

Tupikova S.E.

British History and Heritage



УДК 373.01 (410) (075.8)
ББК 74.58 (4Вел)я 73
Т 75

Тупикова С.Е.

British History and Heritage. История и наследие Великобритании. Учебное пособие (на англ.яз.). Саратов: Амирит, 2019. - 104 с.

ISBN 978-5-00140-179-7

Учебное пособие *British History and Heritage* представляет собой краткое введение в лекционно-практический курс «Лингвострановедение и страноведение», знакомящее с основными историческими и культурными событиями страны изучаемого языка с древнейших времен до настоящих дней и включающее в себя тестовые задания и вопросы к семинарским занятиям.

Предлагая информацию об истории и культуре Великобритании, данное пособие способствует формированию социально-культурной компетенции и коммуникативной компетенции, культурной грамотности изучающих английский язык. Степень освоения теоретического материала проверяется контрольными вопросами и тестовыми заданиями.

Представленное пособие ориентировано на студентов факультетов иностранных языков вузов, отделений романо-германских языков университетов, обучающихся по дополнительной квалификации «Переводчик в сфере профессиональной коммуникации», а также представляет интерес для всех изучающих английский язык.

Рецензенты:

доктор филологических наук, профессор А.А. Зарайский,
кандидат филологических наук, профессор Р.З. Назарова

Рекомендует к печати:

Кафедра английского языка и методики его преподавания
Факультета иностранных языков и лингводидактики
ФГБОУ ВО «СГУ имени Н.Г. Чернышевского»

Пособие издано в авторской редакции

УДК 373.01 (410) (075.8)
ББК 74.58 (4Вел)я 73

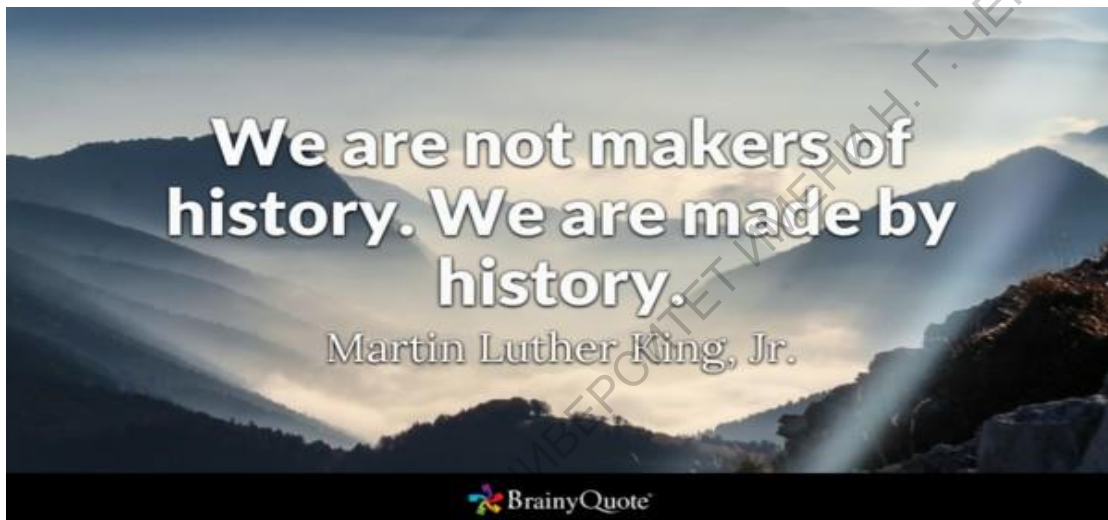
ISBN 978-5-00140-179-7

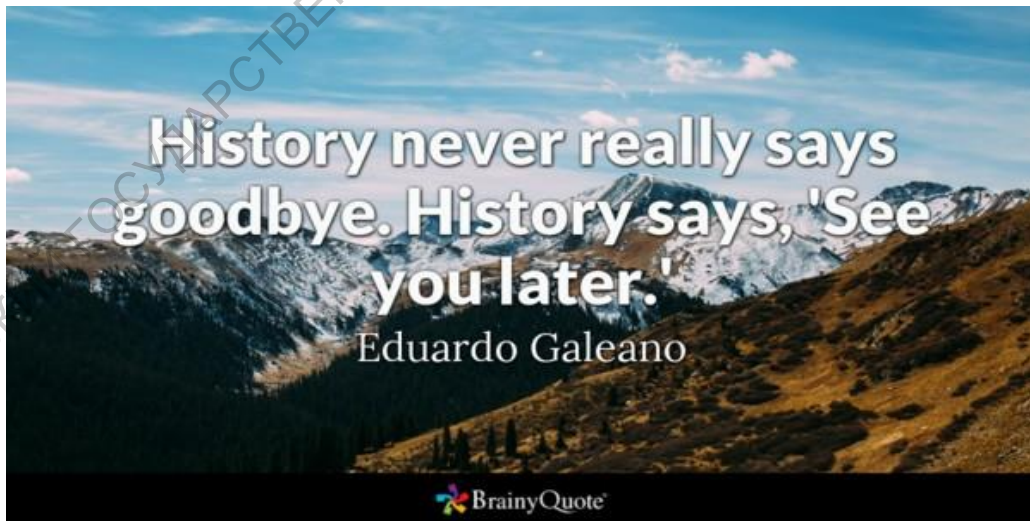
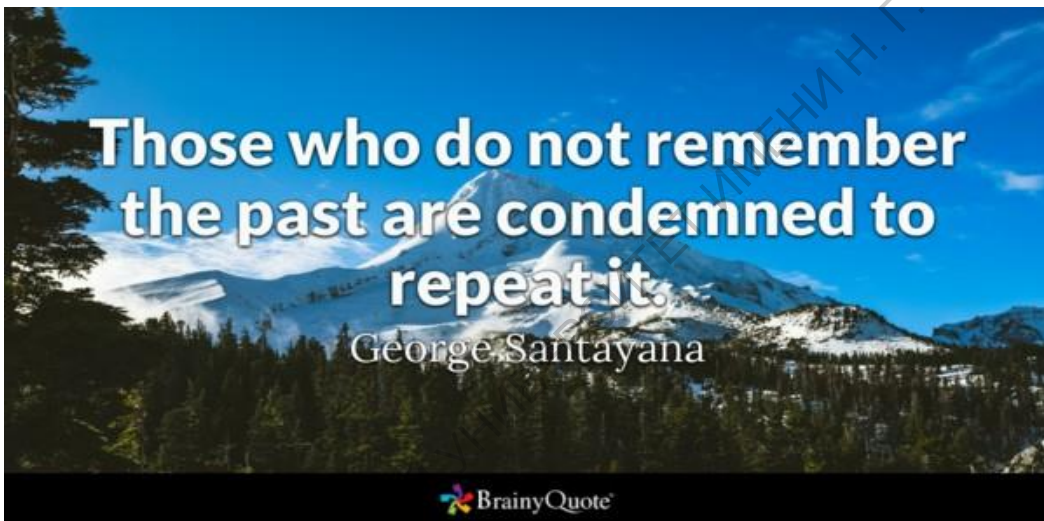
© Тупикова С.Е., 2019

THE CONCISE HISTORY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

WARMING UP ACTIVITIES

1. Before discussing British History and Heritage, read the following quotes of famous people and make a critical comment. Say to what extent do you agree or disagree with these ideas.
2. Translate the quotes into Russian and make a list of topical vocabulary you may need while discussing the history of the country.





3. Now study the following statement.

Some people think that studying history is a waste of time while others believe that it is essential to learn.

Discuss both sides and give your opinion. To what extent do you agree? But before complete the ideas for both sides of the argument.

History Is A Waste Of Time	History Is Important
Most people memorize dates, names, events and facts when they study history. This information is not useful in everyday life or for the future.	History helps us understand our culture and how our culture and country have evolved.
Each historical event has different perspectives. For this reason, it makes learning history a waste of time and effort-consuming but useless because events can also be interpreted in a different way which makes what we learn in history less valuable.	History gives identity and helps unify people. It gives people a sense of roots and belonging.

Write an argumentative essay after studying its layout.

ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAYS WRITING

* An argument follows when two groups disagree about something.

* People can have different opinions and can offer reasons in support of their arguments. However, sometimes it might be difficult to convince the other group because the argument could be based on a matter of preference, or religious faith.

* Therefore, arguments of preference, belief or faith are NOT the type of arguments. The kind of argument that can be argued logically is one based on an opinion that can be supported by evidence such as facts.

* An argumentative essay is also one that attempts/tries to change the reader's mind, to convince the reader to agree with the point of view of the writer.

* For that reason, the argumentative essay attempts to be highly persuasive and logical. For example, a thesis such as "My first experiences with Americans were shocking" has a central idea 'shocking' but it is *not* really strongly persuasive, and it is certainly not argumentative.

* When you write an argumentative essay, assume that the reader disagrees with you. But please remember that your reader *is no less* intelligent than you.

* So, write objectively, logically and respectfully. Try to understand your opponent's point of view. If you do not, you are not likely to convince the reader.

PLANNING/ORGANIZING THE ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY

When you are planning the argumentative essay, be aware that the essay should contain the following characteristics:

1. The argumentative essay should **introduce and explain the issue or case**. The reader needs to understand what the issue is going to be argued.
2. The essay should **offer reasons and support** for those reasons. In other words, the essay should prove its point.
3. The essay should **refute opposing arguments**. (refute: to prove wrong by argument or to show that something is invalid/untrue/illogical)
4. The essay should **summarize arguments and contra-arguments** and provide with neutral conclusion.

ORGANIZATION of an ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY

1. **Introduction.** You can first introduce the problem and give background information necessary for the argument and the thesis
2. **Reasons.** It is usually a good idea to spend one paragraph for each reason. Two or three reasons are typical.

3. **Refutation.** Depending on the points the writer wants to make, one or two paragraphs are typical.
4. **Conclusion.**

OUTLINE of an ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY

INTRODUCTION

Introduction: Background about the topic

Thesis statement:

BODY

I. Pro(for/in support of) argument: (*weakest* argument that supports your opinion)

II. Pro(for/in support of) argument: (*stronger* argument that supports your opinion)

III. Pro(for/in support of) argument: (*strongest* argument that supports your opinion)

IV. Con (against/negative): (Counter/oppose arguments and your refutation)

CONCLUSION

Summary, solution, prediction, or recommendation

USEFUL TIPS for ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAYS

To write well developed paragraphs:

- Avoid strong feelings (don't say: *nobody does this, or it is impossible to disagree with me*)
- Use generalizations (e.g. *people say/believe/consider*)
- Do not use strong generalization (e.g. *everybody believes that.....*)
- Do not use strong personal expressions (e.g. *I think*)
- Use linking words (e.g. *therefore, although, however* etc.)
- Use sequencing (e.g. *firstly, secondly, lastly*)
- Make reference to other sources (e.g. *The government claims that...*)
- Give examples – not personal thoughts (e.g. *products such as sprayer can destroy the environment*)
- Give up banal introductions. Write something more original (Don't write: *This topic has been important since ancient times. When? Too vague = unclear*)

TRANSITIONS

A. INTRODUCTION OF PARAGRAPH

This question/matter/subject can be looked at from several points of view.

This problem should be considered in relation to

State a strong, firm opinion e.g.:

There is no doubt that women are more intelligent than men ...

I believe that by the year 2000, every home will have a computer ...

Address the reader directly e.g.:

Have you ever considered ...?

Has it ever occurred to you that computers will one day organize your life?

Start with the problem that needs a solution e.g.:

More and more species are becoming extinct ...

As time passes, our lives will be controlled by computers.

B. BODY – PARAGRAPHS 1,2,3

To list point:

The first reason is

First of all,

The second reason is

To start with,

The third reason is

Secondly,

The third and most important reason is

Thirdly,

Finally,

Another reason is

On the other hand,

On the contrary,

The final reason is

One major advantage of,

One major disadvantage of,

A further advantage

One point of view in favor against

One point of view in favor of

In the first place

Last but not least

White it's true to say that

To add more points to the same topic:

What is more

Furthermore

Also

In addition to

Besides

Apart from this

Apart from that

To make contrasting point

On the other hand

However

In spite of

While

Nevertheless

Despite

Even though

Although

It can be argued that

One can argue that Yet But

C. CONCLUSION PARAGRAPH

To sum up, To conclude ...
 On balance, In conclusion
 It seems that In my view ...
 All in all,.... I believe ...
 All things considered, On the whole,
 Taking everything into account, Above all,
 As was previously stated

TRANSITION WORDS

To list points

To conclude the same topic	To add more points to point	To make contrasting	To conclude
one major advantage of one major disadvantage of of a further advantage one point of view in favour of in the first place first of all to start with	what is more furthermore however also in addition to besides apart from this/that secondly thirdly	on the other hand in spite of while nevertheless despite even though	to sum up all in all all things considered in conclusion on the whole above all as previously stated taking everything into account finally last but not least

2. Now read a model essay `Why Should We Study History` taken from <https://blog.papersmart.net/essay-on-why-should-we-study-history> and comment on it.

Why should we study history – such a question is raised by many students. According to them, history is the past, and therefore it is no longer relevant. However, I will argue that they make quite a mistake because there is probably no greater science than history. One of the great historical figures once said, there is no future for the country that does not learn the lessons of its past, because history tends to repeat itself. I completely agree with this statement.

History reveals a huge world events, instructive stories, historical personalities, and destinies. Study the traditions, customs, orders of different cultures is quite fascinating. After all, modern history is shaped by the events of the past, modern traditions are rooted in historical experience. It is noteworthy that there is a tradition that has changed very strongly over time, others have remained almost unchanged. Studying the history, a person receives an incredible experience about how all human manifestations were transformed in time. Take for example, a weapon. In the ancient world, it was rocks and clubs. Then the bow and arrows have appeared. Then there were knives and other bladed weapons. Then fire, nuclear, and so on. What else science but history could know this?

In my opinion, the main dislike of many students in the subject explains the narrowness of perception of history only in the scope of school discipline. If they showed curiosity and discover the history of his native land or historical personalities: generals, politicians, great women, amazing artists, they would have had a chance to look at this discipline from a different angle. They would certainly have fallen in love with history.

The word “history” comes from the Greek language, in which it meant “a story about the past.” But now that word means both a science that studies the past, and the very sequence of past events.

History is a memory of any culture, every people, of all mankind. As the story of each individual life is embodied in the features of his personality (in his knowledge, skills, personality traits), and the history of humanity is embodied in all the achievements of modernity.

To understand the current state of humanity, its social institutions, and various areas of culture, we need to know its history. People who have forgotten their history lose their *raison d'être* and are dissolved among other nations. Each person must not only remember the events of his own life, but also know the history of his people, the cultural history, the history of mankind. Only then will he be able to completely understand his place in the chain of generations and deeply understand the meaning of his own existence.

Task 1. Say to what extent you agree with the author of the essay. Comment on the given above arguments.

Task 2. Make a list of linking words.

DISCUSSING A NEWSPAPER ITEM

1.Headlining.

The article is headlined...

The headline of the article I have read is...

The headline of the article runs...

The headline of the article appeals for (calls for, urgent action, demands, urges)...

2.Type of Material

An editorial,

a news story;

a news review,

a review of the world press,

a report on,

a feature.

3.Main Thematic Line

The article

deals with,

touches on,

looks at,

comments on,

provides comment on,

examines smth,

focuses on,

centers around,

highlights smth,

gives much prominence to,

stresses smth,

emphasizes smth,

points out,

gives close attention to,

touching on the aims of,

discussing the situation in,

remarking on,

the article says,

concludes,

gives on to say,

in conclusion.

4. Topicality

A pressing (urgent, vital, key) problem, a topical (burning) issue;

the international situation is grave, serious, explosive, critical, dramatic, disturbing.
a major international trouble spot, the hot spots of the globe;
to be very much with news,
to be making the headlines,
to make the news,
to gain the world-wide attention,
to excite public attention,
to receive prominence in the world mass media,
to earn instant media attention,
to be on everyone's mind.

5. Your Opinion of the Article

I find the articletopical,
of topical interest,
importance,
interesting,
of fresh interest
information (informative).

3. *Read the article taken from <http://www.theshorterword.com/origins-bc-ad> and write analysis of it.*

ORIGINS OF THE TERMS BC AND AD

First, let's look at AD

The credit for the terms BC and AD for the Christian calendar belong to the Scythian monk Dionysius Exiguus who lived in the middle of the 6th century. However, this is only halfway accurate.

The Case of the Evil "D"

First of all, Dionysius' scholarly concerns were all wrapped around a desire to establish a correct date for Easter. The question of when exactly the Resurrection should be commemorated was one of the chief concerns of theologians at this time (the Middle Ages). But in all of his exploring of dates and calendars, he became increasingly dissatisfied with the common designation for years as being "AD" meaning "after Diocletian." Diocletian was a Roman emperor who had instigated a major persecution of Christians during his rule. Dionysius thought it was wrong that Christians should use a calendar honoring a man who had tried to eradicate Christianity. So Dionysius decided to leave the "AD" abbreviation but have them signify the years following Christ's birth instead by assigning them new meaning. Quick thinking, right?

He designated AD to stand for the Latin phrase “Anno Domini,” meaning “in the year of the Lord,” So the AD remained, but it’s meaning was now centered on Christ. Then he chose AC, “Ante Christum,” Latin for “before Christ,” for the years preceding Christ. Obviously, that designation did not stick. But note how the two designations were both so nicely derived from Latin. I mean they should both be Latin, or both NOT be Latin, I would think. But history is rarely, or real life, is rarely so neat.

Dating the Year of Christ’s Birth

Meanwhile, Dionysius also began trying to calculate the date for the birth of Christ. He placed this date on the eighth day before the Calends of January in the year 753 “ab urbe condita,” that is, “after the founding of Rome.” Eight days later became the first day of the year, January 1 of the year AD 1. So, Dionysius set Jesus’ birth just *before* AD 1. That means Jesus was born in the year “0,” right? Wrong. Dionysius appointed that year to be 1 BC (really AC to him—remember?).

Thus, his calendar (and ours today) leaped from 1 BC to 1 AD. *There is no year zero.* This makes for some interesting math when you calculate time periods that span across the BC-AD bridge, and it usually involves adding or subtracting one year to make up for the missing 0 (a definite annoyance to history teachers and students alike). But Dionysius really had no choice because zero was not yet invented in Europe yet. India had it, and also the Mayans in America, but it was almost another 1000 years before Europeans devised its use in math.

To summarize what we have so far: Dionysius gave us the term AD for Anno Domini, and he gave us the designation for the year 1 on our calendar based on his calculations for Jesus’ birth.

So what about BC?

The term BC comes from Saint Bede, an English monk, who in 731 AD used it in some of his writings. Bede simply went with the English language designation of “Before Christ.” Because of Bede’s high ranking as a scholar (he is known as the Father of English History), his designation stuck.

Thus, we ended up with AD standing for a Latin phrase and BC standing for one in English. Just to confuse students, I suppose.

New Modern Terms

The majority of scholars today no longer use the terms BC or AD, instead the terms BCE and CE have taken over from the traditional terms. BCE stands for “Before the Common Era,” and, of course, CE is simply “Common Era.” Dionysius and Bede would be disappointed that modern secular historians have rejected the tradition of dating the

calendar around the coming of the Christ. But still, if you ask any historian why the dates shift from BCE to CE *at that particular point in history*, he or she would have to admit that the only answer is that it is the traditional date for the birth of Jesus Christ, the founder of Christianity. So, they can call it by the new initials, but like it or not, His birth is still the pivot upon which our history turns. They can't change that.

And One Last Note: Although Dionysius did a scholarly job for his day and age, he did get things a little bit wrong. Herod the Great, who greeted the wise men as they came through Jerusalem and who slaughtered the babies in Bethlehem, died in April of 4 BC. So most scholars agree that Jesus must have been born before that year.

4. *Look at the pictures and say if History is a boring subject. And should we study history of a country through watching historical or feature films or playing computer games based on real historic events with real historical figures as main characters? Will it make the process of study history more challenging, entertaining and captivating?*



TIMELINE OF BRITISH HISTORY

- Before 6500 BC Britain was linked by land to Europe. Many different peoples lived in Britain as hunters
- By 4000 the land was being farmed and we have evidence of settlements.
- The first known settlers of Britain were the Celts, who came to the Island from Northern Europe in the 5th century BC (500 BC).
- In 52 B.C. Julius Caesar invaded the Island for a short time but in 55 BC - 400 AD a long Roman occupation began.
- From 400 AD Britain was invaded by Anglo-Saxons and Jutes who forced the Celts to retreat west ward. The languages of these invaders form the basis of modern English.
- From 800 AD raids by Vikings from Denmark and Norway were followed in 875 by an invasion of Danes who by 877 controlled the eastern half of England.
- 1066 The Norman Duke William the Conqueror invaded England and defeated the English king Harold.
- For the next few centuries England was ruled by Normans, and French became the main language, especially of the court.
- 1088 the Domesday Book was completed (the first written record of England).
- The English started their attempt at conquering Ireland as early as the 12th century.
- 1215 King John signed the Magna Carta (the document restricting king`s power).
- 1283 Wales was conquered by Edward I of England
- 1314 the Scots defeated an invading English army (the Battle of Bannockburn).
- 1534 King Henry VIII became the Head of the Church in England.
- 1588 the Spanish Armada which was sent to invade Britain was defeated.
- 1603 King James VI of Scotland became King James I of England, Scotland and Wales.
- 1605 James I was killed by Catholics when he was in Parliament (Bonfire Night).
- 1642 The English Civil War began.
- 1653-1658 Cromwell dismissed Parliament and ruled as Lord Protector of England, Scotland and Ireland 1660 the Restoration of the monarchy took place with the return of Charles II as king 1689 the Catholic James II was removed from the throne and the Protestant William of Orange and his wife Mary, James`s daughter, were crowned instead 1707 the Act of Union joined England, Wales and Scotland as one kingdom called Great Britain.
- 1783 with the end of the American War of Independence Britain lost its American colonies

- 1800 the second Act of Union added Ireland to Great Britain to form the United Kingdom
- 18th-19th century Industrial Revolution
- 1914-1918 World War I
- 1921 Ireland was divided into the Irish Free State and the protestant counties in the north
- 1926 the General Strike
- 1939-1945 World War II
- 1973 Britain became a member of the European Economic Community
- 1998 the first attempt to set up a Northern Ireland Assembly 1999 the Welsh Assembly and the Scottish Parliament were set up

Task 1. Match the headlines 1–8 with the texts A–G. Use one letter only once. There is extra headline you do not need. Fill in the chart below.

1. The House of Commons
2. Parliamentary Procedure
3. The House of Lords
4. Westminster
5. The System of Government
6. Parliamentary Committees
7. Whitehall
8. The Crown

A. Her Majesty's Government, in spite of its name, derives its authority and power from its party representation in Parliament. Parliament is housed in the Palace of Westminster, once a home of the monarchy. Like the monarchy, Parliament is an ancient institution, dating from the middle of the thirteenth century. Parliament is the seat of British democracy, but it is perhaps valuable to remember that while the House of Lords was created in order to provide a council of the nobility for the king, the Commons were summoned originally in order to provide the king with money.

