Using mystery television dramas as a means to understanding British history and culture-Part Two

WALTERS Nicholas

Keywords
Planning course content, Victorian culture and society, the Indian Mutiny and the Boer Wars, the Railways, Victorian politics

I Introduction
In the first paper of this series, I briefly summarized *Sherlock Holmes and the Adventure of The Norwood Builder*, *Hercule Poirot and The Mysterious Affair at Styles* and *The Mrs Bradley Mysteries: Laurels are Poison*. I then outlined various aspects from these stories which showed distinct historical, social and cultural developments that took place during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Finally I suggested a number of tasks which needed to be completed in order to make using such mystery stories relevant to the language learning classroom. This paper will focus on one aspect raised in the final section of my first paper, by looking at the content to be included in creating background information sheets. However, as the time frame covered by these stories (roughly the 1870s to the 1930s) is long, in this paper I will concern myself with information relevant to the period in which most of the Sherlock Holmes’ adventures take place. It is intended that the information sheets will be divided into four main categories: society (covering Britain’s social structure, occupations and the position of women within society), politics (outlining the general shifts in the British political situation in the mid to late Victorian period and related economic developments),
transport (focusing primarily on the development of the railways in the
nineteenth century but also mentioning the effects of the bicycle) and events
(covering the Indian Mutiny and the Boer Wars). Clearly, each of these topics
is extremely broad, however, I hope to offer an indication of the type of
information which will form the basis of the background information sheets
that will be given to the students. Consequently, section one of this paper
will present this background information while in section two I will indicate
the content of the third paper in this series.

II Section 1

i ) Britain's social structure in the nineteenth century

By the late nineteenth century, Britain's social structure had undergone
a certain amount of change mainly within the middle and working classes.
However, throughout the century, the aristocracy still retained significant
political and social power.

The aristocracy still relied heavily on their ownership of land to secure
their social and political position. Land ownership remained concentrated
within the hands of a few because, unlike other European countries, land and
title was passed on generally to only the eldest son. As such, only the person
inheriting the title belonged to the aristocracy and the rights pertaining to
their land were retained exclusively by this person. In this way, throughout
the nineteenth century four hundred peers and peeresses, including
seventeen super rich landowners (the Dukes of Westminster, Bedford,
Buccleuch, Devonshire, Northumberland, Portland, Sutherland, Hamilton,
the Marquesses of Bute and Londonderry, and the Earls Fitzwilliam,
Derby, Dudley, and Ancaster), owned sixteen percent of the land in Britain
(Rubinstein, 1998).
Below the aristocracy came the middle class, divided into two groups. The boundaries defining the middle class are difficult to identify, however, based on income, the middle class made up about fifteen to twenty percent of the population and was concentrated mostly in the suburbs around London and southern England. The upper middle class was made up of the older professions and included the Anglican clergy, barristers, physicians, senior army and navy officers and Oxbridge professors. As the nineteenth century progressed, other professions, such as engineers, architects and accountants, began to enter this group. These professions attempted to guard their exclusivity by creating professional societies that operated entrance exams and apprenticeships and worked to protect fees and salaries. The lower middle class consisted of smaller tradesmen, shopkeepers, craftsmen, elementary school teachers and nurses and made up about fifteen percent of the population.

Although occupation was an important factor in establishing membership of the middle class, status was equally, if not, more important. Establishing the right to middle class status included going to church, membership of a professional association, having at least one domestic servant and the women remaining at home (Pugh, 1999). A major concern of particularly the lower middle class was to guard against falling into poverty. Consequently, the outlook of the middle class, in general, was often very cautious and conservative based on the common goal of ensuring lifelong employment in jobs which offered relatively good starting salaries. Middle class salaries ranged from between £150 and £1000 a year. However, for some when times became difficult the only option was to relocate to a different part of the empire in order to try to salvage their status and wealth.
and as such, most of the middle class were staunch supporters of the empire (Rubinstein, 1998).

One change created by the industrial revolution which affected the middle class was the increase in the demand for clerks. In 1851 only one percent of population were clerks, however, with the introduction of compulsory education from the 1870s, this number increased. Becoming a clerk was an attractive occupation because it carried a relatively high status and was usually a lifetime job. In addition, as most businesses were family run, there was a strong sense of loyalty between employer and employees. Nevertheless, there was also a clerking hierarchy with bank clerks forming the pinnacle, followed closely by those in international commerce (Patterson, 2008).

