

STUDY GUIDE

EKMUN 2025

JCC

Glorious Revolution



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Dear Delegates,

As the Secretary-General of EKMUN'2025, it is my greatest honor to welcome you to this year's conference. Soon, we will come together to engage in discussions that mirror the complexity and importance of real-world diplomacy. Each one of you brings a unique perspective, a distinct voice, and an ambition to create change and it is exactly this diversity that makes Model United Nations such a powerful experience.

Over the upcoming days, you will find yourself not only debating international matters but also stepping into the shoes of world leaders, policymakers, and diplomats. The preparation, dedication, and curiosity you bring to this conference will shape not just your experience, but the overall atmosphere of cooperation and respect that defines EKMUN'2025

Throughout this conference, you will not only have the opportunity to discuss global issues but also to develop essential skills such as critical thinking, teamwork, and negotiation.

Remember that Model United Nations is not just about reaching resolutions it is about understanding perspectives, fostering respect, and finding common ground among differences.

I strongly encourage each one of you to be bold, respectful, and solution-oriented during your sessions. Let this conference be a place where your voices are heard, and your ideas make an impact.

I wish you all productive debates and unforgettable memories.

Warm regards,
Ayliz Çolak
Secretary-General of EKMUN'2025

Distinguished Delegates,

It is my honour and pleasure to greet you all to this well-prepared study guide as being the Head of Crisis. Welcome to the EKMUN'25 held by Erciyes Collage. My name is Tuğra Tabur, I am a sophomore at Kayseri Science High School, and I will be serving you as the Co-Head of Crisis. Last year, when I was a freshman, they gave a presentation about Model United Nations conferences at my school and to be honest, the second I heard about MUN, it was me who was growing impatient to attend an MUN conference. So, I participated in EKMUN '24. It was my very first Model UN conference and it was spectacular. That's why the EKMUN conferences have another place in my heart. I understood that I was the one who made out for MUNs. It is unbelievable that I improved myself so far and now I am a Head of Crisis at this year's EKMUN conference. Firsts are inescapable and I didn't come to this position in one day. I worked so hard to become an academy member at a conference, and I did it. After that I experienced my very first crisis committee and as far as you can see, now I am a Head of Crisis. In sum, I am trying to say that, whether this conference is your 10th or 1st, just feel a great sense of relief at this committee, have fun and make new friends. Try to improve yourself. Not specifically in this conference, try to improve yourself in every field of your life. But don't you ever try to take no notice while you all are my delegates. And always remember, when you step in from that door, you are not that person anymore. There is a revolution in there, you are a person who accomplished for Great Britain. There is the greatest empire in history standing to be saved! Don't drop your guard and be ready to die for your country's honour.

Best regards,
M. Tuğra TABUR,
Co-Head of Crisis.

• Introduction to the Committee

3.1 Preview of Joint Crisis Committee (JCC)

Model United Nations (MUN) conferences include more than one committees in their diplomatic body. These committees separate four different types according to their rules of procedure; General Assembly Committees, Specialized Committees, Semi-Crisis Committees and Crisis Committees.

In those three committees, rules are very strict and are not flexible unless the situation is absolutely urgent. Also those committees are generally so crowded when they are compared to the Crisis Committees. At other committees a delegate is not assigned to involve a current situation during a committee. However, specially at Joint Crisis Committees, the participants may have a chance to control both of the cabinets.

The procedure of JCC differs from the common-known flow of a debate, or the General Assemblies. Crisis committees operate quite differently from General Assembly ones. In a GA, the rules of procedure are usually determined and can only be adjusted in rare situations. On the other hand, crisis committees are built on flexibility, since their fast-paced nature requires quick reactions. Crises and updates often need immediate solutions, so the academic team may allow exceptions. Most president chairs also have their own unique approach to leading the committee. Still, this doesn't mean that crisis committees lack procedure; there is a structure, but chairs often adapt it both to their style and to the committee's needs.

Debates in crisis committees mostly take place during semi-moderated or unmoderated caucuses. Moderated caucuses, which are common in GA, aren't the main format here because they limit discussions to a strict time frame. Even so, if the committee becomes too chaotic, the president chair can switch to a moderated caucus to restore order. In such cases, these caucuses are usually shorter compared to those in GA committees.

A semi-moderated caucus is somewhere between a moderated and an unmoderated caucus. Delegates don't have an individual speaking time limit, so they can speak as long as they need. Once a delegate finishes their speech, the continuation of the debate can go in three directions depending on the president chair's decision: the delegate can pick the next speaker, the chair can choose, or the first person to speak up afterward becomes the next one.

In unmoderated caucuses, delegates can move around the room freely and talk to one another without limits on time or topic. These are the moments when most planning and directive writing take place, since they allow delegates to act quickly. Entering an

unmoderated caucus can be decided through a motion or directly by the president chair if he thinks it's necessary.

Another key difference from GA is that the president chair plays an active role in crisis committees. They don't just moderate; they can also share ideas, suggest changes, draft directives, or even propose new plans themselves. At the beginning of the first session, instead of formal opening speeches, a tour de table is held, where delegates take turns standing and giving a speech.

3.2 Key Terms and Definitions

So, it is crucial to bear in mind that the delegates participating to the Joint Crisis Committees would be divided into 2 cabinets. At JCCs there are at least 2 cabinets against (there are exceptional circumstances) to each other. And our cabinets are "The Jacobite Court" and "The Williamist Council".

Delegates may think of The Jacobites as the Cabinet of the King who is King James the II. Participants of this cabinet as the Privy Council; each one owning massive amounts of wealth, having significant influence (depending on your allocations), and experience.

On the other hand, The Williamites is a coalition of Protestant leaders, Whigs, and many Tories who invited William of Orange (married to James' Protestant daughter Mary) to take the throne.

It does not matter if the scope or the expertise of your character is narrow. Your character may be a poor man, but you have the chance to become the leading position. Because it's the dynamic of the JCC, everything is possible. Unless it is appropriate to the rules. Even though Crisis Committees differ from the GA ones and are more convenient, it mustn't be considered as all in all is allowable. As I stated before, in Crisis Committees everything is possible, but they have to be suitable to the ethics. In sum, META.

In a crisis committee, especially if it is a historical one, you cannot just write directives according to history. That is META, and it's strictly out of order. Also, there is another type of meta that can only occur in Joint Crisis Committees. If you are in a JCC and you chat with another delegate from the other cabinet to exchange any kind of information regarding your cabinet, that is also META and strictly out of order.

The United Kingdom (UK): The United Kingdom (The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland) is a constitutional monarchy comprising England,

Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Its capital is London, and its Parliament consists of two chambers: the House of Lords and the House of Commons. Throughout history, the monarchy has become a symbolic authority, while real political power has been concentrated in Parliament.

The Jacobites: Supporters of *James II*, defending his throne, hereditary monarchy, and Catholic influence, often with French backing.

The Williamites: Backers of *William & Mary*, pushing for a Protestant monarchy and stronger power for Parliament.

Abdication: The voluntary or forced relinquishment of the throne by a monarch.

Divine Right of Kings: The belief that kings are chosen by God and therefore possess absolute authority.

Parliament: England's legislative body; a political power that balances the king's authority.

House of Lords / House of Commons: The two chambers of Parliament; the House of Lords, consisting of nobles and clergy, and the House of Commons, consisting of representatives of the people.

Anglican Church: The official Protestant church (Church of England) established in England during the reign of Henry VIII.

Catholicism: The oldest denomination of Christianity; recognizes the authority of the Pope.

Protestantism: A denomination that emerged with the Reformation; rejects the Pope and defends the principle of "sola scriptura" (scripture alone).

Bill of Rights (1689): Document proclaimed after the Glorious Revolution; established the supremacy of Parliament and laid the foundation for constitutional monarchy.

Toleration Act (1689): A law granting limited religious freedom among Protestant denominations.

Whigs & Tories: Political groups of the time; the Whigs were mostly Protestant and parliamentary, while the Tories were royalist.

Succession Crisis: Political/religious debates over who would inherit the throne.

Duke: A Duke is a hereditary title of nobility in the peerages of the United Kingdom, ranking highest below the monarch. The title is largely honorific today, but historically, a duke held significant feudal power, governing a territorial unit known as a Duchy.

Earl: An Earl is a hereditary title of nobility ranking below a Marquess and above a Viscount. The term is the oldest title of rank in the English peerage, equivalent to the continental European rank of Count (which is why the wife of an Earl is called a Countess). Historically, an Earl was a powerful provincial governor or magistrate.

Bishop: A Bishop is an ordained minister who holds a position of authority and oversight within a Christian church (such as the Church of England, the Catholic Church, or the Orthodox Church). The bishop is typically responsible for a specific geographical area known as a diocese or eparchy.