B. The reigning monarch is not only head of state but symbol of the unity of the nation. The monarchy is Britain's oldest secular institution, its continuity for over a thousand years broken only once by a republic that lasted a mere eleven years (1649-60). The monarchy is hereditary, the succession passing automatically to the oldest male child or in the absence of males to the oldest female offspring of the monarch. In law the monarch is head of the executive and of the judiciary, head of the Church of England, and commander-in-chief of the armed forces.

C. The dynamic power of Parliament lies in its lower chamber. Of its 650 members, 523 represent constituencies in England, 38 in Wales, 72 in Scotland and 17 in Northern Ireland. There are only seats in the Commons debating chamber for 370 members, but except on matters of great interest, it is unusual for all members to be present at any one time. Many MPs find themselves in other rooms of the Commons, participating in a variety of committees and meetings necessary for an effective parliamentary process.

D. Britain is a democracy, yet its people are not, as one might expect in a democracy, constitutionally in control of the state. The constitutional situation is an apparently contradictory one. As a result of a historical process the people of Britain are subjects of the Crown, accepting the Queen as the head of the state. Yet even the Queen is not sovereign in any substantial sense since she receives her authority from Parliament, and is subject to its direction in almost all matters. This curious situation came about as a result of a long struggle for power between the Crown and Parliament during the sixteenth and the seventeenth centuries.

E. Her Majesty's Government governs in the name of the Queen, and its hub, Downing Street, lies in Whitehall, a short walk from Parliament. Following a general election, the Queen invites the leader of the majority party represented in the Commons, to form a government on her behalf. Government ministers are invariably members of the House of Commons, but infrequently members of the House of Lords are appointed. All government members continue to represent "constituencies" which elected them.

F. Each parliamentary session begins with the "State Opening of Parliament", a ceremonial occasion in which the Queen proceeds from Buckingham Palace to the Palace of Westminster where she delivers the Queen's Speech from her throne in the House of Lords. Her speech is drafted by her government, and describes what the government intends to implement during the forthcoming session. Leading members of the Commons may hear the speech from the far end of the chamber, but are not allowed to enter the House of Lords.

G. The upper chamber of Parliament is not democratic in any sense at all. It consists of four categories of peer. The majority are hereditary peers, a total of almost 800, but of whom only about half take an active interest in the affairs of the state. A smaller number, between 350 and 400, are "life" peers – an idea introduced in 1958 to elevate to the peerage certain people who rendered political or public service to the nation. The purpose was not only to honor but also to enhance the quality of business done in the Lords.

Text	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Headline							

TOPIC 1. GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT THE ISLAND

Britain which is formally known as the UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is the political unity of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. The first known settlers of Britain were the Celts, who came to the Island from Northern Europe in the 5th or 6th century B.C. In 52 B.C. Julius Caesar invaded the Island for a short time but in the first century A.D. a long Roman occupation began which lasted till the early 5th century. After the withdrawal of the Roman Army, Britain was invaded by Anglo-Saxons and Juts who forced the Celts to retreat westward.

The setting up of the UK as a state is a result of continuous wars of aggression. The oldest colony of Britain is Ireland and its conquest started a long time ago. Though Northern Ireland has officially become part of the UK only in the 20th century, the English started their attempt at conquering it as early as the 12th century. The Irish stubbornly resisted the English, fiercely defending their territory and fought to protect their independence. Their resistance was broken by the English and they were forced to accept the English rule.

In 1922 26 Irish countries succeeded to withdraw from the UK as the Irish free state and since then the name of Northern Ireland comprising 6 countries was added to the title of the UK.

In the same way as Ireland both Wales and Scotland failed to capitulate voluntary to the English rule and had to be attached in force. The union of England with Wales dates from 1301 when the son of King Edward I was created Prince of Wales.

The name Great Britain started to be used at the beginning of the 17th century after James VI of Scotland had succeeded to the English throne (in 1707 it was formally adopted after the union of the parliaments of England and Scotland).

The UK is a monarchy and officially the supreme legislative authority in the UK is the queen and the two houses of parliament: the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

In the 19th century Britain had reached its height as a world colonial power, but World Wars I and II have brought to an end the period of Britain's primacy and Great Britain emerged from WW II weakened. Almost all the territories that Great Britain had held overseas were lost. The year following WW II saw the end of the British Colonial Empire.

Now the UK together with most of its formal colonies is a member of the Common Wealth, the Queen being the head of the Commonwealth.

THE ROYAL NAME

The royal family has little use for last names - after all, everyone knows who they are. Princess Diana did not take back her maiden name, Spencer, after her divorce; she continued to be known simply as "Diana." The queen signs official documents "Elizabeth R." The R stands for Regina, which means "queen." (Regina is not one of her given names; she was baptized Elizabeth Alexandra Mary.)

But the royal family does have a last name, and they do use it from time to time. This wasn't always the case. Queen Victoria's husband, Prince Albert, was a member of the House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, so her descendants were part of that dynasty. This, however, was not the family's last name. They didn't have one, because they didn't need one, so they didn't worry about it. Experts later worried about it for them and decided their name was probably "Witten" (or maybe even Wipper).

The royal family's official name, or lack thereof, became a problem during World War I, when people began to mutter that Saxe-Coburg-Gotha sounded far too German. King George V and his family needed a new, English-sounding name. After considering every possible name, from Plantagenet to Tudor-Stuart to simply England, the king and his advisors chose the name Windsor.

To this day, the British royal family is known as the House of Windsor. When Princess Elizabeth (the current queen) served as a subaltern in the Auxiliary Territorial Service during World War II, she was called "Elizabeth Windsor." Elizabeth married Prince Philip of Greece, whose family name was Mountbatten, and eventually she decreed that most of her descendants would be called Mountbatten-Windsor. Princess Anne used this name in 1973 when she married Captain Mark Phillips.

However, according to statements made by the queen, it appears that Windsor is still the official family name for any British royal who is styled "Royal Highness." The queen's youngest son, Prince Edward, the Earl of Wessex, has used the name Edward Windsor professionally. His wife calls herself Sophie Wessex.

Elizabeth II, Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms and Territories and Head of the Commonwealth, as her proper title puts it, celebrated the 40th anniversary of her accession in 1992. Her ancestry dates back to William I, the Norman who seized the throne of England in 1066.

Born on Apr.21, 1926, Elizabeth became heir to the throne when her father became king as George VI upon the abdication of his brother Edward VIII in December 1936. On Nov.20, 1947, she married Philip Mountbatten, duke of Edinburgh, a distant cousin whose mother was a great-granddaughter of Queen Victoria. When George died on Feb. 6, 1952, Elizabeth came to the throne at the age of 25.

The public duties of the British monarch were then entirely ceremonial, but Queen Elizabeth took her responsibilities seriously, inspecting state papers daily and consulting with prime ministers. She was educated in the role of constitutional monarch by her father and her grandmother Queen Mary, wife of George V. She was also trained by her

mother, Queen Elizabeth, the Queen Mother. Harold Macmillan, prime minister from 1957 to 1963, wrote of her: "She loves her duty, and means to be a Queen and not a puppet." Her constitutional role obliges her to keep opinions to herself. This makes her a somewhat colorless public personality, but those who know her speak of her shrewdness and sense of humor.

Queen Elizabeth is the wealthiest woman in Britain, having inherited the extensive royal family estates. Under pressure from public opinion, she volunteered in 1992 for the first time to pay income tax. She has four children: Charles, Prince of Wales (b. 1948), the heir to the throne, who married Lady Diana Spencer in 1981 and separated from her in 1992; Anne, the Princess Royal (b. 1950), who divorced her husband of 18 years, Capt. Mark Phillips, in 1992 and married Timothy Laurence that year; Andrew, Duke of York (b. 1960), who married Sarah Ferguson in 1986 and was divorced from her in 1996; and Prince Edward (b. 1964). Prince William (b. 1982), Charles and Diana's older son, is second in line to the throne.

Task 2 . Read the text and fill in spaces A–F with the parts of the sentences 1–7. One part is extra. Fill in the chart.

The Survival of the Welsh Language

Wales is a small country of just over 3 million people, on the north west seaboard of Europe. Despite many historical incursions of other peoples, particularly the English, it has preserved its ancient Celtic language, A _____ . Welsh is habitually spoken by about 10% of the people, half understood by a further 10%, and not spoken at all by the majority in this 'bilingual' society.

Up to the First World War most people were Welsh speaking, especially in the mountains of North Wales. The English-speaking areas were along the more fertile coastal plains. On the whole there was an easy tolerance of the two languages, B _____ .

By 1919 there was a considerable drop in Welsh speakers. This was due to the large flows of capital investment from England into the South Wales coalfield, C _____ .

Now, D _____ , commerce and everyday business were carried out in English.

In the rural mountain areas 80% to 85% of the population were Welsh speakers, E _____ . However, in the coalfield country of Glamorgan 70% spoke English only, and in its neighbour border county the figure was over 90%.

By 1931 the number of people able to speak Welsh in the whole of Wales had fallen to 37% of the population, F _____ . It continued to drop and reached its lowest – 18.6% - in the 1990s. But by the start of the 21st century, numbers had begun to increase again and reached 21.7% in 2004!

1. as well as education and the law
2. the only one of a number of allied languages that remain
3. with radio and the English press further speeding the decline
4. many being able to speak Welsh only
5. where Welsh was studied as language and literature in an academic manner
6. apart from the fact that Welsh was not permitted to be used at all in the schools
7. bringing a flood of immigrant labour from all over Britain

Space	A	B	C	D	E	F
Part of the sentence						

THE HISTORY OF THE UNION JACK

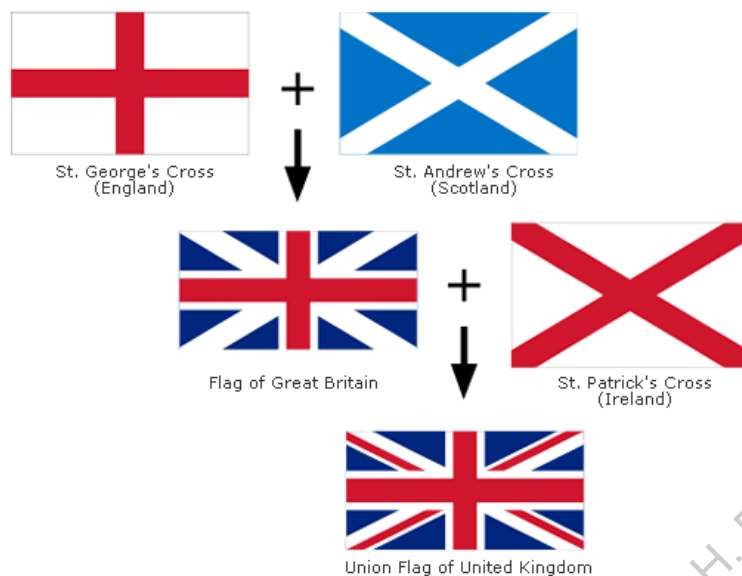
The Union Flag, or Union Jack, is the national flag of the United Kingdom.

It is so called because it combines the crosses of the three countries united under one Sovereign - the kingdoms of England and Wales, of Scotland and of Ireland (although since 1921 only Northern Ireland has been part of the United Kingdom).

The Union Jack is a fine expression of unity as well as diversity. The British flag incorporates the national symbols of three distinct countries, England, Scotland and Northern Ireland. In fact its name "Union Jack" emphasizes the very nature of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland as a union of nations. The flag is also known by another name, this too, emphasizing the idea of union: the "Union flag", perhaps a less common term but a little more precise.

The countries comprising the British Isles are not inward-looking or isolated states with an insular mentality; together they constitute a powerful union that has spanned centuries. Recent devolution that gave Scotland its own Parliament and Wales its own Assembly has also emphasized the importance of individual national identities within the union without affecting the essential unity of Great Britain.

On the contrary, it has strengthened it. Recognition of, and respect for national identities are an essential ingredients for effective union. The Union Jack symbolizes all this: respect for individuality within a closely knit community.

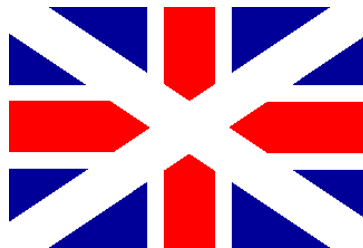


The first step taken in the creation of the flag of Great Britain was on 12th April 1606. When King James VI of Scotland became king of England (King James I) it was decided that the union of the two realms under one king should be represented symbolically by a new flag. Originally It consisted in the red cross of England superimposed on the white cross of Scotland on the blue background of the Scottish flag.

Thus we have the first flag of the union called, in fact, the "Union Flag".

What was meant to be a symbol of unity actually became a symbol of international controversy. The English resented the fact that the white background of their cross had disappeared and that the new flag had the blue Scottish background. On the other hand the Scottish resented the fact that the English red cross was superimposed on the Scottish white cross!! The old adage says you cannot please everyone but this first version of the Union Flag seemed to please no-one!

Apparently there was an unofficial "Scottish version" that attempted to rectify the sense of injustice that the Scottish felt at this innovatory flag. A distinct reference was made to this version when the King visited Dumfries in 1618. Here is what it looked like:



However, the flag was usually restricted to use at sea until the two kingdoms of Scotland and England were united in 1707. It was most probably from this use at sea that it got the name "Jack" ("Union *Jack*"). It was usually flown at the bow end of the ship, from the jack staff.

An attempt was made to modify the flag under Oliver Cromwell. A harp was placed in the centre, representing Ireland. However, the original design was restored along with the restoration of the monarchy in 1660.

The flag continued to be used in its original form until Jan. 1, 1801. At that time, with the union of Ireland and Great Britain, it became necessary to represent Ireland in the Union Flag and so the cross of St. Patrick was included thus creating the flag as we now have it. When the southern part of Ireland gained its independence in 1921 and became the Irish Free State no alteration was made to the Union Jack.

The name "Union Jack" became official when it was approved in Parliament in 1908. It was stated that "the Union Jack should be regarded as the National flag".

There is no Flag Act in UK law and the Union Flag is the national flag by long established custom and practice, rather than by statute.

No mention has been made of the Welsh flag. The Welsh dragon was not incorporated into the Union Flag because Wales had already been united to England when the first version of the Union Flag was designed in 1606.

The Union Flag was originally a Royal flag. When the present design was made official in 1801, it was ordered to be flown on all the King's forts and castles, but not elsewhere.

It is today flown above Buckingham Palace, Windsor Castle and Sandringham when The Queen is not in residence.

The Royal Arms of Scotland (Lion Rampant) is flown at the Palace of Holyroodhouse and Balmoral when The Queen is not in residence.

On news of a Royal death, the Union Flag (or the Royal Arms of Scotland (Lion Rampant) where appropriate) is flown at half-mast.

The Royal Standard is never flown at half-mast, as the Sovereign never dies (the new monarch immediately succeeds his or her predecessor).

The flying of the Union Flag on public buildings is decided by the Department for Culture, Media and Sport at The Queen's command.

The Union Flag is flown on Government buildings on days marking the birthdays of members of the Royal Family, Commonwealth Day, Coronation Day, The Queen's official birthday, Remembrance Day and on the days of the State Opening and prorogation of Parliament.

The term 'Union Jack' possibly dates from Queen Anne's time (r. 1702-14), but its origin is uncertain.

It may come from the 'jack-et' of the English or Scottish soldiers, or from the name of James I who originated the first union in 1603.

Another alternative is that the name may be derived from a proclamation by Charles II that the Union Flag should be flown only by ships of the Royal Navy as a jack, a small flag at the bowsprit; the term 'jack' once meant small.

The Union Flag should be flown with the border diagonal band of white uppermost in the hoist (near the pole) and the narrower diagonal band of white uppermost in the fly (further from the pole).

The flag consists of three heraldic crosses

The cross of St George, patron saint of England since the 1270's, is a red cross on a white ground. After James I succeeded to the throne, it was combined with the cross of St. Andrew in 1606.

The cross saltier (косой крест) of St Andrew, patron saint of Scotland, is a diagonal white cross on a blue ground.

The cross saltier of St Patrick, patron saint of Ireland, is a diagonal red cross on a white ground.

This was combined with the previous Union Flag of St George and St Andrew, after the Act of Union of Ireland with England (and Wales) and Scotland on 1 January 1801, to create the Union Flag that has been flown ever since.

Geography of the country

The British Isles lie off the North-West coast of Europe. Their total area is about 244 000 square km. The two largest islands are Great Britain and Ireland. Great Britain which forms the greatest part of the British Isles, comprises England, Wales and Scotland. Ireland comprises Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic.

Great Britain is bordered by the Atlantic Ocean on the North-West, North and South-West. It is separated from Europe by the North Sea, the Strait of Dover and the English Channel (La-Mansch).

The North Sea and the English Channel are often called the Narrow Seas: they are not deep, but frequently are rough and difficult to navigate during storms which make crossing from England to France sometimes far from pleasant.

On the West, Great Britain is separated from Island by the Irish Sea and the North Channel. The seas around Britain are shallow and provide (exceptionally) good fishing grounds.

The British Isles stand on a raised part of the sea bed, usually called the continental shelf, which thousands of years ago used to be dry land and which constituted part of Europe.

England has a total area of about 50 000 square miles. It is divided into counties, of which there are 39 geographical ones and 46 administrative ones.

Wales has a total area of about 8 000 square miles and is divided into 13 counties.

Scotland together with its 186 inhabited islands has a total area of 30 000 square miles. It has 33 counties.

Northern Ireland consists of 6 counties and has a total area of 5 000 square miles.

The total land area of the United Kingdom is 93 000 square miles.

The most northern point of the United Kingdom is in latitude 60° and the southern point of Britain is in latitude 50°. The prime meridian of zero degrees passes through the old Observatory of Greenwich, London.

Officially there are 11 regions in the United Kingdom. But Britain is usually divided into 2 major regions: Highland and Lowland Britain. The hilly parts are in the North and the West and they lie towards the Ocean.

The agricultural plain of England lies toward the Channel and the continent of Europe. Highland Britain comprises all the mountain parts which lie above 1 000 feet. The surface of England and Ireland is flat, but Scotland and Wales are mountainous. Most of the mountains are in the western part. The highest mountain top in the UK is Ben Nevis in Scotland (4 406 feet³).

The soil in many parts of Highland Britain is poor with large stretches of marshes. It is worth while remembering that there is a great variety of land forms in each of these two parts. Lowland Britain is a rich plain with chalk and limestone (известняк) hills. The world famous white cliffs of Dover (Albion) are also formed of chalk.

In Northern Ireland the large central plain with foggy areas is surrounded by mountains and hills.

Climate

Lying in the middle latitudes Great Britain has a mild and temperate climate. In the classification of climates, Britain falls generally into the cool, temperate, humid type.

The western winds blowing into Britain from the Atlantic carry the warmth and moisture into Britain.

The most characteristic feature of Britain weather is its variability. The weather is as changeable as it could be in such a small region. The extremes are hardly ever severe.

The temperature really raises above 32 Centigrade's or falls below zero 0. Still the wind may bring winter cold in spring, or summer days in October. The driest period is from March to June and the wettest months are from October to January. Fields can be worked all the year round.

So the climate of Great Britain is temperate and mild. It is never too hot in summer or too cold in winter. It often rains in England. Rain falls in summer; rain falls in winter, in spring and autumn too. It is foggy and cold in autumn and winter. But it is often cold in summer too.

Snow falls only in the North and West of the country. It doesn't snow in the South. When it does, it is only once or twice a year, and snow melts almost immediately.

Fauna

The Fauna of the British Isles is similar to that of Europe though there are fewer species. Some of the mammal such as the wolf, the bear, the rain-deer have become extinct. Other species of deer are found in wooded areas and in some parks. In addition there are foxes, badgers (барсук) and otters (выдра). On various parts of the coast there are seals.

There are many resident species of birds and others are regular visitors to Britain - gulls and other sea-birds usually nest near the coast. The number of ducks, geese and other water fauna has diminished during recent years owing to the drainage of marsh lands. There are 3 species of snakes of which only one is the enormous.

Industry

The largest cities of GB are London, Birmingham, Glasgow, Liverpool, Manchester, Sheffield, Edinburgh, Bristol (sister-town of Saratov).

London is the capital and largest city (pop., 2008: 14,172,036) of the United Kingdom, situated in southeastern England on the River Thames.

It is the political, industrial, cultural, and financial centre of the country. Formally known as the metropolitan county of Greater London (established 1965), it has an area of 659 sq mi (1,706 sq km) and consists of two regions: Inner London comprises 13 of London's 33 boroughs (including the original City of London), and Outer London encompasses the other 20 boroughs.

Greater London is an administrative entity, with an elected mayor and assembly. Founded by the Romans as Londinium in the 1st century AD, it passed to the Saxons in the 6th century. City fortifications were destroyed by the Danes, who invaded England in 865, but were later rebuilt. William I (the Conqueror) established the central stronghold of the fortress known as the Tower of London. Norman kings selected Westminster as their seat of government, and Edward the Confessor built the church known as Westminster Abbey. The largest city in Europe north of the Alps by 1085, it was struck by the Black Death in 1348–49.

Trade grew significantly in the mid-16th century, fueled by the establishment of Britain's overseas empire. In 1664–65 the plague killed about 70,000 Londoners, and in 1666 the Great Fire of London consumed five-sixths of the City of London; it was afterward rebuilt (by Christopher Wren).

London was the centre of world trade from the late 18th century to 1914. It opened the world's first electric underground railway in 1890. Severely damaged by German bombs in the Battle of Britain during World War II, it was again rebuilt and grew rapidly in the postwar period.

The chief rivers of Great Britain are the Severn, the Thames, the Trent, the Clyde, the Tay, the Tyne, the Wye, the Great Ouse, the Aire and others. The Severn - Britain's longest river, is 290 km long from its source to tidal waters. It rises in east-central

Wales and crosses the English border near Shrewsbury, continuing south to the Bristol Channel and the Atlantic Ocean.

The Thames is principal river of England. It rises in the Cotswolds in Gloucestershire and winds 338 km eastward across southern central England into a great estuary, through which it empties into the North Sea. It is tidal for about 104 km. One of the world's most important commercial waterways, it is navigable by large vessels to London.

The most important ports are London, Liverpool, Belfast, Glasgow, Cardiff, Southampton (it is Britain's largest port for ocean going liners) and Dover (Famous for the white chalk cliffs rising above it, Dover is a leading passenger port).

Mineral Resources

Exploration for natural gases and oil has been going on in Britain since the early 1960s. And mainly it was explored in the North Sea. The first important finding of oil in the British section, close to the British shore, was made in 1917.

The leading mineral resource of Britain is coal and coal-mining (in Wales especially). Britain's major industries include iron and steel, engineering including motor-vehicles and air-craft, textiles and chemicals.

As a result of this, Britain's main exports are manufactured goods such as machinery, vehicles, aircraft, electrical apparatus, and mental manufactures.

One of the most important British industries is the North Sea oil and gas which now can also be considered as a major mineral resource having a fundamental effect on the economy of Great Britain. Britain is a highly industrialized country. And today many people work in manufacturing, mining and building, for everyone engaged in agriculture.