Though during the nineteenth century there was a steady increase in the rate of industrialization, the major occupations for working class men remained within the agricultural sector together with other occupations connected with commercial enterprises selling basic food stuffs and tobacco and domestic service (Rubinstein, 1998). By the late nineteenth century, working class people in the best paying jobs could expect to earn about £80 to £100 a year while labourers would earn only about £25 a year. Working class jobs could also be very dangerous and not only for manual labourers. For example, hat makers, who had to work with mercury, ran the risk of being driven insane (Rubinstein, 1998:295). Coupled with the dangerous nature of their working conditions, the working class also suffered from cyclical unemployment caused as the economy periodically worsened. Consequently, the line between being able to maintain a certain standard of living and falling into poverty was narrow.
A major issue in the mid to late nineteenth century was the question of the role and position of women in society. In connection with this issue, three books were published which had a great influence on attitudes to the role and position of, especially middle class, women: The Angel in the House (Coventry Patmore 1854), Book of Household Management (Mrs Isabella Beeton 1861) and Of Queen’s Garden - Sesame and lilies (Ruskin 1865). The consistent theme of these books was to show women that their role was to manage their household to protect its inhabitants from the ravages of capitalism. In a sense, this attitude took a more positive view of the role of women, but nevertheless, firmly supported the idea that the place of women was at home rather than in the workplace. The only area in which it was felt appropriate for women to ‘work’ was in helping the poor ‘reform’ themselves (Schama, 2002). Despite this, even the 1851 census showed that half the six million adult women were employed in some kind of work. The census also showed that there were more women than men. This would remain the situation for some time and so, half to three quarters of a million women would remain unmarried and would therefore need to find some sort of employment (by 1871 this figure had increased to thirty six percent). Consequently, although, the attitude of many middle class men, and women, was that a woman “was seen as domestic, decorative and retiring, a support for her husband and a civilising influence upon her children” in fact “... in practice this ideal was frequently not attained because women greatly outnumbered men in the population” (Pugh,1999:77).

Nevertheless, throughout the nineteenth century women’s rights did gradually increase. In 1857 the Divorce and Matrimonial Causes Bill became law. Despite demonstrating the double standards in attitudes among Victorian men, this Act did confer on women the right to a divorce
in certain, very specific circumstances (Schama, 2002). In general, though, both men and women were reluctant to file for divorce as this would mean a hearing in court with all the details surrounding the case being extensively reported in the newspapers (Rubinstein, 1998). In 1882 the Married Women’s Property Act gave married women the same rights as unmarried women over their own property, effectively ending the absolute control that a husband could have over his wife’s property. Furthermore, in 1891 it became unlawful for husbands to lock up their wives or to beat them with a cane thicker than his thumb (Schama, 2002).

Women did make advances in both education and in the nursing profession throughout the nineteenth century. Between 1841 and 1901, the number of female teachers and nurses rose from forty nine thousand to two hundred and sixteen thousand. In terms of nursing, Florence Nightingales’ very public actions in the Crimea helped change Victorian attitudes to female nurses, with even Queen Victoria expressing approval for this development (Schama, 2002). The mid Victorian period saw the beginning of women’s fight for higher education, though it would not be until well into the twentieth century that anything approaching real parity would be achieved. Important here were the actions of Elizabeth Garrett (inspired by the Bristol born Elizabeth Blackwell who opened the New York Infirmary and a college for women). In 1861 ‘E’ Garrett was accepted to the Middlesex Hospital Medical School, because the administration thought the applicant was a man, after ‘she’ scored the highest marks on the entrance exam. Later that year, the male students opposed her attendance and she was forced to leave. However, despite being denied entry into the English medical world after being rejected by various university medical schools, in 1870 Garrett graduated from the University of Paris. At the same time, Emily Davis,
was arguing for women’s access to higher education. In 1869 Davies opened Hitchin College with six undergraduates and in 1873 the college moved to Girton, on the edge of Cambridge and changed its name to Girton College. Davies wanted the curriculum at Girton College to mirror that followed by men at Cambridge to prove that women were their equal. Though the college gradually attained recognition and support, many of the first women graduates in the 1880s never married and instead worked in helping the poor. Nevertheless, Rubinstein (1998) points out that activist, intelligent ‘new women’ broke through into various ‘male’ professions during the late Victorian and early Edwardian periods.

