roman wall. By September fire, the fire had been contained and on September 6, it was extinguished. Only one-fifth of London was left standing. Destroyed were 13,200 houses, 87 parish churches, St Paul's Cathedral and most of the city's administrative buildings. Seventy to eighty thousand inhabitants were left homeless. The social and economic challenges which followed were enormous. The death toll, officially reported as minor, has been debated by historians, some arguing that many of the poor who died were unaccounted for.



Great Fire of London 2 September, 1665

From Pepys Diary

Sunday 2 September 1666

“I was called for, and did tell the King and Duke of Yorke what I saw, and that unless his Majesty did command houses to be pulled down nothing could stop the fire. They seemed much troubled, and the King commanded me to go to my Lord Mayor — [Sir Thomas Bludworth. See June 30th, 1666.]— from him, and command him to spare no houses, but to pull down before the fire every way.

At last met my Lord Mayor in Canningstreet, like a man spent, with a handkercher about his neck. To the King’s message he cried, like

a fainting woman, “Lord! what can I do? I am spent: people will not obey me. I have been pulling down houses; but the fire overtakes us faster than we can do it.” That he needed no more soldiers; and that, for himself, he must go and refresh himself, having been up all night. So he left me, and I him, and walked home.

[I] walked to my boat; and there upon the water again, and to the fire up and down, it still encreasing, and the wind great. So near the fire as we could for smoke; and all over the Thames, with one’s face in the wind, you were almost burned with a shower of firedrops. This is very true; so as houses were burned by these drops and flakes of fire,

three or four, nay, five or six houses, one from another.

[We] staid till it was dark almost, and saw the fire grow; and, as it grew darker, appeared more and more, and in corners and upon steeples, and between churches and houses, as far as we could see up the hill of the City, in a most horrid malicious bloody flame, not like the fine flame of an ordinary fire.”

A Tribute

Samuel’s womanizing would hardly ‘cut the mustard’ today. Yet despite that, he did care deeply for his wife, always ensuring her well-being. Although his claim to fame today is his diary and the light it has shed on the period it referenced,

1660-1669, there was much more to Samuel’s accomplishments. He was a hard-working, highly competent naval administrator who brought much-needed modernizations to the British Navy at a critical time. What made Samuel so effective at his job was his capacity as a connector and influencer of people and ideas.

The glue which made those attributes so effective was his nature. He was straight forward yet tactful, intellectual, politically astute, an incomparable conversationalist, affable, fun-loving and caring. Samuel had the ear, it seems, of every important person in his day, including the king, the Duke of York and the aforementioned Hans Sloane. His friends and associates stretched from intellectuals, politicians, merchants and government officials to humble servants and



Great Fire of London 2 September 1665

pedlars. He was truly a man of the people who earned the love and admiration of all those he touched.

Samuel Pepys (1633-1703)

Chief Secretary to the Admiralty

Diarist

1st cousin 7x removed of wife of 1st cousin 2x removed

Change
Maker



Sir Thomas Bloodworth (1620-1682)

Thomas Bloodworth was born in London where he lived for his entire life. At 15, he was apprenticed to a vintner and later became a member of the Vintners Guild. Years on, he became a so-called Turkey merchant — a member of the Levant Company which held an English charter to do business in the Levant or middle east including Turkey. Bloodworth's primary interest was trading in timber.

Bloodworth was a man with many 'irons in the fire.' He was a member of the Committee of the East India Company (EIC) from 1661-1665 and thus, would have had regular dealings with Samuel Pepys, who worked

closely with the EIC on British Navy matters. As well, Bloodworth was a member of the Court of Assistants (Board of Directors) of the Levant Company, was a London alderman, an avid royalist MP, one of two London sheriffs, and Master of the Vintners Company. Notably, Bloodworth was also a director of the Royal Africa Company, which held the British monopoly on slave trading out of West Africa and supplied all slaves to the Caribbean and British North America.

In 1660 he was knighted by King Charles II for aiding the King's return from exile and over the period of 1660-1682 Bloodworth was Colonel of the Orange and Yellow London Regiments. In November of 1665, nine months before the Great Fire, Bloodworth was elected Lord Mayor of London. In short, Thomas Bloodworth was a well-connected man. How capable he was is a matter for debate.