Agriculture

The chief agricultural products are wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, sugar beet, milk, mutton, beef, lamb.

A comparatively high level of agricultural productivity enables Britain to provide about half of the food it needs from its own soil. The other half is imported. Britain usually imports meat, butter, wheat, tobacco, fruit, tea and wool.

Britain has a long tradition of sheep-production and has more than thirty breeds and crosses. Pig-production is to be found in most parts of Britain but it is of particular importance in the East and South of England and in Northern Ireland. The British poultry industry is growing rapidly and is becoming of greater importance. The horticultural industry of Britain produced a wide variety of fruit, vegetables and flower crops.

Flowers are grown in many parts of Britain but particularly in the Isles of Scilly, Cornwall (Cornwall including the Isles of Scilly is located on a peninsula jutting into the Atlantic Ocean and terminating in Land's End, it is the most remote of English counties;) and the East of Scotland. In the Isles of Scilly more than 50% of cultivated land is devoted to bulbs, which flower there from November to May – all the winter through.

Scotland is known for the largest concentration of raspberry plantations in the world. Strawberries are the most widely grown soft fruit in Britain especially in Kent and East Anglia. The main crop areas of black currants are also widely grown throughout Britain. Privately owned woods comprise nearly 60% of the total forest area that is about two million hectares.

The Lake District

Mountainous region, administrative county of Cumbria, northwestern England. Roughly coextensive with Lake District National Park, the country's largest, it occupies an area of 866 sq mi (2,243 sq km). It contains numerous lakes, including Windermere (England's largest), Grasmere, and Coniston Water, as well as England's highest mountains, the loftiest being Scafell Pike, which rises to 3,210 ft (978 m). The district was home to several English poets, including William Wordsworth, Robert Southey, and Samuel Taylor Coleridge, who celebrated its landscape. It became a national park in 1951.

On the North-West side of the Pennines marked off the upper valleys of the rivers Eden and Lune, lies the Lake District, containing the beautiful lakes which give it its name. It is variously called the Lake country, Lakeland and the Lakes.

Much of the land is high and thinly peopled. These high parts are used as rough pasture for sheep. Most of the farm-land is under low ground and as their conditions are too wet for cropping, it is chiefly under grass. There are few mineral resources and ores proved too poor or too limited to be worth mining.

The lakes which occupy many of its valleys show a wonderful variety of character. The largest lakes are Windermere, Coniston Water, Derwent Water and Ullswater (Ullswater is the second largest lake in the English Lake District, being approx. nine miles (14.5 km) long and 0.75 miles (1,200 m) wide).

There are numerous, swift and clear streams and small waterfalls. And though the altitude is not great, the individual masses tower over the surrounding areas. The whole region is well-known for its great natural beauty.

The mountains district exposed to the winds from the West records an unusually heavy rain-falls. In winter there can be heavy falls of snow. Trees are limited to the lower levels and the open land is only useful for sheep farming which is the main stay of the economy of this region.

Both the soil and the climate set close physical limits to agriculture. Population is sparse and scattered and the largest towns are the product of tourism which thrives in this area of great beauty. Because of its high rain falls the region has become a source of fresh water for the industrial area of South-East Lancashire.

Farming areas surround the High Land. These localities are known for the production of milk and for livestock.

The largest town of the Lake District is Carlisle, which is on the river Eden. It grew out of a Roman Fort located on the North bank of the Eden. *Carlisle* - administrative district (pop., 2001: 100,734), and seat of the administrative county of Cumbria, northwestern England. It was founded as Luguwallium by the Romans on the River Eden opposite a fortified camp on the line of Hadrian's Wall. Destroyed by Norse invaders c. 875, it was restored when claimed from the Scots by William II in 1092. Mary, Queen of Scots, was imprisoned there in 1568. It was besieged during the English Civil Wars, and its Royalist defenders eventually surrendered to Parliamentary forces in 1645. Its cotton textile industry grew in the 18th–19th centuries, and it has remained the centre of northern England's cotton industry.

Its industrial development dates from the late 18th century. Now it is well-known for its engineering products. It is also a great railway junction on routes between England and Scotland. Britain's first atomic station was built in the Lake District.

But it should be remembered that the District's economy is based on the tourist trade. This mountains district is widely known for its association with the history of English literature and especially with the name of W. Wordsworth. He spent sixty years out of his 80 years in the Lake District. He was the acknowledged head and founder of the Lake School of Poets.

Task 3. Read the text and fill in the missing information 1–7. One part from 1–7 is extra. Fill in the chart.

When I arrived in England I thought I knew English. After I'd been here an hour I realized that I did not understand one word. In the first week I picked up a tolerable working knowledge of the language and the next seven years convinced me gradually but thoroughly that I **A** _____, let alone perfectly. This is sad. My only consolation being that nobody speaks English perfectly.

Remember that those five hundred words an average Englishman uses are **B** _____. You may learn another five hundred and another five thousand and yet another fifty thousand and still you may come across a further fifty thousand **C** _____.

If you live here long enough you will find out to your greatest amazement that the adjective nice is not the only adjective the language possesses, in spite of the fact that **D** _____. You can say that the weather is nice, a restaurant is nice, Mr. Soandso is nice, Mrs. Soandso's clothes are nice, you had a nice time, **E** _____.

Then you have to decide on your accent. The easiest way to give the impression of having a good accent or no foreign accent at all is to hold an unlit pipe in your mouth, to mutter between your teeth and finish all your sentences with the question: “isn’t it?” People will not understand much, but they are accustomed to that and they will get a **F**_____ .

1. whatever it costs
2. most excellent impression
3. you have never heard of before, and nobody else either
4. in the first three years you do not need to learn or use any other adjectives
5. would never know it really well
6. far from being the whole vocabulary of the language
7. and all this

	A	B	C	D	E	F
Part of the sentence						

The Language

English is the official language in England, Wales, Island and Northern Ireland, but in the Highlands of Scotland and in the uplands of Wales a remnant of Celtic speech still survives. The Scottish form of Gallic is spoken in parts of Scotland while a few people in North Ireland speak the Irish form of Gallic. Welsh which is a form of Britain Celtic is the first language in most parts of Wales.

Celtic language - Branch of the Indo-European language family spoken across a broad area of western and central Europe by the Celts in pre-Roman and Roman times, now confined to small coastal areas of northwestern Europe. Celtic can be divided into a continental group of languages (all extinct) and an insular group. Attestation of Insular Celtic begins around the time Continental Celtic fades from the scene as Celtic tongues gave way to Latin and other languages on the European continent. The Insular Celtic languages are conventionally divided into Goidelic (Irish, Manx, and Scottish Gaelic) and Brythonic (Welsh, Cornish, and Breton). Traditional Cornish was supplanted by English at the end of the 18th century. Manx, spoken on the Isle of Man, expired in the 20th century with the death of the last reputed native speaker in 1974. Both Manx and Cornish have been revived by enthusiasts, though neither can be considered community languages.

Scottish Gaelic language - Celtic language of northern Scotland, a descendant of the Irish speech introduced into northern Britain by invaders in the 4th–5th centuries. Gaelic gradually supplanted Pictish as well as the British Celtic Lowlands dialects, and by the Middle Ages it was the language of all of the Scottish Highlands and part of the Lowlands.

Until the 17th century, Classical Modern Irish was the literary medium of Gaeldom, and only after its collapse did writers regularly begin to use features that distinguish Scottish Gaelic dialects from Irish dialects. Increasing Anglicization, suppression of traditional culture after the Battle of Culloden, and the 19th-century land clearances precipitated a marked decline; today it is probably a true community language for fewer than 80,000 people, most of whom live on the northwestern coast and the Hebrides.

Welsh language - Celtic language of Wales. Besieged for centuries by the English language, Welsh continues to be spoken by 18–20% of the population of Wales, or more than half a million people, though estimates of the actual number of first-language speakers vary widely. Welsh is traditionally divided into three periods: Old Welsh (c. 800–1150), attested mainly in glosses and short textual passages; Middle Welsh (c. 1150–1500), with a rich medieval literature including poetic texts originally composed much earlier; and Modern Welsh (from c. 1500). Modern literary Welsh was largely fixed by William Salesbury's Bible translation. Vernacular Welsh, split along dialectal lines, has long been diverging from literary Welsh; many modern speakers cannot write or easily understand the traditional written language. The issue of an acceptable modern standard remains unresolved.

The existence of this great variety of languages is easy to understand. The people who now inhabit Britain are descended from many various early people such as Pre-Celts, Celts, Romans, Anglo-Saxons and the Norseman including the Danes. Some of them inhabited the Isles many centuries ago; others came there later as invaders from Scandinavia and the Continent of Europe. It is certain that Celtic culture survived in Highland Britain for a long time resisting with success the Roman, Scandinavian and Norman Invasions.

Task 4. Match the headlines 1–8 with the texts A–G. Use one letter only once. There is extra headline you do not need. Fill in the chart below.

1. GLOBAL LANGUAGE
2. HOW IT ALL BEGAN
3. GREAT BORROWER
4. THE LANGUAGE OF COMPUTERS
5. ENGLISH IN OTHER LANGUAGES
6. FRENCH INFLUENCE
7. CRAZY ENGLISH
8. DO YOU SPEAK COCKNEY?

A. It's strange that the differences in Britain itself are greater than those between Britain and other English-speaking countries. For a Londoner, it's easier to understand an American than a Cockney. Cockney has a pronunciation, accent and vocabulary unlike

any other dialect. Cockney speech is famous for its rhyming slang. A word is replaced by a phrase or a person's name which rhymes with it.

B. Other languages absorb English words too, often giving them new forms and meanings. So many Japanese, French, Spanish and Germans mix English words with their mother tongues that the resulting hybrids are called Japlish, Franglais, Spanglish and Denglish. In Japanese, for example, there is a verb Makudonaru, to eat at McDonald's.

C. Have you ever wondered why the English language has different words for animals and meat? When William the Conqueror invaded England in 1066, French became the official language of the court. The English would look after the animals and cook the meat, still calling the animals pig, sheep and cow. The Normans, when they saw the cooked meat arrive at their table, would use French words – pork, mutton and beef.

D. English is mixing with other languages around the world. It's probably the biggest borrower. Words newly coined or in vogue in one language are very often added to English as well. There are words from 120 languages in its vocabulary, including Arabic, French, German, Greek, Italian, Russian, Spanish and Turkish. 70 per cent of the English vocabulary is loan words and only 30 per cent of the words are native.

E. Have you ever wondered how many people speak English? It's around 400 million people. Geographically, English is the most wide-spread language on earth, and it's second only to Chinese in the number of people who speak it. It's spoken in the British Isles, the USA, Australia, New Zealand and much of Canada and South Africa. English is also a second language of another 300 million people living in more than 60 countries.

F. In Shakespeare's time only a few million people spoke English. All of them lived in what is now Great Britain. Through the centuries, as a result of various historical events, English spread throughout the world. There were only 30,000 words in Old English. Modern English has the largest vocabulary in the world – more than 600,000 words.

G. In the English language blackboards can be green or white, and blackberries are green and then red before they are ripe. There is no egg in eggplant, neither mushroom in mushroom, neither pine nor apple in pineapple, no ham in hamburger. Why is it that a king rules a kingdom but a queen doesn't rule a queendom? If the plural of tooth is teeth, shouldn't the plural of booth be beeth? And in what other language can your nose run?

Text	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Headline							

TOPIC 2. BRITAIN'S PRE-HISTORY

Britain has not always been an island. It became one only after the end of the Ice Age. The temperature rose and the ice cap melted, flooding the lower lying land that is now under the North Sea and the English Channel.

The Ice Age was not just one long equally cold period. There were warmer times when the ice cap retreated and colder periods when the ice cap reached as far south as the river Thames.

Our first evidence of human life is in a few stone tools dating from one of the warmer periods about 250 000 BC.

However the Ice Age advanced again and Britain became hardly habitable until another milder period, probably around 50 000 BC. During this time a new type of human being seems to have arrived who was the ancestor of the modern British. The people looked similar to the modern British, but were probably smaller and had a life upon at only about 30 years.

Around 10 000 BC as the Ice Age drew to a close Britain was peopled by small groups as hunters, gatherers and fishers. Few had settled homes and they seemed to have followed herds of deer which provided them with food and clothing. By about 5 000 BC Britain finally became an island and also became heavily forested. For a wanderer hunter culture this was a disaster because the cold-loving deer and other animals on which they lived, largely died out.

About 3 000 BC Neolithic (New Stone) Age people crossed the North Sea from Europe in small round boats covered with animal skins. These people kept animals and grew corn crops and knew how to make pottery. They probably came from either the Spanish Peninsula or even the North-African coast. They were small, dark and long-headed people and may be the forefathers of dark-haired inhabitants of Wales and Cornwall today.

They settled in the western parts of Britain and especially the south-west end of Britain, all the way to the far north.

These were the first of several waves of invaders before the first arrival of the Romans in 55 BC. It used to be thought that these waves of invaders marked fresh-stages in British development. However, although they must have brought new ideas and methods of changing pattern of Britain's prehistory was the result of local economic and social forces. The great public works of that time which needed a huge organization of labor tell us a little of how prehistoric Britain was developing. The earlier of these works were great barrows or Barrier Mountains made of earth and stone. Most of these barrows are found on the chalk uplands of the South Britain.

Over a long period of time the climate became drier and it is difficult today to imagine these areas as heavily peopled. Yet the monuments remain. After 3 000 BC the Chalkland People started building great circles of earth banks and bleachers (открыт).

Inside they built wooden buildings and stone circles. They were called 'hedges' and they were centers of religion, political and economic power.

The most spectacular was *Stonehenge* which was built in separate stages over a period of more than a thousand years. Stonehenge is Britain's most famous prehistoric monument on Salisbury Plain in southern England. The precise purpose of it remains a mystery. About 2 400 BC huge stones were brought from South Wales. The inner circle of Stonehenge consisted of arches made by laying one stone across the top of two others. Some of these have fallen, but some are still in position. Stonehenge was built between 3 000 and 1 500 BC. Nobody knows why it was built, but many people think, it was to study the stars and planets or to worship the sun, because a line through its center would point directly to the position of the rising sun on Midsummer's Day or of the setting sun in midwinter.

After 2 400 BC new groups of people arrived in south-east Britain from Europe. They were round-headed and strongly built, taller than Neolithic Britains. It is not known whether they involved big army force or whether they were invited by Neolithic Britains because of their military or metal working skills. Their influence was soon felt and as a result they became leaders of British society.

These people brought with them from Europe a new cereal – barley which could grow almost anywhere. They spoke the Indo-European language. They seem to have brought a single culture to the whole Britain. However, from about 1 300 BC the hedge organization seemed to have become less important and was overtaken by a new form of society that of a settled-farming class. At first this farming society developed in order. It fed the people at the hedges, but eventually it became more important and powerful as it grew richer.

Family villages and fortified closures appeared across the landscape and the old central control of stone hedge was lost from that time. Ago the power seems to have shifted to the Thames valley and the South-East Britain and political and economical power has remained in the South-East ever since.

Hill-forts replaced hedges as the centers of local power. There was another reason for this shift of power. A number of better designed swords have been found in the Thames valley, suggesting that the local people had more advanced metal working skills.

Many of these swords have been found in river-beds, almost certainly thrown in for religious reasons. This custom may be the origin of the story of the legendary King Arthur's Sword, which was given to him from out of the water and which was thrown back into the water when he died.

Task 5. Complete the chart below.

<i>period</i>	<i>century</i>	<i>people</i>	<i>Skills and ways of living</i>	<i>Appearance and language</i>
the Ice Age				
		small groups as hunters, gatherers and fishers		
	about 3 000 BC Neolithic			
				round-headed and strongly built, tall
			design swords of	

Task 6. Read the text and fill in the missing information 1–7. One part from 1–7 is extra. Fill in the chart.

'Second Stonehenge' discovered near original

Archaeologists have discovered evidence of what they believe was a second Stonehenge located a little more than a mile away from the world-famous prehistoric monument.

The new find on the west bank of the river Avon has been called "Bluestonehenge", after the colour of the 25 Welsh stones of **A**_____.

Excavations at the site have suggested there was once a stone circle 10 metres in diameter and surrounded by a henge — a ditch with an external bank, according to the project director, Professor Mike Parker Pearson, of the University of Sheffield.

The stones at the site were removed thousands of years ago but the sizes of the holes in **B**_____ indicate that this was a circle of bluestones, brought from the Preseli mountains of Wales, 150 miles away.

The standing stones marked the end of the avenue C _____, a 1¾-mile long processional route constructed at the end of the Stone Age. The outer henge around the stones was built about 2400BC but arrowheads found in the stone circle indicate the stones were put up as much as 500 years earlier.

Parker Pearson said his team was waiting for results of radiocarbon dating D _____ whether stones currently in the inner circle of Stonehenge were originally located at the other riverside construction.

Pearson said: "The big, big question is when these stones were erected and when they were removed — and when we get the dating evidence we can answer both those questions."

He added: "We speculated in the past E _____ at the end of the avenue near the river. But we were completely unprepared to discover that there was an entire stone circle. Another team member, Professor Julian Thomas, said the discovery indicated F _____ was central to the religious lives of the people who built Stonehenge. "Old theories about Stonehenge that do not explain the evident significance of the river will have to be rethought," he said. Dr Josh Pollard, project co-director from the University of Bristol, described the discovery as "incredible".

1. which could reveal
2. which they stood
3. which it was once made up
4. that this stretch of the river Avon
5. that there might have been something
6. that it should be considered as integral part
7. that leads from the river Avon to Stonehenge

	A	B	C	D	E	F
part of the sentence						

TOPIC 3. ANCIENT BRITAIN

THE CELTS

Around 700 BC another group of people began to arrive. Many of them were tall and had fair or red hair and blue eyes. They were the Celts, who probably came from Central Europe or farther East from Southern Russia (Ukraine) and had moved slowly westward in early centuries.

The Celts were technically advanced. They knew how to work with iron and could make better weapon than the people who used bronze. It is possible that they drove many of the older inhabitants into Wales, Scotland and Ireland.

The Celts began to control all the lowland areas in Britain and were joined by new arrivals from the European mainland. They continued to arrive in one wave after another over the next 700 years. The Celts are important in British history - they are the ancestors of many of the people in Highland Scotland, Wales, Ireland and Cornwall today.

The people of Wales and Cornwall took on the new Celtic culture. Celtic languages which have been continuously used in some areas since that time are still spoken. The British today are often discussed as Anglo-Saxon. It would be better to call them Anglo-Celt.

At first most of Celtic Britain seems to have developed in a generally similar way, but from about 500 BC trade contact with Europe declined and regional differences increased. The Celts were organized into different tribes and tribal chiefs were chosen from each family or tribe, sometimes as the result of fighting matches between individuals and sometimes by election.

The last Celtic arrivals from Europe were the Belgic tribes. It was natural for them to settle in the south-east of Britain probably pushing other Celtic tribes northwards as they did. At any rate when Julius Caesar briefly visited Britain in 55 BC he saw that the Belgic tribes were different from the older inhabitants. The Celts continued the same way of agriculture as the Bronze Age people before them. But their use of iron technology made it possible for them to farm heavier soils.

However, they continued to use and build hill-forts. The increase of these particularly in the south-east suggests that the Celts were highly successful farmers, growing enough food for a much larger population. The hill-fort remained the centre for local groups. The insides of them were filled with houses and they became the simple economic capitals and towns of the different tribal areas into which Britain is now divided.

Today the empty hill forts stand on lonely hilltops. Yet they remained local economic centers long after the Romans came to Britain and long after they went. The Celts traded across tribal borders and trade was probably important for political and social content between the tribes.

The two main trade outlets to Europe were the settlements along the Thames river in the south and in the north. It is no accident that the present day capitals of England and Scotland stand on or near these two ancient trade centers. Much trade both inside and beyond Britain was conducted by river and sea. For money the Celts used iron bars until they began to copy the Roman coins they saw used in Gaul.

According to the Romans the Celtic men wore shorts and breeches and striped or checked cloaks fastened by a pin. It is possible that the Scottish tartan and dress developed from this striped cloth. The Celts were also very careful about cleanliness and neatness as one Roman wrote. Neither man nor woman, he said, however poor was seen either ragged or dirty.

The Celtic tribes were ruled over by a warrior class of which the priests were. Druids seemed to have been particularly important members. These Druids couldn't read or write but they memorized all the religion teaching, the tribal laws, medicine, history and other knowledge necessary in Celtic society.

The Druids from different tribes all over Britain probably met once a year. They had no temples but they met in sacred groves of trees on certain hills by rivers or river sources. We know little of their kind of worship except that at times it included human sacrifice.

During the Celtic period women may have had more independence than they had again for hundreds of years. When the Roman invaded Britain there were two largest tribes ruled by women.

The most powerful Celt to stand up to the Romans was a woman Boadicea. She had become queen of her tribe when her husband had died. She was tall with long red hair and had a frightening appearance. In 61 AD she led her tribe against the Romans. She nearly drove them off Britain and she destroyed London, the kingdom capital before she was defeated and killed.

Boadicea – (died in AD 60) Ancient British queen. When her husband, a Roman client king of the Iceni, died in AD 60, he left his estate to his daughters and the emperor Nero, hoping for protection. Instead the Romans annexed his kingdom and mistreated his family and tribesmen. Boudicca raised a rebellion in East Anglia, burning Camulodunum (Colchester), Verulamium (St. Albans), and part of Londinium (London) and military posts; according to Tacitus, her forces 'massacred(вырезать) up to 70,000 Romans and pro-Roman Britons and destroyed the Roman 9th Legion. She is thought to have taken poison or died of shock when the Roman governor rallied his troops and destroyed her huge army.

Celt - any member of an early Indo-European people who spread over much of Europe from the 2nd millennium to the 1st century BC. They were absorbed into the Roman Empire as Britons, Gauls, Boii, Galatians, and Celtiberians. People of this Iron Age culture controlled trade routes along the Rhône, Seine, Rhine, and Danube rivers. As they moved west, Hallstatt warriors introduced the use of iron, which helped them dominate other Celtic tribes. By the mid 5th century BC, the La Tène culture emerged along the Rhine and moved into eastern Europe and the British Isles.

Celts sacked Rome c. 390 and raided the whole peninsula, then settled south of the Alps (Cisalpine Gaul) and menaced Rome until they were defeated in 225 BC. In the Balkans, they sacked Delphi in 279 but were defeated by the Aetolians. They crossed to Anatolia and looted until they were subdued by Attalus I about 230 BC. Rome controlled Cisalpine Gaul by 192 and in 124 took territory beyond the Alps. In Transalpine Gaul, from the Rhine and the Alps west, the Celts were pressed by Germanic tribes from the west and Romans from the south. By 58 Julius Caesar had begun campaigns to annex all of Gaul. Celtic settlement of Britain and Ireland is deduced from archaeological and linguistic evidence.

The Celtic social system comprised a warrior aristocracy and freemen farmers; Druids, with magico-religious duties, ranked higher than warriors. They had a mixed farming economy. Their oral literary composition was highly developed, as was their art; they manufactured gold and silver jewelry, swords and scabbards, and shields inlaid with enamel.