For working class women, the main field of employment was domestic service despite the long hours, drudgery and low pay. As the nineteenth century progressed, there were opportunities for work in other occupations such as being shop assistants and secretaries (the latter rising from one thousand in 1841, to five thousand in 1871, and to seventy six thousand in 1901). The added freedom that these occupations gave made domestic service less desirable, but they were only open to working class women who had a certain level of literacy. As Rubinstein suggests domestic service was “... surely one of the least desirable occupations imaginable.” (1998:320).

ii ) Mid to late Victorian political and economic developments

Often the mid to late Victorian period is characterised as the ascendancy of Liberalism. However, the period can be divided into three phases; firstly, the period under Lord Palmerston where the government’s attention was focused primarily on international issues, secondly the period of rivalry between Gladstone and Disraeli and finally, the demise of the Liberal Party and the resurgence of the Conservative Party at a time of uncertainty the
notion of fin de siècle.

Between 1855 and 1865 (with a short break in 1858 when the Conservative Party formed a minority government under Lord Derby), the prime minister was Henry John Temple, Lord Palmerston, leading a Liberal administration. During this period Palmerston was concerned with bringing Crimean War to a close, the Indian Mutiny and the effects of the American civil war. Domestically, Palmerston’s outlook epitomized the mid-Victorian philosophy of limited government and self-help. The idea of self-help, in theory, meant that anyone could rise or fall depending on the amount of effort they made. In addition, the philosophy of self-help removed the need for strict laws which infringed on people’s freedom. Most importantly, Palmerston’s main aim was to resist calls for electoral reform, to which he was staunchly opposed despite the fact that even in 1865 the House of Commons contained seventy-one baronets, eleven elder sons of baronets, nineteen younger sons of baronets, eight grandsons of baronets and thirty-seven peers or elder sons of peers and fifteen grandsons of peers with one hundred Members of Parliament connected to the peerage by marriage or descent (Briggs Improvement 2000: 353).

Following Palmerston’s death in 1865, Lord John Russell became prime minister. Unlike Palmerston, Russell was anxious to see electoral reform but his ministry was unable to agree an acceptable reform bill and the government collapsed in 1866. Again a Conservative government under Lord Derby replaced the Liberals. Though not usually being seen as the friend of middle and working class elements, Derby’s government under Disraeli’s influence drafted a reform bill which was far more radical than that proposed by the Liberals. This was finally passed as the 1867 Reform
Act. The 1867 Act also allowed independent women householders to vote (Schama, 2002). In 1868, Lord Derby was replaced by Disraeli as the leader of the Conservative Party and, in so doing, set up the second period of rivalry between Gladstone, who took over from Lord John Russell in 1866, and Disraeli.

Gladstone’s first government lasted from 1868 (benefitting from the electoral reform introduced by the Conservative Party) until 1874. During this period, some important legislative changes were introduced. In particular, the Forster Education Act (1870) which enabled, though did not require local governments to spend money on education, Cardwell’s Army Regulation Act (1871) which stopped the buying of commissions and the 1872 Ballot Act which introduced secret ballots in elections.

Nevertheless, Gladstone’s government fell in 1874 and was replaced by the Conservative Party, led by Disraeli, with a majority in the House of Commons. Two years prior to the election, Disraeli had begun to explain his political philosophy of ‘one-nation’ Toryism which was an attempt to broaden the appeal of the Conservative Party traditionally associated with the interests of the landed classes. In particular, Disraeli argued for health legislation, social improvements and the importance of the empire. Consequently, Disraeli’s government between 1875 and 1878 introduced important social legislation such as the Artisan’s Dwelling Act (slum clearance and rehousing), the Sale of Food and Drug Act (prohibiting the sale of food containing anything injurious to health), the 1876 Education Act (which stipulated that five to ten year-olds had to attend schools and that local government were responsible for the fees of very poor) and the 1878 Factory Act. In 1876, Queen Victoria made Disraeli the First Earl of
Beaconsfield in recognition of his role in politics whilst Disraeli ensured the passing of the Royal Titles Bill which gave Queen Victoria the title, Empress of India. However, events overseas in the late 1870s created difficulties for Disraeli’s government, and in the 1880 election, the Liberals under Gladstone, once again took office.

Gladstone’s second time as prime minister was not easy and much of his time was spent dealing with issues relating to Ireland and calls for Irish independence. Despite this, in 1882 the Married Women’s Property Act (see above) and in 1884 another Reform Act was enacted. However, after Gladstone’s Home Rule bill failed in 1886, the Liberals lost the resulting general election.

