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Chapter 1 : 11th century timeline of British History

history of scottish seals from the eleventh to the seventeenth century, with upwards of two hundred illustrations derived from the finest and most interesting examples extant. by.

It is difficult to assess whether Scots descends largely from the Old English of Lothian or the Anglo-Danish of Yorkshire introduced some four hundred years later, which would explain the Norse elements in Early Scots which are lacking in Northumbrian Old English. It remained largely confined to this area until the 13th century, continuing in common use while Scottish Gaelic was the court language until displaced by Norman French in the early 12th century. English then spread further into Scotland via the burgh. After the 12th century early northern Middle English began to spread north and eastwards. It was from this dialect that Early Scots, known to its speakers as "English" Inglis, began to develop, which is why in the late 12th century Adam of Dryburgh described his locality as "in the land of the English in the Kingdom of the Scots" [3] and why the early 13th century author of *de Situ Albanie* thought that the Firth of Forth "divides the kingdoms of the Scots and of the English". Incoming burghers were mainly English especially from Northumbria, and the Earldom of Huntingdon, Flemish and French. Although the military aristocracy employed French and Gaelic, these small urban communities appear to have been using English as something more than a lingua franca by the end of the 13th century. As a consequence of the outcome of the Wars of Independence though, the English-speaking people of Lothian who lived under the King of Scots had to accept Scottish identity. Divergence from Northumbrian Middle English was influenced by the Norse of Scandinavian-influenced Middle English-speaking immigrants from the North and Midlands of England during the 12th and 13th centuries, Dutch and Middle Low German through trade and immigration from the low countries, and Romance via ecclesiastical and legal Latin, Norman and later Parisian French due to the Auld Alliance. Eventually the royal court and barons all spoke Inglis. Further spreading of the language eventually led to Scottish Gaelic being confined mostly to the highlands and islands by the end of the Middle Ages, although some lowland areas, notably in Galloway and Carrick, retained the language until the 17th or 18th century. From the late 14th century even Latin was replaced by Inglis as the language of officialdom and literature. Middle Scots By the early 16th century what was then called Inglis had become the language of government, and its speakers started to refer to it as Scottis and to Scottish Gaelic, which had previously been titled Scottis, as Erse Irish. The first known instance of this was by Adam Loutfut c. In William Nudrye was granted a monopoly by the court to produce school textbooks, two of which were *Ane Schort Introduction: In an English herald spoke to Mary of Guise and her councillors*, at first they talked in the "Scottish tongue" but because he could not understand they continued in French. Free variation was a prominent and important feature of the Middle Scots spelling system, however, all writers displayed some greater or lesser degree of consistency in their spelling habits. From the middle of the 16th century Scots began to become increasingly Anglicized. By the late 16th century almost all writing was composed in a mixture of Scots and English spellings, the English forms slowly becoming more common so that by the end of the 17th century Scots spellings had almost disappeared completely. This process took slightly longer in unpublished vernacular literature and official records. After the Union of the Crowns in the Scots speaking gentry had increasing contact with English speakers and began to remodel their speech on that of their English peers. It was this remodelling that eventually led to the formation of Scottish English. This was not universally accepted by all educated Scots of the period and a new literary Scots came into being. Unlike Middle Scots, it was usually based on contemporary colloquial speech. Its orthography was generally an adaptation of the imported standard, though some orthographic features from Middle Scots continued to be used. This modern literary Scots was exemplified by Allan Ramsay and his followers, and their successors such as Robert Burns. Many writers and publishers found it advantageous to use English forms and copious apostrophes to secure a larger English readership unfamiliar with Scots. The pronunciation undoubtedly remained Scots as the rhymes reveal. In this

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period the absence of an official standard or socially acceptable norm led to further dialect divergence.

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Chapter 2 : History of Scottish Seals

History of Scottish seals from the eleventh to the seventeenth century Item Preview.