<i>Words and word combinations</i>	<i>definitions</i>
To be technically advanced	
Celtic society	
To memorize all the religion teaching and the tribal laws	
tribes ruled by women	
To destroy troops	
archaeological and linguistic evidence	
warrior aristocracy	

THE ROMANS

The name 'Britain' comes from the word 'Pretani' – the Greek-Roman word for the inhabitants of Britain. The Romans mispronounced the word and called the island 'Bretania'. The Romans had invaded because the Celts of Britain were working with one Celt of Gaul against them. The British Celts were giving them food and allowing them to hide in Britain.

There was another reason: under the Celts Britain had become an important food producer, so the Romans could make use of it for their own army.

The Romans brought the skills of reading and writing to Britain. The written word was important for spreading ideas and also for establishing power while the Celtic peasantry remained illiterate and only Celtic speaking, a number of town-dwellers spoke Latin and Greek with ease and the richer land owners in the country almost certainly used Latin.

Julius Caesar first came to Britain in 55 BC but it was a century later in AD 43 a Roman army actually occupied Britain. The Romans were determined to conquer the whole island. They had little difficulty as they had a better trained army and besides the Celtic tribes fought among themselves.

The Romans considered the Celts as war-mad, high-spirited and quick for battle. The Romans established their culture across the southern half of Britain which was encircle the Empire. But the Romans couldn't conquer Caledonia (Scotland) although they spent over a century trying to do it.

At last they built a strong wall along the northern border named after the Emperor Hadrian who planned it. A natural point of balance had been found. Roman control of

Britain came to an end as the Empire began to collapse. In AD 409 Rome pulled its last soldiers out of Britain and the following year Rome itself fell to raiders.

Roman Life

The most obvious characteristic of Roman Britain was its towns which were the basis of Roman administration and civilization. Many grew out of Celtic settlements, military camps or market centres.

At first these towns had no walls. Then probably from the end of the second century to the end of the third century A.D. almost every town was given walls. The Romans left about 20 large towns of about 5000 inhabitants and almost 100 smaller ones. Many of these towns were at first army-camps and the Latin word for “camp” is ‘castrum’ has remained part of many town names: -chester, -castor, -cester.

These towns were built in the stone as well as wood and had planned streets, markets, and shops. Some buildings had central heating. They were connected by roads which were so well built that they continued to be used long after the Romans left and became the main roads of modern Britain. Six of these roads met in London, a capital city of about 20.000 people.

Outside the towns was the growth of large farms, called “villas”. These belonged to the richer Britons who were more Roman than Celt in their manners. Each villa had many workers. The villas were usually close to towns so that the crops could be sold easily. Common people still lived in the same kind of round huts and villages which the Celts had been living in four hundred years earlier when the Romans arrived. In some ways life in Roman Britain seems very civilized, but it was also hard for all except the richest. Life expectancy was low (средняя продолжительность жизни). Half of the population died in the ages of 20 and 40 while 15% died before the age of 20.

<i>Words and word combinations</i>	<i>definitions</i>
To invade	
To bring the skills of reading and writing	
peasantry remained illiterate	
a better trained army	
war-mad, high-spirited and quick for battle	
Life expectancy	
round huts	

THE SAXON INVASION

The Saxons became pirates in the North Sea during the decline of the Roman Empire, and in the early 5th century they spread through northern Germany and along the coasts of Gaul and Britain. They fought Charlemagne (772–804) before being

incorporated into the Frankish kingdom, and they settled Britain along with other Germanic invaders, including the Angles and the Jutes.

The wealth of Britain by the fourth century, the result of the mild climate and centuries of peace, was a temptation to the greedy. At first the Germanic tribes only invaded Britain, but after A.D. 430 they began to settle. The newcomers were war-like and illiterate. The invaders came from three powerful Germanic tribes: the Saxons, the Angles, and the Jutes. The Jutes settled mainly in Kent and along the South coast and were soon considered no difference from the Angles and the Saxons. The Angles settled in the East and also in the North Midlands while the Saxons settled in the West. The Jutes and the Angles settled in a band of land from the Thames westwards.

The Anglo-Saxon migration gave the larger part of Britain its new name – “England”, the land of the Angles. The British Celts fought the Saxons and settlers from Germany as well as they could. However, during the next hundred years they were slowly pushed westwards. Finally most were driven into the mountains in the far west which the Saxons called “Wales”, meaning the land of the foreigners.

In the North, other Celts were driven into the territory of Scotland. Some Celts stayed behind and many became slaves of the Saxons. Hardly anything is left of Celtic language or Celtic culture in England, except for the names of some rivers: the Avon, the Severn, the Thames; and two large cities: London and Leeds.

The strength of Anglo-Saxon culture is obvious even today. Days of the week were named after Germanic gods: Tio (Tuesday), Woden (Wednesday), Thor (Thursday), Frei (Friday). New place names appeared on the map. The first of these show that the earliest Saxon villages, like the Celtic ones were family villages. The ending -ing, meant folk or family - Hastings.

The ending –ham, means farm; -ton, means settlement. Birmingham, Nottingham is Saxon place names. As the Angles kings often established settlements Kingston is a frequent place name.

The Anglo-Saxon established a number of Kingdoms some of which still exist in country or regional names to this way: Essex (East Saxons), Sussex (South Saxons), Wessex (West Saxons), etc.

By the middle of the seventh century three largest kingdoms those of Northumbria, Mercia and Wessex were the most powerful. It was not until a century later that one of these kings, king Offa of Mercia (757-796) claimed kingship of England. He had good reason to do so: he was powerful enough to employ thousands of men to build a huge earth wall, the length of the Welsh boarder to keep out the troublesome Celts. But although he was the most powerful king of that time he didn't control all of England. The power of Mercia didn't survive after Offa's death. At this time a King's power depended on the personal loyalty of his followers. After his death the next king had to work hard to rebuild. Most people still believed as the Celts had done that a man's first duty was to his own family. However things were changing. The Saxon kings began to replace loyalty to family with loyalty to Lord and King.

NB. Offa, who ruled from 757 to 796, created a single state from the River Humber to the English Channel. After Offa's death, Mercia declined, overshadowed by Wessex. In 877 the Danes divided Mercia into English and Danish sections. After the reconquest of the Danish lands in the early 10th century, it came under the rule of Wessex.

Wessex - Its area approximated that of the counties of Hampshire, Dorset, Wiltshire, Somerset, Berkshire, and Avon. Its capital was Winchester. The kingdom is traditionally thought to have been founded by Saxon invaders of Britain c. 494. Wessex conquered Kent and Sussex, and in the 9th century, under King Alfred the Great, it prevented the Danes from conquering England south of the Danelaw. By 927 Wessex had reconquered the Danelaw, and Alfred's grandson, Athelstan, had become king of all England; thereafter all kings of Wessex were kings of England.

Government and society under the Saxons

The Saxons created institutions which made the English state strong for the next 500 years. One of these institutions was the King's Council, called Witan.

(*Witan* - Council of the Anglo-Saxon kings in medieval England. Usually attended by high-ranking nobles and bishops, the Witan was expected to advise the king on all matters on which he chose to ask its opinion. It attested his grants of land to churches or laymen, consented to his issue of new laws, and helped him deal with rebels and disaffected subjects. Its composition and time of meeting were determined at the king's pleasure.)

It grew out of informal groups of senior warriors and churchmen to whom kings like Offa had turned for advice or support on difficult matters. By the 10th century the Witan was a formal body issuing laws and charters. It was not at all democratic and the king could decide to ignore the Witan's advice, but he knew that it might be dangerous to do so: the Witan's authority was based on its rights to choose kings and to agree the rest of the king's laws. Without its support the king's own authority was in danger. The Witan established a system which remained an important part of the kings' method of government. Even today the king or queen has a Privy Council, a group of advisers on affairs of state.

The Saxons divided the land into new administrative areas based on shires or counties. These shires, established by the end of the 10th century, remained almost exactly the same for 1000 years. "Shire" is the Saxon word, "County" – the Norman one, but both are still used. Over each shire was appointed a sheriff or the king's local administrator. In time his name became shortened to sheriff.

Angles technology changed the shape of England agriculture. As the Anglo-Saxons introduced a heavy plough, it required 6-8 oxen to pull it and this led to changes in land ownership and organization. Few individual families could afford to keep a team of oxen

and these had to be shared on a cooperative basis. So it meant that villages had to work more closely together than they had ever done before.

The Saxons settled previously unfarmed areas. They cut down many forested areas in valleys and they began to drain the wet land. In each district was a manor or large house. This was a simple building where local villagers came to pay taxes, where justice was administered and where men met together to join the Angle's army. The lord of the manor had to organize all this and make sure village land was properly shared. It was the beginning of the new real system which reached its development under the Normans.

In English law, a form of landholding defined as a "holding at the will of the lord according to the custom of the *manor*." Its origin is found in the occupation by villains, or nonfreemen, of portions of land belonging to the manor of the feudal lord. It was occupation at the pleasure of the lord, but in time it grew into an occupation by right, called villenagium, which was recognized first by custom and then by law. In 1266 all copyhold land became freehold land, though lords of manors retained mineral and sporting rights.

<i>Words and word combinations</i>	<i>definitions</i>
the decline of the Roman Empire	
the newcomers were war-like	
To claim kingship of England	
Welsh boarder to keep out the troublesome Celts	
To introduce a heavy plough	
to drain the wet land	
the occupation by villains	
lords of manors retained mineral and sporting rights	

Christianity – the Partnership of Church and State

We cannot know now how or when Christianity first reached Britain but it was certainly well before Christianity was accepted by the Roman Emperor Constantine in the early 4th century AD. In the last hundred years of Romans got Christianity it became firmly established across Britain both in Roman controlled areas and beyond.

The Anglo-Saxons belonged to an older Germanic religion and they drove the Celts into the West and North. In the Celtic areas Christianity continued to spread, bringing paganism to an end.

In 597 Pope Gregory the Great sent a monk Augustine to reestablish Christianity in England. He went to Canterbury – the capital of the king of Kent. He did so, because

the king's wife came from Europe and was already Christian. Augustine became the first archbishop of Canterbury in 601. He was successful.

Several ruling families in England accepted Christianity. But little progress was made with the ordinary people. It was the Celtic Church which brought the Christian religion to the ordinary people. England became Christian very quickly as the Celtic bishops went out from their monasteries walking from village to village, teaching Christianity in Wales, Ireland and Scotland. Saxon kings helped the Christian church to grow, but the church also increased the power of Kings. Bishops gave kings their support.

When king Offa arranged for his son to be crowned as his successor he made sure that this was done at a Christian ceremony led by a bishop. It was good political propaganda as it suggested that kings were chosen not only by people but also by God.

Offa - one of the most powerful kings in Anglo-Saxon England. He became king of Mercia (757–796) after seizing power during a civil war. He extended his rule over most of southern England and married his daughters to the rulers of Wessex and Northumbria. Eager to form European diplomatic ties, Offa signed a commercial treaty with Charles the Great (King of the Franks) (796) and allowed the pope to increase his control over the English church. He built Offa's Dyke to divide Mercia from Welsh lands.

The church increased power of the England state as it established monasteries or ministers (Westminster) which were places of learning and education. These monasteries trained the men who could read and write so they could have the necessary skills for the growth of Royal and Church authority.

King Alfred who ruled Wessex from 871-899 used the literate men of the church to help establish a system of law to educate the people and to write down important matters. This process gave power into the hands of those people who could read and write and in this way class divisions were increased.



Alfred the Great - King of Wessex (871–99) in southwestern England.

He joined his brother Ethelred I in confronting a Danish army in Mercia (868). Succeeding his brother as king, Alfred fought the Danes in Wessex in 871 and again in 878, when he was the only West Saxon leader to refuse to submit to their authority and was driven from the kingdom to the island of Athelney. He defeated the Danes at the Battle of Edington (878) and saved Kent from another Danish invasion in 885. The next year he took the offensive and captured London, a success that brought all the English not under Danish rule to accept him as king. The conquest of the

Danelaw by his successors was enabled by his strategy, which included the construction of forts and a naval fleet and the reformation of the army. Alfred drew up an important code of laws (see Anglo-Saxon law) and promoted literacy and learning, personally translating Latin works by Boethius, Pope Gregory I, and St. Augustine of Hippo into Anglo-Saxon. The compilation of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle was begun under his reign.

Peasants who could neither read nor write could lose their traditional rights to their land because their rights were not registered. The monks used Latin - the written language of Rome and this encouraged English trade with the continent. By the 11th century due to literacy royal authority went wider and deeper in England than in any other European country.

THE VIKINGS

Towards the end of the 8th century new raiders were tempted by Britain's wealth. These were the Vikings – “means pirates” and they came from Norway and Denmark. Like the Anglo-Saxons they only raided at first. They burnt churches and monasteries along the coasts of Britain and Ireland. London was itself raided in 842.

In 865 the Vikings invaded Britain. Once it was clear that the quarreling Anglo-Saxon kingdoms couldn't keep them out. This time they came to conquer and to settle. The Vikings quickly accepted Christianity and didn't disturb the local population.

By the year 875 only king Alfred in Wessex held out against the Vikings who had already taken most of England. After some serious defeats Alfred won a decisive (решительный) battle and captured London. He was strong enough to make a treaty with Vikings. Viking rule was recognized in the East- North of England – the Dane law or the land where the law of the Danes ruled.

In the rest of the country Alfred was recognized as king. During his struggle against the Danes he had built walled settlements to keep them out. These were called burghs (boroughs-поселок). They became prosperous market towns and this word is one of the commonest endings to place names.

By 950 England seemed rich and peaceful again after the troubles of the Vikings' invasion. But soon afterward the Danish Vikings began to raid westwards. The Saxon king Ethelred decided to pay the Vikings to stay away. To find the money he set a tax on all his people called Danish Money and it was the beginning of the regular tax system. The effects of this tax were most heavily felt by the ordinary villagers as they had to provide enough money for their village landlord.

In 1040 the Witan chose Edward, one of Ethelred's sons to be king. Edward, known as the Confessor was more interested in church than in kingship. By the time Edward died there was a church in almost every village. The pattern of the English village in its manor house and church dates from this time. Edward started a new church at Westminster just outside the city of London – Westminster Abbey.

Edward only lived until 1066 when he died without an obvious reason there. A question of who should follow him as king was one of the most important in English History. Edward had brought many Normans (the Christian and grand Christian of Vikings, who had settled in Northern France) to his English court from France. These Normans were not liked by the more powerful Saxon (Norman) nobles who chose Harold to be the next king of England.

Harold's right to the England's throne was challenged by Duke William of Normandy. The Norman soldiers were better armed, better organized and were amount on horses. So Harold was defeated and killed in battle near Hastings. William marched to London which quickly gave up when he began to burn villages outside the city. He was crowned king of England in Westminster Abbey on Christmas day 1066. A new period had begun.

Vikings - or Norseman. Members of the Scandinavian seafaring warriors who raided and colonized wide areas of Europe from the 9th to the 11th century. Overpopulation at home, ease of conquest abroad, and their extraordinary capacity as shipbuilders and sailors inspired their adventures. In 865 Vikings conquered East Anglia, Northumbria, and much of Mercia. Wessex under Alfred the Great made a truce (перемирие) in 878 that led to Danish control of much of England. Alfred defeated fresh Viking armies (892–899), and his son continued his reconquest, recovering lands in Mercia and East Anglia by 924; Viking Northumbria fell in 954.

The Vikings permanently affected English social structure, dialect, and names. In the western seas, Vikings had settled in Iceland by 900, whence they traveled to Greenland and North America. They invaded Ireland in 795, establishing kingdoms at Dublin, Limerick, and Waterford. Viking activity ended in the 11th century.

<i>New words and word combinations</i>	<i>Definitions and meanings</i>
new raiders were tempted by Britain wealth	
the quarreling Anglo-Saxon kingdoms couldn't keep them out	
to accept Christianity	
the regular tax system	
a decisive battle	
To be crowned	
to defeat	
to capture	
to conquer	
to invade	

TOPIC 4. BRITAIN IN MIDDLE AGES

THE EARLY MIDDLE AGES. THE NORMAN CONQUEST AND FEUDALISM

William the Conqueror's coronation didn't go as planned, when the people shouted "God, save the king", the nervous Norman guards thought they were going to attack William. They set fire to nearly houses and coronation ceremony ended in disorder. Although William was now crowned king his conquest had only just begun.

There was an Anglo-Saxon rebellion against the Normans every year until 1070. The small Norman army marched from village to village destroying places. It was a true army of occupation for at least 20 years.

In some territories not a single house was left standing and it took a century for such places to recover. Almost all Saxon lords except those who had accepted William lost everything. William gave the Saxon lands to his Norman nobles.

After each English rebellion there was more land to give away. Over 4000 Saxon landlords were replaced by 200 Norman ones. William gave some parts of lands as a reward to his captains. So they held separate small pieces of land in different parts of the country and no noble could easily or quickly gather his fighting men to rebel- divide and govern.

At the same time William kept enough land for himself to make sure he was much stronger than his nobles. He kept the Saxon system of sheriffs as the substitution? (замена) to the local nobles. As a result England was different from the rest of Europe as it held one powerful family instead of a large number of powerful nobles.

William and kings after him thought of England as their personal property. William organized his English kingdom according to the feudal system. The word "feudalism" comes from the French word "feud" which the Normans used to refer to land held in return for duty or service to a lord.

The basis of feudal society was the holding of land and its main purpose was economic. All land was owned by the king but it was held by others, called "vassals" in return for services and goods. The greater nobles gave parts of their lands to better nobles, knights and other freemen.

Some freemen paid for the land by doing military service while others paid rent. The nobles kept servants to work on his lands. They were not free to leave the estate and were often little better than slaves. So the king was connected through this chain of people to the lowest man in the country.

If the king didn't give the nobles land they would not fight for him. Between 1066 and the mid 14th century there were only 30 years of complete peace.

By 1086 William wanted to know exactly who owned which piece of land and how much it was worth. He needed this information so that he could plan his economy; find out how much produced and how much he could ask in tax.

He sent a team of people through England to make a complete economic survey. His men asked all kinds of questions: how much land, who owned it, how much was it worth, how many families, ploughs and sheep were there? This survey was the only one of its kind in Europe.

Not surprisingly it was unpopular with the people as they felt they couldn't escape from its findings. It so reminded them of the painting of the Day of Judgment or Doom on the walls of their churches that they called it the Doomsday (or Domsday) Book - the names stuck. The Doomsday Book still exists and gives us an extraordinary amount of information about England at this time.

1) ***The Doomsday Book (1086)*** is the original record or summary of William I the Conqueror's survey of England.

The most remarkable administrative feat of the Middle Ages, the survey was carried out, against popular resentment, by panels of commissioners who compiled accounts of the estates of the king and his tenants. As summarized in the Doomsday Book, it now serves as the starting point for the history of most English towns and villages. Originally called "the description of England," the name Doomsday Book (a reference to doomsday, when people face a final accounting of their lives) was later popularly attached to it.

2) ***The Norman Conquest - (1066)*** Military conquest of England by William, duke of Normandy (later William I), mainly through his victory over Harold II at the Battle of Hastings.

Edward the Confessor had designated William as his successor in 1051. When Harold, duke of Wessex, was crowned king of England in 1066 instead, William assembled an invasion force of 5,000 knights. After defeating Harold's army near Hastings on October 14 and advancing to London, he was crowned king in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day, 1066. Native revolts continued until 1071, notably in Northumbria.

The Norman Conquest brought great social and political changes to England, linking the country more closely with Western Europe and replacing the old English aristocracy with a Norman aristocracy. The English language was subjected to a long period of influence by Anglo-French, which remained in literary and courtly use until the reign of Edward III and in legal reporting until the 17th century.

Task 7. Read the article taken from <https://www.bl.uk/the-middle-ages/articles/church-in-the-middle-ages-from-dedication-to-dissent#> about Medieval churches, put down vocabulary with English-English definitions and write down the analysis of the article.

Church in the Middle Ages: from dedication to dissent

Article by: Alixe Bovey

[See more at: <https://www.bl.uk/the-middle-ages/articles/church-in-the-middle-ages-from-dedication-to-dissent#sthash.6RjcAFmW.dpuf>]

The Church was a powerful force in medieval England. Here Dr Alixe Bovey examines how the Church was organised, why people went on pilgrimages, and what happened to dissenters.

The Church was the single most dominant institution in medieval life, its influence pervading almost every aspect of people's lives. Its religious observances gave shape to the calendar; its sacramental rituals marked important moments in an individual's life (including baptism, confirmation, marriage, the eucharist, penance, holy orders and the last rites); and its teachings underpinned mainstream beliefs about ethics, the meaning of life and the afterlife.

The Pope

The headquarters of the Western Church was Rome. For most of the medieval period, this was the chief residence of the Pope, who was regarded as the successor of St Peter. Christ had appointed Peter the chief apostle, and gave him the 'keys to the kingdom of heaven' (Gospel of St Matthew 16:19) which, according to tradition, were inherited by his successors. The Western Church maintained the status and powers of St Peter devolved to his papal successors; however, the primacy of the Pope was rejected by the Eastern Church, which had a distinct hierarchy, theology and liturgy. In medieval art, the Church was symbolized by a woman, Ecclesia, who was sometimes shown overpowering her blindfolded persecutor Synagoga (or Synagogue, the Jewish house of prayer).

The Church system

The success of the Church as a dominant force can be attributed in no small measure to its highly developed organization, which over the course of the Middle Ages developed a sophisticated system of governance, law and economy.

The institutional Church can be divided into two unequal parts: the larger of the two was the secular church, and the other was the regular church, so called because its members followed a monastic rule (*regula*, in Latin). The secular church, attended by the general population, was carved into regions governed by archbishops, and their territory was in turn divided into areas known as diocese, which were administered by bishops. The parish church was the basic unit of the Christian community, providing the sacraments required by the lay community. For most medieval Christians, religious experience was focused on a parish church which they attended, at least in theory, on Sundays and religious festivals.

The regular church, by contrast, consisted of men and women who had sworn vows of obedience, celibacy and poverty. Most of these people lived in communities governed by a 'rule', a book of instructions. The most influential and widespread rule was the Rule of St Benedict (c. 620 - 30), which set out a detailed routine consisting of manual labour, prayer and study.

Religious orders

Numerous other religious orders, some stricter and others more lenient, proliferated in the Middle Ages: these can be categorized as monastic orders, mendicant orders, and military orders. Monks and nuns tried to remove themselves as much as possible from the secular world, ideally living in communities with minimal contact with the outside world.

Pilgrimages

Pilgrimages to holy places enabled the faithful to atone from their sins, seek miraculous cures and extend their experience of the world. Bodily remains of saints, and also objects associated with them (such as the Virgin's mantle, the holiest relic at Chartres Cathedral), were the star attractions for pilgrims. Pilgrims might travel relatively short distances to see and touch the shrines of local saints, or undertake more ambitious (and dangerous) journeys. The most popular destinations were Rome, Santiago de Compostela in Spain, the Holy Land, and Canterbury. Geoffrey Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*, famously set on a journey from London to Thomas Becket's shrine at Canterbury Cathedral, presents a sometimes sharply ironic view of the pilgrims and their motives.