The final era of the Victorian period showed the Conservative Party firmly back in control at the same time as there was a growth in trades unions amongst semi and unskilled workers with a willingness to use strike action. For example, in 1889, dock workers went on strike to protest about their poor working conditions. Furthermore, in 1884, the Fabian Society was founded (members of which included Sidney and Beatrice Webb, G.B. Shaw, H.G. Wells, and Ramsay Macdonald) which, though not Marxist, began to criticise the central Liberal philosophy (largely, though not wholly accepted by the Conservative Party too) of the benefits of a free-trade based economy. Finally, James (Keir) Hardie, an ex-Scottish miner, in 1888 formed Scottish Labour Party and in 1892 became the Member of Parliament for West Ham (London). In 1893 he helped to form the Independent Labour Party which aimed to represent working people (Harvie and Matthew, 2000). Consequently, this period marked a significant era of change as both the prevailing ideological outlook was questioned and many of the remaining
‘characters’ of the mid-Victorian period died.

In trying to understand this change in political outlook, it is important to consider how Britain’s economic position altered during the second half of the nineteenth century. The 1851 census revealed that for the first time in Britain’s history more people lived in towns than in the countryside, though agriculture remained the largest single industrial sector in terms of employment (Harvie and Matthew, 2000). Clearly, as the main area of population growth was in urban areas, in the future this would shift the political focus away from the country seats of the landed aristocracy to the cities.

In many ways, by the 1850s Britain’s was the world's most advanced economy as it exported large quantities of iron, coal and steel, produced heavy industry goods, such as iron ships, steam engines and machinery for woolen and cotton cloth (and in the process largely destroyed the cloth industries in India and the Middle East), owned more than half the world’s shipping and had a strong and largely stable banking system (McDowall, 1989). However, from the late 1860s onwards there was a feeling that Britain’s economic position was being threatened by other countries, particularly America and Germany. In Britain, the period between the 1870s and 1880s was perceived as the ‘Great Depression’ as prices and profits declined in both agricultural and business sectors, despite the fact that output actually grew by 50% during the period 1870 to 1890 (Pugh, 1999). One particularly worrying incident of this period was the failure of the Baring Brothers Bank in 1890 which had to be rescued by intervention from the Bank of England (Rubinstein, 1998).
Therefore, by the end of the Victorian period, it was clear that Britain's was no longer the single most important world economy. Significantly, the British had invested abroad rather than in the domestically, thereby strengthening the manufacturing potential of other countries, and its educational outlook at the public schools lacked a serious focus on science and technology. Also of significance was that there was no idea of a partnership between industrialists and the working class in working together to promote and mutually benefit from industrial development. Consequently, Britain's share of the world's manufactured output fell from close to twenty three percent in 1880 to eighteen and a half percent in 1900 while the America's share rose from about fifteen percent to almost twenty four percent and Germany's from eight and a half percent to just over thirteen percent. Furthermore, and in contrast to Britain, Germany had far greater national wealth than Britain and emphasized the importance of technology and science in education. Thus, as Pugh argues, "... where the [British] economy failed in the late nineteenth century was in exploiting the fast-growing industries on which the next stage of industrialisation was to be based: chemicals, motor cars, machine tools and electricity" (original emphasis 1999:115).

iii) Transport
(iii.a) The Railways

The railways, as with the canals which preceded them, were initially intended for freight transport. In 1830 there were just ninety seven miles of track but this steadily increased to over nineteen thousand miles by the early twentieth century (Patterson, 2008). In addition, by 1851 there were over 19 million train passengers. Railway travel was soon becoming so popular that it assumed greater importance than the movement of freight
and also led the government to require the rail companies to provide a carriage on each passenger train in which people could travel at a cost of 1 penny per mile (these became known as ‘parliament trains’).