When Pepys found Bloodworth at the scene of the fire, Bloodworth refused to allow demolition to proceed. Perhaps he was feeling pressured by owners of the houses and city aldermen, but outwardly, he downplayed the seriousness of the fire, saying “a woman might piss it out”, then returned to his home and bed. Pepys diary comments make it abundantly clear that he held a great distaste for the man. “he cried, like a fainting woman, ‘Lord! what can I do?’”

Bloodworth’s handling of the London Fire fell far short of heroic and might be more accurately described as anemic. Samuel Pepys would have agreed with that. In his diary, Pepys describes Bloodworth as “a silly man I think” and “a very weak man he seems to be” as well “a zealous person in the King’s concernments; willing though it may be not very able, to do great things.” (30 June 1666)

In partial defence of Bloodworth’s inaction, there was a critical procedural flaw that played a significant role in the outcome — authority to demolish houses came from the King. If the Lord Mayor of London went ahead and ordered demolition without the King’s authority, he risked being liable for the cost of reconstructing the demolished houses later, a cost so substantial that it almost certainly would have rendered Bloodworth penniless. That thought must have crossed his mind more than once and may well have contributed to his inaction.

The counter-argument, of course, is that a capable leader would have assessed the risk to the community, put aside self-interest and acted swiftly to contain the fire. My personal view: Thomas Bloodworth said the right things to the right people to advance his own interests, in the absence of any inclination or ability to

turn words into meaningful action. Thomas Bloodworth was an opportunist.

First Cousin

Sir Thomas Bloodworth, Lord Mayor of London, was born in London in 1620. His family, however, originated from Derby in the English Midlands, not far from Haddon Hall. My second great grandmother on my father's side was a Bloodworth. My Bloodworths also derived from Derby. Sure enough, after considerable sleuthing, I discovered one George Bloodworth (1560-1630), my 11th great grandfather, was Sir Thomas's grandfather. That is to say, Sir Thomas is my 1st cousin, 11x removed. Ahh me.

Sir Thomas Bloodworth (1624-1682)

Merchant, Lord Mayor of London

Relation: Paternal 1st cousin 11x removed



Sugar & Slavery

British Interest in growing sugar cane in the West Indies began a few years after her acquisition of Barbados in 1623 and the capture of Jamaica from the Spanish in 1655. Of several crops tested, sugar showed huge potential. It grew rapidly, did not spoil once processed and fetched an extremely high price. Consumers viewed sugar as a symbol of success. If you had sugar on your table, you most certainly had a mountain of money in the bank.

The shortcoming of sugar cane was that it required significant capital to set up and it was labour-

intensive to grow, harvest and process. As well, few endured the back-breaking work. At first, Indentured servants were utilized, then African slaves were introduced. Slavery transformed the sugar economy into a virtual money machine. With low overhead and high revenues, sugar generated enormous profits for planters, investors and the government. The era of slavery began in which millions of Africans sacrificed their lives to benefit their owners.

The Workings of Slavery

Although slaves were not cheap to purchase, ownership existed for the lifetime of the slave from whom inhuman amounts of work could be extracted at minimal cost. As well, offspring of slave mothers became the property of slave owners, offsetting the depreciating value of their

parents.

Slavery was viewed by owners as a form of animal management. They were bought, worked, bred and auctioned off like cattle. Their sole purpose was to make their owners rich and give them a life of comfort previously only available to the ultra wealthy. To maximize their profits and squeeze every last pound of value from their slaves, some owners purposely worked their human chattels to death, then simply bought a replacement.

The Triangular Atlantic Slave Trade

As the demand for slaves rose in the late 1600s, it did not take British slave traders and investors long to work out a system to maximize their profits. That system became known as the Triangular

