

МИНИСТЕРСТВО НАУКИ И ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

ФЕДЕРАЛЬНОЕ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННОЕ АВТОНОМНОЕ
ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНОЕ УЧРЕЖДЕНИЕ ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ
«САМАРСКИЙ НАЦИОНАЛЬНЫЙ ИССЛЕДОВАТЕЛЬСКИЙ
УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ИМЕНИ АКАДЕМИКА С.П. КОРОЛЕВА»
(САМАРСКИЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ)

М.П. КОЗЫРЕВА, Е.В. КОПШУКОВА, Н.В. ПАНИНА

ЛИНГВОСТРАНОВЕДЕНИЕ ВЕЛИКОБРИТАНИИ (НА АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ)

Рекомендовано редакционно-издательским советом федерального государственного автономного образовательного учреждения высшего образования «Самарский национальный исследовательский университет имени академика С.П. Королева» в качестве учебного пособия для обучающихся по основным образовательным программам высшего образования по направлениям подготовки 41.03.05 Международные отношения, 45.03.01 Филология, 45.03.02 Лингвистика

Самара
Издательство Самарского университета
2021

УДК 811.112(075)

ББК 81.2Англ я7

К593

Рецензенты: канд. филол. наук, доц. Т. В. Толстова;

д-р филол. наук, проф. М. М. Халиков

Козырева, Мария Павловна

К593 Лингвострановедение Великобритании (на английском языке): учебное пособие / М.П. Козырева, Е.В. Копиукова, Н.В. Панина. – Самара: Издательство Самарского университета, 2021. – 124 с.

ISBN 978-5-7883-1606-2

Учебное пособие состоит из четырех разделов, целью которых является развитие и пополнение активного словарного запаса студентов; анализ особенностей функционирования лексических единиц по теме; овладение студентами навыками социокультурной и межкультурной коммуникации, обеспечивающими адекватность социальных и профессиональных контактов с учетом лингвокультурной специфики картины мира Великобритании.

Разделы учебного пособия направлены на изучение исторических, географических, политических и социокультурных особенностей Великобритании. В пособии представлены аутентичные тексты на английском языке, сопровождающиеся комплексом разработанных упражнений для развития навыков чтения, совершенствования навыков устной и письменной речи и творческих способностей студентов.

Данное пособие может быть использовано как в аудитории для выполнения заданий под руководством преподавателя, так и для самостоятельной работы студентов.

Предназначено для студентов, обучающихся по программам бакалавриата по направлениям подготовки 45.03.01 Филология, 45.03.02 Лингвистика, 41.03.05 Международные отношения.

УДК 811.112(075)

ББК 81.2Англ я7

ISBN 978-5-7883-1606-2

© Самарский университет, 2021

CONTENTS

PART I	4
GREAT BRITAIN: GENERAL INFORMATION	4
GEOGRAPHICAL PECULIARITIES OF GREAT BRITAIN AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE NATIONAL CHARACTER ...	10
LANGUAGE IN BRITAIN.....	15
PART II	20
HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN IN BRIEF	20
PART III	56
POLITICAL SYSTEM OF GREAT BRITAIN	56
PART IV	96
NATIONAL PECULIARITIES OF THE BRITISH CHARACTER...	96
REFERENCE LIST	121

PART I

GREAT BRITAIN: GENERAL INFORMATION

I. Do you know why Great Britain is called Albion and how the Royal Coat of Arms looks like? Read the text to brush your memory and learn some new facts about Great Britain.

The British Isles are a group of islands off the northwest coast of continental Europe that include the islands of Great Britain and Ireland and over six thousand smaller isles. Great Britain is the biggest of the group of islands which lie between the North Sea and the Atlantic Ocean and is separated from Europe by the English Channel. It is approximately two and a half times the size of Ireland, the second largest island, separated by the Irish Sea. There are two sovereign states located on the islands: the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (commonly known as the United Kingdom, the UK or Great Britain, Britain) and the Republic of Ireland (often called Ireland or Eire).

The British Isles also include three dependencies of the British Crown: *The Isle of Man* and *the Channel Islands (the Bailiwick of Jersey and the Bailiwick of Guernsey)*. These “Crown Dependencies” are not part of the UK. They are largely self-governing with their own legislative assemblies and systems of law. The British Government is, however, responsible for their defence and international relations.

Thus, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland includes the island of Great Britain, the north-eastern part of the island of Ireland and many smaller islands. Northern Ireland is the only part of the UK that has a land border with another state – the Republic of Ireland. Apart from this land border the UK is surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean, the North Sea, the English Channel and the Irish Sea.

As you know there are four parts, representing the four nations within Great Britain: England (London), Scotland (Edinburgh), Wales (Cardiff) and Ireland (Belfast). The island of Great Britain contains three “nations” which were separate at earlier stages of their history: England, Scotland and Wales. Wales (with its capital city Cardiff) has become part of the English administrative system by the 16th century. The Welsh call their country Cymru and themselves Cymry, a word which has the same root as “a friend”. Scotland, poetically called Caledonia (with its capital city Edinburgh) was united with England in 1707. The United Kingdom is the name, which was introduced in 1801 when Great Britain was united with Ireland. When the Republic of Ireland became independent of London in 1922, the title was changed to its present form. The capital city of Northern Ireland is Belfast.

Speaking about the symbols of Great Britain we should mention the flag of Britain, the Royal Coat of Arms and the anthem.

The flag of Britain, commonly known as *the Union Jack* (which derives from the use of the Union Flag on the jack-staff of naval vessels), embodies the Union of three countries under one Sovereign. 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 of St. Patrick, for Ireland, on a white ground. The final version of the flag appeared in 1801, following the union of Great Britain with Ireland. The cross remains in the flag although now only Northern Ireland is part of the UK. Wales is not represented in the Union Flag because, when the first version of the flag appeared, Wales was already united with England. The national flag of Wales – a red dragon on a field of white and green – dates from the 15th century. Let’s dwell on the description of *the Royal Coat of Arms*. In the centre of this national emblem we can see a heraldic shield, divided into 4 parts. Left upper part and right lower part symbolize England (3 gold leopards on a red

ground). Right upper part is a Scottish emblem (a red lion on a gold ground). Left lower part represents Ireland (a yellow harp on a blue ground). Around the shield there is a garter with French words “Honi soit qui mal y pense” (“Evil be to him who evil thinks”). This garter symbolizes the Order of Garter, an ancient order of knighthood founded by Edward III in 1348, of which the Queen is the Sovereign. The shield is held by two **Royal Beasts** – the Lion with the crown on the left, the Unicorn on the right. Under them there is a blue ribbon with words “Dieu et mon droit” (God and my right) chosen by Richard I which since then have been the official motto of the Sovereign. In the background there are national plants representing four parts of Great Britain: rose (England), thistle (Scotland), shamrock (Ireland), and leek (Wales). Let’s dwell on them in detail.

The anthem of Great Britain is “**God Save the Queen**” (alternatively “God Save the King”), which is also used as an anthem in a number of Commonwealth realms and British Crown Dependencies.

The national flower of England is the **rose**. The flower has been adopted as England’s emblem since the time of the Wars of Roses (civil wars) – 1455-1485 between the royal House of Lancaster (whose emblem was a red rose) and the royal House of York (whose emblem was a white rose). With the defeat of King Richard III (of York) by the future Henry VII on 22 August 1485, the two roses were united into the Tudor rose (a red rose with a white centre) when Henry VII married Elizabeth of York. The national flower of Northern Ireland is the **shamrock**, a plant similar to clover, which is said to have been used by St. Patrick to illustrate the doctrine of the Holy Trinity. The Scottish national flower is the **thistle**, which was first used in the 15th century as a symbol of defence. The national flower of Wales is usually considered to be the **daffodil**; however, humble **leek** is also considered to be a traditional emblem of Wales, possibly because its colours, white over green, echo the ancient Welsh standard.

Britain is unpredictable in climate and varied in scenery. There is a dramatic contrast between **Highland and Lowland Britain**. The most precise distinction is geological. The rocks of the North and West of Great Britain are harder and older than those of the South and East. These older rocks are covered by large areas of **moorland** such as the **Lake District, the Pennines** (England's main mountain chain, "the backbone of England") and much of Scotland and Wales, where the soils are poor, thin and stony. In addition these areas are wetter and harder to reach than the lower land to the south and east. As a result these areas of the British Isles are thinly populated except where coal or iron have been discovered. *The South and East* are rarely flat, but instead of continuous moorland there are bands of hills, which alternate with areas of lowland. The soils are generally deeper and richer, the climate is drier and better suited for farming. Industry benefits from easier communications. Thus human settlement in these areas is dense and more evenly spread.

Did You Know?

➤ *The origin of the adjective "great" in the name of Great Britain was not a piece of advertising. It was first used to distinguish it from the smaller area in France, which is called "Brittany" in modern English.*

➤ *There are also some historical and poetic names of Great Britain. **Britannia** is the name that the Romans gave to their southern British province (which covered, approximately, the area of present-day England). It is also the name given to the female embodiment of Britain, always shown wearing a helmet and holding a trident (the symbol of power over the sea). There is a patriotic song, which begins "Rule Britannia, Britannia rule the waves". The figure of Britannia has been on the reverse side of many British coins for more than 300 years. **Albion** is a word used in some poetic or rhetorical contexts to refer to England. It was the original Roman name for Britain. It may come from the Latin word *albus*, meaning "white". The white chalk cliffs around Dover on the English south coast are the first land formations you can see crossing the sea from the European mainland.*

➤ *Even after more than 300 years the term “British” and “Britain”, which are used for official purposes, can seem very artificial. For centuries it has been the idea of England (or Scotland, or Wales), rather than of Britain, which has been charged with patriotic emotion, particularly at times of national crisis. For example, at the battle of Trafalgar in 1805 Admiral Lord Nelson’s famous order to the British fleet read, “England expects that every man will do his duty”. Moreover, many people call Britain “England” and the British “English”, as if Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland were merely outer additions to England. Nothing, it should be said, infuriates the Scots, Welsh or Irish more than ignorantly to be called English, or for all Britain to be referred to as England. They have their own distinctive identity.*

II. Find Russian or English equivalents to the following words and word combinations:

суверенные государства, a bailiwick, a jack-staff of naval vessels, the Royal Coat of Arms, гимн, a realm, the doctrine of the Holy Trinity, moorland, an ancient order of knighthood, орден подвязки, to the female embodiment of Britain, искусственный, a trident, a heraldic shield, обратная сторона монеты.

III. Answer the following questions:

1. What’s the official name of Great Britain? What other names of the country do you know?
2. Where is the UK situated?
3. What does the term “Crown Dependences” mean?
4. How many sovereign states are situated on the British Isles?
5. What four nations are represented in Great Britain?
6. What was the first nation united with England? When did it happen?
7. When was the name “The United Kingdom” introduced?
8. What’s the poetic name of Scotland?

9. How do the Welsh call their country and themselves?
10. What does the Union Flag derive from?
11. What part of the UK is not represented by the cross on the Union Flag? Why?
12. What is the national plant of Northern Ireland? What does it symbolize?
13. What Royal Beasts hold the shield on the Royal Coat of Arms?
14. What language are the words written on the garter of the Royal Coat of Arms in?
15. Who gave the names Albion and Britannia to Great Britain? Why?

GEOGRAPHICAL PECULIARITIES OF GREAT BRITAIN AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE NATIONAL CHARACTER

I. Have you ever thought that geographical features of the country can influence the character of people inhabiting it? Read the text and find out how some geographical peculiarities are reflected in the British national character and attitude to life.

Lack of extremes

It has been claimed that the British love of compromise is the result of the country's physical geography. This may or may not be true, but it is certainly true that the land and climate in Britain have a notable lack of extremes. Britain has mountains, but none of them are very high; it also has flat land, but you cannot travel far without encountering hills; it has neither really big rivers, no active volcanoes; it doesn't usually get very cold in the winter or very hot in the summer. Let's dwell on some examples. The highest mountain of Great Britain is **Ben Nevis**, which is situated in the Highlands of Scotland. Its height is 1,343 m (Everest, for comparison is 8848 m). The longest river, the Severn, is 345 m as far as the Volga is 3530 m and the Amazon is 6400 m long. The largest lake is **Lough Neagh** [lok nei] (396 sq km), Lake Baikal is 571 sq km.

Britain has neither towering mountain ranges, nor impressively large rivers, plains or forests. But this does not mean that its landscape is boring. What it lacks in grandeur it makes up for in variety. The scenery changes noticeably over quite short distances. Overall, the south and east of the country is comparatively low-lying, consisting of either flat plains or gently rolling hills. Mountainous areas are found only in the north and west, although these regions also have flat areas.

The climate of Great Britain is mild and moderate. The lack of extremes is the reason why, on the few occasions when it gets genuinely hot or freezing cold, the country seems to be totally unprepared for it. A

bit of snow and a few days of frost and the trains stop working and the roads are blocked; if the thermometer goes above 27 °C, people behave as if they were in the Sahara and the temperature makes front- page headlines. These things happen so rarely that it is not worth organizing life to be ready for them.

Why has Britain's climate got such a bad reputation? Perhaps it is for the same reason that British people always seem to be talking about the weather. This is its changeability. There is a saying that Britain doesn't have a climate, it only has weather. It may not rain very much altogether, but you can never be sure of a dry day; there can be cool (even cold) days in July and some quite warm days in January.

The climate of Britain is more or less the same as that of the north-western part of the European mainland. The popular belief that it rains all the time in Britain is simply not true. In fact, London gets no more rain in a year than most of her major European cities, and less than some. The amount of rain that falls on a lawn in Britain depends on where it is. Generally speaking, the further west you go, the more rain you get. The mild winters mean that snow is a regular feature of the higher areas only. Occasionally, a whole winter goes by in lower lying parts without any snow at all. The winters are in general a bit colder in the east of the country than they are in the west, while in summer, the south is slightly warmer and sunnier than the north.

Love of nature, conservatism and desire for privacy

Much of the land in Great Britain is used for human habitation. This is not just because Britain is densely populated. Partly because of their desire for privacy and their love of the countryside, the English and the Welsh don't like living in blocks of flats in city centres and the proportion of people who do so is lower than in other European countries. As a result, cities in England and Wales have, wherever possible, been built outwards rather than upwards (although this is not so much the case in Scottish cities). For example, the London area has about three times

the population of the Athens area but it occupies about ten times the area of land. However, because most people (about 80 %) live in towns or cities rather than in villages or in the countryside, this habit of building outwards does not mean that you see buildings wherever you go in Britain. There are areas of completely open countryside everywhere and some of the mountainous areas remain virtually untouched.