In general, there was very little opposition to the building of railways. This was because, in particular during the early Victorian period, investors got good returns and also because the railways could bring convenience and prosperity to towns through which they ran (the Duke of Northumberland arranged for a station to be built in Alnwick because he had a castle in the town). The Railways changed Britain’s landscape by cutting through woods and fields and crossing over rivers. Nevertheless, some allowances were made, especially where a local interest wielded significant power as was the case with Cambridge University and Eton College. Cambridge University required that the station be built fifteen minutes walk from the city centre and Eton College insisted that the line from Windsor to Slough circle around its playing fields (Patterson, 2008). On the other hand, railway construction was not wholly problem free. Especially, in London, many of the new lines ran through areas where the poor lived. Although much of this housing was in slum condition, once it was pulled down to make way for the railways, the poor were left with the problem of finding somewhere else to live. This was left to the individuals themselves to solve as, despite the Victorians’ awareness of this as a social problem, neither the rail companies nor the government had any inclination to intervene.

Despite the functional nature of the railways, much of the architecture of stations and bridges could be very elaborate. For example, Temple Meads station in Bristol, designed by Brunel, looks like a castle and even small country stations were made to blend in by looking like cottages or Jacobean
houses. One of the most impressive structures was the Forth Bridge (completed in 1890) designed by Sir John Fowler and Sir Benjamin Baker.

All the main London termini were built during the Victorian period. The first to be constructed was Euston Square (1838, designed by Philip Hardwick), followed by in order London Bridge, Fenchurch Street (designed by William Tite), King’s Cross (designed by Lewis Cubitt), Paddington (designed by Brunel), Bishopsgate, Victoria, Charing Cross, Waterloo, Cannon Street, St Pancras (designed by William Barlow) and, the last and smallest, Marylebone in 1899. Interestingly, many of these stations were the biggest secular buildings built (except for the Crystal Palace, purpose built for the Great Exhibition of 1851, and the Houses of Parliament) and served to show the awesome power and importance of the Britain’s railway system.

Soon, however, the novelty of rail travel began wear off and so the rail companies had to attract people in other ways. These included reducing travel times and improving comfort. Another drive to improving service was increased competition between rail operators. With these improvements, wealthier people were able to travel to London to attend weekend concerts at Crystal Palace or to take holidays in Brighton (which had been popularised by George IV, though, it began to lose its attractiveness as a place for the wealthy as the number of London day-trippers increased) or Eastbourne. Indeed, travel became so profitable that rail companies built attractions either at existing sea-side resorts or created new resorts such as South-end, Seaford, Minehead and Weston-Super-Mare.

Another important way in which the railways changed the British way of life was through the standardisation of time. Prior to the introduction of
railway timetables, every city could set its clocks as it chose but, for the railways to work effectively, country-wide synchronized time was necessary. Therefore a standard ‘railway time’ was accepted and “the result - a single, agreed reckoning of time, based on Greenwich - appears obvious to us. To the Victorians it seemed a miracle.” (Patterson, 2008)

Finally, the growth of the railways, especially those servicing London, helped to create the drive to suburbia. Prior to the development of the railways, and with the problems associated with horse-drawn transport, the middle classes had had to occupy the city centre. However, life there was not always pleasant and the railways offered the possibility to the middle classes of the daily routine of coming into London for work and returning in the evening (McDowall, 1989).

(iii b) The Bicycle

One of the most socially significant forms of transportation to appear in the Victorian period was the bicycle. As Patterson says, “as a revolution in transport, the bicycle was second only to the railway, and its importance cannot be overstated, for it utterly changed the view that millions of people had of the world” (2008:142).

The bicycle was open to a much wider group of people and once a person had learnt to ride they were able to travel surprising distances relatively quickly. In particular, the bicycle was important for middle class women, as it gave them freedom and independence (especially as it helped to remove the ‘necessity’ of having an older woman ‘chaperone’ as couples cycled alone together). Nevertheless, at first bicycles were for men and women cyclists were ridiculed, even having stones thrown at them (Patterson
2008). However, with the development of cycling clubs and cycling teachers, gradually the idea of female cyclists became acceptable.

iv) Events

This section will briefly outline two events connected with the British Empire which had a significant effect on British politics and society. The first of these is the Indian Mutiny which took place between 1857 and 1859 and the second is the Boer Wars of the late nineteenth century.

By 1857 Britain directly controlled sixty percent of India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and eastern Pakistan and had an influence over the remaining forty percent, technically under the control of Maharajahs in Hyderabad, Mysore, in the south, and Rajputana and Kashmir in the north. Since the late seventeenth century, British India had been divided into three ‘Presidencies’ centred in Madras in the south (established 1640), Bombay in the west (established 1687) and Bengal in the east (established 1690). Above each presidency was the Governor General who was appointed by the cabinet, and the Governor General during the period of the Indian Mutiny was Viscount Canning (1856 to 1858).

