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BRITAIN

Учебное пособие для обучающихся в бакалавриате
по направлению подготовки «Педагогическое образование»



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Chapter 1. GEOGRAPHICAL OUTLINE

Text 1. England Is a Small Place

For all the fuss it has made in history, for all the language it has distributed about the world, England is a rather small place. The largest of the four constituent elements that make up the United Kingdom, it covers 50,331 sq miles (130,357 sq km), about the same size as New York State or one of New Zealand's islands. But its population of over 62 million is over two and a half times New York State's, and over 15 times both New Zealand's islands.

By far the greater portion of the population lives in the south. The large northern towns, Liverpool, Manchester and Newcastle, which grew vast on the Industrial Revolution, have struggled to catch up with the post-industrial age, while Birmingham, Britain's second city, has benefited from its more central location. The country is divided into counties, the old English shires, where sheriffs transacted local business. They have provided titles for the nation's nobility and though their names and boundaries have been tinkered with twice in post-war years, they are redolent of the country's past and continue to inspire local pride.

At the start of the third millennium, England, due to post-war migrations, is a less homogenised nation than ever before – all nations of the world can be found in London. Local accents and dialects that not long ago were thick on the ground, are now waning, but new cultures, traditions and accents have been added by incoming populations.

England's ever-changing landscape provides incomparable scenery, in the Peak District, in the Pennines, on the South Downs, among the Yorkshire and West Country moors and around the Lake District. The variety of architecture characterises every part of the country, from West Country thatch to Cotswold stone, weather boarded Kent to half-timbered East Anglia. It doesn't take much effort in England, and not many miles, to feel that you have travelled a long way.

Text 2. Britain



People often refer to Britain by another name. They call it «England». But this is not strictly correct. Britain comprises Great Britain (England, Wales and Scotland) and Northern Ireland and is one of the member states of the European Union. Its full name is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and the Northern Ireland. Britain constitutes the greater part of the British Isles. The largest of the islands is Great Britain. The next largest comprises Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic. These two islands are separated from the Continent by the English Channel and the Strait of Dover. The west coast of the country is washed by the Atlantic Ocean and the Irish Sea. The east coast is washed by the North Sea.

Geographically Britain is divided into Lowland Britain and Highland Britain. Lowland Britain comprises Southern and Eastern England. Highland Britain includes Scotland, Wales, the Pennines and the Lake District.

The mountains in Britain are not very high, the highest mountain is Ben Nevis in Scotland. The main rivers in Britain are the Thames, the Mersey, the Severn and others but none of them are very long.

The climate of Britain is mild. The Atlantic Ocean and the warm waters of the Gulf Stream influence the weather on the British Isles. The summers are cool and rainy; the winters are not very cold.

Text 3. The Union Flag

The flag of Britain is officially called the Union Flag because it embodies the emblems of three countries united under one Sovereign. It is commonly known as the Union Jack: while the origin of the term is uncertain, the following explanation is the most probable. The original Union Flag was designed for use at sea and the term «jack» was first used in the Royal Navy during the 17th century to describe the Union Flag, which was flown from the jack staff of naval vessels.

The emblems that appear on the Union Flag are the crosses of three patron saints: the red cross of St. George, for England, on a white ground; the white diagonal cross, of St. Andrew, for Scotland, on a blue ground; the red diagonal cross, attributed to St. Patrick, for Ireland, on a white ground.

Wales is not represented in the Union Flag because when the first version of the flag appeared, Wales was already united to England.

The first Union Flag was created in April 1606 by combining the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew, the national flags of England and Scotland. The final version of the Union Flag appeared in 1801, following the union of Great Britain with Ireland, with the inclusion of the cross of St. Patrick.

Text 4. British Economy

In every country the first resource is land, and densely populated Britain has not much of it. About 2% of the population work on farms, many of them tenants of big estates. After 1945 governments encouraged them by advice and financial inducements, to use their land effectively, and when Britain joined the European Community in 1972 most farms were well-equipped and mechanised.

Now their efficiency is embarrassing. Environmentalists complain that insecticides and fertilisers have polluted air and water. Almost each year much good farmland is sold for building, farmers are encouraged to put some land to other uses, such as facilities for recreation.

But agriculture is a small part of the whole economy. For 200 years manufacturing has been more important, but by 1970s it was clear that British old manufacturing industries were less progressive than the same industries in other Western European countries. Newer industries, such as car manufacture, were no better than the older ones like textiles. Many steel plants were closed. But no industry has suffered so much as shipbuilding. In 1979 many of the old industries were owned by the state. Nationalisation in 1976 failed to stop the industries decline.

New «high-tech» industries developed, manufacturing output rose substantially in the 1980s. Two parallel developments have affected Britain slightly more than most other European states. One is the increase in the service industries, as distinct from the productive ones. The other is the increase in the proportion of people in white collar as distinct from manual jobs. More than half of the working people, whether employees or self-employed, are now providing services. There has been some growth in the number of people who work for schools and hospitals, social services, the police and in public administration. But the biggest growth has been in finance, banking and insurance, along with «other services», including the law, advertising, catering, tourism and entertainment.

Text 5. Scotland

England and Wales, as two of three parts that make up Great Britain, have much in common legally and politically. Scotland, the third, differs in many respects.

It differs first in its separate history. In 1314 the Scottish King Robert I (known as Robert the Bruce) defeated the English at the Battle of Bannockburn. Fourteen years later, in 1328, he achieved his goal of independence for Scotland. Scotland continued as an independent kingdom until 1603.

Scotland's natural landscape also distinguishes it from much of England. The Highlands, in particular, are regarded as typically «Scottish», with their mountains, lochs, moors, rugged coastline and many coastal islands.

Equally distinctive is the Scottish educational system. The state schools, especially the secondary schools, are known as «public schools» (not to be confused with English public schools). Many Scottish schools are named «Academy», for example, Edinburgh Academy and Glasgow Academy.

Scotland has a number of popular national foods and dishes. Among the best known are porridge, eaten for breakfast with milk and sugar (or salt), haggis, made from sheep's or calf's offal with oatmeal, suet and seasonings boiled in a skin from the animal's stomach, and shortbread, a sweet biscuit made with butter.

Text 6. Wales

In some ways, Wales is the most «foreign» of the four lands that make up the United Kingdom. The word «Welsh» itself is derived from Old English «wealh», the term used by the Anglo-Saxon invaders for the original Britons or Celts. The Welsh language is spoken by about two of ten people in Wales. English people find it very difficult to spell and pronounce Welsh words, especially place names such as Llwchwr or Pwllheli. The Welsh name for Wales is «Cymru», and that of the Welsh themselves is «Cymry», meaning «compatriot».

Wales, although a small land, has considerable diversity. Its largest cities and main industrial centres are in the south, while the much more sparsely inhabited north is famous for its mountain landscapes, including Snowdonia.

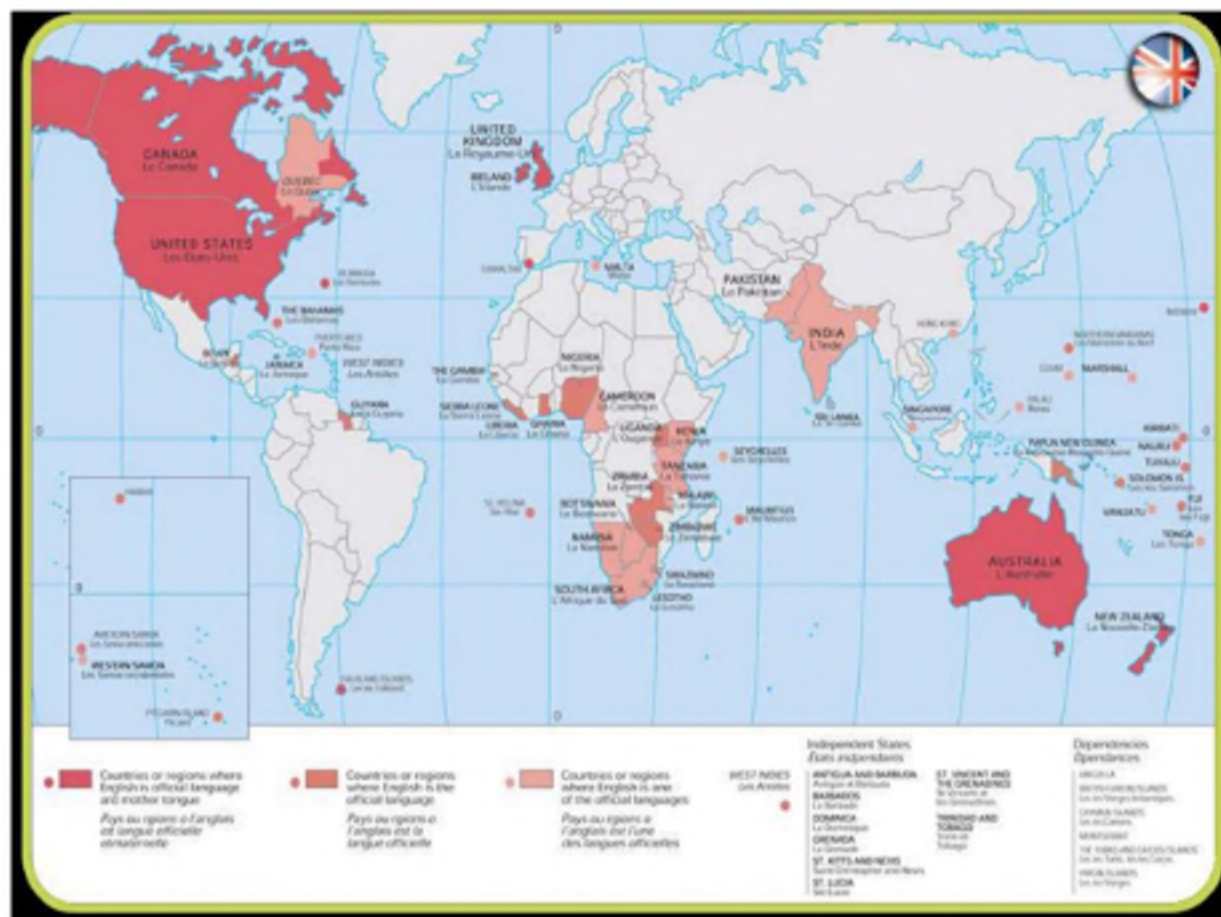
The chief industries of south Wales were for many years coal-mining and iron and steel production. In recent years, however, these have declined, and many coal-mines and steel mills have been closed. Even so, Wales still produces about a third of Britain's steel, and its former narrowly-based economy has been widened to include electronics and high technology industries.

Wales is often referred to as «principality», since the heir to the British throne, Charles, has the title of Prince of Wales.

Text 7. The English Language

There are over 2,700 languages in the world, but English today is the most important international language. Four hundred million people speak English as their first language. Six hundred million people speak it either as a second or as a foreign language. That is 20% of the world's population. 80% of all information on the Internet is in English.

English is the language of England used in Britain, most countries in the British Commonwealth, the USA and some other countries.



The ancestor of modern English was Anglo-Saxon, or Old English. This developed into Middle English, which was influenced by French in the period after the Norman Conquest. By the 16th century it was recognizable as essentially the language used today. English is now spoken by over 350 million people and used by many more as a second language for international communication.

The first significant step in the progress of English towards its status as a world language took place in the last decades of the 18th century. At that time, the number of mother-tongue English speakers in the world is thought to have been between five and seven million, almost all of them living within the British Isles.

Between the end of the reign of Elizabeth I (1603) and the beginning of the reign of Elizabeth II (1952), this figure increased almost fiftyfold, to around 250 million, the majority (around four-fifth) living outside the British Isles. Most of these people were, and continue to be, Americans.

Things to do

1. Complete the following table:

Country	Capital	Nationality	Language	Person
				A Scot
			English	
	Belfast			
		Welsh		

2. Prove that England is a small place using the text.

3. Explain the differences between these expressions: Great Britain, the United Kingdom, the Republic of Ireland, the British Isles.

4. Speak about England's geographical position using the facts from the text. Use other sources to make your answer interesting.

5. Find some geographical facts about Scotland and compare the geographical position of Scotland and England.

6. Find some geographical facts about Wales and compare the geographical position of Wales and England.

7. Say which English cities are mentioned in this text. What do you know about them?

8. Speak about the Industrial Revolution and its role in British history.

9. Complete the lines:

- Geographically Britain is divided into two parts.....
- The main mountain chains in Britain are.....
- The main rivers of the UK are.....
- The main cities in Britain are...
- Scotland differs from England
- The Welsh name for Wales is...

10. Speak about the structure of the British economy.

11. Imagine you have a British pen-friend who has never visited your country. Choose your favourite city (place) in your country and write a short letter to your pen-friend describing it.

12. Decide which place in Britain you would prefer to live in.

13. Look at the pictures and label the national emblems of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.



14. Test

Choose the correct answer:

- Which of these people are British:
a) an Englishman, b) a citizen of the Irish republic,
c) a Scot, d) a Welshman
- Which of these capital cities are the capitals of independent states:
a) Belfast, Dublin, Cardiff, London
- Ben Nevis is situated in:
a) England, b) Scotland, c) Wales, d) Ireland
- The Cambrian Mountains are in:
a) England, b) Scotland, c) Wales, d) Northern Ireland
- The Lake District is situated in:
a) England, b) Scotland, c) Wales, d) Northern Ireland
- The eldest son of the king or queen of England has traditionally been given this title since 1301:
a) Prince of England, b) Prince of Scotland,
c) Prince of Wales, d) Prince of Ireland
- The national flag of the United Kingdom has:
a) crosses, b) stars, c) dragons, d) lions
- What is the national emblem of England?
a) Daffodil, b) Shamrock, c) Thistle, d) Rose
- Who is the patron saint of Scotland?
a) St. Andrew, b) St. Patrick, c) St. George, d) St. David
- What does RP stand for?
a) a learned London society, b) a university degree,
c) a sports club, d) Standard British English.

15. Projects

- Find some additional information about English as one of the global languages and make a report to your group-mates.
- Compare Britain with your own country. Which are the most obvious geographical differences?
- Make a report using the data from the table

The British Isles: Population

Country	Area	Population	Density per km ²
England	130,439 km ²	47,112,000	361
Scotland	78,772 km ²	5,137,000	65
Wales	20,768 km ²	2,812,000	135
Northern Ireland	14,121 km ²	1,558,000	110
Republic of Ireland	70,283 km ²	3,552,000	51

Discussion Points

- Why is the English language considered to be a global language?
- Why is the flag of the United Kingdom called Union Jack?
- What do you think the author means when he says «For all the fuss it (England) has made in history...»?
- What unites and divides the UK?

Chapter 2. CONQUEST AND CONFLICT

The Romans made their mark, Christianity was established, the Normans conquered the country, and centuries were spent in warfare.