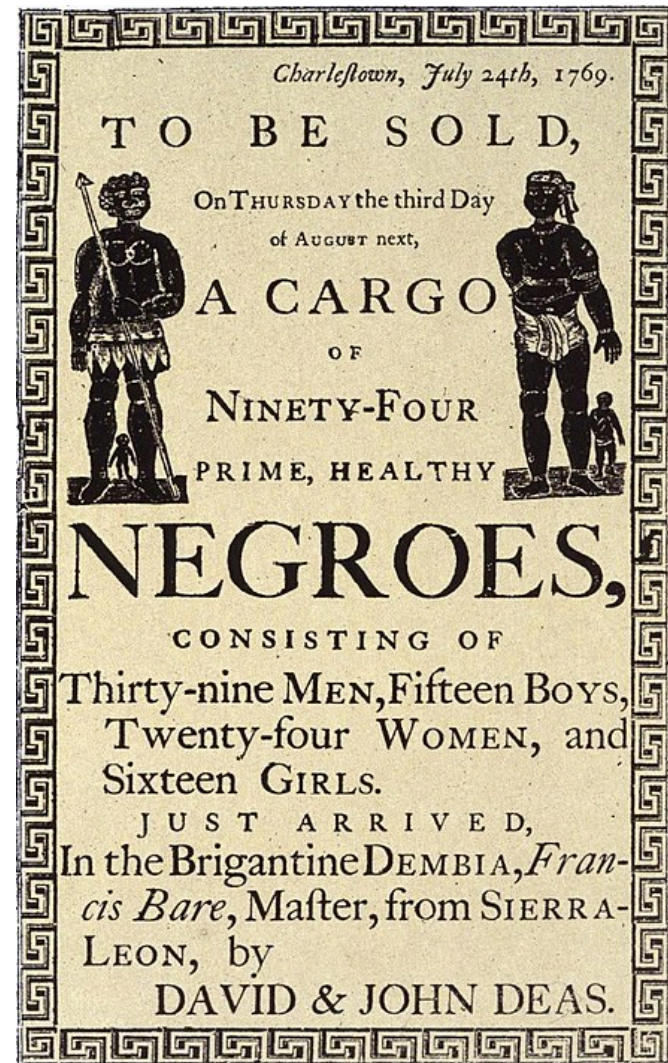
Slave Trade.

The Triangular Slave Trade operated largely out of London, Bristol, Liverpool and Glasgow. It was so named for the three-legs of the voyage and the three trades that made it so lucrative: English merchants shipped manufactured goods, particularly copper pots, utensils, cotton and gunpowder to African slave-traders on the Ivory and Gold Coasts in exchange for slaves; the slaves were shackled in the holds of the same ships and transported to the West Indies where they were sold for sugar; the sugar was shipped to London and sold for a massive profit. The entire voyage took 12 to 18 months.

Capture and Transport

The African traders made raids on coastal and interior villages capturing men, women and children whom they force marched with brutal efficiency to their white counterparts on the coast. Many died en route. There, the slaves were sold to British factors of the Royal African Company (RAC). The RAC held the terrified victims in holding prisons under deplorable conditions, awaiting ships which would transport most of them to Brazil, Spanish America and the West Indies.

Those who survived the forced march, the prison and the voyage were, upon arrival in Barbados or Jamaica, kept in 'seasoning camps' where they adjusted to or died from tropical diseases. One academic estimates that 33% of Africans died



Charlestown, July 24th, 1769.

TO BE SOLD,

On THURSDAY the third Day
of AUGUST next,

A CARGO
OF
NINETY-FOUR
PRIME, HEALTHY

NEGROES,

CONSISTING OF
Thirty-nine MEN, Fifteen BOYS,
Twenty-four WOMEN, and
Sixteen GIRLS.

JUST ARRIVED,
In the Brigantine DEMBIA, *Francis Bare*, Master, from SIERRA-LEON, by
DAVID & JOHN DEAS.

within the first year at these seasoning camps. The most notorious of those camps was in Jamaica where the majority died of dysentery.

Sold At Auction

By royal charter, the Royal African Company held a monopoly on all trading by British companies into Africa, including the purchase and sale of slaves. In turn, a percentage of their revenues were paid to the monarchy. In the New World, the RAC sold their human cargo to established traders who sold the slaves at auction. As slaves were viewed as no more than a commodity, little to no consideration was given to keeping enslaved families together.

The Investors

Although the costs of fitting out a slave trading ship and supporting a year-long voyage were high, big players were at the ready to finance and underwrite slaving ventures. The Bank of England made funds available for slaving endeavours, as did Lloyds of London Insurance and many private banks and businesses.