Baron: A Baron is a hereditary title of nobility ranking lowest in the British peerage, below a Viscount. Historically, a baron was a man who held land directly from the king and owed him military service and counsel.

Introduction to the Agenda Item

4.1. Historical Background

4.1.1. The Evolution of Parliament

The Palace of Westminster has been a centre of power for over 900 years. In this section we chart the development of parliamentary sovereignty, from absolute rule by the Sovereign, to Parliament asserting its authority over the monarchy, through to a modern democratic legislature in a technological age.

Origins of Parliament

The Monarch's Great Council

So it is not so much the ceremonial aspects of the State Opening which can take us back to the Middle Ages, but rather the people involved and what they symbolise that is the clearest reminder of the origins of Parliament. Parliament

began as the monarch's Great Council and the central role of the Queen at the State Opening reminds us that it is still formally 'her' Parliament.

Furthermore, the hierarchies among the trinity of the medieval Parliament are made clear. The monarch sits on the throne located in the House of Lords and addresses the peers first of all, in effect recreating the Great Council of monarch and noble advisers which formed the first core of Parliament.

Subordinate Commons

The House of Commons, the junior partner in the trinity, is then allowed into the Lords' Chamber only at the monarch's summons, and even when it arrives, its leaders have to stay outside the bar - a wooden railing across the entrance to the Lords' Chamber, making clear their subordinate status. Nevertheless, the Commons asserts its independence during the ceremony by ritually slamming the door of its chamber in the face of Black Rod, the Queen's representative, who goes to call them to attend on the monarch in the Lords.

The Queen's Speech

The monarch then informs the members of both Houses the agenda of business for the session. The monarch's speech has for a long time been written by the Government then in power and reflects its programme, but every year there is still the ritual of the Queen's (or King's) Speech where she informs 'her' Parliament why she has summoned them.

i. Birth of the English Parliament

The origins of the English Parliament stretch back a long way, to the Anglo-Saxon period in the 8th century. Here, structures like the Witan, the council of nobles advised the King, and the Moot, which were local administrative meetings, planted the first seeds. However, the first real legal constraint on royal power came in 1215 with the Magna Carta, a document that declared even the King was not above the law.

The move toward a truly representative structure happened in the 13th century, thanks to the French nobleman Simon de Montfort. In 1265, Montfort convened not only the nobles, but also representatives from the towns and shires (knights and burgesses) to discuss national affairs. This assembly created the earliest precursor to the modern Parliament by significantly broadening the types of people involved in national governance.

With King Edward III's reign (starting 1327), these representatives became a permanent fixture, grouping together after 1332 to form the House of Commons. Throughout the 14th century, the Commons began acting with the clear awareness that they needed to have an active say in government, rather than merely rubber-stamping the King's decisions. This assertive stance was evident in the Good Parliament of 1376, where they demonstrated their power by using impeachment to try corrupt ministers, and by establishing the Speaker position to voice their grievances. Their influence grew so much that it even extended to the deposition of Richard II.

During this period, the House of Lords, composed of the nobility, was also defining itself. The Lords successfully argued that being summoned was not just the King's whim, but a right derived from their hereditary noble status, solidifying their position.

The real turning point, however, was in the early 15th century when law-making power shifted. Because King Henry IV needed Parliament's support, the Commons formally confirmed their exclusive right to initiate all grants of money (taxes) in 1407. Shortly thereafter, in 1414, they successfully insisted to Henry V that no bill could become an official Statute (Law) without their approval. This development made the Commons an equal partner with the House of Lords in legislation, transforming it by the end of the Middle Ages into one of the nation's most authoritative law-making institutions. The Development of Parliamentary Authority.

ii. The Development of the Parliamentary Authority

We can conveniently say that the 17th century was a cornerstone for the UK Parliament on its growing-authority journey. In this section of our study guide, you will read how Parliament acquired greater powers and authority over the course of the violent conflicts of the 17th century.

iii. The Gunpowder Plot of 1605

When Catesby, Fawkes and their fellow plotters decided to take matters into their own hands and strike at the very heart of the monarchy and government in 1605, they were doing so against a background of religious and political divisions with a long and bloody history.

This section explores the roots of those divisions and their influence upon this deadly conspiracy and then details the plot itself, step by stealthy step.

Background of the Plot

During the Reformation in the 16th century, Protestants across Europe demanded reform of the doctrine and government of the Roman Catholic Church. They questioned its traditional teachings and rejected the Pope's authority. With the help of some of Europe's rulers the Catholic Church tried to suppress the new heresy. Protestants found their own support among other kings and princes. In the last thirty years of the 16th century Europe was consumed by bitter and bloody religious wars.

The Discovery of the Plot

Who captured Guy Fawkes?

Sir Thomas Knyvett and Edmund Doubleday found Guy Fawkes in the basement of the House of Lords on 4 November.

Sir Thomas Knyvett: Knyvett was MP for Westminster from 1584 and keeper of both Whitehall and Westminster Palaces. In 1607 he was made a peer, perhaps because of his role in discovering Guy Fawkes and the gunpowder.

Edmund Doubleday: Edmund Doubleday was Knyvett's close friend and was with him on 4 November when they challenged Fawkes, and tried to search him. An account of the arrest published in 1631 paints a vivid picture of Doubleday's role. Fawkes gripped Master Doubleday by the fingers of the left hand. Through pain thereof Master Doubleday offered to draw his dagger to have stabbed Fawkes, but suddenly better thought himself and did not; yet in that heat he struck up the traitor's heels and withal fell upon him and searched him, and in his pocket found his garters, wherewith Master Doubleday and others that assisted him bound him' (John Stow, Annals, 1631).

The Plot

Disappointed by the failure of James I's peace treaty negotiations with Spain to improve their position, a handful of young Catholic gentlemen from the Midlands, some of whom had been involved in previous plotting, decided to take action.

At their centre was the charismatic Warwickshire gentleman Robert Catesby. In May 1604 he proposed a plan to blow up the King, together

with the House of Lords and the House of Commons during the ceremonial opening of Parliament.

The family links of fellow plotter, Thomas Percy, to the powerful Earl of Northumberland, for whom he worked as steward, would help the conspirators gain access to Parliament.

How might the plotters have sounded whilst hatching their plan? (Click to listen to an audio dramatization of the plot)

After the explosion the plotters hoped to gather the Catholic gentry of the Midlands and seize Princess Elizabeth, the only one of King James' children who would not be at the ceremony. What would happen next was never properly worked out.

Discouragement'

A small group of Catholic priests, including Henry Garnett, the head of the Jesuit mission to England, did have some knowledge of what was being discussed, and tried to discourage it. Garnett and his fellow priests did not, however, pass on what they knew to the Government.

The plotters initially rented a house on one side of the House of Lords and tried to dig a tunnel in which they could plant gunpowder; however this proved too difficult a task.

In March 1605 they managed instead to rent a basement undercroft - often referred to as a cellar - directly underneath the House of Lords.

Result

What a dramatic turn of events that was! The discovery of the Gunpowder Plot in November 1605, the attempt by a small group of English Catholics, led by Robert Catesby and including the infamous Guy Fawkes, to blow up the Houses of Parliament and assassinate King James I, didn't just end in failure; it triggered a fierce and lasting backlash. After the plot was uncovered, four of the desperate conspirators were killed while resisting capture in a shoot-out at Holbeche House, and the remaining eight, including Fawkes, were subjected to the horrific punishment of being hanged, drawn, and quartered for treason, a grim public spectacle meant to deter any future dissent. Crucially, the plot gave the government the perfect excuse to crack down hard on the entire Catholic community through new, restrictive legislation, cementing a fear of "Popish plots" that would

fuel anti-Catholic discrimination in England for centuries, a historical event we still remember today with fireworks and bonfires on November 5th, known as Bonfire Night.

Postponements

After a series of postponements Parliament's opening was finally set for 5 November 1605. By then 36 barrels of gunpowder were in place in the storeroom, under the watchful eye of Guy Fawkes.

i. The Civil War

Over the space of 20 years England experienced civil war, regicide, a republic and military rule. At the heart of all these events was Parliament.

How did the institution which had existed at the will of the King come to overthrow and execute him and then conduct a 10-year experiment in rule by the Commons alone, without King or House of Lords? And why by 1660 were most people ready and eager to go back to the old system?