Dissent

The Church aggressively struggled against dissenters within and without: Christians who disagreed with the Church's teachings were considered heretics, and could be physically punished or even killed. Those of other faiths were also treated harshly. Jews who lived within Christian territories were, at best, tolerated, though episodes of extreme anti-Semitism are numerous; even after Jews were expelled from England by Edward I in 1290, they remained a focus for popular hatred and vilification. The series of Crusades against non-Christians and heretics began in 1095, with an armed mission to the Middle East.

In the past, the Middle Ages was often characterized as the 'Age of Faith', but now it is recognized that this moniker conceals the complexity of the medieval religious culture. Christianity was the dominant religion, but not everyone followed the faith with the same intensity: judging from legislation and sermons encouraging lay people to attend church and observe its teachings, many people were lukewarm in the faith, while others were openly or covertly skeptical.

MAGNA CARTA AND THE DECLINE OF FEUDALISM (13th century)

King John was unpopular mainly because he was greedy. The feudal lords in England had always seen their own law courts and profited from the funds, paid by the people brought to court. But John took many cases out of their courts and tried in the king's courts taking the money for him. It was normal for feudal lord to make a payment to the king when his daughter was married but John asked for more than was the custom. Also when a noble died his son had to pay money to inherit his father's land. John increased the amount they had to pay.

As for the merchants and towns he taxed them at a higher level than ever before. In 1204 the French king invaded Normandy and the English nobles lost their lands there. John had failed to carry out his duty to them as Duke of Normandy. He had taken their money but he had not protected their land.

In 1215 John hoped to recapture Normandy. He called on his lords to fight for him but they no longer trusted him. They marched to London, where they were joined by angry merchants. Outside London at Runnymede a few miles of the Thames John was forced to sign a new agreement. It was known as Magna Carta or the Great Charta and was an important symbol of political freedom.

The king promised all freemen protection from his officers and the right to a fair and legal trial. Hundreds of years later M.C., was used by parliament to protect itself from a powerful king.

In fact M.C. gave no real freedom to the majority of people in England. The nobles who wrote it had one main aim – to make sure John didn't go beyond his right as feudal lord.

M.C. marks a clear stage in the 21st of May 1215 the collapse of English feudalism. Feudal society was based on links between lord and vessel. At Runnymede the nobles were not acting as vessels but as a clan. They established a committee of 24 lords to make John keep his promises. That was not a feudal thing to do.

In addition the nobles were acting in cooperation with the merchant clan of towns. The nobles didn't allow John's successes to forget this Charta and its promises. Every king recognized M.C. until the middle ages ended in disorder and a new king of monarchy came into being in the 16th century.

There were other small kings that feudalism was changing. When the king went to war he had the right to forty days fighting service from each of his lords. The nobles refused to fight for longer so the king was forced to pay soldiers to fight for him. They were called paid-fighters or *solidarius* - Latin word, from which the word soldier comes.

At the same time many lords preferred their vessels to pay them in money rather than in service. Vessels were gradually beginning to change into tenants. Feudalism, the

use of land in return for service, was beginning to weaken but it took another 300 years before it disappeared completely.

Magna Carta – (Latin: “Great Charter”) Document guaranteeing English political liberties, drafted at Runnymede, a meadow by the Thames, and signed by King John in 1215 under pressure from his rebellious barons.

Resentful of the king's high taxes and aware (сознавать) of his waning (исчезающая, бледнеющая) power, the barons were encouraged by the archbishop of Canterbury, Stephen Langton, to demand a solemn grant of their rights. Among the charter's provisions were clauses providing for a free church, reforming law and justice, and controlling the behavior of royal officials.

It was reissued with alterations in 1216, 1217, and 1225. Though it reflects the feudal order rather than democracy, the *Magna Carta* is traditionally regarded as the foundation of British constitutionalism.

GOVERNMENT AND SOCIETY IN THE 13TH CENTURY (IN THE MIDDLE AGES)

William the Conqueror had governed England and Normandy by traveling from one place to another to be sure that his authority was accepted. The king's household was the government and it was always on the move. There was no real capital as there is today. Kings were crowned in Westminster but their treasury stayed in the old Wessex capital Winchester.

When William and the kings after him moved around the country they were accompanied by a large number of followers. The local people had to give them food and somewhere to stay. It had a terrible effect. Food ran out and prices grew. This form of government could only work well for a small kingdom.

By the time the English kings were ruling half of France as well, they could no longer travel everywhere themselves. Instead they sent nobles and knights from the royal household to act as sheriffs.

The system needed people who could administer taxation, justice and carry out the king's instructions. At first the administration was based in Winchester. Then it was moved to Westminster. It is still there today. The king kept all his records in Westminster including the Domesday Book. The administration also checked the towns and the parts to make sure that taxes were paid and kept record of the funds made by the king's court.

It is not surprising that the administration began to grow very quickly. When William the First invaded Britain he needed only a few Clerks to manage his paper work. Most business was done by the spoken, not written word. But the need for paper work grew rapidly.

In 1050 only king Edward the Confessor had a seal to sign official papers. But 200 years later even the poorest man was expected to have a seal in order to sign official papers even if he couldn't read.

From 1199 the administration at Westminster kept copies of all letters and documents that were sent out. The king's followers were responsible for law and justice.

In Saxon times every district had its own laws and customs and justice had often been a family matter. After the Norman Conquest nobles were allowed to administer justice among the villages and people on their lands. Usually they mixed Norman laws with the Old Saxon laws. Serious cases were tried in the king's courts.

Henry the First introduced the idea that all crimes were no longer only a family matter but breaking the king's peace. So he appointed a number of judges who traveled from place to place, administering justice.

At first the king's judges had no special knowledge or training. They used common sense. It is not surprising that the quality of judges depended on the choice of the king. But in the end of the 12th century the judges were men with real knowledge and experience of the law and they administered the same law wherever they went. England was unlike the rest of Europe because it used the "common law". Centuries later English "common law" system was used in the United States and in many other British colonies.

English created a system of law based on custom, comparisons, previous cases and previous decisions. This mixture of experience and custom is the basis of law in England even today (precedent). Modern judges still base their decision on the way in which similar cases have been decided.

TOPIC 5. THE LATE MIDDLE AGES

THE CENTURY OF WAR, PLAGUE AND DISORDER

The 14th century was disastrous for Britain as well as most of Europe because of the effect of wars and plague. Probably one third of Europe's population died of plague. Britain and France suffered too from the damages of war. In the 1330-s England began a long struggle against the French crown. In France villages were raided or destroyed by passing armies. France and England were exhausted economically by the cost of maintaining armies. England had the additional burden of fighting the Scots and keeping control over Ireland and Wales which were trying to throw off England rules.

The year 1348 brought an event of great importance. This was terrible plague known as the "black death" which reached almost every part of England. The whole villages disappeared and some towns were almost completely destroyed until the plague itself died out.

After the “Black Death” there were other plagues during the rest of the century, which killed almost the young and healthy.

In 1300 the population of Britain had probably been over 4 million. By the end of the century it was probably hardly half that figure and it took until the 17th century before the population reached 4 million again. The dramatic fall in population however was not entirely a bad thing.

At the end of the 13th century the sharp rise in prices had led an increasing number of landlords to stop paying workers for their labour. In return villages were given land to farm, but after the Black Death there were so few people to work on the land that the remaining workers could ask for more money for their labour. They did this because the king and parliament tried to control wage increases, but they were not always successful.

The poor found that they could demand more money and did it. This finally led to the end of serfdom (крепостное право). Over all agricultural land production shrank, but those who survived the disaster of the 14th century enjoyed a greater share of the agricultural economy.

Even for peasants, life became more comfortable. For the first time they had enough money to build more solid houses in stone where it was available in place of huts made of wood, mud, and rush.

There have been other economic changes during the 14th century. The most important of these was the replacement of wool by finished cloths as England’s main exports. It was the natural result of the very high prices at which English wool was sold in Europe by the end of the 13th century. Much of the cloth making process like spinning was done in the workers’ own homes. Indeed so many young women spun wool that the word “spinster” became and has remained the word for an unmarried woman.

The West Country, Walls and Yorkshire did well from the change in cloth making. But London remained much larger and richer. Its 50 thousand inhabitants were supported by trade in the outside world. Its nearest trade rival was Bristol.

The Poor in Revolt

It is surprising that the English never rebelled against king Edward III.

Edward III - King of England (1327–77). His mother, Isabella of France, deposed his father, Edward II, and crowned the 15-year-old Edward in his place. Isabella and her lover, Roger de Mortimer, governed in Edward's name for four years and persuaded him to grant the Scots their independence (1328). After having Mortimer executed in 1330, Edward became the sole ruler of England. By asserting his right to the French crown, he began the Hundred Years' War. He instituted the Order of the Garter in 1342. He defeated the French at the Battle of Crécy (1346) and captured Calais (1347), though lack of funds forced him to sign a truce.

The Black Death hit England in 1348, but fighting continued. The Scots surrendered to Edward in 1356, and the same year his son Edward the Black Prince won

a major victory for the English at the Battle of Poitiers. In 1360 Edward gave up his claim to the French crown in return for Aquitaine. The war later resumed when Charles V repudiated the Treaty of Calais; Edward lost Aquitaine, and he signed a new truce in 1375. In his later years he fell under the influence of his greedy mistress, Alice Perrers, and his son John of Gaunt.

He was expensive king at a time when many people were poor and sick with plagues. At the time of the Black Death he was busy with expensive wars against France and Scotland. The demands he made on merchants and peasants were enormous but Edward III handed these people with skill.

Edward's grandson Richard was less fortunate. He became King on his grandfather's death in 1329 because his father, The Black Prince, had died a few months earlier. Richard II inherited the problems of discontent, but had neither the diplomatic skills of his father nor his popularity. Added to this he became king when he was only 11 and so others governed for him.

In the year he became king these advisers introduced a tax payment for every person over the age of 15. 2 years later this tax was enforced again. The people paid. But in 1381 this tax was enforced for a 3d time and also increased to 3 times the previous amount.

There was an immediate revolt in East Anglia and in Kent, 2 of the richest parts of the country. The poor parts of the country (the north and north-west) didn't rebel. That suggests that in the richer areas ordinary people had become more aware and confident of their rights and power.

The new tax led to revolt, but there were also other reasons for discontent. The Landlords had been trying for some time to force the peasant back into serfdom because serf labour was cheaper than paid labour.

The leader of the revolt Wat Tyler was the first to call for fair treatment of England's poor people. *"We are men, formed in Christ's light and we are kept like animals: The people sang a revolutionary rhyme, suggesting that when God created men he had not made one man master over another. When Adam delved (dig) and Eve span - Who was then the gentleman?"*

The idea that God had created all people equal called for feudalism and respect for honest labour. But the peasant revolt as it was recalled, only lasted for 4 weeks. During that period the peasants took control of much of London. In fact the revolt was not only by peasants from the countryside. A number of poor people also revolted, suggesting that the discontent went beyond the feudal service. When W. Tyler was killed, Richard II skillfully quieted the angry crowd.

He promised to meet all the demands, including an end to serfdom and the people peacefully went home. As soon as they had gone, Richard's position changed. Although he didn't try to enforce the tax, he refused to keep his promise to give the peasants their other demands. *"Servants you are and servants you shall remain!"*

His officers handed down other leading rebellions and hanged them. But the danger of revolt by the angry poor was a warning to the king, the nobles and to the wealthy of the city of London.

The Struggle in France

By the end of the 14th century the long war with France, known as the Hundred Years War had already been going on for over 50 years. But there had been long periods without actual fighting. When Henry IV died in 1413 he passed on to his son Henry V a kingdom that was peaceful and united. Henry V was a brave and intelligent man and like Richard I he became one of England's favourite kings.

Since the situation was peaceful at home Henry V felt able to begin fighting the French again. His French war was as popular as any other. Henry had a great advantage, because the king of France was mad and his noblemen were quarrelsome. The war began again in 1415 when Henry renewed his claim to the throne of France. The English army was able to prove once more that it was far better in battle than the French army.

At Agincourt the same year the England defeated French army 3 times its own size. The English were more skillful and had better weapons.

Henry managed to capture most of Normandy and the nearby areas. He was recognized as heir to the mad king and he married Catherine, the king's daughter. His 9-month-old baby-son, Henry VI inherited the thrones of England and France after his father's death.

As with Scotland and Wales, England found it was easier to invade and conquer France than to keep it. Soon the France began to fight back. Foreign invasion had created for the first time strong French national feeling. The English army was twice defeated by the French who were inspired by a mysterious peasant-girl Joan of Arc who claimed to hear heavenly voices.

The English gave her to the church which burnt her as a witch in 1431. English was now beginning to lose an extremely costly war. In 1453 the hundred-year war was over. England had lost everything expect the port of Calais.

Hundred Years` War - (1337–1453) Intermittent armed conflict between England and France over territorial rights and the issue of succession to the French throne.

It began when Edward III invaded Flanders in 1337 in order to assert his claim to the French crown. Edward won a major victory at the Battle of Crécy (1346); after his son Edward the Black Prince managed to capture John II at the Battle of Poitiers (1356), the French were obliged to surrender extensive lands under the treaties of Brétigny and Calais (1360). When John II died in captivity, his son Charles V refused to respect the treaties and reopened the conflict, putting the English on the defensive. After Charles V's death in 1380 both countries were preoccupied with internal power struggles, and the war lapsed into uncertain peace. In 1415, however, Henry V decided to take

advantage of civil war in France to press English claims to the French throne (see Battle of Agincourt). By 1422, the English and their Burgundian allies controlled Aquitaine and all France north of the Loire, including Paris. A turning point came in 1429, when Joan of Arc raised the English siege of Orléans. The French king Charles VII conquered Normandy and then retook Aquitaine in 1453, leaving the English in possession only of Calais. The war laid waste to much of France and caused enormous suffering; it virtually destroyed the feudal nobility and thereby brought about a new social order. By ending England's status as a power on the continent, it led the English to expand their reach and power at sea.

Task 8. Prepare multimedia presentation or report on Hundred Years` War.

Task 9. Read the article and render it in English. Make topical vocabulary.

СТОЛЕТНЯЯ ВОЙНА

Столетняя война - наименование длительного военного конфликта между Англией и Францией (1337-1453), вызванного стремлением Англии вернуть принадлежавшие ей на континенте Нормандию, Мен, Анжу и др., а также династическими притязаниями английских королей на французский престол. Англия потерпела поражение, на континенте у нее сохранилось всего одно владение - порт Кале, удерживаемый до 1559 г.

Основными причины войны стало стремление Франции вытеснить Англию с юго-запада страны (провинция Гиень) и ликвидировать этот последний оплот английской власти на французских территориях.

А Англии стремилась упрочить свои владения в Гиени и вернуть утраченные ранее Нормандию, Мен, Анжу и др. франц. области.

Англо-французские противоречия осложнялись соперничеством из-за Фландрии, формально находившейся под властью французского короля, но фактически независимой и связанной торговыми узами с Англией (английская шерсть была основой сукноделия во Фландрии).

Поводом к войне послужили притязания английского короля *Эдуарда III* на французский престол. На стороне Англии выступили германские феодалы и Фландрия. Английская армия в основном была наёмной, находилась под командованием короля. Её основу составляли пехота (лучники) и наёмные рыцарские отряды.

Франция заручилась поддержкой Шотландии и римского папы. Основой французской армии было феодальное рыцарское ополчение.

Столетняя война принесла огромные бедствия французскому народу, нанесла большой урон экономике страны, но она способствовала росту национального самосознания. После изгнания англичан завершился исторически прогрессивный процесс объединения Франции.

В Англии Столетняя война временно закрепила господство феодальной аристократии и рыцарства, что замедлило процесс централизации государства. Столетняя война продемонстрировала преимущество английского наёмного войска перед французским феодальным рыцарским ополчением, что заставило Францию создать постоянное наёмное войско. Это войско, находящееся на службе у короля, имело черты регулярной армии в организации, воинской дисциплине, обучении. Политической и материальной основой наёмного войска был союз королевской власти и горожан, заинтересованных в преодолении феодальной раздробленности.

Война показала, что тяжёлая рыцарская конница утратила прежнее значение, увеличилась роль пехоты, особенно лучников, которые успешно боролись с рыцарями. Появившееся в ходе войны огнестрельное оружие хотя и уступало луку и арбалету, но всё шире применялось в ходе сражений. Изменение характера войны, превращение её в народную, освободительную привело к освобождению Франции от английских захватчиков.

TOPIC 6. BRITAIN IN LATE MIDDLE AGES THE WARS OF THE ROSES

Wars of the Roses - (1455–85) - series of dynastic civil wars between the houses of Lancaster and York for the English throne.

The wars were named for the emblems of the two houses, the white rose of York and the red of Lancaster. Both claimed the throne through descent from Edward III. Lancastrians held the throne from 1399, but the country fell into a state of near anarchy during the reign of Henry VI, and during one of Henry's bouts with madness in 1453 the duke of York was declared protector of the realm. Henry reestablished his authority in 1455, and the battle was joined. The Yorkists succeeded in putting Edward IV on the throne in 1461, but the wars continued, and in 1471 they murdered Henry VI in the Tower of London. In 1483 Richard III overrode the claims of his nephew Edward V to seize the throne, alienating many Yorkists. The Lancastrian Henry Tudor (Henry VII) defeated and killed Richard at the Battle of Bosworth Field, ending the wars. He united the houses by marriage and defeated a Yorkist rising in 1487. See also earl of Warwick.

Henry VI who had become king as a baby grew up as a simple-minded and fool-loving. He hated the war like nobles and was an unsuitable king for such a violent society. But he was a civilized and gentle man. He founded 2 places of learning that still exist - Eton College not far from London and King College in Cambridge.

He could happily have spent his life in such places of learning. But his simple-mindedness gave way to periods of mental illness. England had lost the 100 years war and was ruled by a mentally ill king who was bad at choosing advisers. It was natural that the nobles began to ask who should be ruling the country. There were not more than 60 noble families controlling England at this time. Most of them were related to each other through marriage.

Some of the nobles were extremely powerful. Many of them continued to keep their own private armies after returning from the war in France and used them to frighten local people into obeying them. Some of these armies were large, for example the Duke of Buckingham had 2000 men in his private army.

The discontented nobility were divided between those who remained loyal to Henry VI - the Lancastrians and those who supported the Duke of York. The Duke of York claimed the throne for himself. After his death in battle his son Edward took up the struggle and won the throne in 1461.

Edward IV put Henry into the Tower of London but 9 years later a new Lancastrian army rescued Henry and chased Henry out the country. Edward was able to raise another army using his popularity with the merchants of London and the south-east of England.

Edward returned England in 1471 and defeated the Lancastrians. At last Edward IV was safe on the throne. Henry VI died in the Tower soon after, almost certainly murdered.

The war between York and Lancaster would probably have stopped if Edward's son had been old enough to rule and if Edward's brother Richard of Gloucester had not been so ambitious.

But when Edward VI died in 1463 his 2 sons were put in the Tower by their uncle Richard of Gloucester. Richard took the crown and became king Richard III. A month later the two princes were murdered. William Shakespeare's play "Richard III" written a century later accuses Richard of murder.

Richard III was not popular. Both Lancastrians and Yorkists disliked him. They joined Henry Tudor who also claimed the British throne. After many battles Henry was a crowned king. The war had finally ended though it couldn't have been clear at the time.

Much later in the 19th century the novelist Walter Scott named these wars The Wars of the Roses, because York's symbol was a white rose and Lancaster's – a red one.

The Wars of the Roses nearly destroyed the English idea of kingship forever. The wars were a disaster for the nobility. For the 1st time in the British history no prisoners were taken, because everyone was interested in destroying the opposing nobility. Those captured in battle were usually killed immediately. Almost half the lords of the 60 noble families had died in the wars. It was this fact which made it possible for the Tudors to build a new nation state.

TOPIC 7. THE TUDOR AGE (1485–1603)

THE TUDORS. THE BIRTH OF THE NATION STATE

The Tudors - English royal dynasty that gave five sovereigns to England (1485–1603).

The Tudors originated in the 13th century, but the dynasty's fortunes were established by Owen Tudor (c. 1400–61), a Welsh adventurer who took service with Henry V and married Henry's widow, Catherine of Valois (1401–37). Owen and Catherine's son Edmund Tudor (c. 1430–56) was created earl of Richmond and married Lady Margaret Beaufort (1443–1509), a descendant of John of Gaunt of the house of Lancaster. Their son Henry Tudor claimed the English throne as Henry VII in 1485 and cemented his claim with his marriage to Elizabeth of the house of York, daughter of Edward IV. The Tudor rose symbolized the union between the red rose of the Lancastrians and the white rose of the Yorkists. The Tudor dynasty continued in the 16th century with the reigns of Henry VIII and his children Edward VI, Mary I, and Elizabeth I. In 1603 the dynasty was succeeded by the house of Stuart.

The century of Tudor's rule 1485-1603 is often thought of as a most glorious period in English history. Henry VII built the foundation of a wealthy nation state and a powerful monarchy. His son Henry VIII kept a magnificent court and made the Church of England truly English by breaking away from the Roman Catholic Church. His daughter Elisabeth brought glory to the new state by defeating the powerful navy of Spain, the greatest European power of the time.

During the Tudor age England experienced one of the greatest artistic periods in its history.

Henry VII is less well-known than either Henry III or Elizabeth I. But he was far more important in establishing the new monarchy than either of them. He had the same ideas and opinions as the growing classes of merchants and gentlemen-farmers and he based royal power on good business sense.

King Henry VII firmly believed that war and glory were bad for business and that business was good for the state. He therefore avoided quarrels either with Scotland in the North or France in the South. Henry was fortunate. Many of the old nobility had died or being defeated in the recent wars and their lands had gone to the king. This meant that Henry had more power and more money than earlier kings.

In order to establish his authority beyond question he forbade anyone, except himself, to keep armed men. His aim was to make the crown financially independent and the lands and the fines he took from the old nobility helped him do this. Henry also raised taxes for wars which he then did not fight. He never spent money unless he had to, but he kept friendship of the merchants and gently classes. Like him they wanted peace and prosperity.

He created new nobility from among them and men unknown before now became Henry's statesmen, but they all knew that their rise to importance was completely dependent on the crown.

When Henry VII died in 1509 he left behind the huge total of 2 million pounds about 15 years-worth of income. The only thing on which he was happy to spend money freely was the building of ships for a merchant fleet. Henry understood earlier than most people that England's future wealth would depend on international trade. And in order to trade Henry realized that England must have its own fleet of merchant ships.

THE REFORMATION. HENRY VIII



Henry VIII - *born June 28, 1491, Greenwich, near London, Eng. died Jan. 28, 1547, London. King of England (1509–47).*

Son of Henry VII, Henry married his brother's widow, Catherine of Aragon (the mother of Mary I), soon after his accession in 1509. His first chief minister, Thomas Cardinal Wolsey, exercised nearly complete control over policy in 1515–27. In 1527 Henry pursued a divorce from Catherine to marry Anne Boleyn, but Pope Clement VII denied him an annulment. Wolsey, unable to help Henry, was ousted (вытеснить).