In the past, those who could afford to would supplement this simple diet with milk and ale, butter, cheese and fish. In good times, people thrived on this limited but wholesome diet. In addition to these basic foodstuffs, the well-to-do ate large quantities of meat washed down with beer and imported wines. For most people though, meat was an occasional luxury. But archaeological evidence indicates early Scots ate little fish. The fishing economy began in earnest when the Vikings arrived in the 8th century in search of herring and land to cultivate. Demand was fuelled when Roman Catholicism brought fast days to Scotland. Later, entire coastal communities were set up devoted to catching, processing and packing fish for local consumption and export. Today, fishing continues to be a major industry and employer and Scottish salmon is a globally prized commodity. Meat, poultry and game Although Scotland has ample supplies of wild animals and fowl, other than on feast days, ordinary people were fortunate to have the occasional hen in the broth. Eating copious amounts of meat, especially roasts, indicated wealth and status. These all appear in Scottish recipe books. Alongside traditional dishes, the wealthy were experimenting with French methods of cookery and curries from the East added to the cosmopolitan mix. Dr Balfour of Glasgow having taken lodgings in a questionable house, caricature by John Gibson Lockhart from an album ca. Oats Oats have been the staple food of Scots for centuries. In the 14th century, French chronicler Jean Froissart noted Scots soldiers carried bags of oatmeal to make their own oatcakes. However, bere and barley were more widely cultivated, especially in the Highlands and it was not until the agricultural improvements of the eighteenth century that nutritious, energy-giving oats became the dominant cereal. Wheat is grown in Scotland but the soil and climate do not favour its cultivation. Wheaten bread was for long a luxury item for the wealthy while in the Highlands the poor ate potatoes as a substitute for bread. Today, most of us eat wheat bread but oats are enjoying a revival in popularity and seem likely to become a global superfood. Vegetables Tradition has it that the Scots do not eat vegetables. But the evidence is that even in the poorest households a handful of kale was to hand and was added to the broth to provide flavour as well as nutritional value. Kitchen gardens attached to great houses became popular in the seventeenth century. From this time, vegetable dishes began to appear on the tables of wealthy Scots as cooks experimented with new ingredients. Potatoes were eaten as a novelty by the gentry long before they provide winter fodder for animals. Later, they became a staple foodstuff for the poor often replacing bread with dire consequences when the harvest failed. Watch this archive film telling the story of the farming year in Scotland, told through the eyes of four farmers in the Highlands, the Borders, Ayrshire and Angus:

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Chapter 3 : Scotland In The 11th Century by Suzie Talbot on Prezi

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This was an important event in the history of England because at this point, Canute converted to Christianity and proclaimed his intention to rule in a Christian fashion. He used the power of the European Christian church to support his rule in England, the idea of a king, who had God on his side was a powerful illusion. He strengthened political and commercial ties between England and Normandy. Before the end of the 11th century change as never before comes to Britain The Norman invasion of Britain changed the face of England forever. Anglo Saxon rule was over. When the French cast off from their northern shores, they could have had little idea how successful their campaign would be. They ruthlessly strode through the country, wasting no time in taking land and possessions and dividing it between King and noble French lords. They quickly built wooden stockade castles and within a short time began building stone structures. Churches and castles built in the Norman style as the new conquerors sought to stamp their authority on the people of Britain. Domesday, the great 11th century book Once the the English are dispossessed of their property, King William I undertakes a census of the lands, citing ownership and recording churches, woodlands, mills etc. The church in the 11th century Pope Gregory VII was pursuing church reform, in an attempt to make the Roman church ever more powerful. This was a time when a struggle for power between the church and dynastic rulers became more and more polarized and would thus continue for the next years. This mighty tome and other works influenced scientific, particularly medical thinking, through the coming centuries. It was far in advance of any thinking in Western Europe, where the dark ages held back progressive scientific thinking. Towns such as Oxford, were a product of the expansion of trade seen in the 11th century. The important centres for Anglo Saxon trade, such as Southampton and London continued to thrive. Trades began to flourish in the new market places, generating profit, which in turn generated more trade. By the end of this 11th century, the face of Britain will start to take on the appearance of the country we know now. The Norman churches we are so familiar with start to emerge, market towns with squares also begin to be developed. The change, from an Anglo Saxon culture to a Norman culture took place in this critical century in British history. Our 11th century timeline is being created and curated but already via each century page you can quickly locate our collections for each years of history.