The English Civil War (1642–1651) stands as a monumental conflict in British history, primarily erupting from the unyielding clash between King Charles I's steadfast belief in the Divine Right of Kings (a conviction that allowed him to govern unilaterally for eleven years, using controversial methods like Ship Money to raise funds without consent) and the increasingly powerful Parliament, which saw itself as the rightful guardian of English laws and liberties, demanding the Crown respect ancient constitutional boundaries, while meanwhile facing deep religious divisions, as the King's High Anglican sympathies alienated the zealous Puritans in Parliament and across the nation, an unavoidable crisis that finally boiled over when Charles was forced to recall a hostile Parliament to fund his war against rebellious Scots. This fundamental breakdown led to a bitter military struggle pitting the King's supporters, the Royalists who were typically the gentry and aristocracy, against the determined forces of the Parliamentarians who were often backed by merchants and religious reformers, a conflict ultimately decided by the military genius of Oliver Cromwell and his highly disciplined New Model Army, which secured decisive victories like Naseby. The Parliamentarian triumph resulted in the unprecedented trial and shocking execution of Charles I in 1649, an act that abolished the monarchy and established a ten year republican experiment known as the Commonwealth of England, which Cromwell eventually dominated as Lord Protector; however, this radical change proved unstable, leading to the 1660 Restoration of Charles II, but the war's ultimate legacy was permanent, as the execution of one king ensured that the Crown could never

again govern without the absolute and necessary consent of Parliament, a constitutional principle that forever shifted the balance of power toward the people's representatives, a transformation meticulously explored in classic works by historians such as Samuel Rawson Gardiner and Christopher Hill.

ii. The Glorious Revolution

Written information about the chaotic atmosphere of the 16th and 17th century of the United Kingdom you've read so far was for you to understand the main stones of the Glorious Revolution, which also is our agenda item. Tighten your belts, we are getting in.

Within 30 years of Charles II's restoration to the throne in 1660, England was once again on the verge of civil war. In 1688 the country was invaded by a foreign army and its King fled, as the Crown was offered by Parliament to his own nephew and son-in-law.

Yet these events are usually called the Glorious Revolution. What is "glorious "about them and why are they often considered a turning point in the development of parliamentary democracy and civil liberties?

Overview

The period 1672-89 saw political conflict which resulted in a foreign invasion and a transfer of the Crown by Parliament. The new relations between Parliament and the monarch were worked out over the years following, during a long European war.

The reign of James II

When James II, King of England, Scotland, and Ireland, ascended the throne in 1685, he was a Catholic yet initially enjoyed support from the largely Protestant majority. This support stemmed from the belief that the Stuart dynasty would inevitably return to Protestantism, as James had two Protestant daughters, Mary and Anne. However, his policies quickly eroded this fragile compromise. The King provoked widespread discontent by openly granting Catholics the rights to worship, hold public office, and even serve on the Privy Council, and by issuing the *Declaration of Indulgence*, which promoted religious tolerance toward minorities. His frequent use of royal prerogatives such as the "dispensing power" and "suspending power" was perceived as a fundamental threat to the English constitutional tradition. This arbitrary style of governance blatantly disregarded the authority of Parliament. The final catalyst that triggered active opposition came on June 10, 1688, when the Catholic Queen Mary of Modena gave birth to a son, James Francis Edward

Stuart. This event alarmed English Protestants, who now faced the prospect of an enduring Catholic dynasty.

James II's Parliament of May 1685, predominantly Tory, was initially obedient and generous. But when it resisted his wishes to exempt Catholics from the restrictions of the Test Act, James adjourned it in November. He then continuously prorogued it for more than a year and a half until he dissolved it in July 1687.

Contemporaries feared that without Parliament the King was using his prerogative to circumvent statute in order to promote Catholicism. He issued certificates dispensing individuals from the Test Acts. In 1687 he issued a Declaration of Indulgence which suspended the penal laws against all Nonconformists.

Many Protestant Nonconformists gratefully accepted its offer of religious liberty, but others joined the Tory Anglicans in worrying that this was a ploy to encourage conversions to Catholicism and a dangerous abuse of the prerogative.

The seven bishops

Many of the Tory Anglicans also became concerned by what they saw as the King's attacks on the English Church and its bishops. The Bishop of London was suspended from office, and in 1688 James prosecuted seven bishops for their refusal to have his Declaration of Indulgence read in their churches. The public rejoicing when the bishops were acquitted greatly angered and embarrassed the King.

From late 1687 James and his advisers made plans to "pack" the next Parliament, scheduled for October 1688. They asked leaders in the counties a series of questions to assess whether they would vote for, or would support somebody who would vote for, the repeal of the Test Acts and penal laws.

Those who answered against the King's wishes could find themselves deprived of office, which only further alienated James's support among the political elite on whom he relied for the governance of the country.

A new Catholic heir

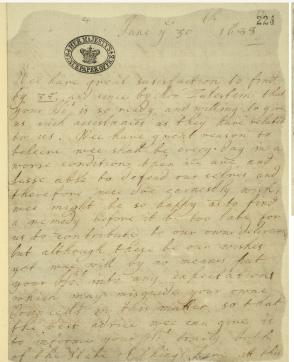
The crisis for many came with the birth of James II's son in June 1688. This changed the succession to the throne, which up to that point would have passed to his two adult Protestant daughters - Mary, married to the Protestant ruler of the Netherlands, (William of Orange, also James's nephew), and Anne.

FUN FACT: James's opponents were so determined to deny that the child born to his Queen in June 1688 was really his son that they claimed another child had been smuggled into the birth chamber, kept alive in a warming pan.

Europe and Netherlands

Alongside the internal concerns of the English opposition, the intervention of William III, Prince of Orange and Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, was part of a broader geopolitical strategy. William's claim to the English throne, through his cousin and wife Mary, was legitimate; however, his primary motivation was to secure the safety of the Netherlands against the expansionism of King Louis XIV of France. William and the States General feared that James II might increasingly align himself with France.

This situation reveals that the Revolution lay at the intersection of two distinct struggles: for the English, a constitutional and religious defence; for the Dutch, a continental strategic necessity. On June 30, 1688, a formal invitation sent to William by seven English nobles known as the "The Immortal Seven" representing both the Whig and Tory parties, united these two dynamics. The invitation legitimized William's action, presenting him not as an invader but as a figure called upon to restore the nation's rights. William's deployment of an enormous military force over 400 ships and nearly 20,000 troops minimized the risk of armed conflict and enabled him to secure political legitimacy within England.



fine and of the Difficulty's which after to us. as to the Dinst the feeles with the people are so generally dipatisfied with the fresent conduct of the fourierment in relation to their foligion libers and Dropherby's (all which have been greatly invaded) and they are in such capectation of their prospects, being be assured there are nineteen part of twenty of the people throughous the fingdome, who are desirous of a change,

An extract from a letter sent from the 'Immortal Seven' to the Prince of Orange inviting him to become King of England, 30 June 1688.

Catalogue ref: SP 8/1/224.

Transcript June the 30th 1688

We have great satisfaction to find by 35, and since by M. Zulestein, that your Highness is so ready and willing to give us such assistances as they have related to us. We have great reason to believe that we shall be every day in a worse condition than we are and less able to defend ourselves, and therefore we do earnestly wish we might be so happy as to find a remedy before it be too late for us to contribute to our own deliverance; but although these be our wishes yet we will by no means put your Highness into any expectations which may misguide your own counsels in this matter, so that the best advice we can give is to inform your Highness truly both of the state of things here at this time and of the difficulties which appear to us. As to the first, the people are so generally dissatisfied with the present conduct of the Government in relation to their religion, liberties, and properties (all which have been greatly invaded), and they are in such expectation of their prospects

being daily worse that your Highness may be assured there are nineteen parts of twenty of the people throughout the Kingdom who are desirous of a change[...]

4.2. Glorious Revolution Committee and Current Situation

The committee will start from the exact date of 30th June 1688.

At the beginning there will be a letter for the Prince of Orange written by the Immortal Seven to invite him to England.

The committee will start by the major update which is that the Prince of Orange - William III has accepted the invitation and is on his way for the England throne.

After this major update there will be small updates that involve some characters. All the relations between characters and countries are given in the main events and background. The events that involve characters are given in character sheets.

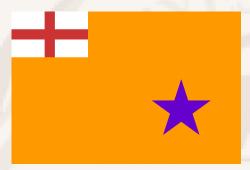


4.2.1. The Jacobites

The Jacobites Cabinet under the orders of James II is assigned with defending the British Land from the Williamists, including 11 delegates and a president chair. Some guests will be invited if needed.