Britain was the first country in the world to appoint a government-sponsored conservation body (*the Nature Conservancy*, in 1949) and it was in Britain that the first large green pressure group was founded (*the World Wildlife Fund* in 1961, now the Worldwide Fund for Nature). This is not a coincidence. One of the most striking aspects of popular mainstream culture in Britain is the love of the rural lifestyle. Ever since they became a nation of city dwellers, the British have had a reverence for nature and an idealized vision of the countryside. Many people, whether they live in a suburban house or in a flat in a high-rise block, would say their dream home was a country cottage with roses growing over the door. The British have a deep nostalgia for an idealized world of neat hedgerows, cottages and great country houses, surrounded by parkland and eighteenth-century style gardens that looked harmonious and natural.

To the British, the countryside has almost none of the negative associations which it has in some countries, such as poor facilities, lack of educational opportunities, unemployment and poverty. To them, the countryside means peace and quiet, beauty, good health and no crime. Most of them would live in a country village if they thought that they could find a way of earning a living there. Ideally, this village would consist of thatched cottages built around an area of grass known as a “village green”. Nearby, there would be a pond with ducks on it. Nowadays such a village is not actually very common, but it is a stereotypical picture that is well-known to the British.

Perhaps this love of the countryside is another aspect of British conservatism. The countryside represents stability. Those who live in towns and cities take an active interest in country matters and the British regard it as both a right and a privilege to be able to go to the country whenever they want to. When they cannot get in to the countryside, many British people still spend a lot of their time with “nature”. They grow plants. Gardening is one of the most popular hobbies in the country, and gardening programmes on radio and TV are also very popular. Even those people who do not have a garden can participate. Each local authority owns several areas of land which it rents very cheaply to these people in small parcels where they grow mainly vegetables.

To preserve the health and beauty of the land the national parks were created in many parts of the country. They are areas of protected countryside that everyone can visit, and where people live, work and shape the landscape. And each one has an organization that looks after the landscape and wildlife and helps people enjoy and learn about the area. The first national park was set in the Peak District, at the southern end of the Pennine Chain, in 1949. There are 15 members of the National Parks family, beautiful areas of mountains, meadows, moorlands, woods and wetlands. Ten of them are situated in England: Broads, Dartmoor, Exmoor, Lake District, New Forest, Northumberland, North York Moors, Peak District, South Downs and Yorkshire Dales. There are three national parks in Wales – Brecon Beacons, Pembrokeshire Coast and Snowdonia, and two in Scotland – Cairngorms, Loch Lomond and the Trossachs.

II. Find the following words and word combinations in the text:

примечательное отсутствие крайностей; компенсировать за счет разнообразия; аккуратные живые изгороди; дома с соломенной крышей; благоговение перед природой; сельский образ жизни; желание уединения; густонаселенный (район); организация по

охране окружающей среды, спонсируемая государством; совпадение; вересковые пустоши; оставаться практически нетронутыми; освещаться на первых страницах газет; не иметь отрицательных ассоциаций; стереотипная картина; олицетворять стабильность.

III. Answer the following questions about the geographical features of the country:

1. In what way do you think the geographical features reflect British national character and attitude to life?
2. What is the stereotypical vision of the British climate? Why has Britain's climate got such a bad reputation?
3. Do you find the British landscape boring? Do you know any places which would be interesting to visit?
4. In what ways is the British reverence for nature expressed?
5. What images does the British countryside awake in your mind? What typical features do you remember?
6. Do you think it's a good idea to create the National Parks? Why do you think people like visiting them?
7. How does a stereotypical picture of countryside in Britain differ from that in Russia? What stereotypical images of the Russian countryside can you give?

LANGUAGE IN BRITAIN

I. Do you know when English took its origin and why it changed from synthetic into analytic one? Read the text and find out answers to these and other questions concerning the English language.

English is the official and national language of the UK. English is the second most widely spoken language in the world, next to Chinese. English is spoken as having its beginning with the conquest and settlement of a large part of the island of Britain by Germanic tribes from the European continent in the mid-fifth century, although the earliest written documents belong to the seventh century. Of course, these people did not, upon their arrival in England, suddenly begin to speak a new language. The history of English goes back much further. English is one of a family of languages called *Indo-European*. The languages of this family, which includes most of the modern European languages and some other languages spoken in western Asia from Iceland to India, as well as such important languages of antiquity as Latin, Greek and Sanskrit, all resemble each other in a number of ways, particularly in vocabulary. Their parent tongue, called *Proto-Indo-European*, was spoken about 5,000 years ago. Within the Indo-European family of languages there are several subfamilies, consisting of languages especially closely related. English belongs to the Germanic branch of Indo-European, and is a close relative of such languages as German, Dutch, the Scandinavian languages, and the now extinct Gothic. Germanic is usually divided by scholars into three regional groups: East (Burgundian, Vandal, and Gothic, all extinct), North (Icelandic, Norwegian, Swedish, Danish) and West (German, Netherlandic {Dutch and Flemish}, Frisian, English). So, English is a *West Germanic* language of the Indo-European language family.

The Germanic tribes who settled in Britain in the 5th century spoke the very closely related Germanic tongues of their continental homelands. From these developed the English language, or Old English (from “*Englisc*”, the language of the Angles and Saxons who invaded Britain).

There are three major periods in the evolution of English. The first, called *Old English*, covers the period from the beginning of the language to about 1100; the second, *Middle English*, from 1100 to 1500; and the third, *Modern English*, from 1500 to the present.

During the Old English period, most additions to the English vocabulary were based on native English words. Old words were given new meanings; new words were formed by the addition of prefixes or suffixes or by compounding. Of foreign languages the most influential was Latin. The Scandinavians also influenced the language of England during the Old English period. Names of basic concepts and things come from Old English or Anglo-Saxon: heaven and earth, love and hate, life and death, beginning and end, day and night, month and year, heat and cold, meadow and stream. Cardinal and ordinal numerals come from Old English (except “second”) as well as all the personal pronouns (except “they, their, them”), the auxiliary verbs, most simple prepositions and all conjunctions. Old English had three genders for nouns and adjectives: masculine, feminine and neuter. Nouns, pronouns and adjectives were inflected for 4 cases: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative. Old English had a greater proportion of irregular verbs than does Modern English.

The Middle English period was marked by great extension of foreign influence on English. The Norman Conquest brought England under French rule. The English language, though it didn’t die, was for a time of only secondary importance. French became the language of the upper classes in England. The lower classes continued to speak English but many French words were borrowed into English (over 10,000

words). Spoken mainly by uneducated people, English had also tremendous grammatical changes as most of the inflections or case endings of Old English disappeared, and word order therefore became of prime importance. Latin, remaining the language of the church and of education, also had a considerable and varied influence on English.

Modern English has been open to even wider borrowing from all the languages of Europe. The vocabulary of Modern English is approximately half Germanic (Old English and Scandinavian) and half Romance (French and Latin), with importations from Greek in science and technology and with considerable borrowings from Dutch, Italian, Spanish, German, Arabic and many other languages. From the period of the Renaissance voyages of discovery up to the recent times, a steady stream of new words has come into the language to match the new objects and experiences. In fact, this invasion has never come to an end, as new words continue to be made up from Latin and Greek roots for new inventions and scientific discoveries. Modern English is analytic (i.e., relatively uninflected), whereas Proto-Indo-European was synthetic, or inflected.

From the British Isles the English language was exported to Britain's growing number of colonies, which by the 19th century accounted for one quarter of the world's population. In the 20th century, even though Britain's role as a world power has declined considerably, English spread all over the world and is now widely spoken as a first, second or foreign language on six continents. It is the primary language of the USA, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, Ireland, New Zealand, and various small island nations in the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean. It is also an official language of India, the Philippines, and many countries in sub-Saharan Africa, including South Africa.

There is one standard literary English – *Received Standard English* – that is characterized by the *Received Pronunciation (RP)*, but there are also several regional and social dialects. A well-known example is the

cockney of East Londoners. The Scottish and Irish forms of Gaelic survive in some parts of Scotland and Ireland. Wales is officially bilingual, Welsh is spoken by about a fifth of its population and formally has the same status as English. Welsh, Scottish Gaelic and Irish Gaelic are of Celtic origin. The term RP denotes the speech of educated people living in London and the southeast of England and of other people elsewhere who speak in this way. RP is not superior to other varieties of English; it is itself only one particular regional dialect that has achieved more extensive use than others because it was the language of contracts and commerce and the speech of the ruling court. It is generally heard on the BBC. The polished tones of what has become known as “BBC English” still predominate on the radio, although in recent years broadcasters with regional or American accents have become increasingly popular.

II. Find Russian or English equivalents to the following words and word combinations:

compounding, новые слова образовывались путем добавления приставок и суффиксов, basic concepts, количественные и порядковые числительные, gender, склоняться по падежам, conjunctions, tremendous grammatical changes, порядок слов приобрел первостепенное значение, inflections, considerable borrowings, a steady stream of new words, broadcasters with regional or American accents.

III. Answer the following questions:

1. What family of languages does English belong to?
2. When did English take its origin?
3. What are the periods in the evolution of English?
4. Is English synthetic or analytic? Prove your answer.
5. What are the main characteristics of the Old English period?

6. Why did word order become of prime importance in the Middle English period?
7. What languages influenced English in the Middle English period? In what way?
8. What kind of language is Modern English: synthetic or analytic? Prove your answer.
9. What are the historic and linguistic reasons for English to become a global language?
- 10) What is RP?

PART II

HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN IN BRIEF

TEXT 1

History of Early Britain

The First Men appeared on the territory of the British Isles in *the Upper Palaeolithic* (the Stone Age), between 40,000 and 10,000 years ago. Permanent settlements were established in the Neolithic (the later Stone Age), about 6,000 years ago.

The first tribes on the territory of the British Isles were the non-Indo-European tribes of Iberians (about 10,000 – 3,000 B.C.), who migrated from The Iberian Peninsula. About 2,500 B.C. *the Beaker culture* developed, introducing vessels constructed from clay, later bronze and iron tools.

From that era date huge artificial constructions such as the massive artificial mound with a flat top Silbury Hill and the great circular earthwork ditch at Avebury.

Silbury Hill is one of the most mysterious and striking ancient monuments in Britain (4000 years old). This prehistoric “cathedral” built layer by layer over 100 years is considered to be the tallest (120 feet) man-made structure in Europe until Middle Ages. The mound contains chalk, stones, wood, gravel and picks. Scientists suggest the flat top was a kind of platform deliberately built to bring people closer to the skies.

Avebury stone circle is the largest henge monument in Britain, which is managed by the National Trust. Unlike Stonehenge you can wander around the stones and experience the mystery and mystique of this prehistoric wonder. Avebury is one of the most important megalithic monuments in Europe and spread over a vast area. Mostly dating to

around 2,600-2,500 B.C., Avebury covers approximately 28 acres comprises a huge circular earthwork ditch, originally about 30 feet deep, and bank about a quarter of a mile in diameter which encloses an outer circle of standing stones. It has been estimated that there were originally a minimum of 247 standing stones within the henge, and perhaps 400 more forming the avenue outside.

Around 800-700 B.C. the Celts arrived from the continent, deriving from the Hallstatt and La Tene cultures. They were called Britons. They spoke Brytonic and Goidelic languages. Around the 75 B.C. another Celtic tribe, the Belgae made their way across the English Channel into southern Britain. They brought with them a *sophisticated plough*, introduced *coinage*, conducted export trade with Rome and Gaul.

In 55 B.C. *Julius Caesar* came to Britain and described the mores and morals of Celts in his *Commentarii de Bello Gallico*. He mentions that “most of the inland inhabitants do not sow corn, but live on milk and flesh, and are clad with skins. All the Britons, indeed, dye themselves with wood, which occasions a bluish colour, and thereby have a more terrible appearance in fight.” Other Roman travellers who described Britannia were *Pytheas of Massilia*, *Ptolemy*, *Pliny the Elder* and *Tacitus*.

According to their descriptions Britons lived in straw-covered huts, had a ditch round several houses and a low wall made of mud, sometimes they built fortresses. They planted little or no corn but had cattle, made boats of twigs covered with the skins of animals, wore very coarse clothes. They had no coins and used metal rings for money.

Moreover, Britons had rather developed crafts: made bronze urns and torques, swords of copper, light shields, short daggers, spears. Travellers mentioned that Britons were divided into 20 to 40 tribes. Britons were fond of horses. The standard of Kent was the picture of a white horse. The people taught their horses very well, so that the animals understood and obeyed every word of command.

The Britons had a strange and terrible religion – *the Religion of the Druids*. The druids were the priests, who also pretended that they were enchanters. They met together in dark woods, which they called Sacred Groves; and they taught there young men who came to them as pupils and who sometimes stayed with them for twenty years. The Druids glorified the pursuits of war, feasting and horsemanship. They controlled the calendar and the planting of crops and presided over the religious festivals and rituals that honoured local deities. These Druids built great temples and altars, open to the sky, the remains of some of them we can see now. The most extraordinary of these is Stonehenge, thought to have been erected c.2500-2000 BC.

Stonehenge consists of 2 circles of stones – 14 feet high upright stones that support 4 feet long cross stones. In the centre there is a flat stone, called the “altar stone”. It is believed that Stonehenge was a temple for the sun worship.

The Romans on the British Isles

In 55 B.C. *Julius Caesar* wanted to subdue the Gauls, but when he found that the Britons helped them, he decided to attack the islanders. Julius Caesar with his army landed in Britain one summer day, and the Britons were so frightened, that they fled inland, and Caesar had not so much cavalry as to pursue them. So he returned back to Gaul, but in the following year came back. Again he did not conquer Britain but he described the country to the civilized Roman world, and the Romans knew all the particulars about Britons and remembered well that the warriors on the island painted their faces blue to terrify their enemies, that they had the chariots with scythes on their axles, that they had strong hill-camps fortified with stakes and logs of wood.

After some time the Romans could send enough soldiers to meet the British wild warriors and to subdue all the country of the plains.

It happened in 43 A.D., when *the Emperor Claudius* (10 B.C. – 54 A.D.) sent his expedition to Britain.

Later the Romans built a line of forts between the rivers Clyde and Forth to protect the southern parts from the wild Caledonians (A.D. 84). About forty years later the Emperor Hadrian built a double wall between the rivers Tyne and Solway – *the Hadrian Wall*. We can still see the remains of these walls in our days; a railway runs in that direction now.