Sadly, Quaker-owned Barclays Bank made a fortune by buying up banks which financed the slave trade, including the extremely profitable Heywood's Bank which served Liverpool merchants and traders. In modern times, Barclay's defence has been 'we cannot be held responsible for the sins of those whose banks we purchased.'

We hold true to our Quaker values.' A questionable assertion at best, for they would have known full well the origin of the acquisitions' profits.

The Addiction

Profits from the sugar trade, more specifically, from slavery were immense. The plantation owners, the syndicates of investors and the banks which financed slave trading voyages made hundreds of percent on their investments. However, the transfer of wealth didn't stop there. Banks and investors re-invested their profits in other ventures, companies provided services to those ventures, the wealthy who made their money from slavery spent lavishly on all manner of goods and services. By the end of the 1700s it

could be said that almost the entirety of British society was addicted to the prosperity which derived from the backs of slaves. Everyone knew it. Few were willing to give it up for the sake of being on the ethically correct side of the slavery question. The road to the abolition of slavery would prove to be long and rocky.

The Rose Brothers

Jamaica

In the 1600s, home for the Rose family was the idyllic little village of Mickleton on the northeast edge of the Cotswolds. Reverend Thomas Rose (1619-1692) and his wife Francesse Fisher (1619-1661) had 10 children. At about age 24, the eldest son, Fulke Rose (1640-1711), decided to make his fortune in Jamaica, by doctoring to wealthy plantation owners. He must have quickly landed on his feet, for in 1670, at age 30, he is listed as owner of a sugar plantation. Fulke's brothers, Francis (1654-1720) and Thomas

(1649-1679), joined Fulke to help manage the plantation. A fourth brother John (1651-1703) was a sea captain and London merchant and owned three ships. And a fifth brother, William (1640-1711) was an apothecary in London.

When Fulke arrived in Jamaica in the late 1660s, the colony had only been a British possession for a dozen years. Over that period, its capital, Port Royal, had effectively been controlled by pirates and privateers. It was a wild and lawless place, where the streets were filled with drunken, brawling seamen and prostitutes plying their trade. Life among many of the plantation owners, report Quaker missionaries, was little better and Quaker efforts at conversion were a dismal failure.

The Monmouth Rebellion

Three significant events were going on in Britain or under the control of Britain at the time, events which presented opportunities to the Rose brothers. The first was the immensely lucrative sugar trade and the second was the advent of slavery as previously described and of which Fulke Rose had taken full advantage.

The third opportunity for the Rose Brothers arose from political events. The Monmouth Rebellion broke out in 1685. Upon the Restoration (the return of the monarchy after eleven plus years of Oliver Cromwell's republic), Charles II, a Protestant, assumed the throne. All went well until his death, when his brother James II took over. James was a Catholic. That did not go down well with the

Protestants of the west counties. The Duke of Monmouth, a Protestant and popular figure in the west counties was an illegitimate son of Charles I. Monmouth laid claim to the throne and began recruiting troops in the south and west counties to march on London.

Things did not go as planned. His brigade of farmers and artisans were ill equipped to deal with the regular army. The rebellion collapsed.

Monmouth was executed for treason on 15 July 1685. Many of his supporters were tried and condemned to death. To make a point, authorities drew and quartered some and boiled others alive in tar.



EXTERIOR OF A DISTILLERY,
on Weatherell's Estate, Antigua.

A rum distillery, late 1700s, Antigua, West Indies

Transportation

Although Africans constituted the vast majority of slaves, there was another source of labour — criminals and rebels who received 7 to 12 year sentences in the colonies. As serious offenders in those days were often executed, those who received the sentence of ‘transportation’ were frequently very minor offenders. A desperate mother of young children, who steals a loaf of bread, could spend ten years in far away Australia. Minor participants in rebellions received the same. Often they were just boys and young men, game for excitement and aiding a good cause. The surnames of my family were among both those who were executed and those who were transported.

Eight hundred and ninety rebels, the more fortunate, received a sentence of ‘transportation’ -- ten years of servitude in the colonies, unless of course they died en route, packed ‘tween decks’ like cattle.

Those transported largely went to the West Indies where they laboured as slaves on the sugar plantations. Criminals of the day fortunate enough to avoid the executioner’s block were also shipped en mass to the West Indies and the British American colonies.