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Chapter 4 : Links and bibliography for heraldry

HISTORY OF SCOTTISH SEALS FROM THE ELEVENTH TO THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY, WITH UPWARDS OF TWO HUNDRED ILLUSTRATIONS DERIVED FROM THE FINEST AND MOST INTERESTING EXAMPLES EXTANT. BY

However when the ice melted forests spread across Scotland and stone age hunters moved there. By 6, BC small groups of people lived in Scotland by hunting animals like red deer and seals and by gathering plants for food. Then about 4, BC farming was introduced into Scotland. The early farmers continued to use stone tools and weapons and this period is called the Neolithic new stone age. The Neolithic people used stone axes or fire to clear forests for farming and they grew wheat, barley and rye. They also bred cattle and sheep. They lived in simple stone huts with roofs of turf or thatch. The finest example of a Neolithic village was found in Orkney after a storm in The inhabitants lived in stone huts with stone shelves and stone seats inside. They also had stone beds, which were probably covered with straw or heather. The people of Skara Brae used pottery vessels. By 1, BC people in Scotland had learned to make bronze. The Bronze Age people continued to live in simple huts but they are famous for their stone monuments. They arranged huge stones in circles. The fact that they were able to do so indicates they lived in an organised society. The Picts and Scots The Picts lived in round huts of wood or stone with thatched roofs. Some Picts lived in crannogs, which were huts erected on artificial platforms in lochs or estuaries. Pictish chieftains built hill forts of stone, wood or earth. Pictish farmers raised cattle, pigs and sheep. They also fished, hunted deer and seals and caught birds. They grew crops of wheat, barley and rye. They also gathered wild fruits such as crab-apples, sloes, raspberries, blackberries and damsons. Although the vast majority of Picts were farmers some worked as craftsmen such as blacksmiths, bronze smiths, goldsmiths and potters. The Picts were very skilled at making jewelry. They also carved pictures on stones. Upper class Picts spent their days hunting on horseback or hunting with falcons. In the evenings they drank and feasted. They advanced into southern Scotland and then marched into the northeast. In 84 the Romans severely defeated the Picts at a place they called Mons Graupius its exact location is unknown. However in the years after the battle the Romans slowly withdrew and in the Emperor Hadrian began building a wall to keep out the Picts. Later in the Second century the Romans advanced again and in they built the Antonine Wall from the Clyde to the Forth. Afterwards Hadrian's Wall became the frontier. The Romans advanced into Scotland again in AD but only temporarily. In the Picts took part in a great raid upon Roman Britain. In the 6th century a people from Ireland called the Scots invaded what is now Scotland. They settled in what is now Argyll and founded the kingdom of Dalriada. Meanwhile Christian missionaries had begun the work of converting the Picts. Some Picts in southeast Scotland accepted Christianity in the 5th century. Columba who went there in converted southwest Scotland to Christianity. He founded a monastery at Iona, which became very important in the history of Christianity in Britain. During the 6th and 7th centuries Christianity spread across Scotland and by the end of the 7th century all of Scotland was Christian. Further south in the 6th century Angles invaded Northeast England and they created the kingdom of Northumbria. In the early 7th century the Northumbrians expanded into southeast Scotland and as far as Dunbar and Edinburgh. Then, in Kenneth MacAlpin who was king of the Scottish kingdom of Dalriada also became king of the Picts of northern and central Scotland. So the Scots and Picts merged to form single kingdom. However the new kingdom of Scotland only included land north of the Clyde and Forth. The English ruled the southeast of Scotland until when the Scots conquered it. Furthermore southwest Scotland and Cumbria formed a separate kingdom called Strathclyde. However in Strathclyde was peacefully absorbed into Scotland. Meanwhile Scotland faced another threat - the Vikings! They raided the monastery at Iona in Then in the early 9th century Vikings settled on the Shetland and Orkney Islands. Later in the 9th century they settled in the Hebrides and in Caithness and Sutherland as well as on the western coast of Scotland. In Duncan became king of Scotland. He proved to be incompetent and in Macbeth who then replaced him as king killed him. Unlike the character created by Shakespeare Macbeth was a good king and in he went on a pilgrimage to