Little by little, as the Roman soldiers gained ground, some Britons went to the west, to the moors of Cornwall, to the mountains of Wales and Cumberland. In these parts we now find the people whose forefathers were Ancient Britons.

Most of the Britons settled down among the Romans, from whom they learned many things. They helped the soldiers to drain the marshes and cut down trees, and to make the fine roads which crossed the country, and are still a pleasure to use, so well and straight they are.

The early Britons had two brave chiefs who resisted the Roman conquest. One of them was *Boadicea, the queen of the Iceni*, one of the British tribes. The statue of Boadicea showing her standing in a war chariot with two wild horses, calling to her soldiers to fight, stands on Westminster Bridge in London, facing the Houses of Parliament. In the first century A.D. Boadicea fought the Romans with all her might and led her people in battle, but the enemies were stronger. At last she killed herself because she did not want to become a prisoner.

Caractacus was another British chief. He also lived in the first century after Christ. Caractacus lost everything when he fought to drive out the Romans. The Romans took him to Rome as a prisoner with his wife and children. He did not behave at all as a frightened captive, but proudly, as a free-born man, and he said to the Roman emperor: "You fight to gain the whole world, and to make everybody your slaves. I fought to keep my own land, and for freedom".

For about four hundred years Britain was part of the Roman Empire. The thousands of soldiers who came during these centuries from every part of the empire left many remains on the soil of the country, especially in the cities founded by the Romans in London, York, Winchester and Bath. There are the altars they set up to their gods, their weapons and armour, the memorial stones put up to honour their memories. They built many beautiful country villas — in the sunniest and healthiest places, with a fine view, among gardens with fountains and statues. When danger arose, they buried much money and jewellery.

In 408 A.D. the legions dislocated on the island were called back to Rome to defend it from Goths. In the year 410 the islanders had to defend themselves against Picts and Scots. The Britons quite forgot by those times how to fight all together, they were used that the Romans took care of them, but now the Romans left them and returned to their own country. There were many a sad good-bye, because often Romans had British wives and relatives, and they felt despair in their hearts going away from those they loved dearly and to leave them in great danger. The Britons were also in despair and even wrote a letter to Rome, asking soldiers to come back and help them; the letter is so sad that it is called "the groans of the Britons". "The barbarians draw us to the sea", they wrote, "the sea drives us back to the barbarians. We shall either be killed or drowned". Many sad relics are found in the caves, where whole families took refuge when their homes were destroyed.

Anglo-Saxon Invasion

At the beginning of the 5th century, *Vortigern*, the Romano-British overlord, was assailed on many fronts. Aside from Irish and Pict invaders on his northern and western frontiers, there were Germanic raiders on his eastern coasts, and from within he faced a challenge of his rival *Aurelius Ambrosius*, who had powerful allies in Gaul. In great despair he called

to their strongest enemies — the Germanic tribe known as Jutes, who came very soon. The Saxons, another Germanic tribe, from the land between the Weser and Elbe, soon followed, and not long after that the Angles came from the European coast of the North Sea.

The conquest of Britain by the Anglo-Saxon tribes (the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes) is well described by *Bede the Venerable* in his "*Historia ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum*" and in "*Historia Brittonum*". According to them, in 449 AD the Germanic tribes headed by the mercenary chieftains *Hengist and Horsa* landed on the island of Thanet in the Thames estuary. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle records that Hengist and Horsa sent word to the Angles describing "the worthlessness of the Brythons, and the richness of the land" and asked for assistance. At the same time the Saxon commanders, understanding Vortigern's weakness, recommended to bring in more of their countrymen to help. Vortigern agreed, and nineteen more ships landed. In order to pay these warriors, Hengist suggested they be granted land in Kent. By the time Vortigern realized his control was slipping away, it was too late. The migration of a whole people, bringing its language and customs, began.

The Britons under Vortigern resisted and began to win important victories, pushing back their enemies, but the Saxons treacherously deceived them. Hengist sent to Vortigern an offer of peace. Vortigern accepted, and Hengist prepared a feast to bring together the British and Saxon leaders. However, he instructed his men to conceal knives beneath their feet. At the right moment, Hengist shouted "nima der sexa", and his men massacred the unsuspecting Britons. However, they spared Vortigern, who ransomed himself by giving the Saxons Essex, Sussex, Middlesex, and other unnamed districts. As a result of this massacre about 300 leading Romano-Celts were slaughtered, and the Celtic command of England never fully recovered from this blow.

The survivors gathered together under the leadership of Ambrosius. He was of high birth, and had Roman ancestry; he was presumably a

Romano-Briton. It also appears that Ambrosius was a Christian: the 6th-century British cleric Gildas says that he won his battles "with God's help." Ambrosius organized the survivors into an armed force and achieved the first military victory over the Saxon invaders. However, this victory was not decisive. Ambrosius Aurelianus is supposed to be either himself a prototype for Artorius, King Arthur, or someone from Arthur's entourage.

King Arthur was a legendary British leader who led the defence of Britain against Saxon invaders in the late 5th and early 6th centuries AD according to the medieval stories and romances. The legendary Arthur developed as a figure of international interest through the popularity of Geoffrey Monmouth's 12th century *Historia Regnum Britanniae*. Geoffrey depicted Arthur as a king of Britain who defeated the Saxons and established an empire over Britain, Ireland, Iceland, Norway and Gaul. He also described Arthur's father Utherpendragon, the wizard Merlin, Arthur's wife Guinevere, the sword Excalibur and other elements. The 12th century French writer Chretien de Troyes added Lancelot and the Holy Grail and shifted the narration to other Knights of the Round Table.

The transmigration of *the Anglo-Saxon tribes* lasted for 150 years and ended in their occupation of most English territory. The Britons fought against the conquerors till about 600. The territory of Britain was divided as follows: the Saxons and the Angles occupied the territories south and north off the Thames (*the Saxons* in Sussex, Essex, and Wessex, and *the Angles* along the eastern coast). *The Jutes* who came from the Juteland Peninsula in Europe settled on the Peninsula of Kent and the Isle of White. The Celtic tribes travelled to Brittany (Bretagne) in France or were pushed to the outskirts of the island: to Wales, Cornwall and Cumbria. The language of the Anglo-Saxons was West-Germanic, different from the Celtic language of Britons.

The Germanic tribes who settled in Britain in the fifth century originally had no state unity and permanently waged wars. In the sixth century there were nine small kingdoms in Britain: Deira, Bernicia (Angles), East Anglia (Angles), Mercia (Angles in the north, Saxons in the south), Essex, Middlesex, Sussex, Wessex (Saxons), and Kent (inhabited by Jutes). Later Deira and Bernicia were united and named Northumbria. There was no concord among the kings and no peace among the kingdoms. Each ruler desired to gain the supreme power and subordinate the others. At the end of the 6th c. there were seven kingdoms (*The Heptarchy*): Northumbria, East Anglia, Wessex, Essex, Sussex, Kent and Mercia. Later they united into four kingdoms: Northumbria, Mercia, Wessex and Kent.

At first the kingdom of Kent was the most prominent of them all. Northumbria, which appeared as a result of the forcible unification of Deira and Bernicia, gained the dominating position in the 7th century. *Edwin, the King of Northumbria*, enlarged the borders of his kingdom and built the citadel Edinburgh.

In the 8th century Mercia became the most powerful kingdom. The zenith of her power is associated with the name of *King Offa*, who was received in Europe as a respectable ruler and upheld close diplomatic relations with Charlemagne. He was considered by Charlemagne the overlord of south Britain.

At the beginning of the 9th century the dominating position passed over to Wessex. This kingdom dominated and united nearly all the territory of Britain, its capital Winchester becoming the capital of Britain. The Wessex king Alfred the Great (849-901), the enlightened monarch, played an important role in the strengthening of the Wessex position, as he increased the fleet, strengthened the army, built new fortresses and forts, set up the England's first school for feudal lords, invited scholars and writers to England and himself translated from Latin.

In the 9th AD *Egbert, the King of Wessex*, defeated Mercia's troops and became the first king of all England (the Kingdom of Anglia). The country was divided into the administrative units, the counties, headed by King's officers – sheriffs. Several counties were united under the power of earls, who became major feudal lords.

Conversion to Christianity

The Anglo-Saxons, settling on the British Isles, knew only the gods of their forefathers, they were pagans. *The pagans* had many gods. There were Woden, the god of war; Thor, the god of thunder; Freya, the goddess of peace, and others. We recall those gods now as we speak of Wednesday (Woden's day), Thursday (Thor's day), Friday (Freya's day). Thus the English knew nothing of Christianity during a long time after Christ was born.

Christianity came at the pagan Anglo-Saxons from two directions. *The Celtic Church*, pushed back into Wales, Cornwall, and particularly Ireland, made inroads in the north from an early base on Lindisfarne Island. We can still see the crosses in the north of England and in Ireland. *The Roman Catholic Church* approached from the south, beginning with the mission of *St. Augustine* to *Aethelbert, King of Kent*, in 597. This king became Christian, following the example of his wife, a daughter of the West-Frankish king.

Let us dwell on the second direction. According to Bede, about the year 600 A.D. (in fact, in 597) a monk in Rome was surprised very much when he saw a sad sight of several handsome fair-haired blue-eyed English boys who were sold as slaves at the market. When he learnt the name of their nation he said: "Not Angles but Angels they are!" The monk decided to send news of Christianity to the boys' country. Later the monk became Pope Gregory the Great and sent a missionary, Augustine, to Britain. It was very important for the development of the country

because the people of the island so became nearer to the civilization of the Continent. Kent, following king Aethelbert's example, became Christian; but the other tribes remained pagans for some time.

How Danes Settled on the British Isles

Hardly had Egbert of Wessex become the lord of united Anglia at the beginning of the ninth century, when sea-rovers rushed into it. Again dark and bitter times fell upon these lands. The furious rovers were Danes from the north. At first they appeared about 787, but then they only visited England for short periods. Like Anglo-Saxons, they also came in fine boats, often painted in different colours, sometimes black as night, with high coloured figureheads and the dreaded Raven banner at the mast. They came across the North Sea from their homes in the lowlands of Denmark, in Sweden, and along the coast of Norway. All of them were of the same stock: Danes; North, or Norse, men; *Vikings*, or men of the creeks. All the Northmen particularly hated and despised the religion of the Christians. So, flames went up from the monasteries and churches through the whole robbed land, and the people who tried to save their lives there were killed. London was burnt, and the whole country plundered.

Before 855 the Danes came to England only in summer, and for winter they returned home, to the North. Only in 855 they remained on the island for winter and wanted to have a place for living there. The Danes conquered Mercia and East Anglia, and after that they attacked Wessex.

By the end of the ninth century, there arose *Alfred the Great*, called by the English the Truth-Teller and the Wise. Alfred's titles and the stories about his good nature, bravery and industry, which came through the centuries to our times, show how beloved he was by his subjects more than a thousand years ago.

In 870 the Danes returned, the storm burst, and the year 871 was called "Alfred's year of battles". On January 4th Alfred had a brilliant victory of Ashdown. In April of the same year Ethelred died and Alfred became the king. Nine battles were fought against the Danes that year with varying success; but in the end peace was made and the Danes retired northward. Six years later they returned and Alfred had to fight again. As a result of Alfred's victory over the Danes at Eddington England was divided by a line formed by the river Thames: the country north of this line was given over to the Danes and called the Danelaw; the territory to the south fell to Alfred, who became recognised as the champion of the English against the Danes.

Alfred, who fought the Danes and made his kingdom very strong and grand, died in 900. His work was carried on by his son and a very brave daughter and three grandsons, and for a time it seemed as if the Danes were going to settle down as part of English nation without further trouble.

The name of the *King Edgar* is also well known in England (944-975). He was called the Peaceful King, which shows that he lived on good terms with his neighbours.

After the Peaceful King's death *Ethelred the Unready* became the king. He was called "the Unready" because that means "taking no counsel", and he really did not like to take anybody's counsel. Just at that time the Danes once more began to attack the English coasts, and Ethelred the Unready bought them off with money which people called "*the Danegeld*" ("the Dane Money"). The Danes took that money and came away, but soon they returned and required more "geld". Ethelred was a weak and cruel man, and the Danes, who understood it very well, used it. Matters became worse and worse, and at last Ethelred fled away through the Channel to Normandy to his wife's relations. As a result *Canute*, the Danish king, who also ruled Norway, added England to his

empire. But Canute was wise enough to keep English laws for Englishmen, and the country lived in peace for a time.

When the bloodline of Danish kings had dried up, the son of Ethelred the Unready, Edward, was called to be the king. He lived in Normandy, after his father and mother saved themselves there, and was brought up there. He was called the Confessor because he grew in a monastery and cared more for a quiet, learned life, and for attending services at churches than for lighting or looking after business. *Edward the Confessor* was not at all fitted to take part in all those fightings in his fatherland during such a difficult and anxious period of time. His greatest pleasure was in building churches, and the most beautiful of all was the Abbey of Westminster which was built after the pattern of the churches he knew and loved in Normandy, with rounded windows and arches. This abbey church in Westminster has been entirely rebuilt by later kings.

In 1042 Edward's brother died and all the people received Edward to be the king. The king's personal tastes inclined much more to foreigners than to Englishmen, and he fell more and more into the hands of those from beyond the sea. He brought many Norman nobles with him, and the people were discontent of it.

Edward the Confessor, died in January, 1066. It is said that Edward promised his cousin, William of Normandy, that he should be the king of England after his death.

I. Choose the right variant to complete the statements.

1. The First Men appeared on the territory of the British Isles
 - a) in the Upper Palaeolithic.
 - b) in the Middle Palaeolithic.
 - c) in the Lower Palaeolithic.
2. Permanent settlements were established on the British Isles
 - a) in The Stone Age.
 - b) in the Neolithic.

- c) in the Mesolithic.
3. The first tribes on the territory of Britain (circa 10000 – 3000 B.C.) were
- Celts.
 - Iberians.
 - Britons.
4. The 4000 year old mound consisting of chalk, stones, wood, gravel and picks with a flat top which is considered to be a prehistoric “cathedral” is
- Stonehenge.
 - Avebury Hill.
 - Silbury Hill.
5. The first Celtic tribes arrived in Britain
- around 75 B.C.
 - around 800-700 B.C.
 - around 400-300 B.C.
6. ... described the mores and morals of Celts in his *Commentarii de Bello Gallico*.
- Pliny the Elder
 - Tacitus
 - Julius Caesar
7. Celts introduced ... to Britain.
- coinage
 - Beaker culture
 - bronze tools
8. The Religion of the Druids was the religion of
- Iberians.
 - Britons.
 - Romans.
9. Stonehenge was
- a temple for the sun worship.