Even at this time, Indian society encompassed a complex cultural mix. Religion (Hindus, Muslims, Buddhists, Sikhs and Jains together with Catholics, Protestants and Jews) as well as caste divided Indian society and, although perhaps heavily handedly, Britain tried to ‘civilise’ Indian culture by, for example, banning ‘suttee’ (widow burning) in 1830 and ‘thuggee’, random killings by Kali devotees (Rubinstein, 1998). Nevertheless, the actual spark of the mutiny was the rumour in January 1857 of a mixture of cow and pig fat being used to grease cartridges issued to both Muslim and
Hindu soldiers in the British Indian army. The problem was that at this time before inserting the cartridge into a rifle, the soldiers had to bite it first and as such this was considered offensive to both Hindus and Muslims. The mutiny spread quickly and in May of 1857, Bahadur Shah, the King of Delhi reluctantly agreed to become Emperor. However, the mutiny rapidly became extremely violent leading to the deaths of many Indians and Europeans, especially at Cawnpore in June 1857. By early 1858 the British were beginning to bring an end to the mutiny, though it was not until 1859 that it finally came to end.

As the mutiny drew to a close, Lord Derby’s Conservative government passed the India Act (1858). Importantly, this Act ended the control of the East India Company and all its property was transferred to the British crown. In addition, the position of Governor General became ‘Viceroy’ (Lord Canning until 1862) and a new position was created in the Cabinet, the Secretary of State for India. Following the shock of the mutiny, Britain did attempt to pursue a more inclusive policy in India giving junior positions in the administration to Indians.

The second event to be considered are the two Boer Wars which took place between 1880 and 1881 and 1899 and 1902. By the middle of the nineteen century, Britain had established two colonies in Southern Africa; the first, Cape Colony around the Cape of Good Hope (British since 1814) and the second in Natal (British since 1843). During the 1830s, Dutch settlers (known as the Boers meaning ‘farmer’ in both Dutch and Afrikaans) had created two independent republics, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. In 1867, diamonds were found in the Orange Free State and as Britain wanted the wealth that they would give, it took control of the diamond rich region
in 1871, then all of the Orange Free State in 1877. Subsequently, in January 1879, Britain took control of the Transvaal too. Consequently, in 1879, the British created the South African Federation made up of Cape Colony, Natal, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. Unfortunately, this process caused great resentment among the Boers and in December 1880 events came to a head as the Boers in the Transvaal rebelled against British rule. The sophistication of the Boers military techniques took the British by surprise so that by August 1881 the Boers had forced the British to recognize a semi-independent Boer republic in the Transvaal, under the leadership of Paul Kruger.

Tension remained high following this settlement and in February 1884, at the London Conference, the Transvaal became fully independent. To complicate matters, gold was discovered in Witwatersrand in the Transvaal in 1886. This discovery attracted miners from various countries to the area but the British South Africa Company, based in the Cape Colony, secured the mining rights in areas to the north and east of the Transvaal. Events again came to a head when Cecil Rhodes, the prime minister of the Cape Colony, authorised the Jameson Raid. Rhodes's ultimate goal was British control over the whole of Southern Africa and he felt that the Boers were hindering the British from achieving this aim. As such, in December 1895, Rhodes agreed to the Jameson Raid into the Transvaal to overthrow Kruger's government. Unfortunately for Rhodes by early 1896 it was clear that the raid had failed. By this time, the British miners in the Transvaal, known as Uitlanders (meaning foreigners) were agitating for political rights as they had none. Despite this agitation, Kruger's government refused to grant any rights, and by September 1899 the British and Boers, in both the Transvaal and the Orange Free State which had allied itself with the
Transvaal, had reached a state of political deadlock.

As a result of the deadlock, Kruger’s government issued an ultimatum to the British government demanding a withdrawal of British troops from the borders of the Transvaal. Britain refused to accept and on October 12th, war broke. Initially, Britain expected to defeat the Boers easily but they had not taken into account the German and French weapons the Boers had, the fact that the Boers were expert horse riding marksmen and were fighting on their home ground. Consequently, initially the war went all the Boers way with British troops being heavily defeated but control of the British troops was given to Field Marshal Lord Roberts (Sir Frederick Roberts 1832 - 1914, later 1st Earl Roberts) in 1899 and then General Lord Kitchener in 1900. By May 1900 the British had retaken the Orange Free State (which became the Orange River Colony) and by September 1900 the Transvaal. Despite this, from September 1900 onwards the Boers used guerilla tactics to harass the British. In response, Kitchener ordered that one hundred and twenty thousand Boer women and children should be kept in ‘concentration camps’ (though, this usage should not be confused with its Second World War meaning). As a result, twenty thousand people died (Rubinstein, 1998).