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Rome. Norman influence was soon felt in Scotland. Malcolm married an English woman named Margaret who promoted Norman ways at the Scottish court. Malcolm was killed in a battle against the English at Alnwick in 1153. Nevertheless during the reigns of his three sons Edgar, Alexander I and David I Norman influence in Scotland gradually increased. During the reign of David I many Normans came to live in Scotland. Dioceses were organised for bishops and new monasteries were founded. Moreover in the 12th century many towns or burghs were founded in Scotland and trade flourished. David I was the first Scottish king to found mints and issue his own coins. However Scottish kings had little power. In the west and north chieftains frequently rebelled against the king during the 12th and 13th centuries. Nevertheless in the Scottish king conquered the Western Islands, which until then were ruled by Norway. By the Treaty of Perth in 1266 the Norwegian king formally surrendered all his territory in Scotland except for the Orkney and Shetland Islands. His heir was a little girl called Margaret who lived in Norway. However she died in on her way to Scotland. There were now many claimants to the throne. In fact there were Edward was happy to oblige and he chose John Balliol who was crowned in 1286. Edward claimed to be overlord of Scotland and he soon made it clear he wanted Balliol to be a puppet. Finally in 1295 Edward tried to force the Scots to join him in a war against France. Balliol rebelled and formed an alliance with France. However in 1296 Edward invaded Scotland. Balliol was captured and forced to surrender the throne. Edward tried to rule Scotland directly, without a puppet king. He forced many Scottish nobles and landowners to submit to him at Berwick. He then installed English officials to govern Scotland and withdrew. However the Scots were not subdued so easily. Many small landowners rose in rebellion led by William Wallace. In 1297 Wallace severely defeated the English at Stirling Bridge. However English won a victory at Falkirk in July 1298. Yet the Scots continued to resist and the English only really controlled the southeast. Yet Wallace was captured in 1305 and executed. From Robert the Bruce, who was crowned king of Scotland that year, led resistance. Scottish resistance gradually increased and Edward I died in 1307. Then in 1314 the English were utterly defeated at the Battle of Bannockburn. After the battle Scottish independence was assured. However it was another 14 years till the English finally recognized Scottish independence by the Treaty of Northampton in 1328. Nevertheless the treaty did not bring peace. Robert the Bruce died in 1329 and his 5-year-old son became David II. However in England there were some Scottish nobles who had been deprived of their lands in Scotland for supporting the English. They invaded Scotland by sea and defeated an army sent to meet them. They marched to Scone where Edward Balliol was crowned king. He tried to get the support of the English king by promising him Berwick. However Balliol was soon driven out of Scotland.

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Chapter 5 : Seals - The National Archives

*History of Scottish Seals from the Eleventh to the Seventeenth Century, Vol. I: The Royal Seals of Scotland [Walter de Gray Birch] on racedaydvl.com *FREE* shipping on qualifying offers. Trieste Publishing has a massive catalogue of classic book titles.*