- b) a grave-mound.
 - c) a stone circle.
10. Britons were fond of
- a) cats.
 - b) horses.
 - c) dogs.
11. The Romans first came to Britain
- a) in 66 B.C.
 - b) in 55 B.C.
 - c) in 56 B.C.
12. In 43 A.D. ... sent the expedition to Britain.
- a) Emperor Claudius
 - b) Emperor Hadrian
 - c) Emperor Julius Caesar
13. The British warriors painted their faces blue to
- a) to hide from enemies.
 - b) to terrify enemies.
 - c) to differ from enemies.
14. Emperor Hadrian built a double wall between the rivers Tyne and Solway to protect the lands from
- a) Caledonians.
 - b) Gauls.
 - c) Britons.
15. A statue to this brave chief who resisted the Roman conquest stands on Westminster Bridge in London.
- a) Caractacus
 - b) Boadicea
 - c) Arthur
16. In 408 A.D. Romans left Britain to defend Rome from
- a) Goths.
 - b) Picts.

c) Scots.

17. The Britons wrote a letter to Rome called ***“the groans of the Britons”***,

a) asking the Roman Emperor to defend them from Roman soldiers.

b) asking soldiers to come back and help them.

c) depicting their desperate life.

18. ... is supposed to be either a prototype for King Arthur or someone from Arthur's entourage

a) Vortigern

b) Hengist

c) Ambrosius Aurelianus

19. The conquest of Britain by the Anglo-Saxon tribes (the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes) began

a) in 449 AD.

b) in 448 AD.

c) in 445 AD.

20. At the end of the 6th century there were ... Anglo-Saxon kingdoms.

a) 7.

b) 8.

c) 9.

21. In the 9th A.D. ... became the first king of all England (the Kingdom of Anglia).

a) Alfred the Great, the King of Wessex.

b) Egbert, the King of Wessex.

c) Edwin, the King of Northumbria.

22. The first Anglo-Saxon king who became Christian was

a) Edwin.

b) Aethelbert.

c) Alfred.

23. Norse King Horik II and his men conquered Mercia, East Anglia and then Wessex in

a) in 855.

b) in 787.

c) in 845.

24. The year 871 was called

a) “Alfred’s year of battles”.

b) “Alfred’s year of victories”.

c) “Alfred’s year of defeats”.

25. As a result of Alfred’s victory over the Danes in 878 at Eddington

a) The Danes left Britain.

b) The Danes were pushed Northward.

c) England was divided into England and Danelaw.

TEXT 2

The Norman Conquest

The year 1066 which opened with King Edward's death was an important year for the English history. The day after the weeping people had crowded the Westminster Abbey to see the funeral of Edward, they came back again to crown the successor whom they had chosen **Harold, the son of Earl Godwin**: they knew well that he was brave and wise and that he hated the Normans.

When **William of Normandy** heard that Harold became king after Edward, he was furious, and at once set to work to get an army and a fleet together to invade England and secure the crown which he wanted to have so much.

When William with his army and fleet landed near Hastings, the south coast Harold was at York. He marched his army south in nine days and took up a strong position on a hill. The battle that followed at Hastings on the 15th of October 1066 is one of the great battles in the history of England. The Normans were led out by a singer on a fine

prancing horse, and the whole army heard his song about the great hero of France and how he fought and won. William's only hope was to induce the English to leave their position, and this he succeeded in doing by feigning retreat. Harold's irregular forces broke away and were immediately attacked by the Norman cavalry. The English centre still stood firm, and only gave way when Harold fell, wounded in the eye by an arrow. The English did their best, but they had no second army to oppose the enemies, and the Conqueror's army was too strong for them. So, Harold was killed, and the bravest and best men of England fell fighting around him. As a result, *the battle of Hastings* gave the crown of England to William of Normandy.

The *Bayeux Tapestry*, an embroidered cloth nearly 70 metres (230ft) long, depicts the events leading up to the Norman conquest of England concerning William, Duke of Normandy and Harold, Earl of Wessex, later King of England, and culminating in the Battle of Hastings.

By December 1066 William had forced the people of the south to recognize him as English king, and he was crowned in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day. No shouts of welcome, no bright faces, and when the archbishop asked: "Do you take William of Normandy to be your king?" there was but a sullen mutter; they had to say: "Yes". William was almost alone on this great day.

Freedom for England was gone. The English knights were killed, the poor were in utter misery.

William's first task was to reward his followers, which he did by giving much land and goods to the Normans, who helped him to conquer the English crown. For that William confiscated the estates of the English nobles; certainly at the beginning of his reign, when continual revolts happened, he allowed a number of English landowners to own their estates by paying heavy fines, but by the time of his death nearly all the land of England had changed the owners.

And the Norman landowners promised William the Conqueror to supply him with fighting men when the king went to war.

This feudal system, as it was called, lasted for many years in England. The chief reason for this system was that the central government was not strong enough to give protection to all citizens, who had to look for help to the richest and strongest man in their neighbourhood. So the country was divided into a number of units called manors, and every member of the manor was bound to every other member by clearly defined duties, perfectly well known and recognised by the law.

There were many revolts all over the country. In 1068 a great revolt against William the Conqueror broke out in Yorkshire, supported by the Danes, and William absolutely devastated the whole country. Another English rising gave William much trouble in 1070, which led to further confiscation of English lands and building of many Norman castles. In 1084 another Danish invasion was threatened, and in order to find out the financial and military strength of the country William ordered to prepare a great book called *Domesday Book*, in which is a description of all the great houses and estates in the kingdom. This book is still in great use.

The French language was the official language because the king and his court and nearly all the richest people in England spoke French. Even the accounts of what was done in the law courts, and at the meetings of the Wise Men, who helped the King to govern the country, were all in French. But the use of the language spoken by Bede and Alfred did not die out, as some thought it would. By slow degrees the English and their language rose again. Normans married English wives and naturally their children and grandchildren spoke both French and English. By slow degree the use of French as a separate language passed away, but the English, which we speak now, contains many words brought over by the Normans.

Another work of William the Conqueror, which lasts to this day, was building the castles in *Norman style*. Some of the great castles William built to keep the English in order are still standing. The strong square towers, or "keeps", are seen nowadays not only by the banks of the Thames, but at Norwich and Rochester, and many other places. Chief among those ancient buildings is the old part of the Tower of London with perfect Norman Chapel. It is said that from the gallery of this chapel William the Conqueror and his family looked down on the service going on below. William spent a good deal of his time in Normandy, and at last died there. His sons behaved very badly to him, and he was alone in his death as he was at his coronation.

The Feudal State (11th – 13th cc.)

This period was marked by:

- a struggle between the centralising power of the king and the growing challenge from the leading barons;
- a considerable development of trade and towns, which helped to disintegrate the feudal system.

The gradual character of the Conquest and the support of the Church enabled William the Conqueror to establish a strong centralised state, which was in sharp contrast to the anarchy of political feudalism prevailing on the Continent. The Anglo-Saxon system of shires was revived, and a royal officer was placed at the head of each; besides, William prevented the creation of great baronies independent of the royal power. The process of strengthening the power of the state was continued by William's son *Henry I* (1100-35). Henry I in his youth had a nickname Beau Clerk, which means '*a Good Scholar*', because he liked learning and wisdom. He often repeated that the unlettered king is only a crowned ass. We know almost nothing else about Henry's youth except that he was born on English soil and he was the favourite of his mother,

the queen Matilda of Flanders, William the Conqueror's wife. In his later years people called Henry I also the Lion of Justice. Henry tried to help the common folk and made it easier for them to come before the king's justices and have right to them when the barons oppressed them. And though King Henry did so not so much because he cared for the common folk as because he wanted to keep the barons from growing too powerful, yet it was the common folk who were the gainers.

Henry I had pleased the English very much by marrying a princess who was the daughter of Queen Margaret of Scotland, belonging to the old royal family of Alfred and Edgar. The people felt now that they had some hope for better days. Queen Matilda, or Maud, (1080-1118) was a good woman, and she helped her husband in many ways. Henry reorganised the Courts of Law. The duties of the king's officers and the king's council were rearranged and a new smaller body of advisers created, called the King's Court.

Henry I had the only son William whom he loved dearly. But unfortunately, in 1120 William drowned during the crash of the White Ship in the English Channel at the age of 18. After his death nobody saw King Henry smile again. Henry wanted his daughter Matilda to be crowned after his death but Henry's will wasn't followed. Stephen (1092-1154), the son of Adela, the Conqueror's daughter was crowned instead and reigned from 1135 to 1154. Matilda with the help of her uncle David and half-brother Robert of Gloucester began to fight for the English throne: *The Civil War* (1139-1154) began. It was the cruelest time in the history of England and it was a relief to the country when Matilda's son *Henry Plantagenet* (1133-1189) became *the King Henry II* in 1154. He ruled over a vast empire comprising England, Normandy and a larger part of France than that controlled by the king of France. He restored the royal rights, tightened the control over sheriffs and tried to get all courts under the royal control. Henry also started the English conquest of Ireland, which was never fully completed.

Henry II tried to follow the example of his grandfather Henry I. He restored order in England having destroyed castles and prohibited the private wars which made the country weak; revived the old laws and customs; instituted trial by jury; allowed paying some money instead of military service; succeeded in making the Scotch King give him Northumberland, Cumberland and Westmorland; Pope of Rome presented him with Ireland.

Henry's sons were weak kings: **Richard I (Lion Heart)**, 1189-99) because he spent most of his reign fighting in Palestine (in the Third Crusade) and in France; and **John (Lackland)**, 1199-1216) because his misrule alienated his barons: in 1215, they forced John to grant them the **Magna Carta (Great Charter of Liberties)**, which limited the royal power and laid the foundations for the later Parliamentary monarchy.

Edward I (1272-1307), as able a monarch as Henry II, ascended the throne after another *civil war* (1264-66). He will always be remembered for summoning the **Model Parliament** (1295), called so because it contained representatives of the three estates of Barons, Clergy and Commons (i.e. all the elements of a future parliament). Edward conquered north Wales (1285) and the eldest son of the King Edward II became the first Prince of Wales, but he failed to conquer Scotland: the Scottish kingdom kept its independence from England until 1714.

From the outbreak of the Hundred Years War to the end of the Wars of the Roses: the decay of feudalism (14th-15th cc.)

These two centuries form the period of transition from feudalism to pre-industrial era. The long war with France helped to form a sense of national identity: a native English culture was born and English became the official language of the country.

The Hundred Years War (1337-1453) broke out after **Edward III** (1327-77) claimed the throne of France, but its real objective was to bring Flanders (the main English wool trade market) and Gascony (the chief

supplier of wine and salt) under English control. The long war is traditionally divided into three stages, with periods of uneasy truce between them.

The first stage (1337-60) was successful for England, because the English army consisted of well-organised professional soldiers, while the French army was an undisciplined feudal host. The French suffered two crushing defeats at *Crécy* (1346) and *Poitiers* (1356), and gained large territories in France.

The second stage (1369-75) was successful for France: the French adopted the strategy of guerrilla war, and gradually reconquered the lost territory except for two ports.

The third stage (1415-53): The war was resumed by *Henry V* (1413-22), the second Lancastrian king: he dealt the French another crushing defeat at *Agincourt* (1415) and gradually extended his territory. In 1420, he was acknowledged heir to the French throne. Though he died in 1422, the war continued and, in 1428, the French were defending their last stronghold at Orleans. The appearance of *Joan of Arc* in 1429, however, led to a French revival. The war dragged on for more than twenty years, until *the battle of Chatillon* finally ended it in 1453.

The war exhausted England and led to political disruption, which enabled the outbreak of *the Wars of the Roses (1455-85)*. This series of wars was a dynastic struggle between two powerful families, the *Lancastrians* and the *Yorkists*, both descendants of Edward III: they fought for the crown. The Wars were marked by indecisive victories and defeats on both sides. Final victory went to a Lancastrian claimant *Henry Tudor*, who defeated the last Yorkist king Richard III and married Edward IV's daughter *Elizabeth of York* to unite the two houses. The House of Tudor subsequently ruled England and Wales for 117 years. During the thirty years of intermittent fighting, the feudal nobility was impoverished and almost exterminated, while the Crown became wealthy, as a result of confiscations of their estates for the

benefit of the Crown after each battle. This paved the way for the establishing of Tudor absolutism.

In the mid-14th century, an epidemic of bubonic plague called "**Black Death**" swept across Europe. It reduced the English population by nearly a half, which caused a severe shortage of labour. As a result, free workers were able to obtain higher wages and serfs demanded compensation for labour services. By the end of the 1370s, however, the population had increased and the peasants could no longer demand either higher wages or release from serfdom. High taxes were demanded in order to pay for the war in France: in 1379, the so-called **Poll Tax** was imposed on every male over sixteen. This situation resulted in the outbreak of a **revolt** in 1381: the rebels marched on London and held the government at their mercy. King **Richard II** (1377-99), who was a boy of fourteen at that time, promised to meet all their demands, but as soon as they dispersed, the revolt was brutally crushed. Yet, there was no return to the previous system, and serfdom had disappeared by the end of the 15th century.

The Tudor Period (1485-1603)

The Tudor period can be regarded as the beginning of modern times: an absolute monarchy and the National Church controlled by the state were established, and England laid the foundations for its maritime supremacy. But the temporary balance of power that marked the period collapsed in the Stuart era, and the conflict between the Crown and Parliament resulted in the Civil War. The principles of constitutional monarchy were laid in the 1688-89. In the 18th century, Britain became a great maritime, trading and financial power, as a result of successful wars with France and the Industrial Revolution.

Henry VII (1485-1509) made use of the situation after the end of the Wars of the Roses to establish an **absolute monarchy**. He created a

new nobility from the upper-middle class: the new noblemen were entrusted with state offices, especially in the **Privy Council**, the predecessor of the modern Cabinet, and in the prerogative courts Henry had set up. He avoided military conflicts, but protected trade and manufacturing and encouraged overseas expeditions. That is why Tudor absolutism was supported by practically the whole nation.