Text 1. Roman Conquest

Recorded history begins with the first Roman invasion in 55 BC. The Celtic Queen (Boudicca) Boadicea led a failed rebellion in AD 61, and succeeded in destroying their capital, Londinium. In AD 122, the emperor Hadrian had a wall built across the north of England. Much of it remains, running from Carlisle to Newcastle. Roman control lasted nearly 400 years, leaving behind a series of walled towns – London, York and Bath among them – linked by a network of roads so well constructed that they survived for centuries. The remains of Roman baths, amphitheatres and villas can still be seen today. The Romans also introduced Christianity, literacy, and the use of Latin, but when they left, their influence faded surprisingly fast.

Text 2. Anglo-Saxons and Vikings

The next wave of invaders – Angles and Saxons – pushed the native Celts westward into Wales and north into Scotland, and established their own kingdoms. In the mid-9th century the Danes (Vikings) gave up raiding and decided to settle. Alfred of Wessex, «Alfred the Great» agreed that they would control the north and east («the Danelaw»), while he ruled the rest.



(Alfred the Great)

The Anglo-Saxons introduced their Teutonic religion and Christianity soon disappeared, except among the Celts. At Lindisfarne, in Northumberland, a monk called Aidan established a monastery where beautifully illustrated Gospels, now kept in the British Museum, were produced. At the end of the 6th century Augustine was sent on a Christian mission from Rome and became the first archbishop of Canterbury.

Text 3. The Norman Conquest

After Alfred's death Canute, the Danish leader, became king and ruled well, but left no strong successor. The crown later passed to Edward «the Confessor», a pious man who built Westminster Abbey. On his death, in 1066, Harold, his nominated successor, became king. William of Normandy came to claim the throne allegedly promised him by Edward, and defeated Harold on Senlac Field, near Hastings. The Norman Conquest is the best-known event in English history. William was now not only the duke of Normandy but the king of England as well as he received great incomes from both Normandy and England. The Conqueror declared that all the lands of England belonged to him by right of conquest. The estates of all the Anglo-Saxon lords who had supported Harold or acknowledged him as king were confiscated.



(William the Conqueror)

William was crowned in Westminster Abbey and set out to consolidate his kingdom. Faced with rebellion in the north, he took brutal action, devastating the countryside, then building a string of defensive castles. In order to collect taxes, William had a land and property record compiled: the survey was called the Domesday Book, because it seemed to the English not unlike the Book of Doom to be used by the greatest feudal lord of all on Judgement Day, and was completed in 1086. That was the first census in England. The *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* says, «In 1086 William the Conqueror sent his men all

over England, into every shire to find out what property every inhabitant of all England possessed in land, or in cattle and how much money this was worth... and then all these writings were brought to him».

The original of the Domesday Book is kept now in the Public Record Office in London. In the reign of William the Conqueror it was looked upon as a tax book for it gave the data for taxation. But its value is much greater. No other written document before or after has given us such a clear picture of the period.

After William's son Henry died in 1135, civil war broke out between the followers of his daughter, Matilda, and those of her cousin, Stephen. Eventually Matilda's son by Geoffrey of Anjou, Henry, became king in 1154.

Text 4. The Battle of Hastings

The battle between the Normans and Anglo-Saxons took place at a small village near the town of Hastings.

The Normans outnumbered the Anglo-Saxon forces and were superior in quality. They were all men for whom fighting was the main occupation in life. They were well armed and the chance of being killed was not so great, since they all wore armour and there were no fire-arms at that time. The new military tactics of the well-trained Normans were unknown in England. They used a skilful combination of heavy-armoured cavalry and archers. First the archers would break up the ranks of their enemy and then followed a charging cavalry which decided the victory.

The Anglo-Saxons had a small cavalry, it was mainly Harold's bodyguards. The hastily gathered free peasants who fought on foot made up the main body of the Anglo-Saxon army. They were poorly armed, many of them had only pitchforks, axes and thick oak-poles. King Harold's power over the Anglo-Saxon earls was weak. As a result, when Harold met William at Hastings, he had under his command only the men of Wessex.

The battle went on all day. At the end of it most of the best warriors in England were dead, including King Harold. One of the arrows struck Harold in the eye and killed him. The battle was lost.

Text 5. The Bayeux Tapestry

In the Norman town of Bayeux, in the museum, one can see a strip of canvas about 70 metres long and half a metre wide embroidered with very well-defined pictures which tell us the whole story of the Norman Conquest. That is the famous Bayeux Tapestry. It is said that William's wife and the ladies of the court made it to hang round the walls of the cathedral. Bayeux Tapestry shows the preparations made for the invasion of England - men felling trees or having and shaping the rough timber into ships, scenes depicting the subjugation of the country and other details pertaining to the battle of Hastings, the armour and weapons used, are all very well represented. The tapestry is of great interest to specialists in history and art. It gives us very valuable information about the life of people at that time.



Text 6. Old English

Before the Anglo-Saxon invasions, the language (or languages) spoken by the native inhabitants of the British Isles belonged to the Celtic Family, introduced by people who had come to the islands around the middle of the first century BC. Many of these settlers were, in turn, eventually subjugated by the Romans, who arrived in 43 BC. But by 410 the Roman armies had gone, withdrawn to help defend their Empire in Europe. After a millennium of settlement by speakers of Celtic, and half a millennium by speakers of Latin, not much was left of the language spoken before the arriving Anglo-Saxons. It is not so surprising, given the savage way in which Celtic communities were destroyed or pushed back into the areas we now know as Cornwall, Wales, Cumbria and the Scottish borders. Some Celts (or Romano-Celts) doubtless remained in the east and south, perhaps as slaves, perhaps intermarrying, but their identity would after a few generations have been lost within Anglo-Saxon society. Only a handful of Celtic words were borrowed at the time. They include such river names as Thames, Avon «river», Don, Exe, Usk and Wye. Town names include Dover «water», Eccles «church», Bray «hill», London (a tribal name), Kent (meaning unknown), etc.

Latin has been a major influence on English throughout its history and there is evidence of its role from the earliest moments of contact. The Roman army and merchants gave new names to many local objects and experiences, and introduced several fresh concepts.

Text 7. Different Languages

The victorious Normans made up the new aristocracy and the Anglo-Saxon people became their servants. The Norman aristocracy spoke a Norman dialect of French, a tongue of Latin origin, while the Anglo-Saxons spoke English, a tongue of Germanic origin. Thus there were two different languages spoken in the country at the same time. Norman French became the official language of the state. It was the language of the ruling class spoken at court; it was the language of the lawyers, and all the official documents were written in French or Latin. The learned clergy whom the Normans brought into the country used Latin for the most part. The richer Anglo-Saxons found it convenient to speak the language of the rulers. But the peasants and townspeople spoke English. The Normans looked upon English as a kind of peasant dialect.

But the Normans could not subdue the popular tongue which was spoken by the majority of the population, those who cultivated the land and produced goods. The conquerors who settled down on English estates had to communicate with the natives of the country and they gradually learned to speak their language. Many of them married Anglo-Saxon wives and their children and grandchildren grew up speaking English. In time English became the language of the educated classes and the official language of the state.

Words of Germanic origin make up the basic vocabulary of Modern English. The Anglo-Saxons spoke the simple countryman's language and in Modern English simple everyday words are mostly Anglo-Saxon, like *eat*, *land*, *house* and others. But as there were no English words to describe the more complicated feudal relations many words were adopted from the French language. Thus the vocabulary of the English language was enlarged due to such Norman French words as *manor*, *noble*, *baron*, *serve*, *command*, *obey*; or words relating to administration and law, such as *charter*, *council*, *accuse*, *court*, *crime*; or such military terms as *arms*, *troops*, *guard*, *navy*, *battle*, *victory* and other words characterizing the way of life and customs of the Norman aristocracy.

Things to do

1. Complete the chart and speak about one of the conquests.

Name of Conquest	Dates	People who took part in it	Results
Roman			
Anglo-Saxon			
Scandinavian			
Norman			

2. Choose one conquest and speak about its achievements and failures using the information from the texts given above.

3. True or False?

- The Roman general Julius Caesar first landed in Britain in 55 BC.
- Queen Boadicea led a bloody revolt against the Anglo-Saxons.
- One reason why Roman Britannia disappeared so quickly is that its influence was largely confined to the towns.

- d. The Anglo-Saxons were pagan when they came to Britain.
- e. The Vikings were defeated by King Alfred of the Saxon kingdom of Wessex.
- f. In 1066 an invading army from Normandy defeated the English at the battle of Bath.

4. Explain why England is sometimes called Albion and Britannia. Explain the origin of the word «England».

5. Prove that William the Conqueror became the greatest feudal lord of England.

6. Find information about a) the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, b) the Domesday Book, c) The Bayeux Tapestry. Write a report on the findings.

7. There is a strong tradition of historical novels in English literature set at various times in British history. Some historical novels describe the events which took place during one of the conquests. Name the books and the events.

8. Complete the chart, guessing the origin of the words given below:

Street, happy, count (ess), home, law, noble, port, husband, baron, command, wall, field, obey, sister, council, camp, character, ill, crime, arms, troops, navy, fellow, London, York, Yorkshire, Derby, Lowestoft, school, leg, wing, paper, take, die, accuse, mutton, victory, pork, sky, candle, window, harbour.

Roman words	Anglo-Saxon words	Scandinavian words

9. How can you account for the French origin of the following words:

- A) feudal, baron, vassal, prince, count, duke;
- B) state, realm, government, power, crown;
- C) feast, leisure, pleasure, delight, comfort?

10. Test. Choose the correct answer:

- 1. When did the Romans first invade Britain?
 - a) in the 5th century AD, b) in the 5th century BC,
 - c) in the 1st century BC, d) in the 1st century AD.
- 2. What important historical event happened in 1066?
 - a) the Roman invasion, b) the Danish invasion,
 - c) the Battle of Waterloo, d) the Battle of Hastings.
- 3. When did a new group of invaders – the Angles, Saxons and Jutes arrive?
 - a) AD 45, b) AD 145, c) AD 450, d) AD 250
- 4. What language did the Angles speak when they came to Britain?
 - a) Latin, b) Germanic, c) Slavonic d) Hindi
- 5. What was the name of the king who lost the Battle of Hastings?
 - a) Alfred, b) Harold, c) Arthur, d) Hadrian
- 6. Who introduced Christianity to England?
 - a) the Romans, b) the Jutes, c) the Celts, d) the Angles.
- 7. What is the most ancient sight in Great Britain?
 - a) The Tower of London, b) Stonehenge, c) Hadrian's Wall,
 - d) Warwick Castle.

8. Who defeated the Vikings:
a) Alfred, b) Harold, c) Arthur, d) William?

Discussion Points

1. Do you think conquests are necessary for the development of the country, why or why not?
2. Can you name any conquest which occurred in another country? What are the usual reasons for conquests?

Chapter 3. LITERATURE AND MEDIEVAL HISTORY

Text 1. Monasteries and myths

This was the age of Chaucer's England – the first era in which we gain a picture of English life written in the English language.

During this period the monasteries became centres of power. Canterbury, Westminster and Winchester were the most active in the south, Fountains Abbey and Rievaulx in the north. Benedictine orders were a vital part of the feudal system, while the more spiritual Cistercians founded the wool trade, which became England's main source of wealth. Both provided hospitality to a stream of pilgrims, such as those in Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*, written in the 14th century. (Geoffrey Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* is a cycle of linked stories in narrative verse as told by a group of pilgrims travelling from London to Canterbury. Chaucer (1343–1400), London wine merchant, Member of Parliament, royal diplomat, for even his own generation above all a poet – «first finder of our fair language», said his younger contemporary Thomas Hoccleve – is often called «the father of English poetry»).



(Geoffrey Chaucer)

Chaucer's Knight also demonstrates the medieval courtly tradition that engendered the Arthurian myth. Arthur probably existed, but it was Geoffrey of Monmouth, a 12th-century historian, who popularised the legends, his magical sword, Excalibur, and the wizard Merlin, and designated Tintagel Castle in Cornwall as Arthur's birthplace.

Text 2. Shakespeare's kings



(William Shakespeare)

William Shakespeare (1564–1616) is Britain's greatest creative writer. He wrote 37 plays, as well as 150 sonnets and many other poems. He was born in Stratford-upon-Avon, a large trading town in the Midlands of England. He went to London in 1587 and joined an actor's company, where he acted and wrote his famous plays.

William Shakespeare drew on the lives of the Plantagenet and Tudor kings who ruled from 1154 to 1547, around whom he wove fanciful plots and heroic tales. Relations between Church and State became increasingly strained during the reign of Henry II. Archbishop Thomas Becket resisted the king's interference in clerical matters and when Henry articulated his wish that someone would «rid me of this turbulent priest», four knights took him literally and murdered Becket on the altar steps of Canterbury Cathedral (1170).

Henry's son Richard I, known as Coeur de Lion (Lionheart), came to the throne in 1189. He spent most of his time in the Holy Land fighting in the Crusades. At home his prolonged absence and expensive exploits plunged the country into chaos. This period, presided over by his brother and successor John, produced the legendary Nottingham outlaw, Robin Hood, who is imagined to have preyed on the rich to give to the poor.

Text 3. Middle and Modern English

As London was the most important city in England and the seat of the Royal court, and as William Caxton established a printing press there in 1476, the east Midland dialect quickly became what it has been ever since: standard modern English. Since then the English language has not undergone major structural changes; in fact, differences of speech between social classes have been of greater importance than regional differences. However, until recent times, in northern Scotland, Wales and above all Ireland, the Celtic languages were predominant.

Middle English is a term used to describe the language that came into being in the century or so after the Norman Conquest and lasted until about 1500. During those years, the inflectional system of Old English was weakened and a large number of words were introduced from France. At that time the language consisted of a number of regional dialects, rather than a standardised language, each with its own peculiarities of sound and spelling. The Midland dialect was the dialect of the educated classes of London and Chaucer.

As a result of the various historical influences, today English vocabulary is basically Germanic, although it contains a large number of Latin words, often in their French form. After the Norman Conquest and before the fourteenth century, the nobles were basically French-speaking. Latin, in the earlier Middle Ages, was both the living language of the literate classes and the language of the Church. Since then, English has also borrowed extensively from other languages: in particular, in the sixteenth century, from ancient Greek, due to the influence of classical scholarship.

Things to do

1. Explain why text 2 is called «Shakespeare's Kings».
2. Dwell on Shakespeare's biography.
3. Find out the names of Shakespeare's plays where he drew on the lives of the Plantagenet and Tudor kings.
4. Explain the terms: Benedictine orders, Cistercians, Crusades, outlaw, feudal system.
5. Say why Chaucer is considered to be the founder of the modern English language.
6. Speak about King Arthur and his role in British history.
7. Explain why the Crusades started.
8. Explain who Becket was and why he was murdered.
9. Speak about King Alfred and explain why he was called «Alfred the Great».
10. Dwell on the differences between the Old, Middle and Modern English.
11. Project

Find additional information about medieval literature and languages. Make a report.

Discussion Points

1. Discuss the role of monasteries in spreading out culture.
2. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the Crusades.

Chapter 4. HISTORICAL EVENTS OF MEDIEVAL PERIOD

Text 1. Magna Carta

King John is generally considered a bad king. He quarrelled with the Pope, upset the barons and imposed high taxes. The barons presented him with a series of demands on behalf of the people, which became Magna Carta (the Great Charter) signed at Runnymede near Windsor in 1215. Although history sees the Charter as a milestone, it brought no immediate solution.