‘Transportation’ had become a masterful solution to a costly problem for whomever was in power: what to do with the thousands of folks who don’t ‘toe the line.’

The Family Business

It seems that one of the Rose brothers, probably Fulke, came up with an idea to make a lot of money by employing their various skills to capitalize on the three opportunities: sugar, slavery and transportation, that is, to operate a truncated version of the Triangular Slave Trade.

And so, the brothers worked together as a syndicate: Fulke, Thomas and Francis ran the plantation, John contracted with England to transport criminals and rebels to Jamaica (as well as Barbados) where he may have conveyed his human cargo to Fulke to labour on his plantation. John, once free of his human cargo, filled his ships with Rose sugar and returned to England where the payload was sold for a good deal of money. London-based William served as the family

banker.

Slave Trader

As well, Fulke discovered that the buying and selling of African slaves was also a highly lucrative endeavour. He became one of the four largest slave traders in Jamaica while Jamaica was one of three major destinations for slaves transported across the Atlantic, along with Barbados and South Carolina. He purchased slaves from the Royal African Company which, by charter, held a monopoly on the transport and sale of West African slaves and goods destined for British markets. About 5000 slaves per year made the treacherous voyage, prostrate and chained cheek by jowl for three months below decks. As much as 20% of the slaves died en route, some of them by suicide. The Rose plantations (Fulke owned three)

used African slaves, as they were by far, the most cost-efficient form of labour and as a slave trader, his access to slaves was unlimited.

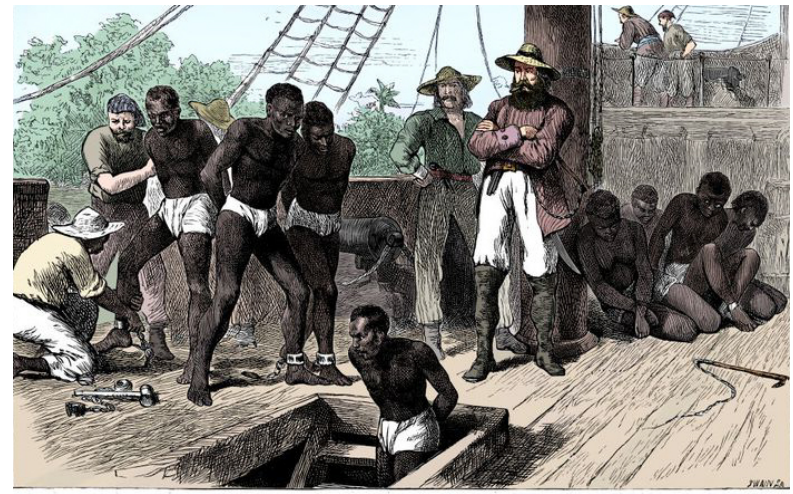
In addition to the domestic slave market was a highly profitable slave smuggling market to Spanish Territories in the West Indies. If Fulke participated in that, he would have processed many more slaves than those officially reported.

Wealth

In some form, much of the aforementioned appears to have happened. Fulke made a great deal more money from his non-medical endeavours than he did from his work as a physician, enough, in fact, to purchase several more plantations and houses and land in both Jamaica and England.



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The Apothecary

William Rose (1640-1711)

Apothecaries no longer exist. In good measure, it's because of a court case involving our William Rose. In the 17th and 18th centuries, there were three providers of medical services, not counting midwives (midwives were not considered part of the medical community): surgeons, physicians and apothecaries.

Surgeons carried out basic surgery. They amputated crushed limbs, set broken bones and effected other duties related to the mechanics of

the body.

Physicians were the highest order of medical practitioner. They were sometimes university trained, as was Dr Fulke Rose's grandson, Dr Rose Fuller. They diagnosed a wide range of ailments, illnesses and other conditions, carried out medical procedures of the day with hit and miss results and prescribed medicines.

The apothecary made up those medicines and unlike the pharmacists of today, apothecaries also provided medical advice and treatments, blurring the roles of apothecary and physician.

Apothecaries had moved into the physician's territory in order to service people who did not have the means to pay the physicians' high fees.

Naturally, physicians were not pleased with this state of affairs and at every opportunity, they jealously guarded their monopoly to diagnose and prescribe.