Henry VIII (1509-47) was a typical Renaissance king: a poet, musician, fine horseman and lover of arts. He divorced his first Spanish wife Catherine of Aragon and married Anne Boleyn after having broken with Rome. As a result of the king's quarrel with the Pope over divorcing his first wife the Church in England was subjected to the state power (**English Reformation**). This act removed the last power of the feudal period that hampered the development of parliamentary government. Though Henry was acknowledged Head of the **Church of England**, he remained Catholic. Protestantism penetrated into England after his death. **Mary Tudor** (1553-58) unsuccessfully tried to recatholicise the country, but the religious struggles were ended under **Elizabeth I** (1558-1603; **the Elizabethan Settlement**): the English Church became the official Church of England and its doctrine was clearly formulated.

The 2nd daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn became the Queen at the age of 25. She was fluent in Greek, Latin, French and Italian, studied theology. Elizabeth became a strong Protestant and in 1559 made Protestantism the National religion.

In 1588, England defeated its greatest rival, Spain: a huge fleet called the "**Armada**" was crushed by the English navy. This meant the end of Spanish maritime supremacy. **Wales** was fully incorporated into England in 1535. **Ireland** was, however, treated like a colony: revolts against English attempts to impose Protestantism on Ireland were crushed and followed by "**clearance and plantation**", i.e. driving Irish people away from their land and resettling it with Englishmen.

By 1603 England had become one of the most powerful nations on earth. This was the time of great economic growth and the beginning of the great age of exploration and discovery around the world.

I. Choose the right variant to complete the statements.

1. During the reign of ... a lot of churches including Westminster Abbey were built.
 - a) Alfred the Great.
 - b) Edward the Confessor.
 - c) Edgar the Peaceful.
2. ... began the first history of England in English (the English Chronicle).
 - a) Alfred the Great.
 - b) Edward the Confessor.
 - c) Edgar the Peaceful.
3. ... won the Battle of Hastings on Saturday, October 15th, 1066.
 - a) William the Conqueror.
 - b) Harold Godwinson.
 - c) William the Red.
4. The Tower of London is the oldest and the most famous example of
 - a) Gothic style.
 - b) Norman style.
 - c) Baroque style.
5. The Norman castle usually had the stone main tower for the lord's family to live in – ...
 - a) the keep.
 - b) the baily.
 - c) the hall.
6. To describe all the great houses and estates in the kingdom ... was created by William the Conqueror.

- a) Domestic Book
 - b) Household Book
 - c) Domesday Book
7. was called the Lion of Justice because one of his most important achievements was the reorganization of the Courts of Law.
- a) William the Red.
 - b) Henry I.
 - c) Henry II.
8. Richard the Lion Heart was nearly always away from Britain as he
- a) lived in Normandy.
 - b) travelled a lot.
 - c) took part in Crusades.
9. The Great Charter was issued during the reign of
- a) King John.
 - b) Richard the Lion Heart.
 - c) Henry I.
10. ... began his reign with the murder of his little nephew Arthur.
- a) Henry II
 - b) King John
 - c) Richard the Lion Heart
11. ... established the first "Parliament".
- a) Simon de Montfort
 - b) Lord Pembroke
 - c) Henry II
12. ... became the first Prince of Wales.
- a) Edward I
 - b) Edward II
 - c) Edward III
13. Edward I pursued the policy of
- a) expansion.
 - b) peace.

- c) invasion.
- 14. The Hundred Years' War was a series of separate wars (1337-1457)
 - a) for the English throne.
 - b) for the French throne.
 - c) for the Scottish throne.
- 15. The final outcome of the Hundred Years' War was the victory of
 - a) the house of Plantagenets.
 - b) the house of Lancasters.
 - c) the house of Valois.
- 16. The Wars of the Roses is a dynastic struggle between
 - a) the Lancastrians and the Yorkists.
 - b) the Tudors and the Stuarts.
 - c) the Plantagenets and the Hanovers.
- 17. The reason of the Peasants' Revolt in 1381 was
 - a) the Hundred Years' war.
 - b) the introducing of Poll Tax.
 - c) the Black Death.
- 18. Tudor period is characterized by
 - a) the establishment of parliamentary monarchy.
 - b) the establishment of Protectorate.
 - c) the establishment of absolute monarchy.
- 19. ... first became the "Supreme Head of the Church of England".
 - a) Henry VII
 - b) Henry VIII
 - c) Elizabeth I
- 20. ... made Protestantism the National religion.
 - a) Elizabeth I
 - b) Henry VIII
 - c) Mary Tudor

TEXT 3

The Stuart Era (1603-1714)

James VI of Scotland succeeded Elizabeth on the English throne as **James I** (1603-25). His financial difficulties, combined with his belief in the “divine right of kings” and unwise religious and foreign policy, angered Parliament. An organised opposition to the Crown emerged, however, under his son **Charles I** (1625-49) due to his desire for absolute power, as well as his unparliamentary methods of obtaining money. The growing conflict led to the outbreak of the **Civil War** (1642-49) between the supporters of the King (**Royalists or “Cavaliers”**) and of Parliament (**parliamentary party or “Roundheads”**). The victory of the radical wing of the Parliamentary party led by **Oliver Cromwell** (1599-1658) in the Second Civil War resulted in the king’s execution and the establishment of a republican regime, the **Commonwealth** (1649-54). It was, however, soon followed by Cromwell’s **Protectorate** (1654-59), a Puritan military dictatorship. The new state became recognised and respected abroad. Ireland was cruelly “pacified” and Ulster resettled with British settlers; Scotland and Ireland were annexed to England. But the religious and intellectual tyranny of the Puritans and high taxes alienated English people and, soon after Cromwell’s death, the republican regime collapsed and the monarchy was restored.

Together with the monarchy, represented by **Charles II** (1660-85), the House of Lords and the Anglican Church were restored in 1660. Two factions developed in parliament, the **Tories** (defenders of divine right monarchy and Anglicanism) and the

Whigs (supporters of Parliamentary monarchy and religious toleration); they gradually formed two distinct political parties. The attempt of Charles’s brother **James II** (1685-88) to usurp absolute power led to the so-called “**Glorious Revolution**” (1688-89): James was

peacefully replaced by *William III* (of Orange, 1689-1702) and James's Protestant daughter *Mary*. Thus the basic principles of the constitutional monarchy were established. *William* and *Queen Anne* (1702-14) kept executive power, but their policy was controlled by Parliament.

Colonial Empire and the Industrial Revolution (1714-1815)

The United Kingdom of Great Britain was formed in 1707, by *the Union of Scotland and England*. *Ireland* was treated as a cruelly exploited colony after William defeated James II at the Battle of the Boyne in 1690; in 1800, it was incorporated into *the UK of Great Britain and Ireland*. The *modern system of government* was established after the ascension of the Hanoverian dynasty to the British throne in 1714: *the Prime Minister* and his *Cabinet* replaced the Sovereign as the head of the executive.

The *wars with France* had started under William III, whose main aim was to protect his native Holland from French aggression. War conflicts continued throughout the 18th century as Britain and France were fighting for naval supremacy and colonial power. The most serious conflicts were the *Seven Years War* (1756-63, often described as the first world war) and *the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars* (1793-1815, which followed the French revolution of 1789). As a result of these wars, Britain built its *colonial empire*, though the American colonies were lost after the American War of Independence (1775-83). Britain gained maritime supremacy and became world superpower.

Industrial Revolution

This gradual process of changing Britain from a predominantly agricultural country into an industrial power had been prepared by the economic developments in the second half of the 17th century. The term

“Industrial Revolution” is rather misleading, because this process was a slow evolution rather than a “revolution”, and it did not only concern industry. It included developments in the sphere of *finance*, as sufficient capital had to be accumulated; in *transport*: a network of canals, roads and later railways had to be built to speed up transporting raw materials and goods; in *agriculture*: small strips of land were enclosed and changed into large fields to enable the use of agricultural machines new methods of farming were introduced too; in *manufacturing*, the factory system replaced the formerly used domestic industry, first in the textile industry and coal mining and later also in iron and steel industry; the invention of a number of machines made this change possible, the most important of them being *James Watt’s steam engine* (1765-66).

As a result of the Industrial Revolution: Britain became the economic, financial and commercial superpower; it had no serious rivals until the second half of the 19th century; the centre of the economy shifted from the agricultural south and east to the centre (the “Black Country”) and to the north; these areas also became the most densely populated parts of the country; two new social classes emerged: factory workers and industrialists.

Development in the 19th-the 21st Centuries

In the 19th century, Britain held the leading position in the world: its great industrial empire was protected by its powerful navy and its colonial empire was at its height. In the 20th century, however, Britain gradually lost this position and became one of the “middle powers”.

The 19th century (1815-1901)

Home affairs

The century witnessed a number of political and *social reforms*: they were meant to deal with the problems that had accumulated in the course of the warring 18th century, when no reforms were possible.

Parliamentary reforms

1. As the House of Commons no longer represented the nation, three **Reform Acts** (1832, 1867, 1884) gradually extended the right to vote to all men.

2. Voting by **secret ballot** was introduced in 1873.

3. A modern system of **local government** by elected councils was established in 1835 and 1888.

4. The two main political parties were now called the **Liberals** (the former Whigs and a part of the Tory party) and the **Conservatives** (the former Tories).

Social reforms

1. The workers' working and living conditions were improved by a series of acts: they limited the working hours, restricted or abolished female and children's labour in mines and factories, improved relations between employers and employees, and made workers' dwellings healthier.

2. **Slavery** was abolished in the British Empire.

3. Four **Education Acts** (1870, 1876, 1880, 1891) made school attendance free and compulsory up to the age of thirteen.

The main internal problem of the period was the situation in **Ireland**. All land there belonged to landowners, mostly of British origin, and Irish peasants had to sell most of their produce to pay high rents. As a result, they practically lived on potatoes. When a disease destroyed the potato crop in two successive years, a terrible famine broke out between 1845 and 1851: 800,000 people died of starvation and fever and about one million Irishmen emigrated, mostly to the USA. A series of **Land Acts** were passed to rectify the situation, and a struggle for home rule started in the second half of the century.

Foreign affairs and colonial expansion

In the 19th century, Britain did not take part in the European wars except for the *Crimean War* (1854-56), which was fought in order to stop Russia's advance towards India. Britain, however, supported liberal movements in the Mediterranean and in the South and Central Africa so as to weaken its European rivals: Austria, Russia and Prussia. Though European states began to form themselves into alliances, Britain remained outside these pacts, practising the policy of "*splendid isolation*". The core of the *British Empire* was formed by *India* (the keystone of the whole structure of British industry and finance in the 19th century), *Canada* and later, *Australia* and *New Zealand* (to which systematic emigration began in this period); and *South Africa*: this part of the Empire was secured after two *Boer Wars* (1880-81, 1899-1902). Canada, Australia, New Zealand and the Union of South Africa had the status of dominions. In the second half of the century, British expansion in Africa started. By the end of the 19th century, the British Empire covered almost one fifth of the globe and comprised a quarter of the world's population.

Economy

The "railway fever" of the 1820s and '30s stimulated a great development of all industrial branches. The years 1845-75 can be described as a period of prosperity, increased by following the policy of *free trade*. Britain's monopoly on world markets seemed unshakable, but seeds of crisis were present in the very core of this *prosperity*: there was little investment in the modernisation of factories or creation of new products. When the first economic rivals emerged, especially the USA and Germany, the age of prosperity ended in the *depression of 1875-88*. By the beginning of the 20th century, Britain had become but one of several industrial countries of the world.

The 20th -the 21st Centuries (from 1901 to the present)

Home affairs

Britain's main internal problem of the 20th century was, besides the war difficulties and damage, the *Irish question*. As the granting of home rule to Ireland had been put off before World War I, the so-called *Easter Rebellion* broke out in Dublin on Easter Sunday 1916. Though it was crushed, the independent Irish Republic, formed in 1916, was declared in existence in 1919, and a war against Britain started. After three years of guerrilla warfare, *the Irish Free State* was formed in 1922, with the status of a dominion. Ulster, however, remained part of the UK, as the Protestant majority of its inhabitants demanded in a referendum. In 1937, the Irish Republic or *Eire* got a new constitution and was proclaimed an independent state. It remained neutral in World War II and, in 1949, left the British Commonwealth of Nations. The Irish Republic joined the European Union in 1973, the same year as the UK. The Catholic minority in *Ulster* felt discriminated by the Protestant majority. In 1968, Catholics started a civil rights movement. Peaceful demonstrations soon changed into a serious conflict, when extremist organisations, both Catholic and Protestant, started using terrorist methods. The British government felt obliged to send troops to Ulster to keep order. More than three decades of disturbances caused by both Catholic and Protestant terrorist organisations followed. Periods of terrorist attacks and street fighting were followed by attempts to achieve power-sharing, which Protestants refused. As late as 2006 formal talks between representatives of the Catholic and Protestant parties started. In 2007, Northern Ireland finally got its own executive and legislature, Northern Ireland Assembly, which has mechanisms to ensure effective power-sharing: consequently, representatives of both Catholics and Protestants sit in the Assembly.

In the course of the century, the *Labour Party* replaced the Liberals as one of the two leading political parties. The *right to vote* was extended

to women in 1918 and 1928; the *powers of the House of Lords* were reduced by several Acts of Parliament and *life peers* were created in 1958.

In 1948, the Labour government provided Britain with a system of social security and medical care covering everyone in the country (the *Welfare State*) and important parts of the economy were *nationalised* in 1948-50. An “*Age of Affluence*” (the late 1950s and the 1960s) was, however, followed by *economic troubles* in the 1970s, strengthened by prolonged strikes. After *Mrs Thatcher* became Prime Minister as the leader of the Conservative Party, she reduced the overlarge powers of British trade unions and embarked on a programme of denationalisation. She supported private enterprise and initiated cuts in public expenditure, especially social services. As a result, British economy started to recover, but the slump that started in the USA in 2008 and the economic crisis caused by Brexit and later COVID-19 pandemic have affected it adversely.

Foreign affairs

As the balance of powers in Europe was collapsing at the beginning of the 20th century, Britain abandoned the policy of “splendid isolation” and joined *the Allied powers* (i.e. Britain, France and Russia). British soldiers fought in *World War I* (1914-18) on the side of the Allies. In the *interwar period*, Britain pursued the *policy of appeasement* (i.e. trying to prevent the outbreak of another war by giving Hitler what he demanded), together with other western states. As a result, Britain was not prepared for *World War II* (1939-45). In 1940, Britain was left alone to fight Germany and its allies, but it managed to defeat the German attempt to bomb it to submission in the *Battle of Britain* and to continue fighting until the victory in 1945.