John's son, Henry III, proved little better, filling his court with foreign favourites and embarking on a disastrous war with France. The barons, under Simon de Montfort, rebelled and in 1265 de Montfort summoned a parliament which has been called the first House of Commons. Under Edward I, Henry's son, Wales was conquered, and Edward's newborn son became Prince of Wales, a title held by the heir to the throne ever since.

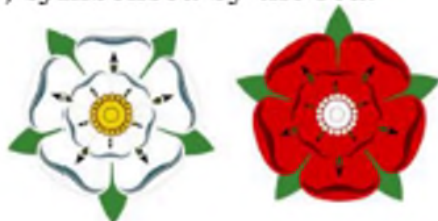
Text 2. Plague and Poll Tax

The reign of Edward II had little to commend it. He lost Gascony, upset his barons, and was deposed by Parliament in 1327, before being brutally murdered in Berkeley Castle. His son, Edward III, spent most of his reign fighting the Hundred Years' War (1337–1453). It began when Edward III claimed the French throne. At the best-known battle, Crécy, more than 30,000 French troops were killed, but by 1371 the English had lost most of their French possessions. After a lull, Edward's claim was revived by his great-grandson, Henry V. With very few English casualties and the help of Welsh longbow-men, Henry defeated the French at Agincourt and made a strategic marriage to a French princess. By the time he died in 1442, Henry controlled all northern France.

On the domestic front, times were hard. The Black Death, which reached England in 1348, killed nearly a third of the population. By leaving so much land untended and making labour scarce, it gave surviving peasants a better bargaining position. When a Poll Tax was introduced in 1381, the peasants of Kent and East Anglia rose in rebellion. Their revolt was brutally suppressed but it precipitated the end of the feudal system.

Text 3. The Wars of the Roses

Scarcely had the Hundred Years' War ended when aristocratic rivalries for the throne led to the Wars of the Roses. This name is a convenient shorthand for the battles between the House of York, symbolised by the white rose, and that of Lancaster, symbolised by the red.



During the course of these wars the murders took place of the young Edward V and his brother Richard – although the guilt of their uncle, Richard III, has never been proved. Richard was killed during the Battle of Bosworth, in Leicestershire, where Shakespeare, portraying him as a hunchback, had him offering his kingdom for a horse.

The wars ended after Richard's defeat with the marriage of Henry VII (1485–1509) to Elizabeth of York. This united the opposing factions and put the country under the rule of the Tudors.

Text 4. The Break from Rome

Henry refilled the royal coffers, but most of the money was squandered on a series of French wars by his son, Henry VIII – best remembered as gluttonous and licentious ruler who married six times, divorced twice and beheaded two of his wives. He also brought about the Reformation, in England for political rather than religious reasons, when the Pope refused to annul his marriage to Catherine of Aragon.



(Henry VIII)

When Henry died in 1547, he was succeeded by his only male heir, Edward, a sickly 10-year-old who died six years later. His half-sister Mary then came to the throne and won the nickname «Bloody Mary». A devout Catholic, she restored the Old Religion and had some 300 Protestants burned as heretics. Mary is also remembered as the monarch who lost the French port of Calais, the last British possession on the Continent, during a renewed war with France. More remorseful about this than the loss of so many lives, she declared that when she died the word «Calais» would be found engraved on her heart.

Things to do:

1. Answer the questions:

- What is the Magna Carta?
- When was it signed?

- When was the first parliament summoned?
- Why did Edward's newborn son receive the title «Prince of Wales?»
- 2. Explain why the reign of Edward II was a failure.**
- 3. Speak about the Hundred Years' War. Explain its causes and consequences.**
- 4. Find the connection between the plague and the tax poll and dwell on it.**
- 5. Speak about the War of Roses. Explain the name of the war.**
- 6. Say a few words about the Tudors' dynasty. Dwell on the biography of Henry the VIII.**
- 7. True or False:**
 - a. The Magna Carta was described as a charter of liberties which condemned John's use of feudal, judicial and other governmental powers.
 - b. In 1264 Parliament was called the House of Commons.
 - c. The Hundred Years' War began when Edward III claimed the French throne.
 - d. The Black Death, which reached England in 1348, killed nearly a half of the population.
 - e. Feudalism was flourishing before the arrival of the plague.
 - f. Mary was a Protestant.
- 8. Complete the charts, choose a dynasty and dwell on it.**

House of Lancaster

Kings	Dates
Richard II	
Henry IV	
Henry V	
Henry VI	

House of York

Kings	Dates
Edward IV	
Edward V	
Richard III	

House of Tudor

Kings	Dates
Henry VII	
Henry VIII	
Edward VI	
Mary I	
Elizabeth I	

9. Test. Choose the correct answer:

- 1. The Magna Carta was signed in:
a) 1215, b) 1265, c) 1255, d) 1225
- 2. The Hundred Years' War started in:
a) 1337, b) 1453, c) 1340, d) 1450

3. Which of the kings spent most of his reign fighting in the Hundred Years' War?
a) Edward I, b) Edward II, c) Edward III, d) Edward IV
4. The Wars of the Roses were between the House of York and the House of:
a) Stuart, b) Windsor, c) Tudor, d) Lancaster.
5. The Black Death is the nickname of the:
a) king, b) robber, c) plague, d) revolt
6. Which king was portrayed by Shakespeare as a hunchback?
a) Richard III, b) Henry VII, c) Edward VI, d) Henry VII

Discussion Points

1. Most historical events in medieval England are connected with wars.
2. The birth of the House of Commons started a new era in the British history.

Chapter 5. FROM ELIZABETH TO EMPIRE

Civil war, industrial revolution, the establishment of a parliamentary system and the growth of an Empire transformed the country

Text 1. The Elizabethan Age

The Elizabethan Age has a swashbuckling ring to it: the Virgin Queen and her dashing courtiers, the defeat of the Spanish Armada, and the exploits of the great «sea dogs», Frobisher and Hawkins. Sir Walter Raleigh brought tobacco back from Virginia; Sir Francis Drake circumnavigated the world. Even the great poets Sir Philip Sidney and John Donne spent time before the mast – although William Shakespeare stayed at home, entertaining crowds at the Globe Theatre in London.



(Elizabeth I)

Elizabeth I spent much of her long reign (1558–1603) resisting Catholic attempts to dethrone or assassinate her. She had re-established Protestantism but was constantly challenged by those who wished to put the Catholic Mary, Queen of Scots, on the throne. The execution of Mary in 1587 removed the conspirators' focal point and the defeat of the Spanish Armada the year after put an end to Catholic conspiracies.

Elizabeth was succeeded by Mary, Queen of Scots's son, James I (VI of Scotland), the first of the Stuarts, but his reign, too, was bedevilled by religious controversy. Puritans called for a purer form of worship and Catholics engineered a number of plots, one of which resulted in Sir Walter Raleigh's 13-year imprisonment in the Tower of London.

The most famous of the conspiracies was the Gunpowder Plot of 1605, when Guy Fawkes attempted to blow up the Houses of Parliament, an event still commemorated on 5 November, when Fawkes is burned in effigy throughout the land. Puritan protests were more peaceful, but James had little sympathy. Some left the country: a small group who became known as the Pilgrim Fathers set sail in the *Mayflower* in 1620 and founded New Plymouth in North America.

Text 2. Civil War

The English Civil War, which started on 22 August, 1642, really consisted of three wars. The first, between King Charles I and the Parliament, allied with the Scottish Covenanters, lasted until 1646; the second, in which a Scottish army fought for Charles I against Parliament took place in 1648; and the last, in which the Scots were led by Charles II as their king, lasted from 1649 to 1649.

The long-term causes of the wars were the growing wealth of the middle class (gentry and merchants), who made up a majority in the House of Commons and demanded a larger influence upon the government, and insufficiency of the king's hereditary finances, which made him dependent on the Commons whenever he was involved in foreign wars.

The Stuart period was one of conflict between Crown and Parliament, and under Charles I relations with Parliament went from bad to dreadful. King and Commons were constantly at each other's throats and in 1641 discontented Irish Catholics took advantage of their disarray to attack the settlers who had taken their land during the reign of James I. Thousands were massacred and the subsequent outcry in England precipitated the Civil War.

Opposition to the royalists was led by Oliver Cromwell, whose troops' short-cropped hair led them to be called Roundheads. Charles's defeat in 1649 led to his execution.

In Scotland, Charles's son and namesake was crowned king at Scone in 1651. He marched into England where he was defeated at Worcester, and eventually escaped to France. Meanwhile, Cromwell and «the Rump» – the Parliamentary members who had voted for Charles's execution – declared England a Commonwealth. In 1653 Cromwell dissolved Parliament, formed a Protectorate with himself as Lord Protector and ruled alone until his death in 1658. Without him republicanism faltered and in 1660 Charles II was crowned king in Westminster. In 1678 an agitator called Titus Oates disclosed a bogus «Popish Plot» to assassinate the king. Thousands of Catholics were imprisoned and no Catholic was allowed to sit in the House of Commons – a law that was not repealed for more than 150 years.

Text 3. Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658)



(Oliver Cromwell)

Oliver Cromwell was born on 25 April, 1599, in Huntingdon. He came from a family which was for a time one of the wealthiest and most influential in the area. Educated at Huntingdon Grammar School and at Cambridge University, he became a minor East Anglian Landowner. He made a living by farming and collecting rents. His income was modest and he had to support an expanding family –widowed mother, wife and eight children. Until 1640, he played only a small role in local administration and no significant role in national politics. It was the Civil War that lifted Cromwell from obscurity to power.

From the outbreak of war in summer 1642, Cromwell was an active and committed officer in the parliamentary army. Initially a captain in charge of a small body of mounted troops, in 1643 he was promoted to colonel and given command of his own cavalry regiment.

At the end of the year he was appointed second in command of the Eastern Association army, with the rank of lieutenant-general.

Text 4. Whigs and Tories

Fear of the monarchy ever again becoming too powerful led to the emergence of the first political parties, both known by nicknames: Whigs, a derogatory name for cattle drivers; Tories, an Irish word meaning outlaws. Loosely speaking, Whigs opposed absolute monarchy and supported religious freedom, while Tories were upholders of Church and Crown.

In 1685 Charles was succeeded by his brother, James II (1685–1688), who imposed illegal taxation and tried to bring back absolute monarchy and Catholicism. Rebellions were savagely put down, with hundreds hanged and many more sold into slavery. Whigs and Tories allied against him and in 1688 offered the crown to James's daughter, Mary, and her husband, the Dutch prince William of Orange. This move became known as the Glorious Revolution because Parliament had proved more powerful than the Crown –

a power spelled out in a Bill of Rights, which severely limited the monarch's freedom of action.

William landed in England and James fled to France. Backed by the French, he arrived in Ireland in 1689 where Irish Catholics lent him support, but with disastrous results for both sides. At Londonderry 30,000 Protestants survived a 15-week siege but were finally defeated. In 1690, William's troops trounced James at the Battle of the Boyne, and he fled to France, dying in 1701. Protestant victory was complete.

War with France dragged on, becoming, in Queen Anne's reign, the War of the Spanish Succession. Her commander-in-chief, John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, won a famous victory at Blenheim in 1704, for which he was rewarded with Blenheim Palace, near Oxford. During Anne's reign the name Great Britain came into being when, in 1707, the Act of Union united England and Scotland.



(Mary and the Dutch prince William of Orange)

Text 5. The Bill of Rights

The Bill of Rights was an act of Parliament (1689) which established Parliament as the primary governing body of the country. It made provisions limiting royal prerogative with respect to legislation, executive power, money levies, courts, and the army, and stipulated Parliament's consent to many government functions.

The Bill of Rights embodied the Declaration of Rights which contained the conditions on which William and Mary were offered the throne in Glorious Revolution. The act made it illegal for the royal authority to suspend laws without Parliament's consent; to establish special courts of law; to levy money by royal prerogative without Parliament's consent; and to maintain a standing army in peacetime without Parliament's consent.

It also asserted a right to petition the sovereign, freedom of parliamentary elections, freedom of speech in parliamentary debates, and the necessity of frequent Parliaments.

Next to Magna Carta, the Bill of Rights is the greatest landmark in the constitutional history of England and the nearest approach to the written constitution of other countries.

Text 6. The Great Pretenders

The Hanoverian period saw the last violent attempts to overthrow the monarchy in the shape of the two Jacobite Rebellions in support of the «Pretenders», descendants of James II. The first rebellion, in 1715, in support of his son James, the «Old Pretender», was defeated near Stirling and its leaders fled to France. Thirty years later his grandson Charles, the «Young Pretender», known as Bonnie Prince Charlie, raised a huge army in Scotland but was savagely defeated at the battle of Culloden by the Duke of Cumberland. No more «Pretenders» arose. From then on power struggles would be political ones, for it was with politicians and Parliament that real power remained.

Text 7. Hanoverian Britain

On Anne's death, a reliable Protestant monarch was needed. George of Hanover, great-grandson of James I on his mother's side, but with a Hanoverian father, and German in language and outlook, was invited to Britain. He never learned to speak fluent English, and had no great liking for his subjects.

The Hanoverian dynasty, under the four Georges, spanned a period of nearly 115 years. It was a time of wars with France and Spain, of expanding empire, industrialisation and growing demands for political reform.

Text 8. The Growth of London

When George and his queen, Sophia, arrived from Hanover in 1714 the city's population stood at 550,000 despite the ravages of the Great Plague of 1665 which had killed 100,000 Londoners. This was due largely to migrants from rural areas who came in search of work.

London had been partially rebuilt after the Great Fire of 1666, which started in a baker's shop in Pudding Lane and destroyed two-thirds of the timber-built city. But the subsequent elegant buildings designed by Sir Christopher Wren (1632–1723), such as St Paul's Cathedral, were a far cry from the overcrowded and insanitary slums in which most people lived.



(Sir Christopher Wren)

In the more affluent areas, some streets were widened to allow carriages to pass and rudimentary street lighting was introduced in the early 19th century. Westminster Bridge was illuminated by gaslight for the first time in 1813. Theatres, concert halls and newly fashionable coffee houses sprang up.



(Queen Victoria)

Royalty spent their time at Buckingham House, Kensington Palace and Hampton Court. George III bought Buckingham House and George IV had it redesigned by John Nash into a Palace, though Queen Victoria was the first monarch to take up residence. Parliament met at Westminster, although not in the present building, which was built after a fire destroyed its predecessor in 1834.

Things to do

1. Answer the questions:

- Why was the Elizabethan Age called «golden»? When was it?
- What famous people of the Elizabethan Age do you know? What made them famous?
- Who was the main rival of Elizabeth I?
- Who ruled after Elizabeth I? Was this monarch as successful as Elizabeth?
- Why did the Civil war start?
- What did Cromwell do when Charles I was defeated?
- Why was Cromwell called Lord the Protector?
- What happened after Cromwell's death?
- What events influenced the course of British history?
- Who was called the «Young pretender» and why?