President Chair: James II - King of England, Scotland and Ireland Mary of Modena - Queen Consort to James II Richard Talbot, Earl of Tyrconnell John Graham, Viscount Dundee - Scottish Jacobite Officer Patrick Sarsfield - Irish Catholic Officer Antonin Nompar de Caumont, *Duke of Lauzun*Charles Chalmot de Saint-Ruhe, *French Cavalry Officer*John Drummond, *Earl of Melfort*George Legge, *Baron of Dartmouth*Louis de Duras, *Earl of Feversham*Alexander Cannon, *General*Sir Edmund Harcourt, *Director of the East India Company* (Fictional)

➤ Committee Task: Ensure the perpetual dominance of Catholic rule in English territories and minimize the influence of Parliament!



4.2.2. The Williamists

The Williamist Cabinet, under the orders of the Prince of Orange, is assigned to authorize the Protestant rule in the service of Almighty God, comprising 11 delegates and a president chair. Some guests will be invited if needed.

President Chair: William III, Prince of Orange
Mary II, Protestant Heiress & Co-Monarch
Charles Talbot, Duke of Shrewsbury
Thomas Osborne, Duke of Leeds
William Cavendish, Duke of Devonshire
Henry Compton, Bishop of London

Edward Russell, Earl of Orford Henry Sydney, Earl of Romney

Richard Lumley, Earl of Scarbrough

John Locke, Philosopher

Arthur Herbert, Earl of Torrington

Frederick Herman, Duke of Schomberg

➤ Committee Task: Stop Catholics at all costs and ensure the safety of English people!

5. The Character Guide

5.1. The Jacobites

5.1.1. James II - King of England, Scotland and Ireland

James II is the Catholic king whose accession and policies have made him the central figure of crisis in 1688. Narrowly focused on bolstering royal prerogative and restoring Catholic influence in public life, he appears to many as a monarch determined to reshape the religious and political settlement of England.

Born into the Stuart dynasty as the younger brother of Charles II, James rose through court and naval service before inheriting the crown in 1685. His public conversion to, and later open practice of, Catholicism set him at odds with a largely Protestant elite. In office he pursued a policy of promoting Catholics to key posts and issuing declarations (such as indulgences) that relaxed penalties on Catholics - moves that alarmed parliamentary opinion and stoked fears of a return to continental-style absolutism.

By 1688 James confronts a coalition of worried Protestants alarmed by both his religious policy and his apparent willingness to govern without firm parliamentary consent. The birth of his son in June 1688 - a male heir who would displace his Protestant daughters - crystallized aristocratic fears and motivated leading figures to seek outside intervention. In the present crisis James stands as the principal defender of monarchical authority and Catholic restoration-unyielding in principle, but increasingly isolated as defections and foreign intrigues gather momentum.

→Key Traits

Determined defender of royal prerogative Openly Catholic and unapologetic about it Politically resolute, sometimes inflexible Relies on patronage and loyal officers Increasingly isolated as elite opposition grows

5.1.2. Mary of Modena - Queen Consort to James II

Mary of Modena (Maria Beatrice d'Este) is a deeply pious Roman Catholic princess from the Italian Duchy of Modena who becomes Queen Consort of England, Scotland, and Ireland through her marriage to James, Duke of York, in 1673. Known for her devout faith and refined presence, Mary arrives in England under the shadow of suspicion-many Protestants view her marriage as a vehicle for advancing Catholic power. Her foreign origins and strong ties with French Catholic diplomacy earn her the nickname "Daughter of the Pope" among her detractors.

Upon James's accession to the throne in 1685, Mary's role gains both visibility and significance. She bears several children, but none survive until the birth in June 1688 of her only surviving son, James Francis Edward. Rumors swirlsome claim the infant was smuggled into the birth chamber in a warming-pan to ensure a Catholic heir-and those rumors intensify Protestant fears of a permanent Catholic dynasty. In this way Mary's pregnancy and the birth become pivotal in provoking the crisis that metamorphoses into the Glorious Revolution. Mary stands at James's side as queen, symbolic of the faith and succession issues at stake, even as she herself remains cautious in public political manoeuvring.

→Key Traits

Firmly Catholic and symbol of "foreign faith"
Graceful presence, aristocratic upbringing
Maternal status that fuels controversy
Tightly connected with French Catholic court
Reserved in overt politics but central to the succession issue

5.1.3. Richard Talbot, Earl of Tyrconnell

Richard Talbot, 1st Earl of Tyrconnell, is an Irish nobleman and soldier whose lifelong commitment to the Catholic cause marks him as one of James II's most powerful lieutenants. Born in c.1630 to Sir William Talbot, a lawyer and politician, Richard inherits both the grievances and hopes of the "Old English" Catholics in Ireland whose lands and rights were compromised under Cromwell and Protestant settlers. His early career is shaped by guerrilla-style conflict and exile: he fights in the Irish Confederate Wars, escapes the

Cromwellian years, and forms a close association with James, Duke of York, during the Restoration.

With James II's succession in 1685, Talbot's fortunes rise sharply. He is appointed Earl of Tyrconnell and made Lord Deputy of Ireland. In this capacity, he embarks on an assertive program: replacing Protestant officers in the Irish army, filling administrative and judicial offices with Catholics, and cultivating a local power base loyal to James. His efforts, though favored by many Irish Catholics, generate alarm among Protestants and add to the political pressure building towards revolution. When the heir is born in 1688 and fears of Catholic succession reach fever pitch, Talbot is seen not simply as a regional ally but as an architect of change, one whose strength and ambition make him a lightning rod for protest.

→Key Traits

Fiercely loyal to James II and the Catholic restoration

Ambitious and politically skilled in administration and patronage

Command-authority in Ireland: military and civil influence

Mobilizer of Irish Catholic gentry ("Old English")

Polarizing figure: adored by supporters, feared by opponents

5.1.4. John Graham, Viscount Dundee - Scottish Jacobite Officer

John Graham of Claverhouse, later Viscount Dundee, is a Scottish nobleman and soldier whose loyalties and deeds make him a figure of fear and fascination in Scotland. Born around 1648 into the Graham family near Dundee, he is educated at the University of St. Andrews and spends early years training and fighting in continental armies. His early service includes posting with the Scots Dragoons and roles suppressing Presbyterian dissenters ,the Covenanters, in the south-west of Scotland, where his reputation for harshness earns him the nickname "Bloody Clavers."

Under Charles II, and more so under his successor James (the Duke of York, later James II), Graham seals his reputation as a committed royalist. In 1678 he returns to Scotland and is given command responsibility over forces tasked to

maintain order in religiously turbulent regions. Though he suffers a setback at Drumclog in 1679, he later helps crush Covenanter resistance at Bothwell Bridge. When James II ascends in 1685, Graham is elevated in rank and favor; by November 1688, he is created Viscount Dundee. As threats mount following James's deposition in England, Graham remains unwavering. He gathers Highland clans and positions himself to defend loyalist interests in Scotland.

→Key Traits

Unflinching loyalty to James II
Militarily experienced, especially in suppression of rebellions
Influential in Scotland, especially among royalist gentry
Strategic and decisive in battlefield commander

5.1.5. Patrick Sarsfield - Irish Catholic Officer

Patrick Sarsfield is a promising young officer from an established Catholic family of Lucan, near Dublin, born c. 1655. His ancestors are "Old English" Catholics, dispossessed or marginalised under Protestant dominance. Early in his career, he earns recognition during skirmishes and small actions, showing courage and local leadership. By around 1678 he holds a commission and serves in cavalry units.

With the accession of James II in 1685, Sarsfield's fortunes improve: he is promoted and becomes known among Catholic military circles for both bravery and loyalty. As tensions rise in 1688 with the prospect of Protestant resistance and external intervention, Sarsfield aligns firmly with James. Although the Glorious Revolution deposes James in England, Sarsfield remains a figure of rising importance among Irish Catholics who hope for restoration. He is viewed as someone who balances military daring with a sense of justice for his co-religionists and seeks the safeguarding of Catholic political rights.

→Key Traits:

Fiercely loyal to James II and the Catholic cause Brave and respected in military engagements Committed to restoring rights and property to Irish Catholics Holds strong sense of honour and integrity Rising leader among younger Jacobites

5.1.6. Antonin Nompar de Caumont, Duke of Lauzun

Antonin Nompar de Caumont, Duke of Lauzun, was one of the most vivid, unpredictable, and scandalous figures of Louis XIV's court - a man whose life oscillated between royal favour and prison walls. Born into Gascon nobility, Lauzun began his career in the French royal household and swiftly gained the personal favour of the young King Louis XIV through his sharp wit, charisma, and talent for court intrigue. However, his arrogance and fiery temper often led to sudden downfalls.