Britain joined the *NATO* in 1949, and it was involved in the *wars* in the second half of the 20th century – the beginning of the 21st century: the *Korean War* (1950-53), the *Suez Crisis* (1956), the *Falkland Crisis* (1982), the *Gulf War* (1993) and again in *Iraqe* (the 2010s), *Lybia* (2011), *Syria* (2011).

The *British Empire* changed into a voluntary association of independent states, called the British *Commonwealth of Nations*, between 1931-49; the adjective “British” was dropped in the 1960s. The Commonwealth comprises over 50 members at present.

In 1973, Britain joined the *European Union*, though it didn’t accept the Euro as its currency. The process of “*Brexit*” started in 2017 and finished in 2020.

Economy

In the first half of the 20th century, Britain lost its position of economic superpower. The main reasons for this were: *the two world wars* (Britain became indebted to the USA and it was badly damaged, especially by World War II); *the loss of the Empire*, which had provided cheap raw materials and markets for British goods; economic reasons: the continuing lack of investment at home, decreasing productivity and the growing inability of the traditional industries (i.e. mining, steel and iron, shipbuilding and textiles) to compete with other industrial states, especially the USA: by the end of the 1970s, Britain had fallen behind all the leading industrial nations of western Europe. The situation described above led to the *restructuring of British economy*: new industries appeared, traditional ones were closed or restructured. The discovery of *North Sea oil* in the 1970s-’80s was another economic asset. Britain kept its position of world importance mainly in financial services.

II. Discuss the following questions:

1. Which political and economic factors caused the change of Britain's position in the world in the 20th century?
2. Which of the reforms carried out in the 19th and 20th centuries do you consider the most important and why?
3. Why do you think so many reforms were carried out in the 19th century?
4. Do you think that the internal policies pursued by Mrs Thatcher were beneficial or harmful for the UK? Give reasons for your answer.
5. What are the economic and political consequences of "Brexit"?
6. What do you think about the foreign affairs of the UK in the 20th- 21st centuries?

III. Explain the following terms:

Feudalism; "Black Death"; guerrilla war; absolutist rule; divine rights of kings; home rule; life peers; policy of appeasement; secret ballot; the process of "brexit"; "clearance and plantation"; Poll Tax; absolute monarchy; Domesday Book; Model Parliament; civil war; the Allied powers; the Irish question.

PART III

POLITICAL SYSTEM OF GREAT BRITAIN

TEXT 1

LEAD-IN QUESTION

Is there any difference between the state and the government?

I. Read the information below and then answer the same question:

State and Government

➤ **the government is only an element of the state**

The state has four essential elements—Population, Territory, Government and Sovereignty. Government is only one element of the state. It is just one part of the state which acts for the state.

➤ **the government is an agency or agent of the state**

Government is an agency of the state. It acts for the state. It is that agency of the state which formulates the will of the state into laws, implements the laws of the state and ensures conformity to the laws of the state. Government exercises power and authority on behalf of the state.

➤ **state is abstract, government is concrete**

The state is a concept, an idea or a name used to denote a community of persons living on a definite territory and organised for the exercise of sovereignty. The state cannot be seen. Government is made by the people of the state. It is formed by the representatives of the people. It has a definite and defined organisation and form. It can be seen as a team of people exercising the power of the state.

➤ **the government is organised only by a portion of the state population**

The whole population is a part of the state. All the people are citizens of the state. However, government is made by the representatives of the people. Only some people, who get elected act as representatives of the people, form the government of the state. Their number is limited.

➤ **membership of the state is compulsory but not of the government**

All people are citizens of the state. They together constitute the population of the state. Each one normally gets the membership (citizenship) of a state automatically right at the time of one's birth and continues to live life as such. However, membership of the government is not automatic. No one can be forced to become its part. Anyone can voluntarily seek an election, get elected as a representative of the people and become a part of the government.

➤ **sovereignty belongs to the state and not to the government**

Sovereignty is the hallmark of the state. It belongs to the state. The government exercises power on behalf of the state. It acts on the basis of the sovereignty of the state. Sovereignty is comprehensive, absolute, unlimited and all inclusive supreme power of the state. The government exercises only well defined and limited powers.

➤ **territory belongs to the state**

The state has sovereign ownership and jurisdiction over its territory. The state is a territorial entity and territory belongs to it. The government has the responsibility to preserve, protect and defend the territory of the state. The laws made by the government are applicable to all parts of the territory of the state but territory belongs to the state and not to the government.

➤ **every state has uniformly four essential elements, however the forms and features of government differ from state to state**

Each state has four essential elements: Population, Territory, Government and Sovereignty. However, governments can be of different forms — Parliamentary or Presidential, Unitary or Federal or a mixture

of these. A government can be monarchical or aristocratic or democratic or a dictatorship. The people can by choice change the form of their government. But the state exists independently and has a uniform character.

➤ **the state is permanent, the government is temporary**

Governments come and go regularly. After every general election the government changes. It can also undergo a total change through an election or even through a revolution. The state is permanent. It continuously lives so long as it continues to enjoy sovereignty.

Thus, there are several well-defined and well-recognised differences between the state and government.

In common usage no distinction is made between the two. A government department is often referred to as a state department. Likewise state Transport, state College of Sports is really government transport and government College of sports. It is indeed a loose and inexact use of the name “state”.

II. Fill in the gaps using the words ‘state’ or ‘government’ according to the meaning of the following sentences:

- 1) Queen II is the head of _____.
- 2) Democracy is a system of _____ based on the belief in freedom and equality between people, in which power is either held by elected representatives or directly by the people themselves.
- 3) In December 1991, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics was broken up into fifteen independent _____.
- 4) The legislation requires the agreement of every one of the EU’s member _____.
- 5) The _____ and local _____ also have considerable regulatory authority over granting siting permits necessary for the operation of many types of facilities.
- 6) Prime Minister is the leader of the _____ in some countries.

- 7) We must respect the rights of sovereign _____ to conduct their own affairs.
- 8) _____ represents the group of people who officially control a country.
- 9) The former prime minister was seeking support from smaller parties to help form a _____.
- 10) The _____ territory includes the land, the waters (both inland and territorial), and the air space over both the land and the waters.

III. Speak on the following:

1. Enumerate the essential elements of the state.
2. What are the responsibilities of the government?
3. Can all the citizens of the state be referred to the members of government?

TEXT 2

LEAD-IN QUESTION

What form of government does the United Kingdom have?

I. Read the information below and then answer the same question:

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

The United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy, which means that the powers of the monarch are limited by the country's constitution.

The British constitution, unlike that of most other countries, is an unwritten constitution, not being contained in any single legal document. It is formed partly by statute law (Acts of Parliament) and important

documents (such as Magna Carta), partly by common law (a series of laws dating back to the Middle Ages), and partly by customs and conventions and can be altered by a simple Act of Parliament like any other law. The constitution thus is constantly changing in response to the interpretation of laws in the courts and the introduction of new Acts of Parliament and adapts readily to changing political conditions and ideas. In theory the Constitution safeguards the separation of powers between the legislature, the executive and the judiciary.

The legislature, which consists of both Houses of Parliament and formally the monarch, is the supreme authority, the supreme law-making body.

The executive consists of the Cabinet and government ministries (or departments) headed by ministers (or secretaries of state). The government is responsible for putting laws into effect and directing national policy and acts formally in the name of the monarch.

The judiciary is composed mainly of the judges of the higher courts, who determine the common law and interpret Acts of Parliament and decide on cases arising out of the laws. The judiciary is supposed to be independent of the legislative and executive branches of government.

The organs of government are clearly distinguishable, although their functions often intermingle and overlap. The monarch is formally the head of the executive, the legislature and the judiciary. A member of Parliament (MP) in the House of Commons and a member of the House of Lords may both be in the government of the day. A Law Lord in the House of Lords also serves the House of Lords as the highest appeal court.

II. Find the words from the text corresponding to the following definitions:

1) a system of laws that have been decided and approved by a parliament –

- 2) to become mixed together –
- 3) an elected group of people who have the power to make and change laws in a state or country –
- 4) a law court that has the power to change the decision of a lower court –
- 5) the document signed in 1215 by King John of England that gave certain political and legal rights to some English people –
- 6) the part of a government that is responsible for making certain that laws and decisions are put into action –
- 7) a king or queen –
- 8) the set of political principles by which a state or organization is governed, especially in relation to the rights of the people it governs –
- 9) to protect someone or something from harm or destruction –
- 10) a small group of the most important people in government, who advise the President or Prime Minister and make important decisions –
- 11) the part of a country's government that is responsible for its legal system, including all the judges in the country's courts –

III. Complete the sentences below with suitable words from the previous exercise in the correct form:

- 1) Judges have an obligation to _____ our right to free speech and a free press.
- 2) Britain's head of state is a constitutional _____.
- 3) Many people tend to _____ their family visits with business trips.
- 4) British company directors who bribe to win overseas contracts could be prosecuted under _____.
- 5) Britain has no written _____.
- 6) It's up to the state _____ to enact the budget.
- 7) _____ is often seen as the start of the legal system and the rule of law in England.

- 8) Now, unless an _____ overturns the judgment, the company will be split in two.
- 9) In the US, the president is the head of the _____ branch of government.
- 10) In Great Britain today the _____ consists of about 15 to 25 members, or ministers, appointed by the prime minister, who in turn has been appointed by the monarch on the basis of ability to command a majority of votes in the Commons.

IV. Use the information from the text and the Internet to make up a scheme with the structure of the British political system and present it to the class.

TEXT 3

PRE-READING

Comment on the following quotation:

'A constitutional monarchy requires the monarch to be above politics but to be fully informed about politics'.

*Jacob Rees-Mogg
(a member of the Conservative Party)*

The Monarchy of the United Kingdom

The United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy. Britain's monarchy is the oldest one, dating back to the 9th century. It existed four centuries before the Parliament and three centuries before the law courts. The present monarch, Queen Elizabeth II, is directly descended from Saxon king Egbert, who united England under his rule in 829.

The full royal title in Britain is : “Elizabeth the Second, by the grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms and Territories Queen, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith”. The title thus reflects the union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland in 1707, the union with Ireland in 1801 and the emergence of the Commonwealth.

Succession

Succession to the Throne in the United Kingdom is still hereditary, but only for Protestants in the direct line of descent: the English Act Settlement (1701) laid down that only Protestant descendants of Princess Sophia – a grand-daughter of King James I (1603-25) are eligible to succeed.

The sons of the Sovereign and their descendants have precedence over daughters in succeeding to the throne, but daughters take precedence over the descendants of the Sovereign’s brothers. A daughter who succeeds to the throne becomes Queen Regnant and acquires the Crown’s powers as though she were a king. While the consort of a king takes her husband’s rank and style and becomes a queen, the constitution does not give any special rank or privileges to the husband of a Queen Regnant. In practice, although, he fills an important role in the life of the nation, as does the Duke of Edinburgh, Queen Elizabeth II’s husband.

The sovereign succeeds to the throne as soon as his or her predecessor dies; there is no interval of interregnum. The automatic succession is summed up in the famous phrase “the King is dead; long live the King!”. The new Sovereign is proclaimed at an Accession Council to which all members of the Privy Council are summoned. Members of the House of Lord, the Lord Mayor and Aldermen and the leading citizens of the City of London are also invited.

Coronation

Coronation of the new Sovereign follows the accession after a convenient interval. The coronation of Queen Elizabeth II in 1953, for example, took place over a year after she became the queen. The coronation ceremony has remained essentially the same for over a thousand years, although details have been changed to match the customs of the time. The coronation service is traditionally conducted by the Archbishop of Canterbury at Westminster Abbey in the presence of representatives of the Houses of Parliament. The Prime Minister and leading citizens from the Commonwealth and the representatives of other countries also attend. The monarch takes the oath of royal duties, and Holy Communion is celebrated, followed by anointing and crowning. The House of Lords offer homage. The service used at Queen Elizabeth II's coronation in 1953 was based on that used at the coronation of the Saxon King Egbert at Bath in 973.

The Oath:

I, [INSERT TITLE] by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of My other Realms and Territories King, Defender of the Faith, do faithfully promise and swear that I shall inviolably maintain and preserve the Settlement of the true Protestant Religion as established by the Laws made in Scotland in prosecution of the Claim of Right and particularly by an Act intituled "An Act for securing the Protestant Religion and Presbyterian Church Government" and by the Acts passed in the Parliament of both Kingdoms for Union of the two Kingdoms, together with the Government, Worship, Discipline, Rights and Privileges of the Church of Scotland. So help me God.

The present royal family belonged to the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha until 1917 when, in the light of the First World War, it was considered more appropriate for the King to have an English rather than a German name. It was therefore proclaimed that Victoria's descendants

in the male line would adopt the name Windsor. In 1952 Queen Elizabeth II declared that she and her children should be known as the House and the Family of Windsor.

I. Find the words from the text corresponding to the following definitions:

- 1) a serious promise that you will tell the truth or that you will do what you have said –
- 2) a voluntary association of 54 independent and equal countries –
- 3) a process in which someone automatically takes an official position or job after someone else –
- 4) (of titles and positions in society) passed from parent to a child as a right –
- 5) the state or fact of being related to a particular person or group of people who lived in the past –
- 6) having the necessary qualities or satisfying the necessary conditions –
- 7) the condition of being dealt with before other things or of being considered more important than other things –
- 8) exercising rule/ reigning –
- 9) the time during which a throne is vacant between two successive reigns or regimes –
- 10) the procedure of making someone holy in a religious ceremony by putting holy water or oil on them –
- 11) a wife or husband, especially of a ruler –

II. Complete the sentences below with suitable words from Ex.1 in the correct form:

- 1) In this way, the period 1800 – 1824 could be regarded as an _____ during which economic change put the old system under severe strain.
- 2) Fact is _____ with fiction throughout the book.

- 3) Only people over 18 are _____ to vote.
- 4) They've arrived here to witness the _____ of the new king.
- 5) They trace their line of _____ back to a French duke.
- 6) If she ascends the throne as expected, she will be Belgium's first queen _____.
- 7) His divorce will not prevent the Prince of Wales's _____ to the throne.
- 8) The order of _____ for titled nobility in Britain is duke, marquis, earl, viscount, baron.
- 9) It is a _____ title, so Mark Howard will become Sir Mark Howard on his father's death.

Did You Know?