2. Complete the charts and speak about one of the kings of the Tudor or Hanoverian dynasty.

House of Stuart

Kings	Dates
James I	
Charles I	
Charles II	
James II	
William III	
Mary II	
Anne	

House of Hannover

Kings	Dates
George I	
George II	
George III	
George IV	
William IV	
Victoria	

3. Explain the terms: Whigs, Tories, Crown.

4. Explain when and why the name Great Britain came into being.

5. Explain why the Bill of Rights was the greatest landmark in British history.

6. Speak about the Hanoverian dynasty.

7. Dwell upon Oliver Cromwell's biography. Use information from text 3.

8. Find information about Christopher Wren and speak about his contribution to British architecture.

9. Find out:

- which current monarchs descended from Queen Victoria;
- what values Queen Victoria's reign symbolized.

10. Projects.

1. Find information about the Glorious Revolution and make a report on it.
2. Find information about London in Hanoverian times.

11. Test. Choose the correct answer:

1. Elizabeth I was succeeded by:
a) Mary II, b) James I, c) Charles I, d) Edward II
2. The Gunpowder plot was headed by:
a) Guy Fakes, b) William of Orange, c) John Churchill, d) George Hanover
3. The House of Stuart did not include:
a) Charles II, b) James II, c) Mary II, d) George I.
4. The House of Hanover did not include:
a) William IV, b) Henry II, c) Victoria, d) George II.
5. William of Orange was from:
a) the Netherlands, b) France, c) Wales, d) Scotland
6. In 1688 Parliament drew up the:
a) Constitution, b) Bill of Rights, c) Magna Carta, d) Peace Treaty

7. Buckingham Palace was redesigned by:

a) Christopher Wren, b) John Nash, c) Norman Forster, d) James Sterling

Discussion Points

1. Elizabeth I was the best monarch in British history.

2. The formation of the parties put an end to monarchy in Britain.

Chapter 6. BRITISH COLONIES

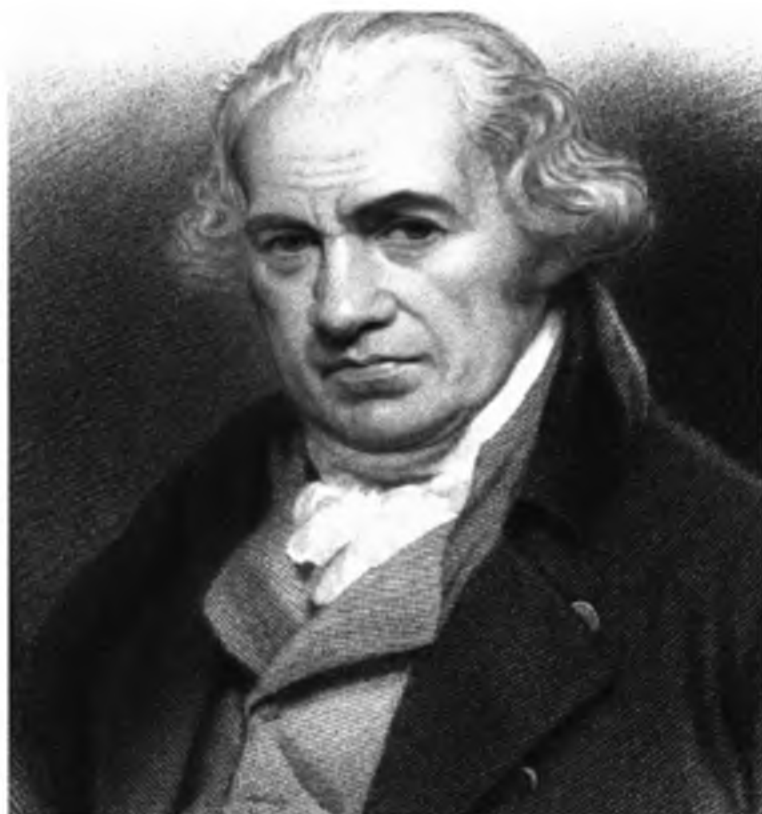
Text 1. Colonial Power

The treaty signed at the end of the Seven Years' War with France in 1763 allowed Britain to keep all its overseas colonies, making it the leading world power. The empire had been growing since 1607 when Virginia, an English colony in America, had been established. In 1620 English Puritans had settled in Massachusetts and other settlements were made later in the century. By 1700 most were governed by a Crown official and incorporated into Britain's Atlantic Empire.

Throughout the 17th century the demand for goods – furs, silk, tobacco, sugar – led to a series of wars with the Dutch and the French from which Britain emerged in control of much of West Africa, Newfoundland and Nova Scotia and some of the Caribbean islands. The French and the English battled for supremacy in Canada and India during the 18th century. By 1760 England had proved the clear winner. Colonial trade, unfortunately, went hand in hand with slavery. It was not until 1807 that the tireless efforts of William Wilberforce helped make the trade illegal and another 27 years before slavery was abolished in all British colonies.

Text 2. Agriculture and Industry

Radical changes took place in the English countryside in the late 18th century: the narrow-strip system of farming which had prevailed since Saxon times ended when a series of Enclosure Acts empowered wealthier landowners to seize land and divide it into enclosed fields. This explains the patchwork quality of much of Britain's countryside. Arable farming became more efficient and profitable, but for the evicted tenants it was a disaster. The dispossessed farmers left their homes to look for work in the towns, which soon became impossibly overcrowded.



(James Watt)

The first steam engine was devised by an Englishman at the end of the 17th century but it was the Scottish inventor James Watt (1736–1819) who modified the design in the 1770s and made steam an efficient source of energy, which would power trains and ships as well as factory machinery. Steam pumps allowed speculators to drain deep coal mines, which vastly increased coal production. Abraham Darby's method of smelting iron with coke instead of charcoal hugely increased the production of iron which was used for machinery, railways and shipping. In 1779, the world's first cast-iron bridge was built in Coalbrookdale, Shropshire, and can still be seen today. Textiles had long been a vital part of Britain's economy and James Hargreaves' invention of the Spinning Jenny in the 1770s opened the way to mass production. As in agriculture, mechanisation destroyed the livelihood of many people.

Goods and materials needed improved transportation to reach a market, and the 18th century saw massive outlay on canal building. By 1830 all the main industrial areas were linked by waterways, although most of these would fall into disuse when the new railways proved faster and more efficient (today, cleared out and cleaned up, they provide thousands of miles of leisure boating, with more miles of canal in Birmingham than there are in Venice). New roads were built, too. By the early 19th century, men such as Thomas Telford and John Macadam, who gave us the road surface called «tarmac», had created a road network totalling some 125,000 miles (200,000 km).

Above all, this was the age of the railways, when iron and steam combined to change the face of the country, and were romanticized in such paintings as *Rain, Steam and Speed* by J. M. W. Turner. Cornishman Richard Trevithick built the first steam locomotive, and The Stockton and Dar-

lington Line was the first railway line to open, in 1825, with George Stephenson's *Locomotion*. Isambard Kingdom Brunel, who designed the elegant Clifton Suspension Bridge across the Avon Gorge, laid down the Great Western Railway.

Text 3. The Fear of Revolution

The two events that most alarmed the British ruling classes in the late 18th century were the American War of Independence and the French Revolution – a fear exacerbated by wars with France and Spain and the dissatisfaction provoked by heavy taxes and the loss of trade they caused. Known as the Napoleonic Wars, these hostilities began around 1799 and rumbled on until 1815, giving Britain two of its greatest heroes, Admiral Lord Nelson (1758–1805) and the Duke of Wellington (1769–1852).



(Admiral Lord Nelson and the Duke of Wellington)

However, political change in England was to come not through revolution but gradual reform. Between 1832 and 1884 three parliamentary Reform Bills were passed, extending the franchise.

The 1829 Emancipation Act, which allowed Catholics to sit in Parliament, was another measure that frightened the old school. And the Repeal of the Corn Laws – heavy taxes on imported corn which were crippling trade and starving the poor – split the ruling Conservative Party. The «Peelite» faction, followers of the pro-repeal Sir Robert Peel, joined with Whigs to form the Liberal Party.

Things to do

1. Answer the questions:

- When was the first English colony established?
- What countries were the main England's rivals in their struggle for colonies?
- Why was it so important for countries to have colonies?

- Where did Britain have colonies in the 17th and 18th centuries?

2. True or false:

- Nothing changed in the English countryside in the late 18th century.
- Arable farming became more efficient and profitable in the late 18th century.
- The first steam engine was devised by an Englishman at the end of the 15th century.
- Steam pumps allowed speculators to drain deep coal mines, which vastly increased coal production.
- James Watt's method of smelting iron with coke instead of charcoal hugely increased the production of iron.
- In 1779, the world's first wooden bridge was built in Coalbrookdale, Shropshire, and can still be seen today.
- Textiles had long been a vital part of Britain's economy and James Hargreaves' invention of the Spinning Jenny in the 1770s opened the way to mass production.

3. Explain why scientific progress destroyed the livelihood of many people.

4. Complete the chart and speak about one of the inventions of the 18-19th centuries made in Britain.

Name of the inventor	Date	The invention

5. Explain how the French Revolution influenced Britain.

6. Speak on British parliamentary reforms which took place between 1832 and 1884.

7. Projects:

1. Find information and make a report on the Seven Years' War with France.
2. Find information about the American War of Independence.
3. Find information on Admiral Nelson's or the Duke of Wellington's biography. Explain why they are considered to be national heroes.

Discussion Points

1. Did British colonies open the way to slavery?
2. Should scientific progress be reflected in works of art?

Chapter 7. BRITISH POLITICAL LIFE AND CULTURE IN THE 18TH CENTURY

Text 1. The Age of Dickens



(Charles Dickens)

Charles John Huffam Dickens (1812–1870) is an English novelist whose high reputation rests on his creation of a range of memorable and often odd characters (e.g. Scrooge and Mr. Pickwick), and on his descriptions of the bad conditions in which poor people lived in the 19th century in Britain which helped to bring about social reforms. In London, the squalor and crime that Charles Dickens portrayed so evocatively in his novels were all too real. But change, although slow, was on the way. After a cholera epidemic in 1832 measures were taken to provide drainage and clean water. The police force that Sir Robert Peel established in 1829, and which took the nickname «Bobbies» from him, was helping combat crime. Peel also abolished the death penalty for many petty crimes, influenced by the ideas of the utilitarian thinker Jeremy Bentham, who founded University College, London.

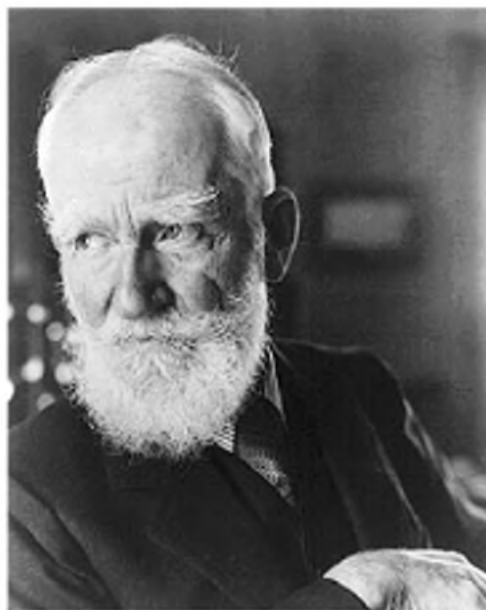
Working-class people, on the whole, were not attracted by revolutionary struggle and preferred to pursue their aims through trade union organisation and representation in Parliament. The first working-class member of Parliament, in 1892, was John Keir Hardie, the leader of Scottish miners, and 14 years later the British Labour Party won its first parliamentary seats. Although Karl Marx (1818–1883) lived and worked in London for much of his

life – his tomb can be seen in London's Highgate Cemetery – his ideas were shared only by a relatively small group of middle-class intellectuals.

Middle-class life was comfortable and pleasant. Improved transport – including the world's first underground railway, opened in London in 1863 – enabled people to work in towns but live in leafy suburbs.

Text 2. Shaw and Wilde

At the theatre, audiences were being entertained by the plays of two Anglo-Irish writers: George Bernard Shaw (1856–1950), who believed in combining education with entertainment and introduced radical politics into his work; and Oscar Wilde (1854–1900), who poked sophisticated fun at London's high society and was to end his glittering career in a prison cell on charges of homosexuality.



(George Bernard Shaw)



(Oscar Wilde)

All in all, Britain was feeling quite pleased with itself by the time of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee in 1897. The jubilee celebrated 60 years on the throne for the woman who had spent much of her reign as a black-clad widow, who had given her name to the age, and who ruled over the biggest empire in the world.

Text 3. The Pre-Raphaelites

The Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood was a group of English painters, poets and critics founded in 1848 by Dante Gabriel Rossetti, John Everett Millais and William Holman Hunt – at that time young students at the Royal Academy of Arts. They aimed to paint serious subjects, to study nature closely, and to return to the sincerity of spirit of painters before the time of Rafael Sanzio. Their subjects were mainly biblical and literary, painted with obsessive naturalism and attention to detail. Their work was characterized by vivid colour, rich detail, elaborate symbolism and moral fervour.

The group gained acceptance after receiving the support of English art critic John Ruskin. John Ruskin (1819–1900) was also considered one of the founders of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood of painters and writers. William Morris (1834–1896), who devoted himself to the revival of medieval arts and crafts, shared Ruskin's ideals. Examples of his decoration and furnishings can be seen at Kelmscott Place, near Oxford, for a time the centre of the Brotherhood's activities, and also at the Red House in Bexleyheath. The latter contains fine stained glass by Edward Burne-Jones, whose work along with that of fellow Pre-Raphaelites John Millais and Dante Gabriel Rossetti is spread through galleries in London, Birmingham, Manchester and Liverpool.

The group was short-lived but it influenced many painters.



(John Ruskin)



(«Lamia – version II» by John William Waterhouse, 1909)



(«Dante's Vision Of Rachel And Leah» by Dante Gabriel Rossetti)



«Ophelia» by John Everett Millais

Things to do

1. True or false:

- Dickens's works reflected the quiet and safe life of London.
- Measures were taken to improve the criminal situation in London.
- The policemen were often called «Bobbies».
- Peel abolished the death penalty for many petty crimes.
- The first working-class Member of Parliament was John Keir Hardie, the leader of the Welsh miners.
- The underground railway was opened in London in 1900.
- A new political party appeared at the end of the 18th century.

2. Answer the questions:

- What did George Bernard Shaw believe in?
- Why do you think the author describes Queen Victoria as «a black-clad widow?»
- Who did Oscar Wilde make fun of?

3. Match the painters and their works:

Painters	Works
1. D. G. Rossetti	Christ in the House of His Parents
2. J. E. Millais	The Scapegoat
3. W. H. Hunt	The Day Dream

4. Projects.

Find information about:

- Charles Dickens and his works;
- George Bernard Shaw and his works;
- Oscar Wilde and his works;
- The Pre-Raphaelites and their role in British art.

Discussion Points

1. Discuss the importance of the police in modern society. Speak about the functions of the police and say whether the public perception of the police has changed.
2. Discuss the impact of literature and art on British history of the 18-19th centuries.
3. Discuss the impact of great people on British history.