The new minister, Thomas Cromwell, in 1532 initiated a revolution when he decided that the English church should separate from Rome, allowing Henry to marry Anne in 1533. A new archbishop, Thomas Cranmer, declared the first marriage annulled. A daughter, Elizabeth I, was born to Anne soon after.

Becoming head of the Church of England represented Henry's major achievement, but it had wide-ranging consequences. Henry, once profoundly devoted to the papacy and rewarded with the title Defender of the Faith, was excommunicated, and he was obliged to settle the nature of the newly independent church. In the 1530s his power was greatly enlarged, especially by transferring to the crown the wealth of the monasteries and by new clerical taxes, but his earlier reputation as a man of learning became buried under his enduring fame as a man of blood. Many, including St. Thomas More, were killed because they refused to accept the new order.

The king grew tired of Anne, and in 1536 she was executed for adultery. He immediately married Jane Seymour, who bore him a son, Edward VI, but died in childbirth.

Three years later, at Cromwell's instigation, he married Anne of Cleves, but he hated her and demanded a quick divorce; he had Cromwell beheaded in 1540. By now Henry was becoming paranoid, as well as enormously fat and unhealthy.

In 1540 he married Catherine Howard, but he had her beheaded for adultery in 1542. In 1542 he waged a financially ruinous war against Scotland.

In 1543 he married Catherine Parr, who survived him. He was succeeded on his death by his son, Edward.

King Henry VIII was quite unlike his father. He was cruel, wasteful with money, and interested in pleasing himself. He wanted to become important and influence European politics. But France was now more powerful than England and Spain was even more powerful because it was united with the Holy Roman Empire.

Henry VIII wanted England to hold the balance of power between these 2 giants but he failed. Henry VIII was always looking for new source of money. He disliked the power of the church in England because it was an international organization and he could not completely control it. The taxes paid to the church reduced his own income. But Henry had another reason for standing up to the authority of the church.

In 1510 Henry had married Catherine of Aragon, the widow of his elder brother. But by 1526 she had still not had a son and was now unlikely to do so. Henry tried to persuade the Pope to allow him to divorce Catherine, but the Pope was controlled by Charles V, who was Holy Roman Emperor, and king of Spain and also Catherine's nephew.

For political and family reasons he wanted Henry to stay married to Catherine. So the Pope forbade Henry's divorce. Henry was extremely angry. In 1531 he persuaded the bishops to make him head of the church in England and this became law after Parliament passed the act of supremacy in 1534. So Henry was now free to divorce Catherine and marry his new love Ann Boleyn. He hoped Ann would give him a son to follow him on the throne.

Like his father Henry VIII governed England through his close advisers, men who were completely dependent on him for their position. But when he broke into Rome he used Parliament to make the break legal. Because of this break England became politically a protestant country, the popular religion was still Catholic. 560 monasteries and other religious houses were closed as the result of the English Reformation. Henry did this in order to make money but he also wanted to be popular with the rising classes of landowners and merchants.

He therefore gave or sold much of the monasteries' lands to them. Many smaller landowners made then fortunes. They knocked down the old monastery buildings and used the stone to create magnificent new houses for themselves. Meanwhile the monks and nuns (монахиня) were thrown out. Some were given small sums of money, but many were unable to find work and became wondering beggars.

The dissolution of the monasteries was probably the greatest act of official destruction in the history of England. Henry died in 1547 leaving his 6th wife Catherine Parr and his 3 children. Mary, the eldest was the daughter of Catherine Aragon, Elizabeth – from his 2nd wife Ann Boleyn, whom he had executed, because she was

unfaithful. 9-years-old Edward was the son of Jane Seymour – the only wife, whom Henry had really loved, but who had died giving birth to his only son.

Task 10. *Read the text and make a summary of it in English.*

Эдуарду VI шел десятый год, когда он вступил на трон в 1547. Он был сыном Генриха VIII от его третьей жены - Джейн Сеймур. Спустя несколько дней провизии, которые Генрих VIII предусмотрел на время несовершеннолетия нового короля, были отменены, и дядя Эдуарда, вскоре ставший герцогом Сомерсетом, возложил на себя обязанности "протектора королевства" и пребывал на этом посту до 1550. Внешняя политика Сомерсета была неудачной. Он желал объединить Англию и Шотландию, однако действовал столь неуклюже, что настроил против себя шотландцев. Сомерсет вторгся в Шотландию, одержал победу при Пинки-Клей и удалился от дел. На помощь шотландцам пришли французы, и брак был устроен между Марией Шотландской и дофином Франции, а не молодым королем Англии, как планировал Сомерсет. Внутренняя политика Сомерсета также провалилась.

Социальные и экономические условия становились все хуже, а попытки исправить положение не принесли пользы. Наконец в 1550 Сомерсет ушел в отставку, и государственными делами Англии до конца правления Эдуарда занимался граф Уорвик. Уорвик был совершенно лишен того великодушия, которое было присуще Сомерсету в сочетании с менее высокими инстинктами. Зная о том, что молодой король умрет, не оставив наследника, Уорвик задумал не допустить к трону законную наследницу Марию, дочь Генриха VIII и Екатерины Арагонской. Для этой цели он избрал леди Джейн Грей, внучку младшей дочери Генриха VII, и в 1553 выдал ее замуж за одного из своих сыновей, лорда Гилфорда Дадли. Однако в конце концов заговор не удался.

Правление Эдуарда VI было ознаменовано началом Реформации в Англии. Впервые были узаконены доктрина и богослужение христианства нового толка. В 1549 был утвержден новый обязательный к использованию молитвенник и требник (Книга общей молитвы). Это был перевод и адаптация средневековых богослужебных книг, и по своему тону это в целом были католические тексты. Следующий молитвенник, выпущенный в 1552, носил уже явные черты того направления, в котором пошли континентальные реформаторы.

Консервативные епископы лишались приходов, назначались новые прелаты; среди последних имелись экстремисты, которые, не обращая внимания на закон, разрушали алтари и выказывали сильное рвение в борьбе с "идолопоклонством". Насколько все это соответствовало воле народа - неизвестно. Лоллардов в Англии

было мало, а европейские верования принимались самыми разными слоями общества. Раздавались и голоса протеста против перемен, однако вскоре их уже не было слышно. Генрих VIII не хотел никаких перемен в религии до достижения его сыном совершеннолетия; однако когда Эдуард умер 6 июля 1553 в возрасте 16 лет, люди, которых прежний король бросил бы в огонь за еретические взгляды, находились у кормила и церкви, и государства.

Мария I, или Мария Тюдор, прозванная Кровавой, дочь Генриха VI и Екатерины Арагонской, спаслась от посланных для ее пленения войск после смерти Эдуарда и была провозглашена королевой в Лондоне 19 июля 1553. Она считала началом своего правления 6 июля, день смерти Эдуарда, и игнорировала девятидневное правление леди Джейн Грей. Новая королева была привержена старой религии, однако получила поддержку именно тех восточных графств, в которых реформа получила наибольшее распространение. Какое-то время Мария вела крайне умеренную политику. Епископы, смещенные при Эдуарде, были возвращены в свои приходы, а те, кто их заменял, были в свою очередь лишены должностей.

Реформаторам с континента было предписано покинуть Англию, однако к английским гражданам, обратившимся в новую веру, никакого насилия не применялось. Парламентским актом отменялись все изменения в отношении религии, сделанные в правление Эдуарда: новый молитвенник, разрешение священникам вступать в брак, назначение епископов через вручение им патентов. Повсеместно происходило возвращение к обрядовым формам последних лет жизни Генриха VIII. Существовала и оппозиция, однако в целом общество не было против возвращения к старым порядкам. Однако позднее восстановление папской власти и угроза возвращения монастырских земель вызвали широкое и упорное сопротивление общества.

Грубейшей ошибкой Марии был ее брак со своим вторым кузеном, Филиппом Испанским. Объявление о помолвке послужило сигналом к восстанию. Главные силы мятежников направились на Лондон, и положение спасли только личное мужество и инициатива королевы. Но теперь Мария была напугана и разгневана, и от прежней умеренности не осталось и следа. Брак был торжественно заключен в июле 1554. Еще большее недовольство вызвало восстановление духовной юрисдикции папской власти. С великой неохотой Третий парламент возобновил законы против еретиков и отменил все акты об ослаблении власти папы в Англии, принятые с 1528. Чтобы обеспечить принятие этих законов, следовало дать гарантии, что это не затронет владения, принадлежавшие ранее монастырям.

Меры, предпринятые Марией для того, чтобы справиться с недовольством, укрепили оппозиционные силы. Когда она обнаружила, что те, кто по убеждению

принял новое истолкование веры, не откажутся от своих представлений, она встала на путь репрессий. Брак оказался несчастливым и вовлек Англию в неудачную войну с Францией; костры, на которых было сожжено почти 300 еретиков, нанесли непоправимый урон авторитету королевы; недовольство было подогрето и экономическим спадом. Когда Мария умерла 17 ноября 1558, Англия ликовала.

THE NEW FOREIGN POLICY. ELIZABETH I

Elizabeth I - born Sept. 7, 1533, Greenwich, near London, Eng.
died March 24, 1603, Richmond, Surrey. Queen of England (1558–1603).



Daughter of Henry VIII and his second wife, Anne Boleyn, she displayed precocious seriousness as a child and received the rigorous education normally reserved for male heirs. Her situation was precarious during the reigns of her half brother Edward VI and her half sister Mary I.

After Sir Thomas Wyatt's rebellion in 1554, she was imprisoned but later released. Her accession to the throne on Mary's death was greeted with public jubilation. She assembled a core of experienced advisers, including William Cecil and Francis Walsingham, but she jealously retained her power to make final decisions. Important events of her reign included the restoration of England to Protestantism; the execution of Mary, Queen of Scots; and England's defeat of the Spanish Armada. She lived under constant threat of conspiracies by British Catholics.

Over time she became known as the Virgin Queen, wedded to her kingdom. Many important suitors came forward, and she showed signs of romantic attachment to the earl of Leicester, but she remained single, perhaps because she was unwilling to compromise her power. She had another suitor, the 2nd earl of Essex, executed in 1601 for treason.

Though her later years saw an economic decline and disastrous military efforts to subdue the Irish, her reign had already seen England's emergence as a world power and her presence had helped unify the nation against foreign enemies. Highly intelligent and strong-willed, Elizabeth inspired ardent expressions of loyalty, and her reign saw a brilliant flourishing in the arts, especially literature and music. After her death, she was succeeded by James I.

During the period from 1485 until 1603 England foreign policy changed several times. But by the end of this period England had established some basic principles. For all the Tudors whichever country was Elizabeth's greatest trade rival was also its

greatest enemy. This idea remained the basis of Elizabeth's foreign policy until the 19th century.

Elizabeth's grandfather Henry VII had recognized the importance of trade and had built a large fleet of merchant ships. His son Henry VIII had spent money on warships and guns making English guns the best in Europe. Elizabeth's foreign policy carried Henry VII work much further encouraging merchant expansion.

She recognized Spain as her main trade rival and enemy. England's ships had already been attacking Spanish ships as they returned from America filled with silver and gold.

This had been going on since 1570 and was the result of Spain's refusal to allow England to trade freely with American colonies. Although these English ships were privately owned the treasure was shared with the queen. Elizabeth apologized to Spain but kept her share of what have been taken from Spanish ships.

Philip –the Spanish king knew quite well that Elizabeth was encouraging the Sea Dogs as they were known. These seamen were traders as well as pirates and adventures. The most famous of them were: John Hawkings, Frances Drake, Martin Frobisher, but there were many others who were also trying to build English sea trade and to interrupt Spain's.

Philip decided to conquer England in 1583. He built a great fleet of ships "Armada" to move his money across the English Channel from the Netherlands. But in 1587 Frances Drake attacked and destroyed part of this fleet.

Philip started again and built the largest fleet that had ever gone to sea. When news of this Armada reached England, Elizabeth called her soldiers together. She won their hearts with well chosen words "*I come to live or die among you all, to lay down for my God and for my Kingdom and for my people, my honor and my blood even in the dust. I know I have the body of a weakened feared woman but I have the heart and stomach of a king and of a king of England too.*"

The ship Armada was defeated more by bad weather than by English guns. Some ships were sunk, but most were blown northwards by the wind and wrecked on the rocky coast of Scotland and Ireland. For England it was a glorious moment, but peace was only made with Spain when Elizabeth was dead.

Both before and after the Armada Elizabeth followed 2 politics: the encouraged English sailors to continue, to attack and destroy Spain's ships, bringing gold, silver and other treasures back from the newly discovered continent of America. She also encouraged England traders to settle abroad and to create colonies. This 2nd policy led directly to British colonial empire of the 17 and 18th centuries.

The first England colonists sailed to America towards the end of the Elizabethan century. One of the best known was Sir Walter Raleigh who brought tobacco back to England. The settlers tried without success to start profitable colonies in Virginia which was named after Elizabeth the Virgin or unmarried queen. But these were only beginnings.

England also began selling West-African slaves to work in America. John Hawkings carried his first slave cargo in 1562. By 1650 slavery had become an important trade bringing wealth to England. The growth of trade abroad flourished. Chartered companies were established.

A Charta gave a company the right to all the business in its particular trade or region. In return for this important advantage the chartered company gave some of its profits to the crown. The East India Company was established mainly because of the Dutch controlled the entire spice trade with the east. Spices were extremely important for making the winter salted meat tastier. The quarrel over spices was England's first difficulty with the Dutch. Before the end of the 17th century trading competition with the Dutch had led to three wars.

Task 11. *Read the text and translate it into English. Consult the dictionary.*

Елизавета, правившая с 1558 по 1603, была дочерью Генриха VIII и Анны Болейн. Несмотря на то, что брак ее родителей был объявлен недействительным в 1536, она стала королевой в соответствии с законом страны и волей народа. Она унаследовала многие черты своего отца. Подобно ему она обладала даром выбирать компетентных советников и понимала важность благоприятно настроенного общественного мнения. В религиозной сфере она стремилась не впадать в крайности своих предшественников. Вакансии на епископские места, открывшиеся после ее восшествия на престол, включая архиепископство Кентерберийское, позволили назначить умеренных священников, готовых сотрудничать с новой королевой.

Елизавета сохраняла латинские обряды до тех пор, пока парламент вновь не изменил законы. Акт о супрематии 1559 восстанавливал положения предыдущего акта, принятого при Генрихе VIII; акт о единообразии восстанавливал действие Книги молитв, основанной на второй редакции Книги общей молитвы Эдуарда, однако с некоторыми исправлениями, делавшими ее более приемлемой для консервативно настроенных верующих. Как и все другие компромиссы, ее политика в религиозной сфере никого полностью не устраивала, однако со временем она была принята большинством народа. Папа объявил об отлучении Елизаветы лишь в 1570. Папская булла освобождала ее подданных от необходимости соблюдать верность короне. Лишение королевы права на престол и принятые в ответ парламентские акты сделали чрезвычайно трудным для католиков сохранять лояльность одновременно церкви и собственной стране. Первые годы правления Елизаветы не были омрачены преследованиями политических противников, однако восстание на севере в 1569, последняя заслуживающая упоминания попытка английской знати воспротивиться королевской власти, заставило ее занять более решительную позицию.

Во внешней политике Елизавета умело играла на соперничестве между Францией и Испанией. Иногда она сама оказывала помощь, а иногда поручала своим подданным помогать французским гугенотам и голландским кальвинистам, однако делала это не потому, что желала стать во главе протестантизма, еще менее - из желания поощрить мятежи, но просто с целью навредить Франции и Испании. В 1568 Мария Шотландская, которую вынудили отречься от престола, прибыла в Англию искать покровительства и защиты у Елизаветы. Королева решила, что наименее опасным решением будет не выпускать ее за пределы Англии. Мария была предполагаемой наследницей английского трона, и в течение почти 20 лет оставалась центром притяжения сил, желавших избавиться от Елизаветы. В конце концов, находясь на грани начала войны с Испанией и под давлением требований избавиться от Марии, Елизавета обвинила соперницу в государственной измене. Мария была казнена 8 февраля 1587.

У Филиппа II Испанского были все основания для объявления войны. Морские разбойники именем Елизаветы грабили испано-американские порты и груженные золотом корабли испанской короны, а английская армия сражалась на стороне Вильгельма Оранского против Филиппа в Голландии. У Англии были также претензии к Испании. Агенты Филиппа участвовали в заговорах против Елизаветы; испанцы оказали помощь мятежникам в Ирландии.

Испанская Армада из 130 кораблей, направленная против Англии летом 1588, состояла главным образом не из военных, а из транспортных судов. Тем не менее, на кораблях размещалось 22 тыс. солдат, которые должны были покорить Англию. По пути ей был нанесен серьезный удар в сражении, в котором испанцы оказались менее компетентными мореходами, чем англичане. Испанские корабли стали на рейд у Кале. Охваченные паникой после атаки брандеров, испанцы порубили снасть. Начавшимся штормом корабли вынесло в Северное море, где часть была потоплена англичанами, а остальные пропали в море или оказались выброшенными на каменистые берега Шотландии и Ирландии. В Испанию вернулось всего около трети флота. Война продолжалась до конца правления Елизаветы, но поражение Армады избавило Англию от угрозы со стороны Испании.

Последние годы правления королевы ознаменованы повторным завоеванием Ирландии, номинального владения Англии со времен Генриха II. Это была дорогостоящая, но достаточно серьезная борьба, длившаяся, по крайней мере, полстолетия. Как внутри страны, так и за ее пределами Англия достигла впечатляющих успехов. Правление Елизаветы отмечено также расцветом

английского Возрождения. Несмотря на свои грубые и жестокие стороны, это была эпоха великих свершений; тем не менее, после смерти королевы в 1603 ее наследникам достались трудные проблемы.

Источник: <http://history.rin.ru>

TOPIC 8. THE STUARTS. CROWN AND PARLIAMENT

The Stuarts - or house of Stewart or Steuart.

Royal house of Scotland (1371–1714) and of England (1603–49, 1660–1714).

The earliest members of the family were stewards in 11th-century Brittany; in the 12th century a member entered the service of David I (r. 1124–53) in Scotland and received the title of steward. The 6th steward married the daughter of King Robert I the Bruce, and in 1371 their son became King Robert II, the first Stewart king of Scotland (r. 1371–90). His descendants in the 15th–17th centuries included the Scottish monarchs James I, James II, James III, James IV, Mary, Queen of Scots, and James VI (who inherited the English throne as James I).

The Stuarts (who eventually adopted the French-influenced spelling of their name) were excluded from the English throne after Charles I until the restoration of Charles II in 1660. He was followed by James II, William III and Mary II, and Anne. The Stuart royal line ended in 1714, and the British crown passed to the house of Hanover, despite later claims by James II's son James Edward (the Old Pretender) and grandson Charles Edward (the Young Pretender).

The Stuart monarchs were less successful than the Tudors. They quarreled with Parliament and this resulted in Civil War. The only king of England ever to be tried and executed was a Stuart. The republic that followed was even more unsuccessful and by popular demand the dead king's son was caught back to the throne.

At the beginning of the 18th century the monarchy was no longer absolutely powerful. It had become a parliamentary monarchy controlled by a constitution. These important changes didn't take place simply because the Stuarts were bad rulers. They resulted from a basic change in society. The crown could no longer raise money or govern without cooperation with merchants and farmers. These groups were represented by the House of Commons. In return for money the Commons demanded political power.

The first signs of trouble between crown and parliament came in 1601 when the commons were angry over Elizabeth's policy of selling monopolies.

When Elizabeth died, she left James I with a huge debt. He had to ask parliament to raise the tax to pay the debt. Parliament agreed but in return insisted on the right to discuss home or foreign policy.

Charles I found himself quarreling even more virtually (фактически) with the commons that his father had done mainly over money. Finally he said: "Parliaments are

altogether in my power. As I find ... them good or evil they are to continue or not to be', and he dissolved the Parliament. Charles' need for money however forced him to recall Parliament but each time he did so he quarreled with it.

In spring 1638 Charles faced a rebellious Scottish army. Without the help of Parliament he was only able to put together an inexperienced army. Charles knew his army was unlikely to win so he agreed to respect all Scottish political and religious freedoms and also to pay a large sum of money to persuade the Scots to return home.

REPUBLICAN BRITAIN. OLIVER CROMWELL

Events in Scotland made Charles depend on Parliament, but events in Ireland resulted in Civil war.

Charles I had continued Elizabeth's policy and had colonized Ulster (Ольстер), the northern part of Ireland mainly with farmers from Scotland. In 1641 Ireland exploded in rebellion against the English and Scottish settlers. As many as three thousand people – men, women and children were killed most of them in Ulster.

In London Charles and Parliament quarreled over who should control an army to defeat the rebels. Several members of parliament (MPs) had commanded the parliamentarian army. The strongest was a gentleman farmer named Oliver Cromwell. He had created a new model army the first regular force from which the British army up today developed.

Oliver Cromwell - born April 25, 1599, Huntingdon, Huntingdonshire, Eng. died Sept. 3, 1658, London.

English soldier and statesman, lord protector of the republican Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland (1653–58).

He was elected to Parliament in 1628, but Charles I dissolved that Parliament in 1629 and did not call another for 11 years. In 1640 Cromwell was elected to the Short and the Long Parliament. When differences between Charles and Parliament erupted into the English Civil Wars, Cromwell became one of the leading generals on the Parliamentary side, winning many notable victories, including the Battles of Marston Moor and Naseby. He was among those who brought the king to trial and signed his death warrant. After the British Isles were named the Commonwealth, he served as the first chairman of the Council of State. In the next few years he fought against the Royalists in Ireland and Scotland and suppressed a mutiny inspired by the Levelers. When Charles II advanced into England, Cromwell destroyed his army at Worcester (1651), the battle that ended the civil wars. As lord protector, Cromwell raised his country's status once more to that of a leading European power and concluded the Anglo-Dutch War. Though a devout Calvinist, he pursued policies of religious toleration. He refused the title of king offered to him by Parliament in 1657. After his death he was succeeded by his son Richard Cromwell.

Instead of country people or gentry Cromwell invited into his army educated men who wanted to fight for their beliefs. Cromwell and his advisers had captured the king in 1645 but they didn't know what to do with him. This was an entirely new situation in Great Britain.

Charles I himself continued to encourage rebellion against parliament even after he had been imprisoned. 2/3 of the MPs didn't want to put the king on trial, they were removed from Parliament by the army and the remaining 55 members "judged him and found him guilty of making war against his kingdom and the parliament". On the 31 of January 1649 King Charles was executed.

From 1649 till 1660 Britain was a republic but the republic was not a success. Cromwell and his friends created a government far more severe than Charles' had been. They had got rid of the monarchy and now they got rid of the House of Lords and the Anglican Church.

The Scots were mocked by Charles' execution. They invited his son whom they recognized as King Charles II to join them and fight against the English parliamentary army. But they were defeated and young Charles was lucky to escape to France. Scotland was brought under English republican rule. The army remained the most powerful force in the land. Disagreements between the army and parliament resulted in Parliament's dissolution in 1653. From 1653 Britain was governed by Cromwell alone. He became Lord Protector in far greater powers than King Charles had had.