➤ *The etymology of regnant is fairly straightforward: English speakers borrowed the word sometime around 1600 from Latin. Regnant is derived from the Latin verb regnare, meaning "to reign". Regnare, in turn, traces back to the noun regnum, meaning "reign", which derives from rex, the Latin word for "king." Other descendants of regnum include interregnum ("a period between two successive reigns or regimes"), regnal ("of or relating to a king or his reign"), and even reign itself.*

➤ **Monarchy.** *The most common form of government from ancient times to the early part of the 20th century was monarchy, or rule by a hereditary king or queen. Monarchy passed through three basic stages, varying according to the nation and the political and economic climate. The first stage was that of the absolute monarch. In the Christian part of the world during the Middle Ages, a conflict developed between the pope and the kings who recognized his spiritual authority. The pope wanted to expand the power of the church beyond spiritual matters to include the temporal realm. But some kings proclaimed that God had given them the*

right to rule, and by proclaiming this divine right they were able to give legitimacy to their reigns and limit the pope's power.

Limited monarchy was the second stage. Kings depended on the support of the most powerful members of the nobility to retain their thrones. In England and some other Western European countries, the nobility placed limits on the power of the ruler to govern. This was done in England, for example, through the Magna Carta. Threatened with the loss of political and financial support, even the strongest kings and emperors had to accept a system of laws that protected the rights and privileges of powerful social and economic classes.

The third stage in the evolution of monarchy was the constitutional monarchy. Present-day monarchs are nearly all symbolic rather than actual rulers of their countries. (A few exceptions can be found in Africa and Asia.) In such monarchies as Great Britain, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Spain, governing power is now in the hands of the national parliaments.

TEXT 4

PRE-READING

Read and comment on the most famous quotations of Queen Elizabeth II. How do they characterise Her Majesty as a leader of the country?

“It has always been easy to hate and destroy. To build and to cherish is much more difficult. ”

“I know of no single formula for success. But over the years I have observed that some attributes of leadership are universal and are often about finding ways of encouraging people to combine their

efforts, their talents, their insights, their enthusiasm and their inspiration to work together.”

“When life seems hard, the courageous do not lie down and accept defeat; instead, they are all the more determined to struggle for a better future.”

“We all need to get the balance right between action and reflection. With so many distractions, it is easy to forget to pause and take stock. Be it through contemplation, prayer, or even keeping a diary, many have found the practice of quiet personal reflection surprisingly rewarding, even discovering greater spiritual depth to their lives. ”

“Discrimination still exists. Some people feel that their own beliefs are being threatened,” she said. “Some are unhappy about unfamiliar cultures. They all need to be reassured that there is so much to be gained by reaching out to others; that diversity is indeed a strength and not a threat. ”

I. Read the text below and be ready to describe the duties of the Queen.

The Queen’s Role in the UK

The Queen personifies the State. As has been mentioned, in law she is head of the executive and of the judiciary, an integral part of the legislature, commander-in-chief of all armed forces of the Crown and the ‘supreme governor’ of the established Church of England. As a result of a long process of evolution, especially since 1689, the monarchy’s absolute powers have been progressively reduced, the Queen today is only a formal ruler and does not actually govern: nowadays monarchs reign but do not rule.

The Queen does not act independently. Whatever she does must be done on the advice of a Minister; and that Minister is politically responsible for the royal act. Though Britain is actually governed by Her Majesty's Government, it would be wrong to underestimate the role of the monarchy in Britain. The official and state duties of the Queen are numerous. The Queen's involvement is still required in many important acts of government. It is the Queen who summons, prologues (suspends until the next session) and dissolves Parliament. She normally opens each session with a speech from the throne, which outlines her Government's programme. Before a bill that has passed all its stages in both Houses of Parliament becomes a law it must receive the Royal Assent.

It is the Queen's duty to make appointments of many important office holders, including government ministers, judges, officers in the armed forces, governors, diplomats, bishops and other senior clergy of the Church of England. She also confers all peerages, knighthoods and other honours. While the Queen normally does all this on the direction of the government, there are a few honours conferred on her personal selection – the Order of the Garter, the Order of the Thistle, the Order of the Merit and the Royal Victorian Order.

An important function of the Queen is appointing the Prime Minister, but when doing so she is bound to invite the leader of the political party, which commands a majority in the House of Commons to form a government.

In international affairs the Queen, as head of state, has the power to declare war and make peace, to recognize foreign states and governments, to conclude treaties and to annex or cede territories.

For advice on such matters the Queen has her own Privy Council. In earlier times it was a body of advisers of English monarchs and was the chief source of executive power in the State. As the system of Cabinet government developed, the Privy Council declined an importance. The present-day Privy Council exists mainly to give effect to policy decisions

made elsewhere. The Privy Council consists of members of the royal family, the Archbishops and all senior ministers and ex-ministers, together with others to whom membership has been given as an honour. Privy Councillors are entitled to the prefix – the Right Honourable – before their name.

The Queen is also active in the smooth working of government: apart from holding meetings of the Privy Council, she gives audiences to her ministers and other official in Britain and overseas, reads dispatches and signs numerous state papers, these arrive in special ‘red boxes’. Some are new laws that need her ‘assent’. Others are reports, documents or telegrams from ambassadors. This is an important part of the Queen’s job. She is not a political leader, but she has ‘the right to be consulted, the right to encourage and the right to warn’. That is also why the Queen is visited by the Prime Minister every Tuesday evening to receive an account of Cabinet decisions, as she must be informed and consulted on every aspect of national life. The first Prime Minister of her reign was legendary wartime leader and friend to the Royal Family, Winston Churchill, who served until 1955. She also saw the first female Prime Minister, Margaret Thatcher, and they shared a relationship which was “punctiliously correct, but with little love lost on either side”. Since 1952 Queen Elizabeth II has given audience, as it is called, to fourteen Prime Ministers.

II. Find the words from the text corresponding to the following definitions:

- 1) official agreement to or approval of an idea, plan, or request –
- 2) the UK’s first woman Prime Minister, also known as ‘the Iron Lady’ –
- 3) to give an official title, honour, or advantage to someone –
- 4) a group of important politicians in the UK, who are officially chosen to be advisers to the king of the queen, but now its purpose is mostly ceremonial –

- 5) to complete an official agreement –
- 6) to give control or possession of something, esp. land to someone else, often unwillingly or because forced to do so –
- 7) an important official who works in a foreign country representing his or her own country there, and who is officially accepted in this position by that country –
- 8) a bishop of the highest rank who is in charge of churches and other bishops in a particular large area –
- 9) to take possession of an area of land or a country, usually by force or without permission –
- 10) a written agreement between two or more countries, formally approved and signed by their leaders –
- 11) a British politician in the Conservative Party who was Prime Minister during most of World War II and is still admired by most British people as a great leader who made possible Britain's victory in the war –

III. Complete the sentences below with suitable words from the previous exercise in the correct form:

- 1) Hong Kong was _____ to Britain after the Opium War.
- 2) the _____ of Canterbury holds the highest position in the Church of England.
- 3) Before an Act of Parliament can become law, it needs to receive Royal _____ (= an official signature) from the monarch.
- 4) An honorary doctorate was _____ on him by Columbia University.
- 5) We've signed/concluded a _____ with neighbouring states to limit emissions of harmful gases.
- 6) The United States _____ parts of Texas and New Mexico, which belonged to Mexico.
- 7) At that time, Sir Jeremy Greenstock was the British UN _____ (= represented the United Kingdom at the United Nations).

IV. Fill in the appropriate prepositions into the gaps:

- 1) Whatever the Queen does must be done _____ the advice of a Minister; and that Minister is politically responsible for the royal act.
- 2) While the Queen confers all peerages, knighthoods and other honours _____ the direction of the government, there are a few honours conferred _____ her personal selection.
- 3) Privy Councillors are entitled _____the prefix – the Right Honourable – _____ their name.
- 4) The Queen must be informed and consulted _____ every aspect of national life.
- 5) The first Prime Minister of the Queen’s reign was legendary wartime leader and friend _____ the Royal Family.
- 6) Britain is actually governed _____ Her Majesty’s Government.
- 7) Queen Elizabeth II has given audience _____ fourteen Prime Ministers.

V. Read and comment on the most famous quotations of Sir Winston Churchill.

- 1) “Politics is more dangerous than war, for in war you are only killed once.”
- 2) “You have enemies? Good. It means you’ve stood up for something, sometime in your life.”
- 3) “I never worry about action, but only inaction.”
- 4) “The first duty of the university is to teach wisdom, not a trade; character, not technicalities. We want a lot of engineers in the modern world, but we do not want a world of engineers.”
- 5) “Success is not final, failure is not fatal, it is the courage to continue that counts.”
- 6) “All the greatest things are simple, and many can be expressed in a single word: freedom; justice; honour; duty; mercy; hope.”

- 7) “It is a mistake to try to look too far ahead. The chain of destiny can only be grasped one link at a time.”
- 8) “It's not enough that we do our best; sometimes we have to do what's required.”
- 9) “When the eagles are silent, the parrots begin to jabber.”
- 10) “Courage is what it takes to stand up and speak, it's also what it takes to sit down and listen.”
- 11) “Continuous effort – not strength or intelligence – is the key to unlocking our potential.”
- 12) “In war, as in life, it is often necessary, when some cherished scheme has failed, to take up the best alternative open, and if so, it is folly not to work for it with all your might.”
- 13) “A lie gets halfway around the world before the truth has a chance to get its pants on.”
- 14) “If you're going through hell, keep going.”
- 15) “Success is the ability to go from one failure to another with no loss of enthusiasm.”
- 16) “The pessimist sees difficulty in every opportunity. The optimist sees the opportunity in every difficulty.”
- 17) “Attitude is a little thing that makes a big difference.”
- 18) “The empires of the future are the empires of the mind.”

Did You Know?

➤ **Margaret Thatcher** /'θætʃə/ (1925 – 2013) – a British politician in the Conservative Party, now officially called *Baroness Thatcher of Kesteven*, and sometimes called *Maggie* in the newspapers. She became leader of her party in 1975, and in 1979 became UK's first woman Prime Minister, a position she held until 1990. She won three General Elections – in 1979, 1983, and 1987 – and she had a lot of influence on British politics and on British life. Her ideas become known as *Thatcherism*, and under her leadership politics in the UK became much more right-wing.

During her time as Prime Minister, the Conservative government reduced taxes, took away power from trade unions and started a programme of privatization (=selling state-owned services electricity and gas, so that they became private companies). She was seen as a strong and determined leader who would not change her mind easily and would not accept disagreement among her ministers. For this reason, she was sometimes called 'the Iron Lady'. Most people in the UK either admired her a lot or strongly disliked her, and now people disagree about what she achieved: some people say she 'made Britain great again', but others say that her policies caused high unemployment, encouraged people to be selfish, and helped to make rich people richer and poor people poorer.

➤ **Sir Winston Churchill (1874 – 1965)** – a British politician in the Conservative Party who was Prime Minister during most of World War II and again from 1951 to 1955. He is still remembered and admired by most British people as a great leader who made possible Britain's victory in the war. He is also famous for the many speeches he made during the war, especially on the radio, encouraging British people to believe that they would eventually win. Pictures of Churchill usually show him wearing a hat and smoking a large cigar. He is also known for making the V-sign to show his belief in a British victory in the war.

TEXT 5

LEAD-IN QUESTION

Is there any difference between the duties of Parliament and the Government?

I. Read the information below and then answer the same question:

Parliament and the Government

Parliament and the Government are different. They have different roles and do different things.

What is the Government?

Her Majesty's Government consists of the Prime Minister, their Cabinet and junior ministers, supported by the teams of non-political civil servants that work in government departments.

The Government are the people responsible for running the country. The political party that wins the most seats at a General Election takes charge of the Government for five years, until the next General Election.

The leader of the winning party is appointed as Prime Minister and chooses other party members to work in the Government with them – as Cabinet ministers and junior ministers.

What is Parliament?

Parliament is there to represent our interests and make sure they are taken into account by the Government. The Government cannot make new laws or raise new taxes without Parliament's agreement.

Parliament is made up of people who have been elected and people who have been appointed. They sit in two separate Houses:

- The House of Commons, where all the people who have been elected at the General Election work, as MPs, for the next five years. This includes people in other political parties, as well as those in the winning party who were not chosen to be ministers.
- The House of Lords, whose members are mostly appointed for life rather than elected. They have often been chosen because of their achievements and experience. Many do not belong to a political party.

Government ministers also have seats in Parliament but most of their work is done in Government departments.

What does the Government do?

The Government is responsible for deciding how the country is run and for managing things, day to day. They set taxes, choose what to spend public money on and decide how best to deliver public services, such as:

- the National Health Service
- the police and armed forces
- welfare benefits like the State Pension
- the UK's energy supply

While many government powers have been delegated to the devolved institutions in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, only the UK Government can speak on behalf of the UK and represent the country abroad.

What does Parliament do?

Parliament's job is to look closely at the Government's plans and to monitor the way they are running things.

Parliament works on the behalf of people to try to make sure that Government decisions are:

- open and transparent – by questioning ministers and requesting information;
- workable and efficient – by examining new proposals closely and suggesting improvements, checking how public money is being spent and tracking how new laws are working out in practice;
- fair and non-discriminatory – by checking that they comply with equalities and human rights laws and by speaking up on behalf of affected individuals.

Members of both Houses of Parliament can speak up for people if a government department or agency treats them unfairly.

Government ministers are required to come to Parliament regularly to answer questions, respond to issues raised in debates and keep both Houses informed of any important decisions they take. In this way, Parliament can hold the Government to account for its actions.

What is the Opposition?

The Opposition works in Parliament. After a General Election, the largest non-government party in the House of Commons becomes the Official Opposition. The Leader of the Opposition takes the lead role in questioning the Prime Minister when they come to Parliament.

The Leader of the Opposition chooses a team – known as the Shadow Cabinet – who take the lead in questioning other Government ministers when they come to Parliament.

II. Which of the following enquiries can be handled by the representatives of Parliament and which – by the Government. Divide the enquiries into 2 groups.

- you want to know why a law is going to change
- you want them to raise an issue in Parliament or press the Government for action
- you want to know when a law is due to change
- you want to know how a particular law applies to you
- you want them to support or oppose a particular Government policy
- you are not happy with the way your complaint has been handled by a government-run service or department
- you want to know the information about a government-run service – e.g. health services, visas and immigration, state pension or tax credits/universal credit.
-

III. What do the following abbreviations stand for? Find their full versions in the text.

- 1) HM – _____
- 2) PM – _____
- 3) MP – _____
- 4) GE – _____
- 5) NHS – _____

TEXT 6

PRE-READING

Which forms of government do you know? Enumerate as many as possible and make your commentaries. Which form of government do you consider the best one and why?