Chapter 8. MODERN TIMES

Following the ravages of two world wars and the end of its imperial adventure, England was forced to redefine its relationship with the rest of Europe.

Text 1. The Results of World War I

World War I began in 1914. Britain, France, Russia, the United States and other countries fought the Central Powers – Germany, Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria. The war was caused chiefly by political and economic rivalry among the various nations. Part of this rivalry was between Britain and Germany. German industry was growing rapidly, and Germany also had built a powerful navy.

Britain entered the war on 4 August, 1914, after German troops invaded neutral Belgium on their way to attack France. With the outbreak of war, divisive issues such as Irish Home Rule and women's suffrage, were put aside, and the wave of industrial strikes that had marked the immediate pre-war years came to a halt, as the nation united in patriotic fervour for what everybody believed would be a short war. As 1916 progressed, public optimism decreased. The fighting lasted until 1918, when the Allies finally defeated Germany. David Lloyd George, a Liberal, served as Prime Minister during the second half of the war. He helped write the Treaty of Versailles, which officially ended the war with Germany.

World War I claimed over a million British casualties, most of them under the age of 25. But had the sacrifice been worth it? Men who had fought in France and been promised a «land fit for heroes» were disillusioned when they found unemployment and poor housing awaiting them at the war's end in 1918. Women who had worked in factories while the men were away were not prepared to give up any of their independence.

There were strikes on the railways and in the mines and political unrest led to four general elections in just over five years, including one which brought the Labour Party to power for the first time. In 1926 a general strike paralysed the country but the unions' demands were not met and the men returned to work, much disgruntled and worse off than before.

Text 2. The Roaring Twenties

There was another side to life, of course. For some, unaffected by gloomy financial reality, these were the Roaring Twenties. Women with cropped hair and short dresses drank cocktails and danced to the new music, jazz, which had crossed the ocean from America. Silent films, another US import, were the wonder of the age.

The New York Stock Market crash of 1929 looked as if it would bring the party to an end. The effects soon spread throughout Europe and by 1931 England was entering the Great Depression. The principal victims of the recession were in the industrial areas of northern England, south Wales, and Clydeside in Scotland. Three million people lost their jobs and suffered real misery with only the «dole», a limited state benefit, to keep them from starvation and homelessness. British cinema thrived as people sought an escape from reality.

In the south of England and the Midlands, the depression hit less hard and recovery was faster, mainly due to the rapid growth of the motor, electrical and light engineering industries. The bold, geometric designs of Art Deco, which began in Paris in 1925, could soon be seen adorning the spanking new factories lining the main roads.

Text 3. The Abdication

In 1936, following the death of George V, the country was rocked by an unprecedented crisis. Edward VIII succeeded his father but was obliged to abdicate when family, Church and Government united in their refusal to let him marry a twice-divorced American, Mrs. Wallis Simpson. The British public was kept in the dark about the matter. The couple married in France and remained in permanent exile as the Duke and Duchess of Windsor. Edward's brother came to the throne and, as George VI, became a popular monarch, not least for the solidarity, which he and his Queen showed to their subjects during the Blitz, as the German bombing raids were called.



(King George VI and Queen Elizabeth)

Text 4. World War II

With memories of the «war to end all wars» still fresh in people's minds, there was great reluctance to enter another conflict. But by 1939 the policy of appeasement of German aggression was no longer tenable. Although Britain's island status saved it from invasion, the war involved civilians in an unprecedented way. German bombing raids tore the heart out of many ports and cities. Many of the modern buildings in British towns, not always blending too harmoniously, have been erected on former bomb sites.

Many London families spent their nights in the Underground stations, the safest places during an attack, and a lot of people from cities and industrial areas were evacuated to the countryside during the worst of the Blitz. For children, sent to live with strangers while their parents remained behind, it was both a time of great loneliness and the first glimpse many of them had ever had of green fields and woodlands. For some of the country families on whom they were billeted, it may have been their first glimpse of the effects of urban deprivation.

Sir Winston Churchill had received massive popular support as an inspirational war leader, and is still regarded by many people as Britain's greatest prime minister. But when hostilities ended in 1945 the electorate declined to re-elect him and voted overwhelmingly for a Labour government: the war effort had fostered egalitarianism and many returning servicemen felt that electing a Conservative government again would simply resuscitate the old class differences.



(Sir Winston Churchill)

The problems of the war-torn country proved intractable, but the Labour government laboured to keep its promises. The basis of the welfare state was laid, providing free medical care for everyone and financial help for the old, the sick and the unemployed. The Bank of England, coal mines, railways and steelworks were nationalised. These were hard and joyless

years, however, and wartime rationing of food, clothing and fuel continued into the early 1950s.

Things to do

1. Describe the reasons and consequences of World War I.

2. Answer the questions:

– Why do you think the author gave the title to text 2 «**The Roaring Twenties?**»

– When did the Great Depression take place and why?

– What were the results of the Great Depression in Britain?

– Who succeeded George V when he died?

– Why did Edward VIII have to abdicate?

– Who came to the throne after Edward's abdication?

– Was this monarch popular? Why or why not?

3. True or False?

– Britain was invaded by the German troops during World War II.

– German bombing raids ruined many buildings in different cities and towns.

– Many people were evacuated to the USA.

– Sir Winston Churchill was the leader of the Conservative party.

– The Labour Party was supported by the British population during World War II.

– Many coal mines, railways and steelworks were nationalised by the Labour party.

4. Complete the chart:

Prime Ministers of Great Britain in the First Half of the 20th Century

Time	Name	Party
1902–1905		
1905–1908		
1908–1916		
1902–1905		
1905–1908		
1908–1916		
1916–1922		
1922–1923		
1923–1924		
1924		
1924–1929		
1929–1935		
1935–1937		
1937–1940		
1940–1945		
1945–1951		

5. Find out information about Chamberlain and explain why he was not popular as the Prime Minister.

6. Projects:

1. Find information about George V and make a report on his biography.
2. Find information about Sir Winston Churchill and dwell on his biography and his policy.
3. Find information about Britain's role in the victory over fascism and speak about Britain and Russia as allies during World War II.

Discussion Points

1. Britain experienced a remarkable unity in the Second World War.
2. If Britain had had a different Prime Minister, the war might have not started.

Chapter 9. BRITAIN AFTER WORLD WAR II

Text 1. The End of Empire

The British Empire comprised the dominions, colonies, protectorates, mandates and other territories ruled or administered by Britain. It originated with the overseas colonies and trading posts established by England in the late 16th and early 17th centuries. At its height, it was the largest empire in history, and for a century was the foremost global power.

One of the most far-reaching consequences of the war was that it hastened the end of Britain's empire. Starting with India's independence in 1947, the colonies one after another achieved autonomy during the next two decades. Jamaica and Trinidad did not gain independence until 1962, but they were two islands whose people were among the first black immigrants to Britain in the early 1950s, when work was plentiful and immigrants were welcomed to fill the labour gap. Newcomers from the Caribbean settled mainly in London at first, while later immigrants from the Indian sub-continent made their homes in the Midlands, where textiles and the motor industry offered employment.

The post-war years were ones of uneasy peace. Britain joined the war against North Korea in 1950 and its troops, still a conscripted army, fought there for four years. In 1956, following Egyptian nationalisation of the Suez Canal, British and French forces conspired to attack Egypt, pleading bogus provocation. The action was widely condemned both at home and particularly in the United States, representing an ignominious end to Britain's imperial ambitions.

These were also the years of the Cold War between the Soviet Union and the West, which prompted Britain to become a nuclear power. The first British hydrogen bomb was tested in 1957, after the world's first nuclear power station had opened in Cumberland (now Cumbria). The Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament was born in response and organised large protest marches.

After the Second World War and throughout the 1950s, it was understood that a conference of the world's great powers involved the USA, the Soviet Union and Britain. However, in 1962, the Cuban missile crisis, one of the greatest threats to global peace since the war, was resolved without reference to Britain. By the 1970s it was generally accepted that a «superpower» conference involved only the USA and the Soviet Union.

Text 2. A New Elizabethan Age

All was not gloom and doom. In 1951 the Festival of Britain was held in the newly built Royal Festival Hall on London's South Bank – the National Theatre was added to the concrete complex in 1964.

The Festival was designed to commemorate the Great Exhibition 100 years earlier and strongly signalled the beginning of the end of post-war austerity. In 1953, a new Elizabethan Age began as Elizabeth II was crowned in Westminster Abbey. Britain's Television Age began in earnest that day too, as millions watched the coronation live on tiny flickering screens.

By the latter half of the decade things were definitely looking up. Harold Macmillan, the Conservative prime minister, declared in a famous speech that people had «never had it so good». New universities were built, with the aim of making higher education a possibility for more than just the privileged elite. Most people had two weeks' paid holiday a year and, alongside the traditional seaside resorts, holiday camps blossomed, offering cheap family vacations.

Social attitudes were changing too, reflected in the rise of a group of writers known as «angry young men» including John Osborne and Arnold Wesker, whose plays challenged conventional values.

Text 3. The Pendulum Swings

The 1960-s saw an explosion of new talent, much of it from the north of England. Alan Sillitoe and Stan Barstow wrote about working-class life in a way no one had done before. Northern actors, such as Albert Finney and Tom Courteney achieved huge success and, in the cinema, directors Lindsay Anderson and Karel Reisz made British films popular box-office attractions. Pop music, as it was now called, underwent a revolution when a group from Liverpool, the Beatles, became world celebrities and turned their home town into a place of pilgrimage.

It was a decade of optimism and national self-confidence was infectious: in 1966 England's footballers even beat Germany to win the World Cup.

Britain had a reputation during the 1970s for frequent strikes and bad industrial relations although some other industrial countries in fact had worse records.

It was during the winter of 1973, when an oil embargo and a miners' strike provoked a State of Emergency and brought down Edward Heath's Conservative Government that the self-confidence collapsed. In the same year, with mixed feelings, Britain finally became a full member of the Common Market (now the European Union). Rising oil prices pushed up the cost of living, high inflation took its toll, and unemployment soared.

Oil was discovered in the North Sea. But, although building oil rigs provided jobs, the oil revenues were largely soaked up in payments to the jobless. There was no economic miracle.

To deepen the gloom, English cities were again bombed. This time the perpetrators were the IRA, who were fighting to end British rule in Northern Ireland. By 1979, unemployment had reached 3½ million and a wave of strikes plunged the country into what was called «the winter of discontent» – the media has a tendency to quote Shakespeare in times of crisis. An election returned the Conservatives to office under their new leader, Margaret Thatcher.



(Margaret Thatcher)

The impact of the West's first woman prime minister was enormous, but her personal popularity soon began to fade as the economy remained weak. Her political stock was dramatically strengthened in 1982 by the Falklands War when an invading Argentinian force was beaten off these South Atlantic islands, remnants of the empire.

For many, the 1980s meant increased prosperity. The most ambitious development was the renewal of London's derelict docklands area into a new industrial site, with its own small airport and light railway system and prestige housing for young urban professionals. Docklands' Canary Wharf development was dubbed Chicago-on-Thames. For many people, however, the dream of living in London faded as the strong economy pushed up the capital's house prices and rents.

Text 4. The Thatcher Era

The 1980s became known as the Thatcher decade after Britain's first female prime minister came to power in 1979. For many it was a time of increased prosperity, and bright new shopping centres sprang up over the country. For others, particularly in the north, where steelworks, shipyards and coal mines had closed, the 1980s were grim. Most nationalised industries were privatised. Margaret Thatcher was an intelligent and shrewd politician. Her autocratic style earned her the nickname of the «Iron Lady». She had an enormous impact on Britain in the final decades of the 20th century and became the longest serving Prime Minister of the century. After 11 years

of Thatcherite rule, people began to tire of the Iron Lady's uncompromising style and she was finally voted out in November 1990 – not by the electorate, but by her own party who believed she had lost touch with the country. She was replaced by a less combative leader, John Major. He began his career as a banker before becoming a Member of Parliament in 1979. He joined the Government in 1981, and in 1989 was promoted to Foreign Secretary, then Chancellor of the Exchequer.

Text 5. The Nervous' 1990s

As the 1990s began, the economy was no longer riding so high. A long and acrimonious miners' strike in 1984 had weakened the unions, and coal mines, including most of those in the closely knit mining communities of South Wales, were subsequently closed. Most of Britain's nationalised industries were privatised, a move which a former Conservative prime minister, Harold Macmillan, likened to 'selling the family silver'.

Britain's technical status as an island was removed in 1994 when the first fare-paying passengers travelled by rail to Paris and Brussels through the long-awaited Channel Tunnel. But the big question remained: did Britain really feel European enough to be part of a full monetary union – perhaps even, one day, a political union?

Text 6. That *Fin de Siècle* Feeling

Two events in 1997 shook the nation out of its wary complacency. In a general election the Conservative Party was swept from power as the Labour Party roared in with an unassailable overall majority in the House of Commons. The Conservatives were left without a single seat in either Scotland or Wales, both of which voted in subsequent referendums for a greater degree of self-rule; devolution took effect in 1999 with the setting up of new assemblies in Edinburgh and Cardiff.

The second defining event in 1997 was the death in a car crash in Paris of Diana, Princess of Wales. The wave of grief that swept the country took everyone by surprise. Some attacked the royal family for failing to display sufficient anguish – a predicament dramatised in a 2006 movie in which Helen Mirren portrayed the Queen.

But Tony Blair's new government soon disappointed many by abandoning its socialist roots, promoting unexpectedly conservative economic policies with evangelical fervour. However in June 2001 the Labour Party won another landslide election victory, despite a great deal of voter apathy. The crucial question of whether Britain should embrace the single European currency, the euro, divided public opinion, and effectively the issue was put on the back burner.

Text 7. The American Connection

Europe remains an issue that can still destroy governments because it forces people to confront questions of identity and loyalties. Although Britons today are happy to holiday in a gîte in Normandy or a resort on the Costa del Sol, most still regard Europe as «foreign». Because of ancestral links and a shared language, many feel more comfortable with the United States, even though its values and attitudes are often far more «foreign» than those of, say, Germany or Italy.

Tony Blair argued that Britain was ideally placed to be a bridge between America and the European Union, but European politicians regularly accused Britain of being a less than faithful partner as it professed eternal love for its fellow Europeans while remaining reluctant to learn their languages or refusing to accept the euro as national currency.

This conflict came to a head when George W. Bush's administration determined to invade Iraq. While much of Europe opposed the war, Tony Blair went against public opinion by making Britain a full coalition partner: more than one million people marched in protest. When a BBC reporter implied that the government had exaggerated the threat posed by Saddam Hussein, the ensuing row led to the eventual resignations of the BBC's chairman and director-general.

Yet Labour's hold on power remained secure, because not only had the Conservative Party failed to heal the splits (especially over Europe) that had forced Margaret Thatcher from power, the acrid arguments between the Thatcherite sympathisers and their opponents made them look unfit to govern.