See Article History Sigillography, the study of seals. A sealing is the impression made by the impact of a hard engraved surface on a softer material, such as clay or wax, once used to authenticate documents in the manner of a signature today; the word seal Latin sigillum; old French scel refers either to the matrix or die or to the impression. Seals are usually round or a pointed oval in shape or occasionally triangular, square, diamond, or shield-shaped. Medieval matrices were usually made of latten—a kind of bronze—or of silver. Ivory and lead were occasionally used, gold very rarely. Steel was used from the 17th century. Matrices could include intaglio gems. The usual material for the impression was sealing wax, made of beeswax and resin, often coloured red or green. In southern Europe, notably in the papal Curia, lead and occasionally gold were used. Shellac, the wax used today, was introduced in the 16th century. Seals were used to establish the authenticity of such documents as charters and legal agreements and for the verification of administrative warrants. In southern Europe, early medieval documents were drawn up by notaries and authenticated with their written signa, but this never replaced seals in northern Europe. Forgeries were manufactured as early as the 12th century, indicating how important seals had become. From that time, also, seals were used to close folded documents and thus to guarantee their secrecy. Seals were also used to affirm assent; for example, by a jury. Under the Statute of Cambridge, sealed letters were used in England for the identification of people and their places of origin. Sigillography is used to assist other historical studies. Many impressions have survived from the medieval period. Unattached seals may still provide useful evidence from their inscription or design. Fragmentary seal impressions are often difficult to interpret. Fewer matrices have survived and often without related impressions. Seals often reflect the taste of the owner. They provide evidence for changes in fashion in both secular and ecclesiastical costume and for the development of armour. Seals indicate heraldry before the earliest rolls of arms and are an original source for armorial bearings, which thereby enables the historian to trace the distinctions or alliances between various families and so contributes to genealogy. Depictions of towns, churches, castles, and monasteries, although conventional, can often aid the architectural historian. Seals can also be used profitably for studying ancient ships, particularly their shape and details of masts and rigging. The main difficulty in studying seal designs is that they were often conservative, especially since seals were often replaced with an exactly similar design. John Cherry Seals in antiquity Seals with designs carved in intaglio were used throughout antiquity. They were of two main types—the cylinder and the stamp. The cylinder first appeared in Mesopotamia in the late 4th millennium bc and continued to be used there until the 4th century bc. It was also widespread in Elam, Syria, and Egypt 3rd millennium bc and in Cyprus and the Aegean 2nd millennium bc. Stamp seals preceded cylinders, first appearing in Mesopotamia in the 5th millennium bc and developing over a period of about 1, years until largely replaced by the cylinder in the 3rd millennium. Early stamp seals were also used in Iran, northern Syria, and southeastern Anatolia during the 4th and 3rd millennia; in Anatolia their use was continued in the 2nd millennium by the Hittites. In Mesopotamia the stamp seal gradually came into use again in the 8th—6th centuries, effectively replacing the cylinder by the 3rd century bc. In Egypt the scarab largely replaced the cylinder seal early in the 2nd millennium bc and continued as the main type until replaced by the signet ring in Roman times. In the Aegean, various types of stamp seals were used throughout the 2nd and much of the 1st millennium bc, until in Hellenistic and Roman times the signet ring became dominant. The uses of ancient seals are known from textual references and ancient sealings, both on lumps of clay and on documents found in excavations. In historical times most prominent citizens, including women, carried their own seals. That the rank or office of the owner was often included in the inscription indicates that many of these may have been official seals. Seals came into use