The most infamous episode of his life was his near-marriage to Anne Marie Louise d'Orléans, *La Grande Mademoiselle* - the richest woman in France and cousin to the King. Louis XIV's refusal to sanction their union in 1670 turned Lauzun from a royal favourite into a prisoner; he spent a decade in the fortress of Pignerol, near the mysterious "Man in the Iron Mask." His eventual release, secured by Mademoiselle's surrender of her estates, restored him partially to court life but not to royal influence.

Lauzun later entered history as one of the most important intermediaries between the exiled Stuart monarchy and France. He became a close confidant of the exiled King James II and was entrusted with the mission to evacuate Queen Mary of Modena and the infant Prince James from England during the Glorious Revolution - a feat executed with exceptional daring. In 1690, Louis XIV appointed him commander of the French expeditionary corps sent to Ireland to support the Jacobite cause. Despite his rank, Lauzun's lack of battlefield experience made him defer much of the operational command to Irish leaders such as the Earl of Tyrconnell and Patrick Sarsfield.

After the defeat at the Boyne, he successfully withdrew a portion of the French contingent to France, effectively preserving the remains of the expedition. Though Louis XIV's disappointment shadowed his later career, Lauzun remained within the Stuart court-in-exile as a trusted adviser to Queen Mary. He died in 1723, remembered not only as a symbol of the decadent brilliance of Louis XIV's France but as one of the last French noblemen to intertwine their fates with the Jacobite dream.

→ Key Traits

Sharp-Witted Courtier and Satirist
Passionate and Volatile
Fiercely Loyal to the Stuarts
Experienced Diplomat, Weak Field Commander
Romantic and Theatrical Figure of the French Nobility

5.1.7. Charles Chalmot de Saint-Ruhe, *French Cavalry Officer*

Charles Chalmot, Marquis de Saint-Ruhe, was a French cavalry officer whose career embodied the tension between royal service, religious zeal, and the Jacobite dream. Of modest noble birth, he rose through the ranks of Louis XIV's armies, earning distinction for his discipline and tactical brilliance in the Franco-Dutch and Nine Years' Wars. Though admired by many for his courage and precision, Saint-Ruhe's temperament - proud, impatient, and uncompromising - made him both respected and feared among his peers.

In early 1691, Louis XIV sent Saint-Ruhe to Ireland as a senior commander to assess and reinvigorate the Jacobite forces fighting for the deposed King James II. The Irish army was plagued by division: the pro-French officers under Tyrconnell and the fiercely independent Irish faction led by Patrick Sarsfield. Saint-Ruhe's arrival briefly united the camp under his strict authority. Yet his leadership style - rigid and disciplinarian - often clashed with the autonomy of his Irish subordinates.

He faced his first major challenge at the Siege of Athlone, where Williamite commander Ginkel managed to break through the Irish defences. Furious at the defeat, Saint-Ruhe sought redemption through decisive battle. On July 12, 1691, he drew up his army at Aughrim, positioning them on a formidable ridge flanked by marshes. The ensuing engagement was one of the bloodiest in Irish history. For much of the day, his defensive strategy appeared to be working; the Williamite assaults were repelled, and the Jacobites seemed on the brink of victory.

At the crucial moment, however, Saint-Ruhe was struck by a cannonball that decapitated him instantly. His sudden death threw the Irish lines into chaos, leading to a catastrophic rout. The defeat at Aughrim ended the Jacobite war in Ireland and extinguished the last real hope of restoring James II by force. Despite his flaws, Saint-Ruhe's courage and defiance turned him into a symbol of tragic heroism - a soldier whose death sealed the fate of a cause.

→ Key Traits

Strategic and Disciplined Cavalry Commander Valiant but Overconfident Strict and Religious in Temperament Death as the Turning Point of the War Symbol of Heroic Tragedy in Jacobite Lore

5.1.8. John Drummond, Earl of Melfort

John Drummond, 1st Earl of Melfort, was a Scottish politician and the most devoted advisor to the last Catholic Stuart king, James II & VII. Born into a prominent Scottish family, Melfort's early career was bolstered by a politically advantageous marriage, connecting him to the powerful Duke of Lauderdale. He steadily rose through military and administrative positions in Scotland, becoming Treasurer-Depute in 1682 and, by 1684, joint Secretary of State for Scotland with his brother, the Earl of Perth.

Melfort's conversion to Catholicism in 1685 cemented his loyalty to James II but intensified suspicion and hostility among the Protestant political class. As a leader of the "non-compounders," he consistently advised James against compromise with opponents, particularly on matters of the Protestant Church, encouraging policies that fuelled tensions and set the stage for the Glorious Revolution of 1688. During the Revolution itself, he remained a staunch supporter of James, pushing for firm resistance against William of Orange's invasion.

→ Key Traits

Fanatical Loyalty to the Stuarts

Dogmatic and Intransigent

Politically Isolated

Skilled Bureaucrat

Cultured and Appreciative of Art

5.1.9. George Legge, Baron of Dartmouth

George Legge, 1st Baron Dartmouth, was a prominent Royal Navy officer and political figure, whose career thrived on family connections and loyalty to the future King James II. He began naval service during the Second and Third Anglo-Dutch Wars, rising rapidly despite an early mishap when his first command sank after a collision. His close ties to Prince Rupert and Admiral Sir Edward Spragge, combined with his service as Groom of the Chamber to James II in 1669, propelled him to the highest echelons of naval command.

By 1683, Legge had been appointed Admiral, overseeing key operations such as the evacuation of Tangier. In September 1688, James II made him the first-ever Admiral of the Fleet. During the Glorious Revolution, he was tasked with intercepting William of Orange's invasion fleet, a mission crucial to the defense of James's throne. Despite challenges posed by fleet readiness and weather, Legge remained steadfastly loyal and prepared to act decisively in defence of the King.

→ Key Traits

Strong Political and Naval Connections

Unwavering Loyalty to the Stuarts

Experienced Naval Commander

Strategically Minded

Key Defender of the Stuart Throne

5.1.10. Louis de Duras, Earl of Feversham

Colonel Louis de Duras, 2nd Earl of Feversham was an army officer and courtier born into the noble and militarily distinguished Huguenot Durfort family in the Kingdom of France, who dedicated his career to service in the English Royal Army. He came to England in 1663 in the entourage of James, Duke of York (the future King James II), and was quickly naturalized. In 1673,

he was raised to the English peerage, and in 1677, he inherited the title Earl of Feversham after the death of his father-in-law. During Charles II's reign, he held prominent court and military positions, including commander of the Lifeguards, Master of the Horse, and Lord Chamberlain to Queen Catherine of Braganza.

His most significant role came immediately after James II's accession in 1685. Feversham was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Royal forces against the Monmouth Rebellion. He swiftly crushed the revolt, securing a decisive victory at the Battle of Sedgemoor. However, his reputation was stained by the harsh cruelty inflicted upon the defeated rebels following the campaign (which led to the notorious "Bloody Assizes"). He was rewarded for his victory with the Order of the Garter and the colonelcy of the First Troop of Guards.

Following King James II's deposition in the Glorious Revolution of 1688, Feversham's loyalty put him in jeopardy. Yet, through the intervention of the dowager Queen Catherine and a subsequent reconciliation with King William III, he managed to secure a pardon. He lived out the rest of his life in a lower-profile role, remaining a trusted figure around Queen Catherine; a rumour even suggests he secretly married the Queen after her widowhood. He died in 1709 without children and was eventually interred at Westminster Abbey. Feversham is remembered as a capable military man dedicated to the Stuart monarchy, whose service was marked both by military skill and accusations of brutality.

→Key Traits

Unconditional Loyalty to the Stuarts Effective Military Leadership High Court Influence Reputation for Cruelty French-Born English Soldier

5.1.11. Alexander Cannon, General

Alexander Cannon was a professional Scottish soldier from Galloway, who served in the armies of both the Dutch Republic and the English monarchy. Hailing from a Catholic family, he spent much of his career in the Scots Brigade in the service of William of Orange, achieving the rank of Colonel by 1680. He accompanied the Brigade to England in 1685 and later remained to

serve King James VII and II as Lt-Colonel in the newly formed Queen Consort's Light Dragoons.

He remained loyal to James during the Glorious Revolution of 1688, accompanying him into exile. His most significant role began in 1689 when he was dispatched from Ireland to reinforce the Jacobite rising in Scotland. Following the death of Viscount Dundee at the Battle of Killiecrankie, Cannon assumed command of the Jacobite forces in Scotland from July to December 1689. Despite his professional military background, he was considered a poor choice by contemporaries, hampered by his unfamiliarity with Highland customs, inability to speak Gaelic, and alleged excessive drinking.