The failure to find the much touted weapons of mass destruction in Iraq severely dented Blair's reputation and, although Britain's economy had remained more robust than most European economies, criticism mounted that Labour had failed to deliver adequate public services and had no answers to chronic problems such as traffic congestion and threats to the environment.

Things to do

1. Explain the terms: «the dominions, colonies, protectorates, mandates».

2. Answer the questions:

- Which British colony was the first to gain independence?
- Which British colonies were the last to gain independence?
- When did Britain join the war against North Korea?
- Why did British and French forces conspire to attack Egypt?
- Why did Britain decide to become a nuclear power?

3. True or False

- Post-war situation in Britain was very gloomy.
- The National British Theatre was built in 1951.
- The Festival of Britain was designed to commemorate the birthday of Elizabeth I.
- Elizabeth II came to the throne in 1952.
- Due to Harold Macmillan, the Conservative Prime Minister, a lot of positive changes took place in Britain.
- There appeared a new generation of post-war writers.

4. Speak about the British Empire.
5. Find information and explain why despite Britain's loss of power and status on the world stage some small remnants of the empire remain.
6. Explain what the term «the IRA» means.
7. Dwell on the events that shook Britain at the end of the 1990s.
8. Prove that European politicians regularly accused Britain of being a less than faithful partner.
9. Complete the chart and speak about one of the Prime Ministers:
Prime Ministers of Great Britain in the second half of the 20th Century

Time	Name	Party
1951–1955		
1955–1957		
1957–1963		
1963–1964		
1964–1970		
1970–1974		
1974–1976		
1976–1979		
1979–1990		
1990–1997		
1997–2007		
2007–2010		
2010–present		

10. Projects.

1. Find information on biographies of Alan Sillitoe and Stan Barstow and explain what was common and what was different in their works.
2. Find information on biographies of John Osborne and Arnold Wesker and explain why they belonged to the «angry generation».
3. Find information about the first woman Prime Minister and her policy, explain what made her famous.

Discussion Points

1. What indications can you find of the fact that British people like to think of their country as an important and independent power in the world?
2. Is Britain more faithful to the USA than to its European partners?

Chapter 10. BRITAIN IN THE 21 CENTURY

Text 1. London is Targeted

In July 2005, London surprised itself by winning its bid to host the 2012 Olympic Games. The building programme needed to accommodate the games would, it was promised, rejuvenate run-down areas of East London.

On the very next day, the jubilation ceased as suicide bombings killed 52 people and injured more than 700 on three Underground trains and a bus. Two weeks later, other bombers failed to detonate four more devices on the city's transport network. These attacks raised the question of how to make such a sprawling cosmopolitan city more secure, particularly since the bombers were not foreign terrorists who had evaded the country's border checks but British-born Muslims.

Text 2. The Insecure Society

As in the United States after 2001, security became a major issue. Yet, curiously for such reserved people, the British were already, per capita, the most spied-on people on the planet. In addition to a forest of speed cameras – designed, many thought, as much to raise revenue as to cut road accidents – surveillance cameras had sprung up in town centres. Britain's economy went on to crash into recession, following the «credit-crunch» of 2008. Banks were nationalised and in 2009, the extent of personal expenses claimed by MPs – everything from the cost of cleaning their moats to new lavatory seats – threatened to undermine Parliament itself when it was revealed by a national newspaper.

Text 3. British Heritage

Britain's artistic and cultural heritage is one of the richest in the world. About 650 professional arts festivals take place in Britain each year, the Edinburgh International Festival is the largest of its kind in the world. Many British playwrights, craftspeople, composers, film-makers, and dancers enjoy international reputation. Creative industries play an important part in Britain's economy.

Britain's long record of achievement in science and technology has continued throughout the 20th century. Nobel Prizes for science have been won by over 70 British citizens, more than any other country except the US. In the last 30 years, major contributions have been made by British scientists working in universities, research institutes, and industry. These have included theories on black hole and the origins of the universe; the identifications of genes linked to cystic fibrosis and other diseases.

Britain is a country rich in history and tradition. History has left its imprint in the form of many historic sites which are very well-preserved, different legends, and traditions. When looking at Britain today, it is important to remember the great benefits from the past. No other country has so long a history of political order. Few other countries have enjoyed such long periods of economic and social well-being, a few can rival Britain in cultural development. For lots of people all over the world Britain was, is, and will be a lifetime of discovery, a country so familiar and yet unknown.

Text 4. Theatre

«Plays make mankind no better and no worse», claimed Lord Byron. But as a tourist attraction they do wonders for England's economy.

From the moment you arrive in Stratford-upon-Avon you know you are in The Birthplace of the Bard. From the Shakespeare Tour buses to the T-shirts proclaiming «Will Power», from Ann Hathaway's cottage to the site of New Place, where the great man spent his later years, this pretty little town is dedicated to the Shakespeare industry.

What it is all based on are the plays, performed by the Royal Shakespeare Company in the severe modern theatre beside the Avon, as they are in theatres throughout the world. By some rare gift this 16th-century writer was able to encapsulate emotions, to universalize petty jealousies and major

tragedies, in words that still ring fresh and new, with humour that seems to work even translated into Japanese.

Shakespeare is part of the national heritage, revered even by those who rarely, if ever, visit a theatre. Lines from his plays are part of the language, most actors express a wish to play Hamlet at some time in their career, and there are few classical directors who don't itch to stage their own interpretation of the works.

Outside Stratford-upon-Avon, the best place to see Shakespeare is in London, where both commercial theatres and subsidized venues like the National Theatre regularly stage star-led productions. In summer, Shakespeare's Globe, a facsimile of the original Globe Theatre, mounts the plays in a 16th-century setting on London's Bankside. But you could probably see a Shakespeare play, professional or amateur, somewhere in the country on most nights of the year.

More than just Shakespeare

London's theatrical history goes back to a playhouse opened at Shoreditch in 1576 by James Burbage, the son of a carpenter and travelling player, and its development encompasses a strong tradition of taking side-swipes at social issues. In the *Roaring Girl* of 1611, for example, playwright Thomas Dekker dwelt at some length on London's traffic jams.

In modern times, live theatre was supposed to succumb first to movies, then to television, yet it is still one of those essential attractions that every visitor to London is supposed to experience. Outside the capital, there are groundbreaking repertory theatres in most major cities, and amateur dramatics fill countless church halls around the country.

Critics bemoan the fact that lavish musicals have come to dominate London's mainstream theatre. Once, no one would have guessed that the West End would hijack the genre from Broadway. Yet it happened with surprising speed. First, Tim Rice and Andrew Lloyd Webber demonstrated the possibilities of the cunningly crafted rock-musical form with *Jesus Christ Superstar* and *Evita*. Then, leaving Rice to indulge his passion for cricket and aptitude for writing Oscar-winning songs for Disney cartoons, Lloyd Webber focused his fanaticism for the stage musical by composing *Cats* (a collaboration with the late T. S. Eliot), *Phantom of the Opera*, *Starlight Express*, *Sunset Boulevard* and *The Lady in White*.

Traditionalists claim that the mania for musicals has squeezed out new drama productions. Yet a glance at the theatre listings in *Time Out* magazine doesn't entirely bear out this claim. Classics continue to be staged at the National Theatre and the Old Vic, new writing is still put on the Royal Court and the Bush, experimental work and alternative comedy are mounted at the fringe theatres, and playwrights such as David Hare, Tom Stoppard and Alan Bennett do not lack an audience.

The Hollywood touch

As well as locally grown stars such as Michel Gambon, Ian McKellan, Maggie Smith, Diana Rigg and Judi Dench, American actors have never been strangers to the West End – Dustin Hoffman appeared as Shylock in *The Merchant of Venice* in 1989, for example – but recently a flood of Hollywood actors have been keen to enhance (or revive) their careers in London. Kathleen Turner, Linda Gray and Amanda Donohoe took turns to disrobe as Mrs. Robinson in a stage version of *The Graduate*. After Kevin Spacey scored a hit in *The Iceman Cometh* at the Old Vic, he accepted the position of a part-time

artistic director of the venerable theatre from its chairman, Elton John, helping to raise funds to repair its leaky roof and cracked walls and promising to appear regularly as an actor.

Fringe venues

In addition to the well-known central theatres, there are many recognized fringe venues in the capital, while theatres outside the centre, in Hampstead, Richmond and Wimbledon, are used as proving grounds for West-End runs. Fringe productions range from standard Shakespeare on a low budget to the latest shows by minority groups keen to put across political or social messages, though much of the new young writing is dark and funny and well-observed.

Established fringe venues include the Young Vic (in The Cut, near the Old Vic), the Almeida (in Islington) and the Half Moon (in the East End). Lively pub theatres include the King's Head in Islington and the Gate Theatre at Notting Hill Gate.

In summer there is open-air theatre in Regent's Park (usually Shakespeare) and also in Holland Park in west London.

In summer Shakespeare's plays can be seen on the spot where they were first performed, in a replica of the Globe Theatre on the South Bank of the river Thames.

National companies

One of the most important features of London theatre is the presence within it of two major subsidized companies: the National Theatre and the Royal Shakespeare Company.

The National, with three auditoria on the South Bank, has the advantage of a modern building, though its relentlessly concrete exterior isn't to everyone's taste, and its technology is impressive – revolving stages are only the start of it. By contrast, in 2001 the RSC gave up its London home in the Barbican Centre, to which it had brought its latest work from Stratford-upon-Avon, and began staging seasons at various theatres. This made it less visible in the capital.

The main criticism levelled at the National have been its comparative lack of plays by European authors and the staging during Trevor Nunn's directorship of large-scale musicals such as *Oklahoma!* and *My Fair Lady* – splendidly mounted but felt by purists to be more the concern of the commercial West End theatre (to which most of them profitably transferred). The current director, Nicholas Hytner, has produced more variety and innovation and, with the help of business sponsorship, made seats available for just £10: the stunning production of *War Horse*, with its life-sized horse puppets, is just one example of the National's work.

The National Theatre runs a back-stage tour, which mixes information and anecdote. The new Theatre and Performance Galleries at the V&A explore the whole process of performance.

Regional theatre

Although Londoners find it hard to believe, theatre is flourishing in many English cities apart from the capital, and the best regional productions regularly make their way to the West End.

Among the repertory theatres in the UK are the Royal Exchange in Manchester, the West Yorkshire Playhouse in Leeds, the Crucible in Sheffield, Nottingham Playhouse, and the Theatre Royal in Plymouth. The prolific

playwright Alan Ayckbourn tried out most of his new comedies in his home town of Scarborough in Yorkshire.

Such theatres, though frequently underfunded, have been invaluable training grounds for generations of actors who later made their names in television or movies. One star, Ian McKellen, even forsook London for Leeds for a period in the 1990s because he found the audience there more appreciative.

Drama festivals

Bath Fringe Festival (www.bathfringe.co.uk) mid-May to early June, coinciding with the Bath International Music Festival.

Brighton Festival (www.brightonfestival.org) mid-May, drama, comedy and music staged in numerous venues.

Cambridge Shakespeare Festival

(www.cambridgeshakespearefestival.com) July and August, open-air productions in college gardens.

Leatherhead Drama Festival (www.leatherheaddramafestival.org) takes place in Surrey in May.

Text 5. Painting the Landscape

The English countryside has inspired poets, musicians and, above all, painters. Two of them possessed genius ahead of their time.

England's major contribution to European art is in landscape painting. And in landscape painting two figures – James Mallord William Turner, the son of a Covent Garden barber in London, and John Constable, whose father was a miller in Suffolk – were supreme.

England did not share Europe's earlier tradition of art based on Christianity. Church property was destroyed or seized under Henry VIII in 1535, and the puritanical Protestants who ousted the monarchy in the mid-17th century rid the church of all signs of idolatry. For longer than any Englishman can remember, paintings and icons in church have been frowned upon.

Back to nature

The English not only turned against what they saw as the vanity and pomp of Rome; they also failed to take much interest in the established Anglican Church of England. «There is no religion in England», noted the French philosopher Montesquieu in 1730. «If anyone mentions religion people begin to laugh». The great religious houses were in ruins, but Shakespeare's «ruined choirs that once so sweetly sang» inspired piety among Romantics in the back-to-nature Age of Reason.

In England, poets such as William Wordsworth (1770–1850), bard of the Lake District and scourge of the prevailing Industrial Revolution, extolled the simple beauty of nature, an idea that soon became fashionable: walking was a habit taken by intellectuals, and the «English garden» overturned the convention of formal Italianate gardens in favour of more informal plantings. The word «picturesque» entered the language, meaning a view that resembled a landscape or a view that suggested a painting.



(J. M. W. Turner «Self-portrait»)

J. M. W. Turner had no education but from time to time he wrote poetry, and his early paintings – *Tintern Abbey* (1794) and *Buttermere* (1798) – were also subjects of Wordsworth's poems.



(«Tintern Abbey» by J. M. W. Turner)



(«Buttermere» by J. M. W. Turner)

Turner went on the first of numerous tours of the country when he was 14, in 1789, the same year he began to study at the Royal Academy School. His tireless pens and brushes made him one of England's most prolific painters. He made jottings wherever he went and many parts of England can lay claim to his attention. «Turner seats» have been put up in the Yorkshire Dales to admire the scenes he painted. Around the south coast, in Hastings and elsewhere, he depicted stormy seas, influenced by Dutch maritime paintings. And at Petworth House in Surrey, where he was given a studio, he painted English parklands. The Turner Gallery at the Tate Britain Gallery in London holds the best part of the works.

He worked in watercolour and, from 1796, in oils. That same year he painted his first exhibited oil painting, *Fisherman at Sea off the Needles*, depicting a small boat on a perilously stormy moonlit night. He always lived near water, never far from the Thames, and he took houses near the sea to watch the effects of the sun on the water.

He was a small, industrious figure, who wished to be left alone to get on with his work. Constable sat at the same dining table at the Royal Academy, but they were not friends and they never spoke to each other about their work. In the 1840s, living with his mistress in Chelsea, Turner was known to his neighbours as Mr. Booth and was thought to be a retired admiral.

His lack of education and rough manner may have cost him the presidency of the Royal Academy which he deserved.

Turner had been elected a full member of the Academy in 1802, the year John Constable first exhibited there. Four years later, Constable met Wordsworth in the Lake District. They had much in common: a desire for the simple rural life and no time for any luxury or grandeur their fame might have brought. Born six years after the poet, in 1776, Constable never lost sight of his Suffolk roots. Unlike Turner, Constable never strayed far from

home. He never went abroad and most of his work was done in the south of England. His Father owned Dedham and Flatford mills in the Stour valley which can be identified in his paintings, as can many parts of the river. Even in his day it was known as «Constable country». But pressure of work obliged him to live nearer London, at least for half the year, and he bought a house in Hampstead, which looked down over the city. The flat Suffolk landscapes had begun his obsession with skies, but it was here that he began to collect and classify them, writing down the time and date he had observed them. Clouds were, he believed, the chief organ of sentiment.