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before the invention of writing for the securing of jars, bales, bags, baskets, boxes, doors, etc. The method was either to shape clay over the stopper or lid or to make a fastening with cord and place clay around the knot and then impress it with the seal. The sealing of written documents, of which the two major ancient classes were clay tablets and papyrus scrolls, became regularly established in the latter part of the 3rd millennium bc. The clay tablet was the main vehicle of writing in Mesopotamia, where cuneiform was used into the Christian Era, and this method spread to Elam, Anatolia, Syria, and Egypt; clay tablets were also used in the Aegean Bronze Age. The tablet was inscribed while the clay was soft, and seal impressions were applied at the same time. The main kinds of sealed cuneiform documents were contracts, accounts, and letters. Two special kinds of contract were the royal grant to a subject, impressed with the royal seal of the grantor, and the treaty between nations, a number of examples of which have been recovered, some of them bearing impressions of the seals of the royal contracting parties. Account tablets were sealed to authenticate the transfer of goods. In Egypt, papyrus documents may be assumed from soon after bc, but surviving evidence dates mostly from the latter part of the 3rd millennium onward. The method of sealing a papyrus document was to roll it into a tube, tie a strand or cord around the centre, and seal a clay lump over the knot. This method continued into the Christian Era, from which time a great number of Greek papyri have survived in Egypt. It was not until the 1st millennium bc that this kind of document, including by then leather and parchment, came into wide use outside Egypt. The spread of this kind of document, on which the space for a seal was small, probably played some part in the gradual replacement of the cylinder by the stamp seal. No documents or sealings have been discovered from ancient India, but the still undeciphered inscriptions on the seals may include personal names, perhaps of merchants, who could have used the seals in much the same ways as their Near Eastern contemporaries, with whom they are known to have had commercial contacts. Since seals were used throughout ancient times and are sufficiently durable to have survived in very large numbers, they form one of the few classes of ancient objects in which a continuous development can be traced. The great majority bear artistic representations, so their chief value is for art history, but, since these include details of environment plants, animals, equipment plows, chariots, musical instruments, or dress, they also contribute to cultural history. Further information is provided by the inscriptions on seals. The existence of rulers known only from king lists may sometimes be confirmed by the discovery of their seals, and in some cases rulers are known only from their seals, which, because they often mention the names of their fathers, the cities that they ruled, and the chief gods that they served, form a valuable historical source. The assembling of tablets and sealings bearing the impressions of private seals can contribute to the reconstruction of business archives and the destinations of traded goods, thus providing valuable material for economic analysis, and far-flung trade contacts can be deduced from foreign seals in excavations e. Terence Croft Mitchell Medieval European seals The connection between Roman and medieval seals lies in the use of seals in the chanceries of the Merovingian and Carolingian kings. Many Ottonian seals had busts of the emperors. Royal seals of medieval type, with the ruler enthroned and bearing his insignia, appear from the 11th century. The use of seals by bishops and nobles became usual at this time and was widespread by the 12th century. By the 13th century, seals were used by all classes, including small landowners; and, by the 14th century, simple seal matrices could be bought ready-made. The quality of engraving varied greatly. Some delicately designed seals date from the 12th century, such as the silver seal of Isabella of Hainaut, queen of France in 1180. The silver equestrian seal of Robert Fitzwalter is a notable example of the 13th century, the period of the finest seal engraving. The names of several engravers of medieval seals are known: Forms of medieval seals Seal matrices may be single or double, thus producing an impression on either one or both sides of the wax. Single matrices, the older type, often have a ridge along the back and end in a loop. Double matrices, known from the 11th century onward, are flat, with two to four projecting lugs pierced with holes in which vertical pins keep the halves aligned. Sealing both sides of the wax makes detaching the seal more difficult, and so in medieval times the reverse was often sealed by a counterseal for greater security. The official seal of an institution was often countersealed by the seal of an official, such as a town by its mayor. Single seals were often fitted with a handle; the most common type was a six-sided cone

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ending in a trefoil. In some matrices the centre screwed outward, enabling the device to be used without a legend. On many seals the back was marked with a cross to indicate the top. Seals could be either applied to the surface of a document or appended from it by a strip of material. Application was the earlier system, although papal bulls were always appended. Appended seals appeared in England in the 11th century and in France in the 12th; seals were appended either on a tongue of parchment cut across from the bottom of the document or on a tag of parchment, leather, or silk inserted through a cut in the document. Some documents had many seals. Seals were often protected by woven bags or by boxes of wood, metal, or ivory known as skippets. The legend, often abbreviated, usually declared the name of the owner or institution; it often began with a cross and the word sigillum, followed by the name in the genitive case. Latin remained in fashion for inscriptions, though English and French are occasionally found from the 13th century, more frequently on personal seals. On English seals roman capitals were used in the 11th and 12th centuries and Lombardic ones in the 13th and early 14th centuries. Black letter Gothic script was first used in England in the 14th century and was quite popular in the 15th century, although Lombardic often continued for capitals. Roman capitals reappeared in the 16th century.

Royal and official seals The great seal , or seal of majesty a round seal showing the seated ruler with the royal insignia , first appeared in Europe on the seal of the emperor Henry II of Germany ruled 1124 , in France on the seal of Henry I ruled 1160 , and in England on the double seal of Edward the Confessor ruled 1066 The seal of William I of England ruled 1067 had the King on one side and an equestrian figure on the other. The development of lesser royal seals can be illustrated by the growth of English government. Deputed great seals were used for the major legal courts and for France, Ireland, and Wales. The Chancery did not control these seals, and this freedom led to the evolution of autonomous offices. It was soon transferred to the wardrobe clerks, and gradually its importance increased until by the early 14th century the keeper of the privy seal was the third minister of state. The keepership gained further prestige in midcentury, when the great seal was entrusted to the keepers who went abroad with Edward III. As the privy seal grew in importance, the king preferred another small seal for authenticating correspondence and warrants. Under Edward II ruled 1312 there was a secret seal distinct from the privy seal. The signet rather than the privy seal became the originating force in administration, and from there were two secretaries, each with two signets. The privy seal and signet seal were both single armorial seals. Royal officials had their own seals. The seals show ships in great detail, with the sails displaying the arms of the admiral. Religious seals The principal episcopal seal was the seal of dignity, always a pointed oval.