Under Cannon's command, the Jacobite rising quickly faltered. He failed strategically at the Battle of Dunkeld, where Highland tactics were ill-suited for urban warfare, resulting in heavy losses and the effective dispersal of his army. He was replaced by Thomas Buchan in early 1690 but continued to serve as his subordinate. Their combined force was scattered at the Battle of Cromdale (May 1690). Cannon and Buchan were granted safe conduct passes to leave Scotland in 1692 after the Highland chiefs swore allegiance to the new government, and they proceeded into exile in France. Little is known of his later career, though he was recorded as still being in Jacobite service in 1708.

→Key Traits

Professional Soldier Catholic and Jacobite Loyalty Poor Highland Leadership Critical Relief Early Military Experience

5.1.12 Sir Edmund Harcourt, *Director of the East India Company* (Fictional)

Sir Edmund Harcour is a London merchant-director whose commercial reach and financial cunning make him one of the most dangerous non-military actors in the crisis. Born to a prosperous provincial mercantile family, Harcourt was apprenticed in the City of London before making his fortune as a factor in the Company's textile and spice trades. By the mid-1680s he sits on the Company's Court of Directors and holds an aldermanic seat in the city - a man

who moves between counting-house, coffee-house and council chamber with equal ease.

Mercantile Power and Political Positioning. Harcourt's wealth is not merely capital but capability: he controls credit lines with London bankers, charters ships under Company papers, and commands an information network of factors from Surat to Batavia and Rotterdam. Publicly he presents as a cautious Tory and a defender of commercial stability; privately, his sympathies tilt to the Stuarts. Harcourt believes that the survival of established merchant privilege, and his own family's trading advantages, is best secured under a restored Stuart monarchy that will protect charters and counterbalance Parliamentary overreach. He therefore cultivates discreet ties with Catholic courtiers and continental financiers, offering credit and goods in return for political influence.

As rumours of William's expedition spread, Harcourt's counting-houses become the unseen engine of political manoeuvre. He arranges letters of credit to pay loyal captains, forwards specie to Irish and Scottish agents under false manifest, and leverages Company shipping to move trusted persons out of London. He also uses his influence among City aldermen to slow militia mobilization against royal convoys and to create the public impression of economic uncertainty, a pressure tactic designed to persuade wavering MPs that a negotiated settlement with the King is wiser than open rupture. Harcourt is careful: he never issues orders under his own name. His hand is felt in the form of anonymous loans, stamped invoices and the deployment of Company vessels under commercial pretexts.

→ Key Traits

Commercially Astute and Implacably Discreet
Master of Credit and Logistical Evasion
Politically Ambiguous, Pragmatist with Stuart Sympathies
Networked: City, Company, Continental Agents
Vulnerable to Populist Exposure and Legal Prosecution

5.2. The Williamists

5.2.1. William III, Prince of Orange

William III of Orange (born 1650) is the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic whose destiny becomes entwined with England's Protestant anxieties. Son of

William II and Mary, daughter of Charles I, William inherits the promise and burden of his house: to defend Protestant liberty against French aggression. He rises to prominence during the "Disaster Year" (Rampjaar, 1672) when the Dutch Republic is invaded by France. As Stadtholder, he faces internal republican opposition, but he proves himself capable of military and political command.

In 1677 he marries his cousin Mary, eldest daughter of James, Duke of York. The marriage strengthens the alliance between Dutch Protestantism and English dissatisfaction with re-Catholicizing tendencies at home. When James II issues policies favoring Catholics, especially appointing them to high offices, the Protestant elite grow alarmed. In 1688 the birth of James's son escalates fears of a permanent Catholic dynasty. William is invited by conspirators (the "Immortal Seven") to intervene for the sake of Protestant security. He lands in November 1688 at Torbay, and with popular and military desertion of James's forces, enters London largely unopposed — positioning himself as the defender of parliamentary Protestant England.

→Key Traits

Devoted defender of Protestant cause Adept military & political strategist Resilient in face of adversity Diplomatic in forging alliances Resolute in action when pushed

5.2.2. Mary II, Protestant Heiress & Co-Monarch

Mary II (born 1662) is the eldest daughter of James, Duke of York, raised as a Protestant despite her parents' conversion to Catholicism. From early years she is aware of her status as heir presumptive once her father ascends the throne an uncertainty, she carries with patient firmness. Her marriage in 1677 to William of Orange, a Protestant champion, is less romantic than political, but proves essential in the alliance forming against James II's Catholic policies.

As tensions heighten in 1687-88, Mary sees the father she loves diverge from what she and many others consider just governance. When the Protestant opposition invites William to cross into England, Mary supports her husband's intervention. In early 1689, just after James's exile, she is offered the crown jointly with William and accepts it in the name of safeguarding Protestant law

and parliamentary order. In this critical role she becomes more than figurehead: she governs in William's absence, maintains Protestant churches, and symbolizes stability for those fearful of Catholic absolutism.

→Key Traits

Steadfast Protestant commitment
Sense of duty over personal desire
Administrative capability
Polarizing yet respected figure
Embodiment of legitimacy for Protestant parties

5.2.3. Charles Talbot, Duke of Shrewsbury

Charles Talbot (born 1660) is an English noble born to Roman Catholic parents but raised in Protestant influence. In childhood his father dies in a duel, and he is placed under guardians who ensure Protestant upbringing. In 1679 he formally converts to Anglicanism — a decision that aligns him with the rising Whig faction discontented with King James II's pro-Catholic measures.

Talbot becomes a central figure among the English opposition: he is one of the *Immortal Seven* who send invitation to William of Orange, urging intervention to prevent Catholic absolutism. In 1688 he plays a key role in the planning and execution of that intervention. With William's arrival, Talbot helps secure key cities (e.g. Bristol, Gloucester) for the Williamite cause, using his knowledge of both court and local politics to minimize bloodshed. His ability to navigate between military allies, the Protestant elite, and Parliament make him an indispensable Whig statesman in the turbulent months leading up to William and Mary's joint accession.

→Key Traits

Skilled in political negotiation
Balances loyalty and pragmatism
Protestant advocate with moderate style
Trusted by both Parliament and military
Adept at strategy in urban and local network

5.2.4. Thomas Osborne, Duke of Leeds

Thomas Osborne, 1st Duke of Leeds stands among the most formidable and contentious Tory figures of the late Stuart era. His political life embodied both the administrative genius and moral ambiguity that defined Restoration England. Rising from Yorkshire gentry to the heights of national power, Osborne's influence stretched from the treasuries of Charles II to the councils of William III.

Introduced to court politics through his neighbour, the 2nd Duke of Buckingham, Osborne's advancement was meteoric. By 1673, he was appointed Lord High Treasurer and ennobled as the Earl of Danby. In that role, he consolidated the fiscal and political foundations of royal authority, championing Anglican orthodoxy against both Catholic and dissenting pressures. He pioneered what became known as *parliamentary management* transforming the traditionally independent country gentlemen of the Commons into a coordinated bloc loyal to the Crown.

Danby's foreign policy was explicitly anti-French and pro-Dutch; he orchestrated the marriage of the future Queen Mary to William of Orange, a union that would later reshape England's destiny. Yet, in an act of political duplicity emblematic of the age, he simultaneously secured secret French subsidies for Charles II, ensuring the King's financial independence from Parliament. Danby's formidable career was undone by his own ambition and arrogance. In 1678, his enemy Ralph Montagu revealed incriminating letters detailing his negotiations for French money actions conducted under royal instruction but politically indefensible amidst the frenzy of the Popish Plot. Impeached by Parliament and disgraced, Danby was confined to the Tower of London for nearly five years, a cautionary symbol of how proximity to royal power could consume even its most skilled architect.

→Key Traits

Master Administrator and Political Strategist Pragmatic yet Morally Ambiguous Architect of Early Parliamentary Management Defender of Anglican Supremacy Enduring but Controversial Tory Leader

5.2.5. William Cavendish, Duke of Devonshire

William Cavendish, 1st Duke of Devonshire was a leading Whig statesman and a central architect of the Glorious Revolution. His life reflected a rare blend of moral courage, political foresight, and unwavering commitment to Protestant and parliamentary principles. Emerging from a distinguished Derbyshire family, Cavendish cultivated both local influence and national prominence, eventually shaping the course of English constitutional history.

Cavendish's political reputation was forged during the Exclusion Crisis, in which he opposed the succession of the Catholic James, Duke of York, to the throne. With a keen sense of justice and constitutional principle, he allied with other Whigs, challenging Charles II's court and the crown's perceived overreach. His steadfastness extended to close personal risks: he defended his ally, Lord William Russell, after Russell's conviction for treason, offering even to facilitate his escape from prison - a testament to his loyalty and courage.