(John Constable)

Constable brought a freshness of light and colour to his large canvases, such as *The Hay Wain* (1821, the National Gallery, London), which has become almost a cliché of English art, and still consistently top popularity polls. His brush strokes were so fevered, so light and dashing that his works were called «sketches», for they were often more like impressions of what he saw. Later he might work a sketch up into a more formal, composed painting. Critics dismissed the sketches as being lesser works, and complained about his «whitewash» and «snow», the strokes of white that lightened his subjects. In 1824 *The Hay Wain* won a gold medal at the Paris Salon. Turner's work, described by Constable as «airy visions, painted with tinted steam», was also an enormous influence abroad.



(«The Hay Wain» by John Constable)

Turner's impressionistic works such as *The Fighting Temeraire* or *Rain, Steam and Speed*, were as far from mainstream European art in their day as Picasso's *Les Femmes d'Alger* was in his. Turner was to be emulated both in Britain and abroad. In Britain he was never surpassed. And it would be more than 50 years before a French painter, Claude Monet, exhibited in the Salon a painting of a glimpse of a sunrise on water, *Impressions: Soleil Levant*, which inspired a French critic to describe him, dismissively, as an *Impressioniste*.

Schools and styles

Medieval art Confined mainly to illuminated manuscripts, such as the Lindisfarne Gospels.

Renaissance England's Renaissance produced notable portraiture, such as the school of Miniatures.

Baroque Portraiture by Van Dyck; classical scenes, such as the Banqueting House Ceiling by Rubens in Whitehall.

Grand Manners and Conversation Pieces 18th-century studies of the wealthy. Principally Joshua Reynolds and Thomas Gainsborough; George Stubbs, renowned animal painter, earned more by painting portraits of horses.

Romantics Landscape paintings by John Constable and J.M.W. Turner; also paintings depicting fear at the changes of the Industrial Revolution, by artists such as John Martin.

Pre-Raphaelites Started in 1848, with Dante Gabriel Rossetti, Holman Hunt and Millais. William Morris, founder of the Arts and Crafts Movement which led to Art Nouveau in Europe, was also a Pre-Raphaelite. These idealists, including Edward Burne-Jones, harked back to a golden age of medieval craftsmanship.

Camden Town Set Walter Sickert and associates responded to the French Post-Impressionists.

St. Ives Not so much a school, more a 1920s West Country retreat, for Barbara Hepworth and Ben Nickolson. Now an outpost of the Tate Gallery.

Sensation! Damien Hurts, Rachel Whitehead, Tracey Emin – Tate Prize candidates bring the shock of the new.

Things to do

1. Answer the questions:

- Why do you think London has become a centre for attacks of different types?
- Why is security considered to be the main issue in Britain?
- Is terrorism an international crime?

2. Prove that Britain's heritage is very rich.

3. Comment on Lord Byron's quotation *Plays make mankind no better and no worse*. What is your opinion? Do you agree with him?

4. Explain why Shakespeare is considered to be part of British heritage.

5. Dwell upon Shakespeare's Theatre.

6. Say which of the above mentioned festivals you would like to visit. Why?

7. Explain why England did not share Europe's earlier tradition of art based on Christianity.

8. Speak about John Constable and his works.

Projects

- 1 Find information on the Tate Gallery and make a report on it.
2. Find information on the British Museum and make a report on it

Discussion Point

Discuss how to make the world more secure.

Chapter 11. POLITICAL SET-UP OF THE UK

Text 1. British Monarchy



Political system in the UK has three branches: executive, legislative and judicial. Executive branch is represented by the Monarch, the Prime Minister and the Cabinet. Legislative branch is represented by both Houses of the Parliament. Judicial branch is represented by the House of Lords and Law courts.

The UK is a constitutional monarchy. The monarchy is the oldest institution of government, dating back to at least the 9th century. Queen Elizabeth II is herself directly descended from king Egbert, who united England under his rule in 829. The only interruption in the history of the old monarchy was the republic which lasted from 1649 to 1660. Today the Queen is not only head of state but also an important symbol of national unity. The Queen personifies the state. According to the law she is head of the executive branch of the government, an integral part of the legislature, head of the judiciary, the commander-in-chief of all the armed forces of the Crown and the «supreme governor» of the established Church of England.

As a result of a long process of evolution, during which the monarchy's absolute power has been progressively reduced, the Queen acts on the advice of the ministers. Britain is governed by Her Majesty's Government in the name of the Queen. But the Queen still takes part in some important acts of government. These include summoning, proroguing (discontinuing until the next session without dissolution) and dissolving Parliament and giving Royal Assent to Bills passed by Parliament. The Queen also formally appoints many important office holders, including government ministers, judges, governors, diplomats, bishops, etc. She is also involved in pardoning people convicted of crimes, and in conferring peerages, knighthoods and other honours. She appoints the Prime Minister. She has the power to declare war and make peace, to recognize foreign states and governments, to conclude treaties, to annex or cede territories. She must, in theory at least, see all Cabinet documents.

Text 2. How Parliament Works

Widely known as the mother of parliaments, the British Parliament has been a model for democracies all over the world.



(The House of Lords)

The Houses of Parliament consist of the House of Commons and the House of Lords. The Commons, the House of locally elected Members of Parliament (MPs), known as the Lower House, wields virtually all the power but inhabits only half the building. Jutting out towards Parliament Square is Westminster Hall, with the offices, dining rooms and libraries of the Commons; in the centre is the Commons' debating chamber. To the right of Westminster Hall is the domain of the Lords, whose role is to examine and sometimes block bills proposed by the Lower House, although a bill can be reintroduced. Until recently, most lords governed by birthright, as descendants of the previous ruling classes, but the voting rights of many hereditary peers have been abolished and the make-up of the Lords has changed. Most members are now life peers, ennobled for services to the nation, and their titles can't be passed to their children. Former MPs are often made peers in recognition for years of service.



(The House of Commons)

There are 646 elected MPs, yet the Commons seats only about 450. This is not usually a problem since MPs attend sessions when they wish. The governing party sits on one side, facing the opposition. Cabinet ministers sit on the front bench, opposite the «Shadow Cabinet» (the leading members of the opposition). The Cabinet consisting of up to two dozen ministers and chaired by the Prime Minister meets at 10 Downing Street weekly to review major issues.

Major parties represented are the Conservatives, Labour and the Liberal Democrats. General elections are run on the basis of local rather than proportional representation. Therefore a party's presence in the house may not reflect its overall national standing. A party, however, needs an overall majority in the house to push through its bills. The procedure of lawmaking is so complex that a bill usually takes more than six months to be enacted. If it is still incomplete at the end of the parliamentary year, it is dropped. Various techniques are employed by the opposition to delay a bill.

The press can report on Parliament and the business of both houses is televised. A select group of journalists («lobby correspondents») have daily informal «background» briefings with ministers or government officials.

Parliament meets from October to July. In November, the government's plans for the year are announced in the Queen's Speech at the State Opening of Parliament, held in the chamber of the Lords. From the Strangers' Gallery, the public can watch the House of Commons at work, though seats are limited and security precautions introduced since a flour-filled condom thrown from the gallery hit Tony Blair in 2004, have made access more difficult. The weekly Prime Minister's Question Time – an unruly affair – usually attracts a full house. Sessions are chaired by the Speaker, an MP elected by the House who resigns from their political party on taking office – as they must remain impartial. They are there to keep order and call MPs to speak. The cry of «Order, Order» is frequently heard above the parliamentary babble.

Text 3. Parliament



The three elements which make up Parliament – the Queen, the House of Lords and the elected House of Commons – are constituted on different principles. They meet together only on occasions of symbolic significance such as the State Opening of Parliament, when the Commons are summoned by the Queen to the House of Lords.

Parliament can legislate for Britain as a whole, or for any part of the country. It can also legislate for the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man which are Crown dependences.

The main functions of the Parliament are: to pass laws, to provide by voting for taxation, to scrutinize government policy and administration, including proposals for expenditure and to debate the major issues of the day. By custom, Parliament is also informed before all important international treaties and agreements are ratified.

The British Parliament works in a large building called the Palace of Westminster. The life of Parliament is divided into sessions. Each session usually lasts for one year – normally beginning and ending in October or November.

The House of Lords consists of the Lords Spiritual and the Lords Temporal. The Lords Spiritual are the archbishops and bishops. The Lords Temporal include all hereditary peers and peeresses. It also has life peers. This chamber is not as powerful as the House of Commons. It can suggest changes in laws, but it is restricted to the laws that have nothing to do with the finances. They cannot reject laws that the Commons want to pass, they can delay or amend them. Thus, the modern House of Lords is a forum for public discussion. Because its members do not depend on party politics for their position, it is sometimes able to bring important matters that the Commons

has been ignored into the open. More importantly, it is the place where proposals for new laws are discussed in great detail – much more detail than the busy Commons has time for – and in this way irregularities and inconsistencies in these proposals can be removed before they become law.

The basic procedure in the Commons is a debate on a particular proposal, followed by a resolution which either accepts or rejects this proposal. But the resolutions of the Commons are only part of its activities. There are also the committees. Some committees are appointed to examine particular proposals for laws, but there are also permanent committees whose job is to investigate the activities of government in a particular field.

Text 4. Her Majesty's Government

The party which wins the most seats in the General Election forms the Government. The leader of the winning party becomes the Prime Minister.

Her Majesty's government is the body of ministers responsible for the conduct of national affairs. The government is made up of around 100 people from the ruling party chosen by the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister is appointed by the Queen and all other ministers are appointed by the Queen on the recommendation of the Prime Minister. Most ministers are members of the Commons, the Government is also fully represented by ministers in the Lords. The most senior members of the government are called the Cabinet. The Cabinet meets once a week and takes decisions about new policies, implementation of existing policies and the running of the various government departments. Cabinet meetings are held in private and the details must remain secret for at least 30 years.

Britain does not have a written constitution, or set of rules that the Government must obey. Theoretically, the Government has almost unlimited power. However, it can be made to account for its action. The Prime Minister is also accountable and twice a week is subjected to detailed questions in the House of Commons.

Text 5. The Political Party System

The main parties in the UK are the Conservative party (right wing), the Labour party (left wing) and the Liberal Democrats (centre).

The Conservative party goes back to the Tories, or Royalists, who originated in King Charles' reign (1660–1685). The Conservative party can broadly be described as the party of the middle and upper classes although it does receive some working class support. Most of its voters live in rural areas, small towns and the suburbs of large cities. Much of its financial support comes from large industrial companies. The Conservative party believes in free enterprise and the importance of a capitalist economy, with private ownership preferred to state control.

The Labour party was founded in 1900 at the Trade Union Congress. However the name was adopted only in 1906. While Labour voters are middle-class intellectuals, the traditional Labour party is still strongest in industrial areas. The Labour party believes that the private ownership and enterprise should be allowed to flourish, but not at the expense of their traditional support of the public services.

There has been a Liberal party in Great Britain since 1868 when the name was adopted by the Whig party. The Whig party was created after the revolution of 1688 and aimed to subordinate the power of the Crown to Parliament. In 1981, a second centre party was created by 24 Labour MPs. It was called the Social Democratic party, and soon formed an alliance with the Liberal party. They formed one party which became the Liberal Democrats after the 1987 election. The Liberal Democrats believe that the state should have some control over the economy, but that there should also be individual ownership.

There are other political parties within the UK. The Green party offers economic and industrial policies that relate directly to the environment. The Scottish Nationalist party wants independence for Scotland within the European Community. Plaid Cymru – the Welsh Nationalist party is determined to preserve the Welsh language and culture as the foundation of a distinctive Welsh identity within the UK.

Text 6. Elections

The foundations of the electoral system were laid in the Middle Ages. Since then numerous Acts of Parliament have modified the system, but never in a systematic way. Fundamentally the system still has its ancient form, with each community electing its (now) one representative to serve as its Member of Parliament (MP) until the next general election. If an MP dies or resigns his seat, a by-election is held to replace him. Any British subject can be nominated as a candidate for any seat on payment of a deposit of £500, though peers and Church of England clergymen are disqualified from sitting in the House of Commons. There is no need to live in the area or to have any personal connection with it, and less than half of the candidates are in fact local residents. There are usually more than two candidates for each seat, but the one who receives most votes is elected. Many candidates are elected with less than half of the votes cast.

The franchise (right to vote) became universal for men by stages in the 19th century; hence the rise of the Labour party. Women's suffrage came in two stages (1918 and 1928), and in 1970 the minimum voting age was reduced to eighteen. Voting is not compulsory.

Text 7. Justice and the Law

England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland all have their own legal systems, with considerable differences in law, organization and practice. All three have separate prosecution, prison and police services. There are different civil court and civil law systems in England, Wales and in Scotland. Northern Ireland's system is in many ways similar to the English and Welsh model.

British law comes from two main sources: laws made in Parliament (usually drawn up by governments and lawyers) and Common Law, which is based on previous judgments and customs. Just as there is no written constitution, so England and Wales have no criminal code or civil code and the interpretation of the law is based on what has happened in the past.

The most common type of law court in England and Wales is the magistrates' court. There are 700 magistrates' courts and about 30,000 magis-

trates. More serious criminal cases then go to the Crown Court, which has 90 branches in different towns and cities. Civil cases are dealt with in County courts. Appeals are heard by higher courts. For example, appeals from magistrates' courts are heard in the Crown Court unless they are appeals on points of law. The highest court of appeal in England and Wales is the House of Lords. Certain cases may be referred to the European Court of Justice in Luxembourg.

The legal system also includes juvenile courts (which deal with offenders under seventeen) and coroners' courts (which investigate violent, sudden or unnatural deaths). There are administrative tribunals which take quick, cheap and fair decisions with much less formality. Tribunals deal with professional standards, disputes between individuals and government departments (for example, over taxation).

Things to do

1. Which is the odd word out?

- sovereign, monarch, king, queen, subject, tsar, ruler, head;
- to rule, to govern, to reign, to head, to submit, to lead, to dictate.

2. Which of the following things can or cannot the Queen and the Prime Minister do?

- Lead the majority party.
- Make laws.
- Open and close the Parliament.
- Undertake official visits abroad.
- Appoint Cabinet Ministers and other ministers.
- Run the Government.
- Sign Bills.
- Represent the nation in political matters.
- Answer questions in the House of Commons.

3. Match the definitions in the left column with the words in the right column:

1. A Supreme ruler	a. Monarchy
2. A system of government by the whole population, usually through elected representatives.	b. Constitution
3. The highest legislature, consisting of the Sovereign, the House of Lords and the House of Commons.	c. Democracy
4. The system by which a state or community is governed.	d. Nation
5. A community of people of common descent, history, language, etc. forming a state or inhabiting a territory.	e. Sovereign
6. A form of government with a monarch at the head.	f. Parliament
7. Holding a position by inheritance.	g. Royal
8. The body of the fundamental principles or established precedents according to which a state or other organization is governed.	h. Government
	i. Hereditary

9. Belonging to the family of a king or queen	
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1 - ..., 2 - ..., 3 - ..., 4 - ..., 5 - ..., 6 - ..., 7 - ..., 8 - ..., 9 - ...,

4. True or false:

- The evidence of democracy in Britain is that the Queen has almost absolute power.
- There is no written constitution in the UK.
- Members of the House of Lords are not elected.
- The House of Lords includes only hereditary peers.
- The Queen usually opens and closes the Parliament.