Cromwell's government was unpopular for many reasons. He governed the country through the army and people were forbidden to celebrate Christmas and Easter or to play games on a Sunday.

When Charles died in 1658 the protectorate as his republican administration was called, collapsed. Cromwell had hoped that his son would take over when he died. But Richard Cromwell was not a good leader and the army commanders soon started to quarrel among themselves. One of these decided to act. In 1660 he marched to London, arranged for free elections and advised Charles II to return to his Kingdom. The republic was over. When Charles II returned to England as the publicly accepted King the laws and acts of Cromwell's government were automatically cancelled.

TOPIC 9. POLITICS AND THE FINANCE IN THE 18TH CENTURY

Before the end of the 18th Britain was as powerful as France. This resulted from the profits of its industries and from the wealth of its large new trade Empire, part of which had been captured from the France.

Britain now had strongest navy in the world. The navy controlled Britain's own trade routes and endangered those of its enemies. This was the deliberate policy of the government to create this trading empire and to protect it with a strong navy. This was possible by the way in which government had developed during the 18th century.

For the 1st time it was the King's ministers who were the real policy and decision makers. Power now belonged to the groups from which the ministers came and their supporters in parliament. These ministers ruled over a country which had become wealthy through trade.

This wealth or 'capital' made possible both an agricultural and industrial revolution which made Britain the most advanced economy in the world. However there was an enormous price to pay, as while a few people became richer but many others lost their land, homes and their way of life.

Families were driven off the land in another period of enclosures (захват земель частником). They became the "working proletariat" of the cities that made Britain's trade and industrial empire of the 19th century possible.

The invention of machinery destroyed the 'old cottage industries' and created factories. The development of industry led to the sudden growth of cities: Birmingham, Glasgow, Manchester and Liverpool. None of this could have happened without great danger to the established order.

In France the misery of the poor and the power of the trading classes led to revolution in 1789. The Britain government was afraid of dangerous revolutionary ideas spreading from France to the discontented in Britain.

Britain ended the century fighting against the great French leader Napoleon and eventually defeating him. Many who might have been discontented were concerned with the defeat of Napoleon. Revolution was still a possibility but Britain was saved by the high level of local control of the ruling class in the countryside.

When Queen Ann, the last of the Stuarts, died in 1714, the ruler of Hanover George became King.

George I - First king of England (1714–27) from the house of Hanover.

He succeeded his father as the elector of Hanover (1698) and fought with distinction in the War of the Spanish Succession. As a great-grandson of James I of England and under the Act of Settlement, George ascended the English throne in 1714. He formed a Whig ministry and left internal politics to his ministers, including 1st Earl Stanhope, Viscount Townshend, and Robert Walpole. He was unpopular because of his German manner and German mistresses and their involvement in the South Sea Bubble crisis, but he strengthened Britain's position by forming the Quadruple Alliance (1718). He was succeeded by his son, George II.

Government power was increased because the new king spoke only German and didn't seem very interested in this new Kingdom. Among the King's ministers was Robert Walpole who remained the greatest political leader for over 20 years.

Robert Walpole, English statesman generally regarded as the first British prime minister.

Elected to the House of Commons in 1701, he became an active Whig parliamentarian. He served as secretary at war (1708–10) and as treasurer of the navy (1710–11). He was also a member of the Kit-Cat Club. The Tory government sought to remove his influence by impeaching him for corruption, and he was expelled from the Commons in 1712. With the accession of George I (1714), he regained his position and rose rapidly to become first lord of the treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer (1715–17, 1721–42). Although associated with the South Sea Bubble scandal, he restored confidence in the government and maintained the Whigs in office. He cultivated the support of George II from 1727 and used royal patronage for political ends, skillfully managing the House of Commons to win support for his trade and fiscal programs, including the sinking fund. With his consolidation of power, he effectively became the first British prime minister. He avoided foreign entanglements and kept England neutral until 1739 but was forced into the War of Jenkins' Ear. He resigned under pressure in 1742 and was created an Earl. His acclaimed art collection, sold to Russia in 1779, became part of the Hermitage Museum collection.

He is considered Britain's 1st prime-minister. He was determined to keep the crown under the firm control of parliament. War with France broke out in 1756. The war against France's trade went on all over the world. In India Britain defeated France and many Britons started to go to India to make their fortune.

In 1759 Britain was drunk with victory. The British had a very high opinion of them and they thought that nothing was as well-done elsewhere as in their own country. British pride was expressed in a national song written in 1742: *Rule, Britannia, and Britannia rule the waves, Britons never, never, never shall be slaves*:

Rule, Britannia! Rule the waves:

Britons never shall be slaves.

Перевод: Правь, Британия! Правь волнами:

Британцы никогда не станут рабами.

When Britain first, at Heaven's command

Arose from out the azure main;

This was the charter of the land,

And guardian angels sang this strain:

"Rule, Britannia! rule the waves:

«Britons never will be slaves»

The nations, not so blest as thee,

Must, in their turns, to tyrants fall;

While thou shalt flourish great and free,

*The dread and envy of them all.
"Rule, Britannia! rule the waves:
«Britons never will be slaves.»*

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Several influences came together at the same time to revolutionize Britain's industry money, labour, and a greater demand for goods, new power, and better transport.

By the end of the 18th century some families had made huge private fortunes. Growing merchant banks helped put this money to use. Increased food production made it possible to feed large populations in the new towns. These populations were made up of the people who had lost their land through enclosures and were looking for work. They now needed to buy things they had never needed before.

In the old days people in the village had grown their own food, made many of their own clothes and generally managed without having to buy very much. As landless workers these people had to buy food, clothing and everything else they needed. This created an opportunity to make and sell more goods than ever before. The same landless people who needed these things also became the workers who made them.

By the early 18th century simple machines had already been invented for basic jobs. They could make large quantities of simple goods quickly and cheaply so that mass production became possible for the first time. Each machine carried out one simple process which introduced the idea of division of labour among workers. This was to become an important part of the industrial revolution.

Increased iron production made it possible to manufacture new machinery for other industries. None saw this more clearly than John Wilkinson, a man with a total belief in iron. He built the largest iron works in the country. He built the world's first iron bridge over the river Severn in 1771. He saw the first iron boats.

When James Watt made a greatly improved steam engine in 1769, Wilkinson improved it further by making parts of the engine more accurately with his special skills in iron-working. One invention led to another and increased production in others. New machinery was invented which replaced handwork spinning and weaving machines were invented which revolutionized cloth making. It allowed Britain to make cloth more cheaply than elsewhere. But this machinery put many people out of work.

The social effects of the industrial revolution were enormous. Workers tried to join together to protect themselves against powerful employers. They wanted fair wages and reasonable conditions in which to work. Riots occurred led by the unemployed who had been replaced in factories by machines. In 1799 some of these rioters, known as the *Luddites* started to break up the machinery which had them out of work.

The Government supported the factory owners and made the breaking of machinery punishable by death. The Government was afraid of a revolution like the one in France.

TOPIC 10. THE 19th CENTURY.

THE VICTORIAN AGE OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE AND THE NEW RIVALS

Great Britain in the 19th century was at its most powerful and self confident. After the end of revolution 19th century Britain was the workshop of the world. Until the last quarter of the century British factories were producing more than any other country in the world.

By the end of the century Britain's Empire was political rather than commercial. Britain used this empire to control large areas of the world. The empire gave the British a feeling of their own importance which was difficult to forget when Britain lost its power in the 20th century. This belief of the British in their own importance was at its height in the middle of the 19th century among the new middle class which had grown with industrialization.

The novelist Charles Dickens nicely described this national pride. One of his characters believed that Britain had been specially chosen by God and considered other countries as mistake.

The rapid growth of the middle class was part of the enormous rise in the population. In 1815 the population was 13 millions, but this had doubled by 1871 and was over 40 men by 1914. This growth and the movement of people to towns from the countryside forced a change in the political balance and by the end of the century. Most men had the right to vote.

Politics and government during the 19th century became increasingly the property of the middle class. The aristocracy and the crown had little power left by 1914. However the working class, the large member of people who had left their villages to become factory workers had not yet found a proper voice.

Britain enjoyed a strong peace in European Councils after the defeat of Napoleon.

It laid in industry and trade and the navy which protected this trade. Britain wanted two main things in Europe. A balance of power, which would prevent any single nation from becoming too strong and a free market in which its own industrial and trade superiority would give Britain a clear advantage.

Outside Europe Britain wished its trading position to be stronger than anyone else. It defended its interests by keeping ships of its navy in almost every ocean of the world.

QUEEN VICTORIA



Victoria (Alexandrina Victoria; 24 May 1819 – 22 January 1901) was Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland from 20 June 1837 until her death. From 1 May 1876, she adopted the additional title of Empress of India.

Victoria was the daughter of Prince Edward, Duke of Kent and Strathearn, the fourth son of King George III. Both the Duke of Kent and King George III died in 1820, and Victoria was raised under close supervision by her German-born mother Princess Victoria of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld. She inherited the throne aged 18, after her father's three elder brothers had all died, leaving no surviving legitimate children.

The United Kingdom was already an established constitutional monarchy, in which the sovereign held relatively little direct political power. Privately, Victoria attempted to influence government policy and ministerial appointments; publicly, she became a national icon who was identified with strict standards of personal morality.

Victoria married her first cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, in 1840. Their nine children married into royal and noble families across the continent, tying them together and earning her the sobriquet "the grandmother of Europe". After Albert's death in 1861, Victoria plunged into deep mourning and avoided public appearances. As a result of her seclusion, republicanism temporarily gained strength, but in the latter half of her reign her popularity recovered. Her Golden and Diamond Jubilees were times of public celebration.

Her reign of 63 years and seven months is known as the Victorian era. It was a period of industrial, cultural, political, scientific, and military change within the United Kingdom, and was marked by a great expansion of the British Empire. She was the last British monarch of the House of Hanover. Her son and successor, Edward VII, belonged to the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, the line of his father.

TOPIC 11. THE 20TH CENTURY

BRITAIN IN THE WORLD WAR I

At the start of the 20th century Britain was the greatest world power. By the middle of the century Britain was clearly weaker than either the US or the Soviet Union.

By the end of the 1970s Britain was no longer a world power at all and was not even among the richest European powers. One reason for this sudden decline was the

cost and effort of two World Wars. Another reason was the cost of keeping up the empire followed by the economic problems involved in losing it. But the most important reason was the basic weaknesses in Britain's industrial power to particularly its failure to spend as much as other industrial nations in developing its industry.

Germany nearly defeated the allies Britain and France in the 1 few weeks of war in 1914. It had better trained soldiers, better equipment and a clear plan of attack. The French army and the small British force were fortunate to hold back the German army deep inside France. For years of bitter fighting followed both armies living and fighting in the trenches which they had dug to protect their men.

This was Britain's first European War for the century and the country was quite unprepared for the terrible destructive power of modern weapons. At first all those who joined the army were volunteers. But in 1916 the government forced men to join the army whether they wanted or not.

A few men namely Quakers (*протестантская секта*), refused to fight. For the first time government accepted the idea that men had the right to refuse to fight if they believed fighting to be wrong. But the war went on and the number of deaths increased. Modern artillery and machine-guns had completely changed the nature of war.

The invention of the tank and its use on the battle field to break through the enemy's trenches in 1917 could have changed the course of the war. It would have led to fewer casualties or deaths if its military value had been properly understood at that time. Somehow the government had to persuade the people - which the war was still worth fighting. The nation was told that it was defending the weak against the strong and that it was fighting for democracy and freedom.

By this time Britain had an army of over 5 million, but more than 750 had died and another 2 million had been seriously wounded. About 50 times more people had died than in the 20 year war against Napoleon. Public opinion demanded no mercy for Germany. In this atmosphere Frances and Britain met to discuss peace at Versailles in 1919.

Germany was not invited to the conference but was forced to accept its punishment which was extremely surely. When peace came, there were great hopes for a better future. As soon as the war had ended the government started a big program of building homes and improving health and education. But there was far less progress than people had been led to hope for.

Alongside the social effects of the war were far reaching economic ones. The cost of the war had led to an enormous increase in taxation. Immediately after the war there were serious strikes and in 1919-1921 soldiers were used to break these strikes and force men back to work.

Instead of careful planning businessmen were allowed to make quick profits and the government could not control the situation. All over Europe and America serious economic crises, known as the Depression was taking place. It affected Britain most severely from 1930 to 1933 when over 3 mln workers were unemployed.

BRITAIN IN THE WORLD WAR II

The people of Britain watched anxiously as German control spread over Europe in the 1930-1 German, Italy and their ally in the Far East Japan took advantage of the weakness of European countries to size territories of interest to them there was good evidence that the demands of Germany could not be satisfied.

In September 1939 Germany invaded Poland and Britain entered the war. The British felt again that they were fighting for the weaker nations of Europe and for democracy. They had also heard about the cruelty of the Nazis from the Jews who had escaped to Britain. Everyone in Britain expected Germany to invade, but the British air force won an important battle against Germany planes in the air over Britain.

This however did not prevent the German air force from bombing the towns of Britain. Almost 1, 5 million people in London were made homeless by German bombing during the next few months.

The war had begun as a traditional European struggle but quickly became world-wide. In 1941 Germany and Japan had made 2 mistakes which undoubtedly cost them the war. Germany attacked the Soviet Union and Japan attacked the USA both quite unexpectedly. Britain could not have possibly defeated Germany without the help of its stronger allies-the USA and Soviet Union.

In May 1945 Germany finally surrounded. Britain and the USA then used their bombing power to defeat Japan. This time they used the new atomic bombs to destroy most of Nagasaki and Hiroshima-2earqe Japanese cities. Over 110000 people died immediately and many thousands more died later from the after- effects.

It was a terrible end to the war and an equally terrible beginning to the post-war world. The Soviet Union, Germany and Japan paid a more terrible price than Britain as did ethnic groups like the Jewish and gipsy people several men of whom were deliberately killed.

GENERAL TEST

Choose the correct answer

1. Who was the last Saxon king in England?
 - a) Richard I
 - b) Harald Hadrada
 - c) William the Conqueror
 - d) Harold of Wessex
2. Which British Prime Minister wrote "The History of the English Speaking People"?
 - a) Winston Churchill
 - b) William Gladstone
 - c) Lord North

d) William Pitt

3. Shakespeare mainly lived during the reign of ...

a) King Hamlet

b) Queen Victoria

c) Queen Elizabeth I

d) King Henry VIII

4. Where were Britain's first overseas colonies?

a) West Indies

b) North America

c) India

d) Australia

5. Who was Britain's Commander in Chief for Europe at the end of World War II?

a) Montgomery

b) Mountbatten

c) Churchill

d) Eisenhower

6. Where did Churchill first use the term "Iron Curtain" to describe the line between Communist Eastern and Democratic Western Europe?

a) USA

b) France

c) Germany

d) Britain

7. When did Queen Elizabeth II become the queen of Britain?

a) 1946

b) 1949

c) 1951

d) 1952

8. The first Opium War was between Great Britain and ...

a) Japan

b) China

c) India

d) North Korea

9. Who is thought to be the bravest English king?

a) King Alfred the Great

- b) Richard III
- c) Henry V
- d) King John

10. Which of these British leaders has a bad reputation?

- a) Queen Elizabeth II
- b) Boudicca
- c) King George VI
- d) Winston Churchill

THE LOSS OF EMPIRE

At the end of the 1st World War the Germany colonies of Africa. As well as Iraq and Palestine in the Middle East were added to Britain's area of controls. Its Empire was now bigger than ever before and covered a quarter of the entire land surface of the world. There were already signs however that the Empire was coming to an end. At the 1919 Peace Conference USA President Woodrow Wilson's disapproval of colonialism led Britain to agree to keep these territories towards self government.

The United Nations Charter in 1945 also called for progress towards self government. It seemed hardly likely in this new mood that the British Empire could last very long. This feeling was strengthened by the speed with which Britain had lost control of colonial possessions to Japan during the War.

In India there had been a growing demand for freedom during the 20-30s. This was partly because of the continued mistrusts and misunderstanding between the British rulers and the Indian people but it was also the result of a growing nationalist movement skillfully led by Mahatma Gandhi which successfully disturbed Britain's rule. It was impossible and extremely expensive to try to rule 300 million people without their cooperation. In 1947 the British finally left India, which was then divided into Hindu State and a smaller Muslim state called Pakistan.

Britain also left Palestine where it was unable to keep its promises to both the Arab inhabitants and the new settlers. Ceylon became independent the following year. On the whole the ending of Britain's Empire was a highly successful process, carried out against the opposition of some, who opposed surrendering power, however costly this might be.

The successful retreat resulted partly from the great skill of prime-ministers and those they chose for the different job of handing over power in each colony. It was largely due

to their work that the newly independent countries felt they wanted to remain on friendly terms with Britain.

Britain tried to hold on to its international position through its Commonwealth which all the old colonies were invited to join as free and equal members. This has been successful because it is based on the kind of friendship that allows all members to follow their own policies without interference.

COMMONWEALTH

The Commonwealth of Nations (formerly the British Commonwealth), also known as simply *The Commonwealth*, is an intergovernmental organization of 52 member states that were mostly territories of the former British Empire. The Commonwealth operates by intergovernmental consensus of the member states, organized through the Commonwealth Secretariat and non-governmental organizations, organized through the Commonwealth Foundation.

The Commonwealth dates back to the mid-20th century with the decolonisation of the British Empire through increased self-governance of its territories. It was formally constituted by the London Declaration in 1949, which established the member states as "free and equal". The symbol of this free association is Queen Elizabeth II who is the Head of the Commonwealth. The Queen is also the monarch of 16 members of the Commonwealth, known as *Commonwealth realms*. The other Commonwealth members have different heads of state: 31 members are republics and five are monarchies with a different monarch.

Member states have no legal obligation to one another. Instead, they are united by language, history, culture and their shared values of democracy, free speech, human rights, and the rule of law. These values are enshrined in the Commonwealth Charter.

The Commonwealth covers more than 29,958,050 km² (11,566,870 sq mi), 20% of the world's land area, and spans all six inhabited continents. With an estimated population of 2.328 billion people, nearly a third of the world population,[8] the Commonwealth in 2014 produced a nominal gross domestic product (GDP) of \$10.45 trillion, representing 17% of the gross world product when measured in purchasing power parity (PPP) and 14% of the gross world product when measured nominally.

THE BASIC BRITISH HISTORY TEST

1

First, some basic geography: Great Britain consists of...

- England
- England & Scotland
- England, Scotland, & Wales
- England, Scotland, Wales & Ireland

2

The original inhabitants of the British Isles are known as the...

- Gauls
- Brythons
- Belgae
- Gaels

3

The first contact between Rome and Britain was by...

- Julius Caesar
- Augustas Caesar
- Mark Antony
- Cladius

4

The period of Roman occupation in Britain is stated to be from...

- 643 BC - 210 BC
- 343 BC - 110 AD
- 43 AD - 410 AD
- 343 AD - 710 AD

5

True/False: The period after Roman rule is known as the Dark Ages?

- True
- False

6

Within 200 years of Rome leaving Britain an Anglo-Saxon dynasty emerged. Where did the Angles and Saxons come from?

- Modern Day France
- Modern Day Germany
- Modern Day Scandinavia

- Modern Day England

7

True/False: The Christianizing of England occurred during the Anglo-Saxon period?

- True
- False, it happened after
- False, it happened before

8

One of Anglo-Saxon Britain's fiercest rivals of this era were the Picts. Who were they?

- Modern Day Scottish
- Modern Day Irish
- Modern Day Scandinavian
- Modern Day French

9

Around 800AD England had begun being attacked by the Vikings. It was during this period that England's most well known Anglo-Saxon king made a name for himself by defeating a Danish invasion. What was his name?

- Richard the Lionheart
- William the Conqueror
- Alfred The Great
- Edward the Martyr

10

In the early 11th century England was conquered by a Dane named Sweyn. He ruled very briefly, and upon his death the throne passed back to Anglo-Saxon hands. Sweyn's son engineered a successful conquest shortly thereafter and became one of medieval England's greatest kings. His name was?

- Canute the Great
- Richard the Fearless
- Harold Godwinson
- Edmund Ironside

11

The Normans were a Viking people who were granted land in what area?

- Northern France
- Aquitanae

- the 'Low Countries'
- Norway

12

Emma of Normandy is a name lost to history. She was a Norman princess who married the King of England, Ethelred, to cement a defensive pact between the two powers. When Ethelred was deposed by the aforementioned Danish conqueror Emma left her husband to father a child with the Dane. Upon his death a power vacuum began that led to one of the most important moments in European history, known as...

- The Glorious Revolution
- The War of the Roses
- The Norman Conquest
- The Battle of Bosworth

13

There were three claimants to the British throne after the death of Edward the Confessor, king of England (son of Ethelred and Emma). Who on this list was not one of them...

- Harold, King of Norway
- the Earl of Wessex, Harold Godwinson
- William, Duke of Normandy
- King of France, Charles the Simple

14

The outcome of this dispute was finally settled in one of history's most well known battles, namely...

- The Battle of Hastings
- The Battle of Normandy
- The Battle of St Albans
- The Battle of Bosworth

15

Which 'conqueror' was victorious?

- Harold, King of Norway
- the Earl of Wessex, Harold Godwinson
- William, Duke of Normandy
- King of France, Charles the Simple

16

England would never again be successfully invaded by a foreign nation. In 1100 Henry I ascended to the throne while his older brother and rightful heir was off on the First Crusades. One of Henry's accomplishments while in power was the signing of the Charter of Liberties, an early document limiting the rights of the king. Henry's only son died in a boat wreck, leading to another power struggle after his death. His choice for a successor was his daughter Matilda, but ultimately a cousin named Stephen of Blois took the throne during a period known as...

- The Anarchy
- The War of the Roses
- The 30 Years War
- The Hundred Years War

17

Matilda didn't take kindly to being usurped. She fathered a child with a foreign Count. This child, Henry II, would be England's next king and the first in a long line of rulers from what royal house?

- Plantagenet
- York
- Stuart
- Tudor

18

Henry II ruled over more than just England. Which of these was not an area he lorded over?

- all of Ireland
- parts of France
- all of Wales & Scotland

19

Henry's successor was his eldest surviving son Richard. He was a pious man, spending most of his time away on the Crusades. He is known to us today by his moniker Richard the....

- Pious
- Martyr
- Saintly
- Lionheart
- much of Germany

20

Richard was rumored to have been a homosexual, and sired no children. Upon his death he was succeeded by his younger brother John. Which of these is not part of John's legacy?

- signed the Magna Carta
- was excommunicated by the Pope
- was poisoned by his mistress
- was the enemy of Robin Hood

21

John's son Henry took the throne as a child in 1216 and held it for 56 years. Henry III's accomplishments were slim, but he did establish this building as the seat of his government.

- Old Bailey
- Big Ben
- Westminster Abbey
- Buckingham Palace

22

The third Henry was followed by his son Edward. Edward made a name for himself by reconquering Wales and Scotland and is remembered fondly by what sobriquet?