James II's overtly pro-Catholic policies intensified Cavendish's opposition. The Duke endured fines and temporary imprisonment as a result of his vocal resistance to royal encroachments. Yet these challenges only strengthened his resolve and solidified his reputation as a principled and unflinching advocate for Protestant succession and parliamentary authority.

Cavendish's decisive contribution to the Glorious Revolution marked the pinnacle of his political influence. As one of the seven signatories inviting William of Orange to intervene, he directly shaped the overthrow of James II and the establishment of a Protestant constitutional monarchy. Following the Revolution, Cavendish was appointed Lord Steward of the Household, a role that placed him at the centre of the new administration. He became a linchpin in ensuring the stability of William and Mary's joint rule, guiding the early Whig agenda and promoting the principles of parliamentary governance over monarchical absolutism.

→ Key Traits

Resolute Whig Leader and Constitutional Advocate Courageous Defender of Protestantism Loyal Friend and Ally in High-Risk Politics Opponent of Royal Prerogative Visionary Political Strategist

5.2.6. Henry Compton, Bishop of London

Henry Compton is a towering figure in the English Church and a pivotal actor in the political landscape of late 17th-century England. His career blended religious devotion with political astuteness, making him a key mediator between the crown, Parliament, and Protestant interests during a period of intense confessional conflict.

Born the youngest son of the 2nd Earl of Northampton, Compton was educated at Oxford and Cambridge, earning his Doctor of Divinity in 1669. After a brief stint in the military following the Restoration of Charles II, he committed fully to the Church of England. By 1674, he became Bishop of Oxford, and a year later was promoted to Bishop of London, one of the most influential sees in the kingdom. His position also brought him into the Privy Council and charged him with the royal education of the future Queen Mary II and Queen Anne, allowing him significant influence over the next generation of English monarchs.

Compton distinguished himself as a moderate, yet principled, champion of Protestantism. He sought to integrate Protestant Dissenters into the national church, demonstrating both generosity and political pragmatism. At the same time, his firm opposition to Roman Catholic influence placed him in direct conflict with James II. His refusal to suspend his vicar, John Sharp, for antipapal preaching led to his temporary suspension by the King's Ecclesiastical Commission in 1686. This steadfastness showcased Compton's ability to balance moral conviction with strategic foresight.

As one of the "Immortal Seven," Compton signed the invitation to William of Orange, facilitating the intervention that ultimately led to James II's overthrow. During the Revolution, he played a crucial role in supporting the Protestant succession and, in the absence of the non-jurying Archbishop William Sancroft, performed the coronation of William and Mary. His combination of religious authority, political insight, and unwavering commitment to the Protestant cause cemented his place as a key architect of the Revolution's success.

→Key Traits

Influential Religious Leader and Bishop of London Defender of Protestantism and Ecclesiastical Moderation Royal Advisor and Educator of Future Monarchs Strategic Politician in Church-State Conflicts Key Architect of the Glorious Revolution

5.2.7. Edward Russell, Earl of Orford

Edward Russell, a noble and ambitious figure, was a leading Whig politician who dedicated his career to the ascendancy of naval power. His early service, which saw him rise from a junior officer at the Battle of Solebay to commanding fleets against the Barbary pirates, established his reputation as a formidable seaman. However, his political life was irrevocably altered after he fell from King Charles II's grace following his cousin Lord Russell's execution for treason. This event pushed him into the shadows of anti-Stuart conspiracy. The most definitive, high-stakes moment of his life arrived in 1688 when he became one of the "Immortal Seven", the select group of English noblemen who formally invited William of Orange to invade. Russell did not merely sign the document; he was the naval architect of the invasion, secretly working with William in the Netherlands to orchestrate the military plan and leverage his vast network within the fleet to ensure a successful, unopposed landing. His reward for this revolutionary service was the highest naval command. He quickly justified this trust during the Nine Years' War, achieving his greatest military glory by commanding the combined Anglo-Dutch forces that all but annihilated the French Fleet at the Battles of La Hogue and Barfleur in 1692. This crushing victory permanently eliminated the threat of a French invasion of England and secured the new Williamite regime on the throne. Russell's strategic vision went beyond individual battles; he set a critical precedent in English naval strategy by becoming the first commander to winter the fleet at Cádiz, effectively extending the reach of British sea power into the Mediterranean and ensuring the continuity and modernization of the British Navy during a period of immense strategic change. As one of the most influential Whig figures of the era, his continued presence at the Admiralty was seen as essential for managing the new maritime reality against France.

→Key Traits

Naval Architect of the Revolution Master of Maritime Strategy Decisive Military Hero (La Hogue) Politically Resilient and Ambitious Fiercely Loyal to the Whig Cause Advocate for Sustained Sea Power

5.2.8. Henry Sydney, Earl of Romney

Henry Sydney's political trajectory was deeply marked by personal tragedy and a commitment to the Protestant cause, a stance cemented by the execution of his brother Algernon for his part in the Rye House Plot. Serving initially as an army officer and diplomat, Sydney cultivated a vital, enduring personal relationship with William of Orange during his tenure as Envoy to the United Provinces in 1679. This bond made him William's trusted confidant and an active member of the "Williamite exclusionist" faction. The birth of a male heir to King James II in 1688 transformed a political discomfort into a constitutional emergency, prompting Sydney to take the most consequential action of the Revolution: he became the key signatory and primary courier for the document of the "Immortal Seven" inviting William to invade. His role was so central that he was later lauded as "the great wheel on which the Revolution rolled," having risked everything his life, his property, and his family name to initiate the bloodless coup. Serving as a Major-General in William's invasion force, Sydney was richly rewarded following the joint accession of William and Mary. He was elevated to the peerage and granted crucial high offices, including Secretary of State for the Northern Department, a position demanding immense diplomatic skill to manage European affairs against the French threat. He also demonstrated his continuing loyalty and administrative capability by accompanying William to the War in Ireland, where he participated in the decisive Battle of the Boyne in 1690. His subsequent appointments as Lord Lieutenant of Ireland and later Master-General of the Ordnance (responsible for the army's equipment and logistics) confirmed his status as one of the most trusted and powerful administrative pillars of the new regime.

→Key Traits

William's Closest Confidant
Primary Courier of the Invitation
Administrative Pillar of the New Regime
Soldier and Logistical Mastermind
Deep Commitment to Protestantism
Skilled Diplomat in European Affairs

5.2.9. Richard Lumley, Earl of Scarbrough

Richard Lumley, who inherited an ancient Northern English title, was a man whose allegiances demonstrated the shifting sands of the late Stuart period. Though raised within the Roman Catholic faith, Lumley made the profound personal and political choice to convert to Protestantism before taking his seat in the House of Lords in 1685. His early military career saw him rise quickly through the ranks, demonstrating staunch loyalty to the Crown by playing a prominent and effective part in the suppression of the Duke of Monmouth's rebellion in 1685; most notably, he was personally responsible for the capture of the unarmed Duke while he was hiding in a ditch. Yet, this loyalty was short-lived. As King James II's pro-Catholic policies alienated the English political establishment, Lumley, despite his previous service, grew disillusioned. His decision to join the conspiracy and become one of the "Immortal Seven" was a definitive rejection of the King he had once served and a powerful endorsement of the Protestant cause. By signing the invitation to William of Orange, Lumley placed himself firmly on the side of the Revolution. Following William's accession, his loyalty was immediately and heavily rewarded. He received a swift elevation to the Earldom of Scarbrough and secured numerous high military and political appointments. He proved his martial worth again by participating in the decisive Battle of the Boyne in 1690, rising to the rank of Lieutenant-General as the Williamite regime fought to secure its hold over Ireland and resist the Jacobite threat. His position as a respected Northern peer and a successful commander made him a vital figure in consolidating the new order's power both militarily and politically across England.

→Key Traits

Strategic Religious Convert
Military Commander and Enforcer
Pivotal Revolutionary Conspirator
Proven Loyalty on the Battlefield (Boyne)
Significant Northern Peerage Influence
Swiftly Elevated by the New Regime

5.2.10. John Locke, Philosopher

John Locke stands as one of the most consequential figures of the 17th century, establishing the English school of Empiricism and universally known as the "Father of Liberalism." Born into a devout, middle-class family, Locke's

intellectual foundation was laid at Oxford, where he studied medicine and natural sciences. His primary career trajectory, however, was forged as the private physician and secretary to the aristocratic Earl of Shaftesbury, the leading anti-monarchical figure of the era. Locke's deep involvement in Shaftesbury's political machinations aligned him directly against the absolutist tendencies of Charles II and James II, ultimately forcing him into a crucial period of voluntary exile in the Netherlands (1683–1689). This exile was not a retreat but a furnace for his political thought, where he composed his major works. Philosophically, he radically challenged the concept of innate ideas, asserting that the mind at birth is a "tabula rasa" (blank slate), proposing that all knowledge is solely derived from sensory experience. His greatest contribution to political thought was the development of the social contract theory, which fundamentally posits that the legitimacy of any government is derived only from the consent of the people and that its primary, nonnegotiable duty is to protect the individual's natural rights to life, liberty, and property. In the context of the Glorious Revolution, Locke provided the intellectual justification for the deposition of James II, arguing fiercely that a ruler's authority is not absolute but based on public trust, and that the people reserve the ultimate right to dissolve or alter a government if that trust is breached. By providing the theoretical groundwork for limited, constitutional monarchy, Locke's ideas were seen immediately upon his return to England with William and Mary as the philosophical bedrock of the new political settlement.