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Chapter 6 : HISTORY OF SCOTLAND

Get this from a library! History of Scottish seals from the eleventh to the seventeenth century., [Walter de Gray Birch].

Enjoy the Famous Daily Act of Union: It has been under discussion for a considerable time, for James VI and I tries to achieve it after inheriting the English throne in 1707. But the idea meets with little favour although imposed during the Commonwealth until the early 18th century. The motivation in is largely economic for the Scots and political for the English. Scotland has recently suffered a disastrous failure in setting up a colony in Darien, on the isthmus of Panama. Tariff-free access to all English markets, both in Britain and in the developing colonies, seems commercially a rather more attractive option. The union of the kingdoms creates an island realm. The Act of Union abolishes the Scottish parliament, giving the Scots instead a proportion of the seats at Westminster forty-five in the commons, sixteen in the lords. There is unrest and warfare in Scotland during much of the 18th century because a strong faction, particularly in the Highlands, supports the Jacobite cause the claim to the throne of the exiled Stuarts. This discontent erupts twice, in the rebellions of 1715 and 1745. But the majority of Scots are content with a new role in a kingdom united under the title Great Britain. A renewal of Scottish nationalism must await the 20th century. James lives in exile in France from 1701 until his death in 1708. With the exiled king is his son, also James, born in 1688 and in terms of descent undeniably the rightful heir to the two kingdoms. These are the titles by which he is known to his supporters, the Jacobites. But to the English he is merely the Old Pretender. James is the older of two pretenders because the Jacobite cause remains a passionate theme in British history long enough to support another. Known as the Young Pretender, or more romantically as Bonnie Prince Charlie, he takes on the leadership of the Stuart cause and presses it with considerably greater vigour than his father. Between them they make three attempts to recover their throne. James first embarks from France to lead an uprising in Scotland in 1702, but he is prevented from landing in the Firth of Forth by the arrival of a British fleet. Seven years later he tries again, in response to efforts made by his followers at home. A Jacobite uprising in Scotland, launched by the earl of Mar in September 1708, tempts James to cross from France later that year. He lands in December and goes to Scone, where preparations are under way for his coronation. But, finding his supporters disorganized and incompetent, the Old Pretender decides that discretion should indeed be the better part of valour. By February he is back in France. The fiasco of this uprising of 1709, often known simply as the Fifteen, ensures that the Hanoverians are secure on the English throne. But the Jacobite cause remains a romantic one, passionately held. It surfaces again thirty years later in a final and more serious attempt, the Forty-Five, led by the Young Pretender, Bonnie Prince Charlie. He participates in early French plans for invasion of Britain. These are soon abandoned, but events in 1713 - with Britain losing to France in the campaign on the continent - convince the young prince that he stands a chance of success in Scotland even without foreign support. Charles lands in the Hebrides early in August 1715. The Jacobite Highland clans rally to his cause and the prince marches south, gathering forces as he goes. On September 16 he enters Edinburgh. Within a week Charles has to defend this claim on the battlefield. After this victory news of which prompts the recall of Cumberland and his army from the Netherlands Charles marches south to invade England. He takes Carlisle in November and by early December has progressed as far south as Derby. At this point his followers lose heart. They are too far from safety in Scotland, and the promised French support has not materialized. On December 6 Charles heads back north, pursued now by the duke of Cumberland. The two sides finally meet in pitched battle on 16 April at Culloden. Charles has marched his force of about Scots through the previous night in an attempt to surprise the larger army some men of the duke of Cumberland. The battle, on an exposed moor, lasts only an hour. The Scots are completely routed. It is the end of the Jacobite cause. And the government introduces severe measures to pacify the Highlands. The most important response to the challenge is a programme of road building. Intended purely to facilitate the rapid movement of troops, the new roads are incidentally of great economic benefit to Scotland. The task of building them is entrusted to George Wade, who is