- Edward Longshanks
- Edward the Rufus
- Edward the Great
- Edward Ironside

23

Edward was followed by his son, also named Edward. The second Edward was quite unpopular and was forced to abdicate or die when his wife betrayed him in France. He chose the former and the throne passed to his child, Edward III. But Edward's story doesn't end there, for he is rumored to have had one of the most spectacular deaths an English king would ever get.

- He was beheaded and then burned at the stake.
- He had a red-hot poker inserted in his anus.
- He was forced to end his own life by plunging off the Tower of London.
- He was murdered by both his wife and child.

24

Edward III would reign for 50 years and is regarded as one of England's most successful kings of the Middle Ages. He defeated Scotland and started a war with France known as the...

- War of the Roses
- Hundred Years War
- Thirty Years War
- Seven Years War

25

This war got its impetus from the English King's desire to control the French crown. The war's importance in history is in the building of the first standing armies in Europe since the Roman Empire and the emergence of British and French nationalism. While successful early on, France would prevail thanks to the heroics of what famous person?

- Louis XIV
- Joan of Arc
- Phillip II
- Charles II

26

Edward's grandson Richard II took power in 1377. He made enemies of the nobles by putting his cronies in positions of power. Ultimately he would be forced to abdicate the throne to another grandson of Edward III, Henry IV. Henry's father was the Duke of Lancaster, and his line of descendant's are known as the House of Lancaster. Henry IV was a wholly unremarkable ruler, but his son and successor Henry V proved to be far more adroit. He would eventually conquer much of France and be named 'heir and regent' by the Treaty of Troyes. One of Henry's earliest and most successful battles was immortalized by Shakespeare. What was the name of this battle?

- Battle of Agincourt
- Battle of Normandy
- Battle of Stamford Bridge
- Battle of St. Albans

27

Henry V died of dysentery in 1422 while campaigning in France. His son Henry VI was still young and wouldn't take the throne until 1437. 13 Years later he had lost most of the French gains of his father and had descended into madness. Challenging his right to the throne was a distant relative of Edward III, Edward, Earl of March. He would go on to defeat Henry and his supporters and start a new royal house, namely the...

- House of York
- House of Tudor
- House of Hanover
- House of Stuart

28

Edward IV didn't accomplish much after taking the throne. He died of natural causes in 1483 and was succeeded by his 12 year old son Edward V. Within two months the young heir was pronounced illegitimate and his uncle Richard took the crown. Richard III's reign would be short. In 1485 he was defeated in a famous battle, ending the 400 year rule of his royal house. This battle is known as the....

- Battle of Hastings
- Battle of Agincourt
- Battle of Bosworth
- Battle of St Albans

29

Henry, the man who defeated him was a distant relative of John of Gaunt, the 1st Duke of Lancaster and son of Edward III. This began a new royal house, known as the...

- House of Stuart
- House of Hanover
- House of Tudor
- House of York

30

Henry VII made economic gains while in power. He also worked to secure diplomatic marriages with his children, betrothing his daughter to marry the king of Scotland, which eventually led to the unification of the two countries. His son, Henry VIII, would prove to be more memorable when he took the throne in 1509. Henry is famous for having been married six times. Which of these was not one of his wives?

- Catherine of Aragon
- Anne Boleyn
- Jane Seymour
- Margaret Beaufort

31

Henry's desire to produce a son led him to demand a divorce from his first wife. He petitioned the Pope to grant this, and, when refused, Henry chose to leave the

Roman Catholic Church and start his own, the Church of England, with himself as the leader. This is known to history as the...

- War of the Roses
- Glorious Revolution
- English Reformation
- Bloodless Revolution

32

What was the religion of the new church?

- Protestant
- Presbyterian
- Baptist
- Lutheran

33

Henry VIII died in 1547, allegedly of Syphilis, and was succeeded by his son Edward. Edward IV didn't live past 15. Following his death a niece of Henry VIII, Lady Jane Grey, was made Queen. She was never crowned and nine days after assuming power she was pushed aside for Henry's eldest daughter Mary. Lady Jane Grey's fate was beheading. Mary ruled for five years until her death at 42. She is notable for being England's first true Queen and for her marriage to Phillip, regent of Spain. She also reverted to the religion of England prior to Henry VIII's creation of the Church of England. That religion would be?

- Protestantism
- Anglicanism
- Catholicism
- Presbyterianism

34

Mary was also famous for executing hundreds of dissenters to her religious upheavals. True/False: This earned her the appellation of 'Bloody Mary'

- True
- False

35

Mary never produced a child with Phillip and was succeeded by another of Henry VIII's children - her half-sister Elizabeth. Elizabeth would become one of England's most well known monarchs, lending her name to the phrase 'Elizabethan Era'. One of her greatest achievements occurred in 1588 when she defeated what power?

- the Spanish Inquisition

- the Roman Catholic Church
- the French king, Henry IV
- the Spanish Armada

36

True/False: Elizabeth is also notable for repealing the laws of her predecessor Mary concerning religion.

- True
- False

37

Elizabeth was coerced into executing her famous cousin when it was alleged she was planning treasons to take the crown. Her name was...

- Lady Godiva
- Mary, Queen of Scots
- Joan of Arc
- Margaret Tudor

38

Elizabeth was known as the Virgin Queen, having never married. She died in 1603 and was succeeded by a great-great-grandson of Henry VII, James. Prior to becoming James I of England he was known as James VI of what country?

- Ireland
- Scotland
- Wales
- France

39

James survived a well known assassination attempt on the 5th of November, 1605 known as the...

- Babington Plot
- Gunpowder Plot
- Ridolfi Plot
- Popist Plot

40

James ruled for 22 years before his death in 1625. James ruled during a peaceful era in British history and was therefore well-liked by his people. His son and successor Charles would not fare quite so well. Charles I angered parliament by levying taxes without their consent and marrying outside his religion. This led to an uprising known as the...

- English Reformation
- Glorious Revolution
- English Civil War
- Bloodless Revolution

41

The conflict was resolved when Charles became the first British Monarch to be...

- forcibly abdicated
- exiled from the country
- tried and executed
- sentenced to life imprisonment

42

For most of the next five and a half years England was ruled (for the only time in its history) by someone other than a royal monarch. His name was...

- Winston Churchill
- Oliver Cromwell
- Neville Chamberlain
- Thomas Wyatt

43

The republican system of government during this time is known as...

- Commonwealth of England
- British Empire
- Commonwealth of Nations
- Republic of England

44

The government eventually collapsed and when a new Parliament was reconvened they chose to bring the son of the ill-fated Charles into power. Charles II's reign saw him engaged in wars with the Dutch. He signed a secret treaty with the French king for military support in exchange for his oath to convert to Catholicism - which he did on his deathbed. He never sired a legitimate male heir, though he claimed at least 12 illegitimate children. What nickname did this hedonistic lifestyle earn him?

- The Merrie Monarch
- The Black Prince
- The Unready
- The Faerie Queen

45

Charles II's brother James took the throne in 1685. He was unpopular and ruled for only three years before being defeated. He is remembered today as...

- the last Roman Catholic monarch
- the last monarch from the House of Tudor
- the longest lived monarch
- the last male monarch NOT able to sire a male heir

46

James' removal from power came at the hands of an alliance between the Dutch prince William of Orange (a grandson of Charles I), his wife Mary (James II's daughter) and conspirators in the English Parliament. This is known today as...

- the English Reformation
- the English Civil War
- the Glorious Revolution
- the First Anglo-Dutch War

47

William survived past Mary. Succeeding William was his wife's sister Anne. Anne would rule for 12 years, accomplishing little and producing no children. By the end of her reign there had begun a noticeable shift in power from the crown to the ministers of government. True/False: Anne was the last of the House of Hanover?

- True
- False

48

In 1714, a great-grandson of James I took over for Queen Anne. There were others more closely related to Anne, but George I was made king because of his religious affinities. His reign further marked the decline of royal power in government. Towards the end of his reign much of the power belonged in the hands of England's first Prime Minister...

- Oliver Cromwell
- Neville Chamberlain
- Robert Wadpole
- Winston Churchill

49

George's son, George II, would rule for over 30 years. He was famous for quarreling with his father and son, the future King George III. Towards the end of his kingship George II brought England into what has been described as 'the first world war'. This war was fought in Europe and North America and cost the lives of upwards of a million. The name of this war is...

- the Seven Years War
- the Franco-Prussian War
- the Opium War
- the Thirty Years War

50

George III took the throne in 1760... how long would he rule for?

- 10 years
- 20 years
- 40 years
- 60 years

51

England was involved in a variety of wars during his reign. Which of these wars did NOT involve England during George's reign?

- the American Revolutionary War
- the Napoleonic Wars
- the Opium War
- the Seven Years War

52

George IV would serve as Prince Regent for 9 years while his father lived. Why is that?

- George III was under suspicion of treason
- George III lay in a semiconscious coma
- George III went mad from arsenic poisoning
- George III tacitly abdicated to his son

53

When George IV died in 1830 without an heir the crown went to the next eldest son of George III, William. William IV's reign was eventful if unremarkable; he would bring about various political reforms. True/False: After seven years in power he died and gave the throne to his daughter, Victoria?

- True
- False, Victoria took forcibly took power
- False, Victoria was not his daughter

54

Victoria's reign brought about an increase in the power of the House of Commons over the House of Lords in British Parliament. She also arranged marriages for her

children into many European royal families. Her reign was long and brought about the term "Victorian Era". How long was her reign?

- over 33 years
- over 43 years
- over 53 years
- over 63 years

55

Victoria's son, Edward VII, has the dubious honor of being the longest heir apparent in British history. He also started the current royal house. Originally known as the House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, that German name would later be changed during WWI to...

- Hanover
- Stuart
- Windsor
- Tudor

56

Next in line was George V. His rule lasted until 1936. One interesting fact about his reign was that he was a cousin of Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany, Britain's enemy in WWI. This is what led him to change the name of his royal house from the German Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. True/False: George V was also a cousin of Tsar Nicholas II of Russia. In fact, when the Tsar attended George's wedding he caused confusion because of their physical similarities.

- True
- False, he was a distant nephew
- False, he was his uncle
- False, they bore no blood relation

57

Next up was Edward VIII, who ruled for only 11 months. Why is that?

- He died from hemophilia
- He died in a plane crash
- He abdicated due to a mental breakdown
- He abdicated to marry an American

58

George VI took over in 1936 and would stay in power through the Second World War until his death in 1952. On his first day in power what important event happened?

- Ireland declared independence
- London was bombed by Germany
- The signing of the Munich Agreement with Adolf Hitler
- India declared independence

59

Who was the next monarch of England?

- Edward IX
- George VI
- William V
- Elizabeth II

60

Who is the current heir apparent to the British throne?

- Prince Andrew
- Prince Willaim
- Prince Charles
- Prince Henry

<http://www.okcupid.com/quizzzy/take>

QUESTIONS FOR SEMINARS

ANCIENT BRITAIN

Questions:

1. What is traditionally said about the geographical position of Britain? What do you think of it?
2. What material monuments of Pre-Celtic population culture still exist on the British territory?
3. Which of the Celtic tribes gave their name to their new home-country?
4. What functions were performed by Celtic Priests? What were they called?
5. Which Roman expeditions were successful in subjugating Britain and when? Was it a peaceful development?
6. What are the well-recognized contributions of Roman civilisation to British culture?
7. Did King Arthur and his Knights of the Round table exist and when if they did?
8. What Germanic tribes invaded Britain from the Continent and what states emerged as a result of that invasion?
9. What was the historical role of the Vikings on the British Isles?
10. Which of the Anglo-Saxon kings rightly deserved the title of Great? What were his great accomplishments?
11. In what way was Edward the Confessor responsible for William's claim to the English crown?
12. What: is the name of the battle which is a historic turning point for England?

BRITAIN IN MIDDLE AGES

Questions:

1. What were the peculiar traits of the Norman Rule in England?
2. What was the meaning of the term "feudalism" in relation to Norman England?
3. Why was the Domesday Book written?
4. What were the political, social, economic and cultural consequences of the Norman Conquest?
5. When was the first conflict of the King with Church?
6. What do you know about the relations in the family of Henry II?
7. What was the first attempt to limit the power of the King? When was it and why?
8. When did the British Parliament appear and how did it develop in the Middle Ages?
9. What were economic and social relations in the early Middle Ages in England?

Part II.

1. How did Edward I manage to impose English Rule on Wales?
2. What were the English relations with Scotland in the reign of Edward I?
3. What were the military and territorial ambitions of Edward III? Please give the dates of his rule.

4. What were the reasons of social unrest in England in the last quarter of 14th century? Speak of the Great Peasants' Revolt.
5. Why is the destiny of the last Plantagenet King Richard II considered tragic?
6. Please give a concise characteristic of the 14th century.

BRITAIN IN LATE MIDDLE AGES

Questions:

1. What was the reason of the Wars of the Roses and was it a romantic event?
2. What was the end of this baronial bloodshed and how was the struggle finally finished?
3. What industrial progress was achieved in the 15th century?
4. What were the great cultural achievements of that age?
5. Give a short general outline of the main political, economic and cultural events in the middle ages in Britain.

THE TUDOR AGE (1485–1603)

Questions:

1. Who were the first and last monarchs of the Tudor Dynasty?
2. What title was Henry VIII awarded with by the Pope?
3. What was the peculiarity of the Reformation in England?
4. What were the traits of continuity in the foreign policy of the Tudors?
5. Why was the reign of Elizabeth I called "the Golden Age"?
6. What threat was posed by Mary Queen of Scots to the rule of Elizabeth?

THE STUARTS AND THE STUGGLE OF THE PARLIAMENT AGAINST THE CROWN

Questions:

1. Why were the Stuarts inheritors of the English Crown?
2. What were the reasons for the conflict of the first Stuarts with the English Parliament?
3. How did the Civil war develop and end?
4. What social groups supported Cromwell?
5. What was the policy of the United Commonwealth in Europe and in the world?
6. What were the reasons for the Reformation of Monarchy in Britain?
7. What were the Acts of Parliament directed against the Kings and how did they develop the social situation in Britain?
8. When did the political parties appear in Britain and how?

THE 18th CENTURY—OF WEALTH, TECHNOLOGICAL REVOLUTION AND POWER

Questions:

1. What were the English gains in the War for Spanish Succession?
 2. When did the United Kingdom of Great Britain appear and how?
 3. Who was the first Prime Minister in Britain?
 4. In what way was George III different from his father and grandfather in his attitude to the government of the country?
 5. Speak of the reasons and the outcome of the War of Independence in North America.
- Part II.
1. In what way is it traditional to compare the French bourgeois revolution and the Technological Revolution in Britain?
 2. What branches of industry were progressing immensely in the Technological revolution?
 3. What social situation was developing due to the technological revolution in Britain in the middle of the 17th century?
 4. What were the military developments in the Napoleonic wars against France?
 5. What were the victories of the Anti-Napoleonic coalition and what military heroes glorified Great Britain?
 6. What territorial advantages did Great Britain gain out of the Vienna congress?
 7. What were the internal problems of Britain at that time?
 8. What were the revolutionary changes in arts?

THE 19th CENTURY – THE VICTORIAN AGE OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE AND THE NEW RIVALS

Questions:

1. What reforms were introduced by the Whigs and how did they influence the situation in the country in the 30th of the 19th century?
2. What were the repeated attempts of the people to introduce more radical reforms? Describe the program and the demands of the movement.
3. Who was the Monarch of Britain for the greater part of the 19th century? What were the political affiliations of the numerous Prime Ministers of the century?
4. What can you say about the role of Prince Albert in British Affairs?
5. What were the greatest cultural achievements of the Victorian Age?
6. Why did the British start the Crimean War and who became the heroic figure of the War?
7. What was the policy of Britain in India?

8. What was the difference between the policies of B. Disraeli and Gladstone? How do you understand "jingoism"?
9. How did the overseas possessions of Britain expand? What was the situation in the British Empire?
10. What was the role and the status of Great Britain in the World at the end of the 19th century?

EXEMPLARY EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

1. The Peoples that Inhabit the Island
2. General Information about the Island
3. Geography. Industry. Mineral Resources
4. Agriculture and The Lake District
5. The Language
- Britain`s Pre-History
7. The Celts
8. The Romans. Roman Life
9. The Saxons. Government and Society under the Saxons
10. Christianity in Anglo-Saxon England
11. The Vikings
12. The Early Middle Ages. The Norman Conquest and Feudalism
13. Magna Carta and the Decline of Feudalism
14. Government and Society in the Middle Ages
15. The Late Middle Ages
16. The Poor in Revolt
17. The Struggle in France 14-15th century
18. Wars of the Roses 1455-1485
19. The Dynasty of Tudors
20. The Reformation. Henry VIII
21. Elizabeth I. The New Foreign Policy
22. The Stuarts. Crown and Parliament
23. Republican Britain. Oliver Cromwell
24. Politics and the Finance in the 18th century
25. Industrial Revolution
26. Great Britain in the 19th Century
27. The 20th Century. Britain in World War I
28. World War I
30. Britain in World War II
31. The Loss of Empire

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE OF BRITISH HISTORY WITH THESE QUESTIONS

1. Richard III died at the Battle of Bosworth - commonly accepted as the last battle in the War of the Roses. But where was the war's first battle?

- A) St Albans
- B) Ludford Bridge
- C) Wakefield

2. Who is the only British prime minister to have been assassinated?

- A) William Pitt the Elder
- B) Spencer Perceval
- C) George Canning

3. "If I have seen further it is by standing on the shoulders of giants" is a line which is (partially) inscribed on the side of the £2 coin, and which was also referenced in an Oasis LP title. But which British scientist is it ascribed to?

- A) Isaac Newton
- B) William Faraday
- C) Ada Lovelace

4. According to legend, Queen Boudica - who took up arms against the Roman invasion in AD60 - is said to be buried under a platform of which London train station?

- A) Paddington
- B) King's Cross
- C) Victoria

5. Which English monarch died on the toilet?

- A) Elizabeth I
- B) George II
- C) Edward III

6. Which infamous incident of treachery in Scotland is said to have inspired the extremely bloody "Red Wedding" massacre scene in the TV series Game of Thrones?

- A) The Black Dinner of 1440
- B) The Glencoe Massacre of 1692
- C) The murder of Lord Darnley in 1567

7. Which town was the seat of Welsh leader's Owain Glyndwr's Parliament in 1404 and is sometimes referred to as Wales's ancient capital?

- A) Aberystwyth

- B) Lampeter
- C) Machynlleth

8. Who was the first woman elected as an MP in the British parliament?

- A) Constance Markievicz
- B) Nancy, Viscountess Astor
- C) Ellen Wilkinson

9. What was the occupation of William Shakespeare's father?

- A) Fuller
- B) Glover
- C) Bowyer

10. In the run-up World War Two, Bawdsey Manor in Suffolk was associated with the development of which technology?

- A) Computers
- B) Atomic power
- C) Radar

11. Charles Dickens's historical novel *Barnaby Rudge* is set during which historical event?

- A) The Gordon riots of 1780
- B) The Spitalfield riots of 1769
- C) The Sacheverell riots of 1710

12. The Fosse Way was a Roman road which connected Exeter with which other settlement?

- A) Colchester
- B) London
- C) Lincoln

<http://www.bbc.com/news/magazine-28895608>

REFERENCES

1. www.picturesofengland.com/history/
2. www.britannia.com/history/
3. www.britainexpress.com/History/index.htm - Великобритания
4. <http://www.bbc.co.uk/>
5. <http://www.britannica.com/>
6. www.uk-info.ru
7. London.TripAdvisor.com
8. <http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/644127/William-III/7941/King-of-England>
9. www.2uk.ru/history/
10. <http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/318300/Henry-King>
11. www.british-history.ac.uk
12. www.great-britain.co.uk/history/history.htm
13. www.history.uk.com
14. www.britainexpress.com/History/index.htm
15. http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/historic_figures/alfred_the_great.shtml
16. http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/british/tudors/armada_gallery.shtml
17. http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/british/middle_ages/nations_britain_01.shtml
18. Goodwright Carol, Olearski Janet. In the English-Speaking World - London: Chancereel International Publishers 2008 – 128 p.
19. David McDowall «An Illustrated History of Britain»
London: Longman Group UK Limited, 2009
20. Peter Strutt «English for International Tourism»
London: Pearson Education Limited, 2013
21. Elizabeth Sharman «Across Cultures»
London: Pearson Education Limited, 2014
22. Richard MacAndrew «Window on Britain»
Oxford: Oxford University Press 2008
23. E. Solova «Guide-Interpreter»
M.: ООО «Издательство Астрель», 2016
24. James O`Driscoll «Britain. The Country And Its People: an Introduction for Learners of English »
Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010
25. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth_of_Nations

CONTENTS

WARMING UP ACTIVITIES.....	3
ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAYS WRITING.....	6
DISCUSSING A NEWSPAPER ITEM.....	11
ORIGINS OF THE TERMS BC AND AD.....	12
TIMELINE OF BRITISH HISTORY.....	15
TOPIC 1. GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT THE ISLAND.....	18
THE ROYAL NAME.....	19
THE HISTORY OF THE UNION JACK.....	21
TOPIC 2. BRITAIN'S PRE-HISTORY.....	33
TOPIC 3. ANCIENT BRITAIN.....	36
TOPIC 4. BRITAIN IN MIDDLE AGES.....	47
CHURCH IN THE MIDDLE AGES.....	48
MAGNA CARTA AND THE DECLINE OF FEUDALISM	51
GOVERNMENT AND SOCIETY IN THE 13TH CENTURY.....	52
TOPIC 5. THE LATE MIDDLE AGES.....	53
TOPIC 6. BRITAIN IN LATE MIDDLE AGES. THE WARS OF ROSES.....	58
TOPIC 7. THE TUDOR AGE (1485–1603).....	60
TOPIC 8. THE CROWN AND THE PARLIAMENT	69
TOPIC 9. POLITICS AND FINANCES IN THE 18th CENTURY	71
INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.....	74
TOPIC 10. THE 19th CENTURY. THE VICTORIAN AGE.....	75
QUEEN VICTORIA.....	76
TOPIC 11. THE 20 TH CENTURY.....	76
BRITAIN IN THE WORLD WAR II.....	78
THE BASIC BRITISH HISTORY TEST.....	79
QUESTIONS FOR SEMINARS.....	93
EXEMPLARY EXAM QUESTIONS.....	97
TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE.....	98
REFERENCES.....	100

Учебное издание

Тупикова Светлана Евгеньевна

BRITISH HISTORY AND HERITAGE
ИСТОРИЯ И НАСЛЕДИЕ ВЕЛИКОБРИТАНИИ

Учебное пособие

Компьютерная верстка: В.Д. Тупикова

Подписано в печать 30.01.2019. Формат 60x84 1/16.

Бумага офсетная. Усл.-печ. л. 6,05.

Тираж 300 экз. Гарнитура Times New Roman.

Заказ № 255-19/30019.

Отпечатано в соответствии с предоставленными
материалами в ООО "Амирит",
410004, г. Саратов, ул. Чернышевского, 88