→Key Traits

Foundational Liberal Thinker
Philosophical Justification for the Revolution
Advocate for Natural Rights (Life, Liberty, Property)
Originator of *Tabula Rasa* (Empiricism)
Champion of Limited Government
Close Political Tie to the Whig Opposition

5.2.11. Arthur Herbert, Earl of Torrington

Arthur Herbert was an accomplished and politically connected English naval officer whose career was marked by both swift advancement and dramatic reversal. Having seen significant action during the Anglo-Dutch and Franco-Dutch Wars, he demonstrated his strategic acumen in the Mediterranean, achieving notable success against the Barbary pirates. His merit and connections propelled him to the high office of Rear-Admiral of England under James II. However, Herbert proved that his conscience outweighed his career:

his strong Protestant convictions led to his immediate dismissal from all posts after he famously refused to vote for the repeal of the Test Act - a vote that would have opened public office to Catholics. This act of principle galvanized his commitment to the Protestant cause. The pivotal moment of his life, and the Revolution itself, occurred when he risked execution by dressing in disguise as a common sailor to personally deliver the Invitation of the "Immortal Seven" to William of Orange in The Hague. This act of extreme courage and loyalty was rewarded with the command of William's entire invasion fleet, ensuring its safe passage and successful landing at Torbay, thus initiating the Glorious Revolution. Following the accession of William and Mary, he was immediately appointed First Lord of the Admiralty. Though his later command at the Battle of Beachy Head in 1690 resulted in a serious defeat and a controversial courtmartial, Herbert is forever credited with providing the essential naval bridge that made the 1688 revolution possible, and for introducing the enduring naval strategy of the "fleet in being" doctrine, which dictated that the mere existence of a fleet could tie down enemy forces, even without engaging in battle.

→ Key Traits

Courageous Revolutionary Courier
Conscience Over Political Gain
Commander of the Invasion Fleet
Naval Strategist ("Fleet in Being")
Key Figure at the Admiralty
Experienced Mediterranean Commander

5.2.12. Frederick Herman, Duke of Schomberg

Frederick Herman, Duke of Schomberg, was a venerable German soldier of fortune and statesman whose vast military experience spanned the major European conflicts for over four decades, making him one of the continent's most respected commanders. His illustrious career saw him serve various powers, including the armies of the Great Elector and, crucially, the French where his superior skill, particularly under Marshal Turenne, culminated in his appointment as one of only eight Marshals of France in 1675. Beyond continental Europe, Schomberg played a crucial, nation-defining role in Portugal, where his expert organisation of the army against Spain secured Portuguese independence, culminating in the 1668 palace revolution that installed Dom Pedro. However, his life was dramatically redirected when, as a Protestant, the 1685 Revocation of the Edict of Nantes forced him to abandon

his high office in Catholic France, finding refuge in Brandenburg. In 1688, the Elector loaned his distinguished services and a Prussian contingent to William of Orange. His presence in the invasion force was invaluable; his immense stature and experience lent immediate credibility to the Revolution's military effort. Upon being naturalized into English service, he was created Duke of Schomberg and immediately made Commander-in-Chief of the forces sent to Ireland in 1689 to confront the Jacobite forces loyal to James II. His final, heroic act came in combat: leading his troops at the decisive Battle of the Boyne in 1690 at the age of 74, Schomberg displayed unmatched bravery, cementing his legacy as a multinational hero who gave his life to secure the Williamite throne and the Protestant cause.

→ Key Traits

Venerable Multinational Soldier
Marshal of France (High European Stature)
Key Figure in Portuguese Independence
Commander-in-Chief in Ireland
Lends Military Credibility to William's Cause
Heroic Death in Service of the New Regime

6. After the Revolution

6.1. Williamite War in Ireland

The Williamite War in Ireland was a vital conflict that determined the final outcome of the Glorious Revolution of 1688 on Irish soil, lasting from March 1689 to October 1691; it was also a theatre of the broader Nine Years' War. The war was fought between the loyal supporters of the deposed Catholic King James II (Jacobites) and the forces of his nephew and son-in-law, the Protestant William III (William of Orange) and his wife, Mary II (Williamites). Ireland was chosen as a base by James for his attempt to regain the throne, as approximately 75% of the population was Catholic and the island possessed a large Catholic army that had been organized by the Earl of Tyrconnell since 1687. James arrived from France in March 1689, bringing with him French regular troops (under the command of Conrad von Rosen) and a significant amount of weaponry. The most important demands of the Jacobites included the reversal of land confiscations that had reduced Catholic land ownership from 90% in 1600 to 22% by 1685, and the autonomy of the Irish Parliament;

however, these demands were not fully supported by James due to his concern about losing Protestant support in England and his own Stuart ideology.

The war began with the mustering of Catholic forces under Tyrconnell's orders and skirmishes between them and William's loyal Protestant militias. A major strategic error by the Jacobites was their focus on the Williamite strongholds in Northern Ireland, such as Derry and Enniskillen. The Siege of Derry (April-July 1689) proved unsuccessful for the Jacobites, and their heavy defeat at Newtownbutler in July caused them to lose control of Ulster. After the English Parliament approved funding for an expeditionary force of 22,230 men on March 8, 1689, the main Williamite army, under the command of the Duke of Schomberg, landed in August 1689. This army suffered heavy losses, with approximately 6,000 soldiers dying from logistical failures and disease during the winter near Dundalk. In June 1690, William personally took command and arrived in Ireland with an army of around 31,000 men, bringing the conflict to a climax. This led to the war's most critical battle, the Battle of the Boyne, which resulted in the defeat of the main Jacobite army. James's return to France after the Boyne weakened faith in the Jacobite cause. The war definitively concluded in 1691 with the taking of Athlone and the decisive dispersal of the Jacobite army, commanded by French General Saint-Ruhe, at the Battle of Aughrim. Although the Williamite victory was formalized by the signing of the Treaty of Limerick on October 3, 1691, the guarantees in this treaty offering Catholics religious freedom and legal protection were subsequently violated by the extension of the Penal Laws (especially from 1695 onward). Following the war, approximately 19,000 soldiers and irregular fighters (Rapparees), totaling more than 20,000 people including families, left for France in the migration known as the "Flight of the Wild Geese," where they joined the Stuart monarchy's army in exile.

6.2. Battle of Boyne

The Battle of the Boyne took place on July 1, 1690 (according to the Julian Calendar, equivalent to July 11 by today's reckoning) on the Boyne River near Drogheda, marking the most decisive engagement of the Williamite Wars. The battle pitted William III's well-equipped, professional army of approximately 31,000 men, comprising Dutch, Danish, and English regiments, against James II's force of an estimated 25,000 soldiers, who were largely inexperienced Irish recruits. The Williamite army benefited from superior logistical support, better discipline, and more modern flintlock muskets compared to James's forces. The Jacobites had established defensive positions on the south bank of the Boyne River near Oldbridge. William employed a flanking manoeuvre, sending a portion of his forces upstream to Slane to cross the river and threaten

the Jacobites' left flank. This deception succeeded; James, reacting to the perceived threat, repositioned a significant part of his troops to Slane, thereby weakening his centre. William launched his main assault at Oldbridge. Throughout the engagement, fewer than 2,000 casualties were recorded on both sides, indicating a strategic withdrawal rather than an outright slaughter. Among the fatalities was William's experienced commander, the Duke of Schomberg. Following the battle, James II immediately fled to Dublin and then to France. This flight severely dampened the morale of the Jacobite resistance in Ireland and allowed William to enter Dublin unopposed. The Battle of the Boyne indisputably secured William's position on the British throne and became a turning point that guaranteed continued British and Protestant rule over Ireland for the following two centuries. Today, this victory remains an enduring political and cultural symbol, commemorated by the Protestant Orange Order in Northern Ireland with fervent parades held annually on July 12.

These wars will be settled into the ordinary crisis flow during the conference.

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