The second Boer War, or the South African War as it now called, was formally ended on 31st May 1902 at Treaty of Vereeniging. Although the war resulted in a British victory, the Vereeniging treaty gave the Boers most of their demands. In addition, the war cost Britain £222 million with five thousand eight hundred deaths and twenty three thousand wounded and as Patterson notes, “this had been as much of a trauma as the Crimean War fifty years earlier, and it caused a great deal of national soul-searching” (2008:336). This soul-searching caused much reflection on the state of the
British army and Britain's standing around the world. In particular Britain's declining sea-power (threatened by France, Germany, Italy, United States of America, and Japan) and perhaps most importantly the suggestion that the empire was too big, ill coordinated and too expensive to justify its maintenance (Harvie and Matthew, 2000).

II Section 2

As was pointed out in the introduction, the purpose of this section of the paper is to indicate the next steps to be taken in order to effectively use mystery dramas within a one-year course of study.

Firstly, the background information sheets must be written using the information outlined above. Following on from this, the information sheets need to be trialled with the students to test their accessibility (in terms of language and understandability) and their effectiveness in providing useful and relevant information that allows students to learn from taking the course.

Secondly, it may be useful to provide the students with brief background biographical information about Sir Arthur Conan Doyle and Dame Agatha Christie. Although an author does not always base their work on their own experiences, some knowledge of their can help to illuminate an author's attitude towards society and its values.

Finally, as a reference, a glossary of key language used within the dramas and the background information sheets will be produced and evaluated for effectiveness. Very often language is used in a certain genre in a particular way which is not always that of its more common usage. As
such, giving the students a means of quick reference is considered to be of value both in ensuring understanding of the course content but also in terms of a general broadening of the students' vocabulary.

II Conclusion

This second paper in a series of papers designed to illustrate how mystery dramas can be used to find out about British history and culture in an educational context, initially outlined the historical, social, economic and political information to be used in creating background information sheets for the students taking the course. Subsequently, the next steps to be taken were outlined. Of particular importance here was that the effectiveness of the background information sheets should be assessed. Furthermore, it was suggested that the students should be encouraged to find out about the lives and experiences of Sir Arthur Conan Doyle and Dame Agatha Christie, the two main authors of the stories used in the course. Finally, it was indicated the students should be given a glossary specific to the information of the course in order to help them understand the course content and to broaden their vocabulary.

Bibliography


MCDOWALL, D. *An Illustrated History of Britain* Harlow: Longman Group UK Limited 1989


PUGH, M. *Britain Since 1789: A Concise History* Basingstoke: Macmillan Press Ltd 1999


論文要旨

ミステリードラマを使用してイギリスの歴史文化の理解を図るコースデザイン（パートⅡ）

ウォルターズ、ニコラス

＜概要＞

本論文は、拙稿の「ミステリードラマを利用したイギリス歴史文化の理解を図るコースデザイン（パートⅠ）」に続いて、背景情報収集シート（background information sheet）を活用したコースデザインの内容について述べる。前論文で取り上げた時代枠は1870年代から1930年代辺りと広いので、今回はシャーロック・ホームズの冒険の時代に絞る。

背景情報収集シートはイギリスの社会・政治・交通・出来事の4つのカテゴリーから成る。1つは、社会階層、主な職業、社会における女性の地位を含む19世紀後半の社会状況について、2つ目は、後期ビクトリア時代のイギリス政治の変遷と経済の発達について、3つ目は、19世紀に発達した鉄道を中心とする交通（自転車の影響も含む）、最後にインド大反乱とボーア戦争を軸とする出来事である。ここで取り上げる内容は大変広いが、この4つの側面からイギリスを見ることによって学生がこの時代を理解する手立てを与えることができる。

本稿の第1章は、背景情報収集シートによるコースデザインの内容を説明し、第2章でこのコースデザインの次の論文に続く課題について述べる。

キーワード：
コースのデザイン、ビクトリア時代と文化、インド大反乱とボーア戦争、鉄道、社会、ビクトリア朝の政治