In 1701, a butcher from Hungerford Market whose name was John Seale consulted William Rose about what was probably a sexually transmitted disease. William tried various treatments over several months without success. He finally called it quits and presented Mr. Seale with a bill for 50 pounds, a considerable sum.

The Courts

Mr. Seale complained to the College of Physicians who brought the matter before the court arguing that William was practicing illegally as a physician. The case was extensively debated and ultimately, a

decision was made in favour of the physicians.

Next, the Society of Apothecaries appealed, arguing that physicians' high fees excluded the poor from their services and thus, the apothecaries were providing an essential service. William won the case on appeal in 1704.

Not to be outdone, physicians set up free dispensaries for the poor, designed, no doubt, to undercut (unsuccessfully) the apothecaries' business. There were no hard feelings, you understand. It was just that the apothecaries, with their questionable formal education and merchant class roots were hardly candidates for the medical profession, traditionally and properly the precinct of the privileged.

Both sides of this issue were entrenched in the

family, for it was Hans Sloane (1660-1753), the second husband of Dr Fulke Rose's wife, Elizabeth Langley, (1662-1724) who formulated the plan for the free dispensaries and largely financed the project. Sloane was an eminent English physician, naturalist, philanthropist and originator of the British Museum.

The ruling in favour of the apothecaries is still considered to be the beginning of General Practice in England. That is to say that apothecaries later became our general practice medical doctors. Today, the Rose Prize of the Royal College of General Practitioners is named in William's honour. It is awarded 'For original work in the history of medical practice in the British Isles.'

It is one of those curious ironies of history, I

suppose, that William (unwittingly) contributed so significantly to the practice of medicine on the one hand and with the other, deposited to the bank large sums of cash which he and his brothers acquired on the backs of slaves and for which many slaves gave their lives.

William Rose (1640-1711)

Apothecary

Relation: 1st cousin 9x removed

**Change
Maker**



Hans Sloane, MD (1660-1753)

Hans Sloane was born into an Ulster Scots family in 1660, in the village of Killyleagh, Ireland. As a boy he developed a keen interest in natural history and collecting specimens, which he pursued for his entire life. He studied medicine in London, then spent considerable time furthering his studies in Paris and Montpellier, France where he obtained his MD in 1683.

At age 24 he was elected to the Royal Society, an astonishing accomplishment for such a young man. Two years later, in 1687, he became a Fellow of the College of Physicians. Hans was well regarded, so much so, that in that same year, he was asked to accompany Christopher Monck (35), the 2nd Duke of Albermarle to Jamaica as the Duke's personal physician. Monck was assuming the governorship of the island. Hans spent 15 months in Jamaica, at the end of which time the hard-drinking, party-going Governor Monck dropped dead and Hans returned to London.

During his time in Jamaica, Hans collected some 70,000 natural history specimens and curiosities which he later bequeathed to the British government on condition that they use the collection to start a national museum which would

be free to the public. That was the start of the British Museum which opened its doors in 1759.

While in Jamaica, Hans connected socially and professionally with Dr. Fulke Rose, my first cousin 9 times removed. Together, they ministered to Captain Henry Morgan, pirate, privateer and Governor of Jamaica until his death from alcoholism.

Hans had another family connection. Fulke Rose was married to Elizabeth Langley, daughter of a London Alderman. When Fulke died in 1695, Elizabeth returned to London to live, a wealthy heiress of Fulke's slaves, sugar plantations and considerable real estate holdings. It seems she and Hans became reacquainted following her

return to London, for they married and had three daughters.

In his lifetime, Hans was credited with having exceptional medical skills and was sought out by London high society including the royal family. However, Hans greater contributions were, perhaps, his capacity to connect people, share his considerable knowledge in multiple fields and apply his substantial wealth to support hospitals and other good causes.

Although Hans is widely credited with inventing chocolate milk, he did not. However, he did introduce it to Britain and promote it as a healthful drink. One hundred and fifty years later, the Cadbury's used Hans medical prestige to promote

their chocolate milk product formulated from his recipe.

Hans' indifference to slavery, however, must dull our admiration for the man. Slaves were to Hans, it seems, a mere curiosity, specimens of natural history to examine, catalogue and forget. Hans died in 1753, aged 93.