5. Complete the chart:

If you want to see	you can go to
1. residence of the Prime Minister	
2. the seat of the Government	
3. the Houses of Parliament	
4. Queen's residence	

6. Complete the following sentences:

- Britain is....
- Britain is almost the only country today that
- British sovereignty comprises the three elements....
- Britain is a democracy, yet....
- Parliament is the supreme...
- Parliament's functions are...
- The House of Commons is...
- The leader of the party which....
- The Cabinet.....
- The Royal Family ...
- The elections....

7. Compare the political set-up of the UK with some other countries.

8. Fill in the boxes. Make up a similar chart for Russia.

Political System

Legislative	Executive	Judicial

9. Projects.

1. Find information about the links between the Russian and the English Royal Families. Share your findings with your group-mates.
2. Gather as much information as possible about the Civil service in Britain and make a report.
3. Make a report on election rules.

10. Fill in the following table and speak about one of the parties.

The name of the party	When was it formed?	Who supports the party?	What are the beliefs and values of the party?
The Conservative Party			
The Labour Party			
The Liberal Democrats			

11. Test.

Choose the correct answer:

1. What is the symbol of the Labour party?
a) a red rose, b) a yellow bird, c) the sun, d) a blue torch.
2. The Conservative party is nicknamed...
a) the Whigs, b) the Whips, c) the Tories, d) the Loony Monster.
3. At present is in power.
a) the Labour party, b) the Conservative party,
c) the Liberal Democrats, d) the Scottish National party.
4. The Social Democratic party was founded in 1981 as a breakaway from...
a) the Liberal party, b) the Labour party,
c) the Conservative party, d) the Communist party.
5. The motto of the party is «Think global, act local».
a) Labour, b) Green, c) Conservative, d) Liberal Democrats.
6. The Liberal Democrats party is a party.
a) centre, b) right-wing, c) left-wing, d) nationalist.

Discussion Points

1. The monarchy is popular with the majority of the people.
2. The House of Lords is of little political value.
3. The election rules should be changed in Britain.
4. There should be only one type of court in Britain.

Chapter 12. EDUCATION IN BRITAIN

Text 1. Schooling: State-maintained Schools

It might seem as if the educational system is comparatively simple. For largely historical reasons, however, it is complicated, inconsistent and highly varied. Schools in Britain are of two types: *state, or maintained schools*, which charge no fees and *independent or private schools*, which are fee-paying. There are four types of state schools that are wholly or mainly supported from public funds:

- county schools, which are owned and funded by local educational authorities (ELAs);
- voluntary schools, mostly established by religious denominations;
- special schools;
- self-governing grant-maintained schools.

90% of children attend 35,000 state-maintained schools.

Education is compulsory from 5–16 years. Parents can choose to send their children to a nursery school or a pre-school play group to prepare them for the start of compulsory education.

Children start primary school at 5 and continue until they are 11. Most children are taught together: boys and girls in the same class (co-education).

At 11 most pupils go to secondary schools called *comprehensive* which accept a wide range of children from all backgrounds and religious and ethnic groups. 90% of secondary schools in England, Scotland and Wales are co-educational.

At 16 pupils take a national exam called «GCSE» (General Certificate of Secondary Education) and then they leave school if they wish. This is the end of compulsory education.

Some 16-year-olds continue their studies in the 6th form at school or at a sixth form college. The 6th form prepares pupils for a national exam called «A» level (Advanced level) at 18. Pupils need this exam to enter a university.

Text 2. Schooling: Independent Schools

7% of British schoolchildren go to private schools called independent schools. There are 2,400 independent schools and they have been growing in number and popularity since the mid-1980s. Parents pay for these schools and fees vary from 250 pounds a term for a private nursery to 4000 pounds a term or more for a secondary *boarding school*. Many independent schools offer nurseries to help pupils from less well-off families. Such pupils may also be helped by LEAs or by the government.

Most independent schools are called *prep schools* because they prepare the children for the Common Entrance Exam which they take at the age of 11. This exam is for entry into the best schools.

The most famous independent schools are called «public schools» and they have a long history and tradition. It is often necessary to put your child's name on a waiting list at birth to be sure he or she gets a place. Children of wealthy and aristocratic families often go to the same public school as their parents and grandparents. Eton is the best known of these schools.

The majority of independent secondary schools, including public schools, are single-sex, although in recent years girls have been allowed to join the sixth forms of boys' schools.

Text 3. Higher Education

In Britain there are many ways to continue one's education after leaving secondary school at 16 or 18. Most post-school education is provided at universities, polytechnics, colleges of further or higher education, adult education centres or various specialized colleges and full time courses (degree or other advanced courses higher than A level).

Today there are 47 universities in Britain, compared with only 17 in 1945. They fall into four broad categories: the *ancient English foundations*, the *ancient Scottish ones*, the «*redbrick*» universities and the «*plate-glass*» ones. They are all private institutions, receiving direct grants from central government.



(Cambridge)

Oxford and Cambridge, founded in the 13th and 14th centuries respectively, are the most famous of Britain's universities. Today «Oxbridge», as the two together are known, educate less than one tenth of Britain's total university population. Scotland boasts four ancient universities: Glasgow, Edinburgh, St. Andrews and Aberdeen, all founded in the 15th and 16th centuries. In the 19th century many more redbrick universities were established to respond to the greatly increased demand for educated people as a result of the Industrial Revolution and the expansion of Britain's overseas empire. Many of these were established in the industrial centres, for example, Birmingham, Nottingham, Newcastle, Liverpool and Bristol.

With the expansion of higher education in the 1960s many more «plate glass» universities were founded, some named after counties or regions rather than old cities, for example, Sussex, Kent, East Anglia and Straychclyde.

There are also thirty polytechnics and 350 colleges and institutes of higher education (some of which train teachers).

Undergraduate courses normally take three years of full-time study, although a number of subjects take longer, including medicine, architecture and foreign languages (where courses include a year abroad). They lead in most cases to a Bachelor degree in Arts or Science. There are various post-graduate degrees, including Master of Philosophy and Doctor of Philosophy, the last two being awarded for research in Arts or Sciences.

Text 4. Young People

Despite media reports, not all young people in Britain are punks or football hooligans. There is a wide cross-section of youth from Young Conservatives to Rastafarians, from skinheads to pupils at expensive private schools.

Nineteenth-century Victorian attitudes about how children should be brought up have largely disappeared and for many children family life has become more relaxed and less strict. Many young people in Britain have a considerable amount of freedom and the things they are interested in reflect this: the Internet, music, television, sex, fashion and money predominate. Being independent and free to choose are priorities. Attitudes towards religion and marriage have changed. Ever since the media discovered the world of the teenager, films, videos, TV programmes and magazines have all been marketed towards the young.

There are a number of social problems associated with being young: some schools have problems with discipline and motivation; crime and drug-taking in some areas have reached serious levels. During the 1980s and 1990s unemployment among school-leavers was a particular problem, with many facing a bleak future with little hope of finding a reasonable job.

For many young people leaving home is a route to independence, although for some this may be financially impossible. Most young couples hope to be able to have their own house or flat: in modern Britain financial pressures are much more likely to restrict this than family pressure.

AGES YOU CAN LEGALLY DO THINGS IN BRITAIN	
Leave school	16
Ride a small motorbike	16
Buy cigarettes	16
Get married (with parents' consent)	16
Drive a car	17
Buy alcohol	18
Vote	18
Get married (without parents' consent)	18

Things to do

1. Answer the questions:

- Is the educational system in Britain simple? Why or why not?
- How many types of schools are there in England? What are they? What is the main difference between them?
- What types of state-maintained schools do you know?
- When does compulsory education start?
- What types of schools can children enter when they are 5 years old?
- Are all British children admitted to comprehensive schools?
- What type of exam are they to have when they finish school?
- Why do some pupils enter the 6th form? Is the 6th form obligatory for all British schoolchildren?
- Are independent schools popular? Why or why not?
- What types of independent schools are there in England?
- What are the main issues that concern young people?

2. True or False

- In Britain after leaving secondary school, schoolchildren can go only to universities.
- Universities fall into three broad categories:
- The most ancient universities are in Scotland.
- Many «redbrick» universities were established in the industrial centres.
- Many «plate glass» universities were named after counties or regions.

3. Explain what the following abbreviations mean: ELAs, GCSE.

4. Find out information and describe a typical day at school in Britain.

5. Find out what schools are called «Clarendon nine» and explain why they are called so.

6. Find out who introduced the coinage «Oxbridge».

7. Find out how many terms there are in universities and what degree students could have after graduation.

8. Britain had educational reforms in the 1960s and in the 1980s. What changes have taken place as a result of these reforms? Consult the Internet.

9. Projects.

1. Make a chart and speak about the educational system in England.
2. Find out some additional information about Oxford or Cambridge and share it with your group-mates.
3. Find out some information about one of the Scottish universities and dwell on it.
4. Find out some information about one of the famous English schools and dwell upon it.
5. Make a report on new changes in the British educational system.

10. Test.

Choose the correct answer:

1. Education is compulsory from years.
a) 5-15, b) 5-16, c) 7-17, d) 7-16.
2. Children start compulsory education from...
a) a nursery school, b) a pre-school play group,
c) a comprehensive school, d) primary school.
3. County schools are funded by...
a) the local administration, b) the Queen, c) religious organizations, c) parents.
4. Voluntary schools are established by...
a) parents, b) the state, c) religious organizations, d) famous universities.
5. Oxford was established in....
a) the 13th century, b) the 14th century, c) the 15th century, d) the 16th century.
6. «Plate glass» universities were founded in the...
a) 1950s, b) 1960s, c) 1970s, d) 1980s.
7. Young people in Britain can get married without their parents' consent at the age of:
a) 16, b) 17, c) 18, d) 21

Discussion Points:

1. Why is higher education in England considered one of the best in the world?
2. Why do you think it is necessary to have different types of schools?
3. Do you think that young people have more freedom in Britain than in your country?
4. What issues are important for young people in your country?

Chapter 13. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Text 1. International Organizations

Britain is a member of 120 international organizations. Britain is a member of the United Nations (UN) and one of the five permanent members of the Security Council along with France, China, Russia and the USA. It is the 6th largest contributor to the UN budget. Britain is an active member of the European Union which comprises the European community (EC) and the intergovernmental cooperation on foreign and security policy and on justice and home affairs.

NATO membership is the keystone of British Defense policy. Britain has a permanent representative at NATO headquarters in Brussels. Britain is a founding member of the Council of Europe which is open to any European parliamentary democracy accepting the rule of law and the protection of fundamental rights and freedoms. The member states cooperate in culture, education, sport, health, crime and drug misuse prevention, youth affairs and the improvement of the environment.

Text 2. The Commonwealth

The Commonwealth is an association of independent countries and other political units that have lived under British law and government. There are 53 members of the Commonwealth, including Britain. It is a voluntary association of states, nearly all of which were the British territories to which independence was granted. South Africa rejoined on 1 June, 1994.

Consultation between member states takes place through: meetings of heads of government, specialized conferences of other ministers and officials, diplomatic representatives known as high commissioners, and non-governmental organizations.

The Queen is recognized as Head of the Commonwealth and is head of state in Britain and 15 countries: Antigua and Barbuda, Belize, Canada, Jamaica, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, St. Christopher and Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Solomon Islands and Tuvalu, Australia, Bahamas and Barbados. In each such state the Queen is represented by a Governor-General, appointed by her on the advice of the ministers of the country concerned and completely independent of the British government. Other Commonwealth states are republics or have their own monarchies. About two thirds of British aid goes to the Commonwealth countries.

Britain is a member of many other international bodies including the International Monetary Fund, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), etc.

The Commonwealth has no charter or constitution and is founded more on tradition and sentiment than on political or economic factors. However, it can make political statements by withdrawing membership; a recent example was Nigeria's suspension in November 1995 because of human rights abuses.

Text 3. History of British-Russian Relations

England and Russia are connected by ancient and varied links.

First Russia's and Great Britain's ways crossed in the 7th century when Prince Vladimir Monomakh of Kiev married Gytha – daughter of King Harold of England. More serious relations were established in the 16th century. This event dated back to the 1555 when the ship of a merchant Richard Chamber (Chanster) reached the Russian land where he was met by the Russian Tsar Ivan Grozny (Ivan the Terrible). That year British merchants formed the Muscovy Company, a joint stock enterprise, dealing chiefly with cloth, hemp, tallow and corsage. By the time of the Spanish Armada in 1588 Russia was supplying much of the rope needed by the British fleet and trade was to remain the focus of relations between Britain and Russia for the next 200 years.

Next, also a very important event in the history of Britain and Russia is connected with Peter I, who modernized his country and transformed it into a European power. He was in contact with Britain since his infancy. His mother was raised in a Russian-Scottish household and several of his advisers, men such as Paul Menzies and James Bruce were Scots. In the 1680s Peter had his first sailing lessons in an old English dinghy which he later called «the grandmother» of his newly established navy.

Peter spent his first days in London in a house at 21 Norfolk Street. At his request, the building selected was small and simple, with a door opening directly onto the riverbank. Two days after Peter's arrival, the King himself paid an informal visit. A few days later Peter, accompanied by Admiral Mitchell and two Russian companions, drove to Kensington Palace to pay his first visit to William as King of England, and his meeting was longer than the brief conversation in Holland or the short interview in Peter's sitting room on Norfolk Street. William was impressed by Peter's energy and curiosity and he could not help being flattered by Peter's admiration of him and the achievements of his career, and as a lifelong builder of alliances, he was pleased by Peter's animosity against his own antagonist, Louis XIV.

When in London, Peter visited workshops and factories, continually asking to be shown how things worked, even demanding drawings and specifications. Peter's visit to London started a new step in relations between Britain and Russia. It helped Peter lift his people up from a simple agrarian economy and into the modern world.

The history of the British-Russian relations has its own ups and downs. Especially warm relations between the two countries were in the 19th century thanks to a great number of marriages between Russian and British Royal families. Many British doctors, architects and navy officers worked in Russia. Britain helped Russia defeat the Turks and Sweden. But they were enemies during the Crimean war in 1854–1856. In 1921 Lloyd George, Prime Minister of Britain, concluded a trade agreement with Russia and in 1925 recognized the USSR. But in 1927 Britain broke its diplomatic relations with the USSR and resumed them in 1929. During the Second World War Britain

and the USSR were allies. In February 1994, the Queen came to Russia for the first time. The British Prime Minister and other officials often come to Moscow to discuss political, economic and cultural issues.

Things to do

1. Explain what the following abbreviations mean: EC, UN, NATO.
2. Speak about the Commonwealth and Britain's role in it.
3. Dwell upon the early history of Russian-British relations.
4. Explain why Elizabeth II hasn't visited Russia for a long time.

5. Projects.

1. Find some information about contemporary Britain's relations with Russia.
2. Find some information about the Crimean War and share it with your group-mates.

Discussion Points:

1. The Commonwealth is an outdated organization.
2. Britain has ambiguous feelings about the European Community.
23. There is a permanent political conflict between Russia and Britain.

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