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commander-in-chief of North Britain from 1719 to 1727. He supervises the construction of miles of roads across the Highlands, to a very high standard for the period, together with some forty bridges. After the much more serious rebellion of 1746, the British government takes more punitive measures. Estates are forfeited, Highlanders are not allowed to carry arms, and - in the most symbolic and widely remembered gesture - the wearing of Highland dress and Tartan is forbidden in the Act of Proscription the restriction is lifted in 1774. The crisis of 1746, even though in the nature of a civil war, is used by the Hanoverian majority to stir up a fervour of national sentiment. The first recorded occasion of a British crowd singing the national anthem is at Drury Lane in September 1746, a month after the Young Pretender has landed in Scotland. The crisis was never as great as such dramatic treatment makes it seem. The majority of Scots, living an increasingly prosperous existence in the more comfortable Lowlands, have little sympathy with wild and dangerous Highland schemes. They are busy turning Edinburgh into one of the most civilized of 18th-century cities, in both architectural and intellectual terms - as the home of the Scottish Enlightenment. The movement known now as the Scottish Enlightenment has much in common with the broader Enlightenment, in its emphasis on rational processes and the potential of scientific research. This Scottish version is mainly of interest for the concentration of achievement within a small region. The people involved are in the university departments and laboratories of Edinburgh and Glasgow. The founding figure can be said to be the philosopher David Hume. He publishes his most significant work, *A Treatise on Human Nature*, early in his life, in 1739, but it receives little attention at the time. Hume travels during much of the 1740s, becoming better known only after he settles in Edinburgh in 1746. His treatise is now published again in three more accessible parts *An Essay concerning Human Understanding*, *An Enquiry concerning the Principles of Morals*, *A Dissertation on the Passions*. His *Political Discourses* give him a wider reputation, being translated into French. At this time he becomes a close friend of Adam Smith, who as yet is a primarily a moral philosopher - making his name in 1759 with *The Theory of Moral Sentiments*. His great work of political economy, *The Wealth of Nations*, is still nearly two decades in the future. Hume and Smith are the intellectual leaders of this Scottish movement, but they have distinguished colleagues in scientific research. In 1751 Joseph Black, a lecturer in chemistry in Glasgow, publishes a paper which demonstrates the existence of carbon dioxide. Five years later Black discovers the principle of latent heat. By that time he has befriended a Glasgow laboratory technician, James Watt, who also has an enquiring mind and an interest in heat. The gentlemen in Scotland produce between 1755 and the first edition of a dictionary of the arts and sciences under the title *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. Unlike its French predecessor, it has been revised and reissued ever since. While the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* is coming off the presses, a retired doctor in Edinburgh has been studying the local rock strata. In 1785 James Hutton reads a paper on this unusual topic to the newly founded Royal Society of Edinburgh. His approach breaks new ground. Hutton is the pioneer of scientific geology, one of the main contributions of the Scottish Enlightenment to the field of human enquiry. A valley and a lake separate the crowded ancient city, on the slope of the hill up to the castle, from open fields on the adjacent ridge. In 1769 it is decided to drain the lake to facilitate access across the valley. Designs are invited for a new residential area on the other side. The competition is won by a year-old local architect, James Craig, who submits a simple rectilinear plan of three streets Princes Street, George Street, Queen Street running parallel to the valley and terminating in two squares. Work begins in 1769 and continues for half a century, with different architects all conforming to a style of restrained classicism and together creating a masterpiece of town planning. The square is designed in by Robert Adam and the buildings on the north side started just before his death in 1790 fulfil his intentions in every detail. This new Edinburgh is a perfect metropolis for modern Scottish gentlemen. But many such gentlemen, at home on their estates, are now engendering future trouble by an equivalently modern approach to agriculture.

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