Hans Sloane, 1660-1753)

PRS, FRS, FCP

*Doctor to the wealthy, lecturer, collector, founder:
British Museum*

Relation: husband of wife of 1st cousin 9x removed

Change
Maker



Hester

In 1781, two individuals lived but houses apart in London. Both were young. The woman had no knowledge of the man, yet the man was well aware of her. Indeed, he loved her. She though, was married and a Quaker. The situation was an agony for him but there was nothing to be done. Two years later, aged 32, she died. Not a word had passed between them. The man's name was Charles Lamb, the poet and essayist of the Romantic Age. Her name was Hester Savory. She was my 3rd great grandmother.

Charles was heartbroken when he heard the news of Hester's death, and wrote a poem about her. He called it 'Hester, published in 1818 in 'Works.'

*WHEN maidens such as Hester die
Their place ye may not well supply,
Though ye among a thousand try
With vain endeavour.*

A month or more hath she been dead,
Yet cannot I by force be led
To think upon the wormy bed
And her together.

*A springy motion in her gait,
A rising step, did indicate
Of pride and joy no common rate,
That flush'd her spirit:*

*I know not by what name beside
I shall it call: if 'twas not pride,
It was a joy to that allied,
She did inherit.*

*Her parents held the Quaker rule,
Which doth the human feeling cool;
But she was train'd in Nature's school;
Nature had blest her.*

*A waking eye, a prying mind;
A heart that stirs, is hard to bind;
A hawk's keen sight ye cannot blind;
Ye could not Hester.*

*My sprightly neighbour! gone before
To that unknown and silent shore,
Shall we not meet, as heretofore,
Some summer morning—*

*When from thy cheerful eyes a ray
Hath struck a bliss upon the day,*

*A bliss that would not go away
A sweet fore-warning?*

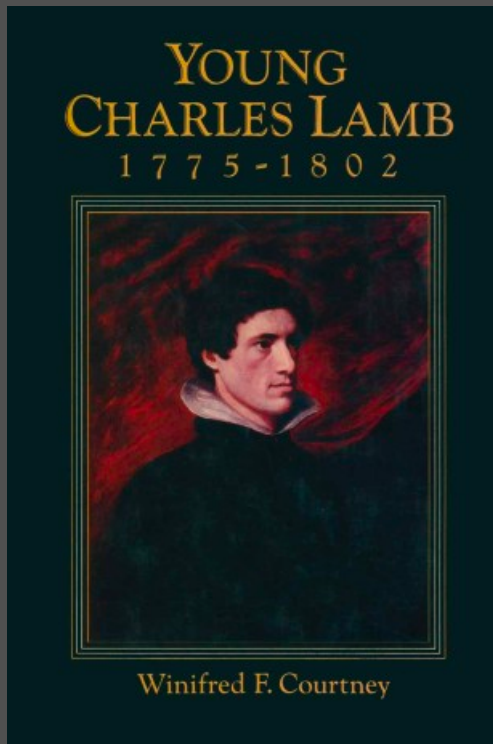
Charles had a difficult life. He had a profound stutter which, despite his bright mind, prevented him from pursuing a university degree, where eloquence was a requirement. He left school at 14. His parents died early, leaving himself and his sister Mary to find work and care for the other children.

His mother died at the hands of Mary, who, during an attack of insanity, stabbed her through the heart. For the rest of her life, Mary had yearly bouts of insanity requiring stays in a sanitarium.

Charles worked as a writer for the Honourable East India Company until his retirement. His leisure

hours were spent writing essays and poems along with Mary, with whom he did most everything. As well, he and Mary socialized with the great poets and essayists of the day, who were much drawn to the Lamb's affable natures. His close friend, with whom he went to school, was Samuel Taylor Coleridge.

The group of them, Wordsworth, Keats, Byron, Shelley, Coleridge and occasionally Charles spent a good deal of time in the Lake District, where Wordsworth and Coleridge had homes. Their poetry did much to bring the beauty of the Lake District to the public's attention, triggering the beginnings of tourism in the area (see 'Honeymoon', Part 3, Peak & Decline).



Charles Lamb (1775-1834)



Charles & sister Mary Lamb

Hester Savory (1751-1783)

Relation: 3rd great grandmother
No image available