I. Read the text about the UK democratic system.

Democracy and the UK Parliament

The United Kingdom is a democracy. A democracy is a country where the people choose their government. In the UK there are too many people to ask and too many decisions to take, therefore representatives are elected to make decisions. Representatives include Members of Parliament (MPs), Members of the Scottish Parliament (MSPs) (representing the population living in Scotland) and local councillors.

The UK Parliament meets in Westminster, London. It has two parts – the House of Commons and the House of Lords, plus the monarchy. The House of Commons is made up of 650 MPs and the House of Lords of around 810 Lords or, as they are sometimes known, peers.

The House of Commons

Members of Parliament (MPs) are elected every five years at a General Election. For the purposes of the General Election, the country is divided into 650 constituencies or areas. Each constituency elects one MP to Parliament. The last General Election in the UK was held on Thursday 8th June 2017.

At the 2017 General Election Scotland returned 59 MPs. 35 of the 59 MPs elected were from the Scottish National Party (SNP). 13 Conservative, 7 Labour and 4 Liberal Democrat MPs were also elected.

One role of MPs in the UK Parliament is to represent their constituents in areas where the UK Parliament takes decisions e.g. immigration or defence. MPs either debate or ask questions in the House of Commons or they work in smaller groups known as committees.

Other important roles of MPs in Parliament are to help make laws and to scrutinise (check-up on) the work of the government or investigate issues.

The House of Lords

The House of Lords is the second chamber of the UK Parliament. The role of the House of Lords is to help make laws as well as check-on the work of government and investigate issues.

Most peers have been appointed by the Queen on the advice of a prime minister in recognition of their expertise in a particular area e.g. business, law or science. Others are Church of England bishops and 92 are hereditary peers or people with titles (such as Barons or Viscounts) who have inherited the right to sit in the Lords.

The Monarchy

The UK's political system can be described as a constitutional monarchy with a king or queen as Head of State.

However, it is the Houses of Parliament that make the laws, not the monarch. The monarch only formally passes legislation – this is known as Royal Assent.

When a parliamentary Bill is given Royal Assent it becomes an Act of Parliament. It is then up to the relevant government department to implement that law. For example, the Transport department will deal with new Acts relating to transport.

The monarch must remain politically neutral and does not interfere with the legislative process. No monarch has refused Parliament's wishes for over 300 years. Constitutionally, the UK Government is his/her Majesty's Government.

Every year the monarch goes to the House of Lords to open a new **session** of Parliament. The monarch reads ‘The Queen’s Speech’ which announces what the government plans to do in the coming year. It is written by the Prime Minister.

UK constitutional arrangement

As well as the Scottish Parliament, there are assemblies in Wales and Northern Ireland. These assemblies, like the Scottish Parliament, have defined powers which have been devolved from the UK Parliament.

Historically the UK has also had to follow rules made in Brussels by the European Union (EU), however, the UK is planning to leave the EU within the next two years and will no longer have to obey laws passed by the EU.

The Prime Minister and the First Minister

The Prime Minister (PM) is usually the leader of the largest party in a government or the leader of the party who wins an election. In Scotland, the First Minister (FM) is elected by all MSPs but it is usually the leader of the party with the most MSPs in the Scottish Parliament. Like the Prime Minister, the First Minister is officially appointed by the monarch.

The PM has several roles including selecting cabinet ministers and chairing meetings of the cabinet. Cabinet ministers are senior MPs who have responsibility for running a government department such as defence or international development.

There is a minister for Scotland titled the Secretary of State for Scotland. In Scotland the FM also selects a cabinet and chairs cabinet meetings of MSPs who run the different government departments in Scotland such as health and transport.

Both the PM and FM and each of their cabinets are collectively accountable for their policies and actions to their respective parliaments. They are expected to appear before parliament each week and answer questions from MPs or MSPs. One way the PM is held to account is at Prime Minister’s Question (PMQs). PMQs takes place

every Wednesday at midday. First Minister's Questions (FMQs) is every Thursday at midday.

Other roles for the PM and FM include setting the direction of government policy and representing the UK and Scotland at home and abroad.

II. Find the words from the text corresponding to the following definitions:

- 1) the UK parliament, or the part of London where the parliament buildings are –
- 2) (in the UK) a member of any of five noble ranks (baron, viscount, earl, marquis and duke) who has the right to sit in the House of Lords –
- 3) one of the official areas of a country that elects someone to represent it in a parliament or legislature –
- 4) to examine something very carefully in order to discover information –
- 5) (the room used for meetings of) a usually elected law-making body–
- 6) the organization, since 1993, through which European governments who choose to be members make decisions and agree on shared action in social and economic matters –
- 7) a group of people, especially one that meets regularly for a particular purpose, such as government, or, more generally, the process of coming together, or the state of being together –
- 8) a set of ideas or a plan for action followed by a business, a government, a political party, or a group of people –
- 9) a country in which power is held by elected representatives –
- 10) a formal meeting or series of meetings of an organization such as parliament or a law court –

III. Complete the sentences below with suitable words from the previous exercise in the correct form:

- 1) In Britain the upper _____ of Parliament is the House of Lords, the lower – the House of Commons.
- 2) She has been tipped as a future member of the Welsh _____.
- 3) The UN Security Council met in emergency _____ to discuss the crisis.
- 4) Our MP doesn't even live in this _____.
- 5) What is your party's _____ on immigration?
- 6) _____ was buzzing with anticipation today as MPs gathered for tonight's crucial vote.
- 7) The customs officer _____ his face for any signs of nervousness.

Did You Know?

Democracy. *Representative government in the modern world is based not only on a constitution that provides for it but on the actual rule of law – the assurance that provisions of the constitution will be enforced. It requires that citizens be free to organize competing political parties, engage in political campaigns, and hold elections according to agreed-upon rules. Democratic governments vary in structure. Two common forms are the parliamentary and the presidential. In the parliamentary form of government, as in Australia, Britain, Canada, or India, all political power is concentrated in the parliament or legislature. The prime minister or premier and the officers of the cabinet are members of the parliament. They continue in office only as long as parliament supports – or has "confidence" in – their policies. In the presidential form of government, as in France and the United States, the voters elect a powerful chief executive who is independent of the legislature but whose actions are delimited by constitutional and other legal restraints.*

TEXT 7

PRE-READING

What Parliament's rules and traditions are you familiar with? Describe them.

I. Read the information below and then answer the same question:

Rules and Traditions of Parliament

The origins of Parliament go back to the 13th century, so there are many rules, customs and traditions that help explain its workings.

Rules and customs

Much of parliamentary procedure has developed through continued use over the centuries and is not written in the Standing Orders. This is sometimes known as 'custom and practice.'

The practice of bills being 'read' three times in both Houses is not in the Standing Orders for example. Other procedures have developed through precedents such as rulings made by the Speaker and resolutions of the House.

Erskine May

Erskine May was the Clerk of the House of Commons between 1871 and 1886. He wrote 'Treatise on the Law, Privileges, Proceedings and Usage of Parliament' which is considered the authoritative source on parliamentary procedure.

It provides details of observed 'rules' within the House, whether they relate to Standing Orders (and are therefore regulated by the House), traditional practice or whether they derive from 'Speaker's Rulings'.

Where Members sit and speak

By convention, Ministers sit on the front bench on the right hand of the Speaker: the Chief Whip usually sits in this row immediately

next to the gangway. Parliamentary Private Secretaries usually sit in the row behind their minister.

Official Opposition spokespersons use the front bench to the Speaker's left. Minority or smaller parties sit on the benches below the gangway on the left.

There is nothing sacrosanct about these places and on occasions when a Member has deliberately chosen to occupy a place on the front bench or on the opposite side of the House from their usual position there is no redress for such action.

Members may speak only from where they were called, which must be within the House. They may not speak from the floor of the House between the red lines (traditional supposed to be two sword-lengths apart). Also, the Speaker will not call a Member in the gallery if there is room downstairs. Members must stand whilst speaking but if they are unable to do so they are allowed to address the House seated.

The form and style of debate in the House of Commons

The style of debate in the House has traditionally been one of cut-and-thrust; listening to other Members' speeches and intervening in them in spontaneous reaction to opponents' views.

This style of debate can make the Commons Chamber a rather noisy place with robustly expressed opinion, many interventions, expressions of approval or disapproval and, sometimes, of repartee and banter.

Ultimately it is the Chair, The Speaker of the House of Commons, who controls the House and who speaks and when. Members have the right, when speaking, to be heard without unendurable background noise (deliberate or accidental) and the Chair will call for order if it appears there is an attempt to drown out a Member or when a number of Members are leaving the Chamber, or conversing loudly.

The colours of the Houses of Parliament

A tradition that stands out to most visitors to Parliament is the difference between the colours which are used in the Lords and Commons parts of the building.

Green is the principal colour for furnishing and fabrics throughout the House of Commons, with the green benches of the Chamber perhaps the most recognisable of these. The first authoritative mention of the use of green in the Chamber occurred in 1663.

In the House of Lords, red is similarly employed in upholstery, hansard, notepaper etc. This colour most likely stems from the use by monarchs of red as a royal colour and its consequent employment in the room where the Monarch met their court and nobles.

Dragging the Speaker of the House of Commons

When a new Speaker of the House of Commons is elected, the successful candidate is physically dragged to the Chair by other MPs.

This tradition has its roots in the Speaker's function to communicate the Commons' opinions to the monarch. Historically, if the monarch didn't agree with the message being communicated then the early death of the Speaker could follow. So you can understand why some people who held the post were somewhat reluctant to come in in the morning.

Prayers and saving the pew

Each sitting in both Houses begins with prayers that follow the Christian faith. In the Commons the Speaker's Chaplain usually reads the prayers. In the Lords a senior bishop (Lord Spiritual) who sits in the Lords usually reads the prayers.

MPs can use prayers cards to reserve seats in the chamber for the remainder of that sitting day. These 'prayer cards' are dated and must be obtained personally by the Member who wishes to use them from an on duty attendant before the House meets.

The thing is that there are 650 elected MPs in the House of Commons, but only 427 seats in the chamber, which leads to some MPs having to stand during the bigger debates and announcements.

Catching the Speaker's eye

To participate in a debate in the House of Commons or at question time, MPs have to be called by the Speaker. MPs usually rise or half-rise from their seats in a bid to get the Speaker's attention – this is known as 'catching the Speaker's eye'.

Voting

When MPs vote on debates or legislation it is called a division. When MPs vote they say 'aye' or 'no'. In the Lords, Members vote saying 'content' or 'not content'.

For major votes the House divides into the voting lobbies, two corridors that run either side of the chamber, and members are counted as they enter into each.

Dress

The dress of MPs has of course changed throughout history. The dress of Members these days is generally that which might ordinarily be worn for a fairly formal business transaction. The Speaker has, on a number of occasions, taken exception to informal clothing, including the non-wearing of jackets and ties by men.

The Lord Speaker on the Woolsack

The Woolsack is the seat of the Lord Speaker in the House of Lords Chamber. The Woolsack is a large, wool-stuffed cushion or seat covered with red cloth and stuffed with wool brought from around the Commonwealth. The tradition of the Woolsack dates back to the reign of Edward III when the wool trade was one of the most important parts of the economy. A seat stuffed with wool was therefore a very important symbol of the wealth of the country.

The Lord Speaker presides over business in the House of Lords, but does not control them like the Speaker in the Commons, as Members of the Lords regulate their own discussions.

If a Deputy Speaker presides in the absence of the Lord Speaker, then that individual uses the Woolsack.

When the House of Lords is sitting, the Mace is placed on the rear of the Woolsack, behind the Lord Speaker.

Judge's Woolsack

In front of the Woolsack in the House of Lords Chamber is a larger cushion known as the Judges' Woolsack. During the State Opening of Parliament, the Judges' Woolsack is occupied by senior judges. This is a reminder of medieval Parliaments, when judges attended to offer legal advice. During normal sittings of the House, any Member of the Lords may sit on it.

General Public in the Houses of Parliament

The general public is allowed into those parts of the House of Commons not exclusively for the use of Members. The Serjeant at Arms is able to take into custody non-Members who are in any part of the House or gallery reserved for Members, and members of the public who misconduct themselves or do not leave when asked to do so.

The House of Lords is also open to the public and you can watch business in the chamber and select committees for free.

II. Find the words from the text corresponding to the following definitions:

- 1) rules that say how an organization or a company should organize its meetings –
- 2) in many elected political systems, a member of a political party in a parliament, etc., who is in charge of making certain that other party members are present at voting time and that they vote in a particular way –

- 3) thought to be too important or too special to be changed –
- 4) a long wooden seat with a high back, on which a row of people sit –
- 5) the important symbol of wealth in the UK (especially during the reign of Edward III) –
- 6) a decorated rod that is carried by or put in front of particular public officials as a symbol of their authority –
- 7) MPs can use them to reserve seats in the chamber for the remainder of that sitting day –
- 8) The person in the House of Commons, who controls the House and who speaks and when –
- 9) The person who usually reads the prayers in the Commons –
- 10) The person who sits in the Lords and usually reads the prayers –
- 11) The person who presides over business in the House of Lords, but does not control them like it is in the Commons –

III. Complete the sentences below with suitable words from the previous exercise in the correct form:

- 1) I'm willing to help on any weekday, but my weekends are _____.
- 2) As symbols of royal authority, _____ were created for the Palace of Westminster and these are carried before the Speaker into the chambers of both the House of Commons and the House of Lords.
- 3) The chairman claimed that any action he had taken was in keeping with the _____ of a council meeting.
- 4) In the British political system, the _____ of the governing political party in parliament is a member of the cabinet and has the position of Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury.
- 5) With _____ filled beyond capacity and comfort, 600 demonstrators would be forced to crane forward in order to listen from the market square.

IV. Now that you have studied the general rules and customs that should be obeyed within Parliament, have a look at Parliament's most weird traditions. Distribute several parts of the text among the members of the group and then present them to the class.

Parliament's Most Weird and Wonderful Traditions

The elected representatives have an incredibly serious job, but some of the things that happen in their workplace may look a bit odd. From stealing a big gold stick being enough to unseat an entire debate, to some appointees being dragged into work, Parliament can sometimes be a very strange place.

Parliament has been around for a very long time, so it follows that some archaic rules may have been established in a distant past. But, perhaps surprisingly, they've stuck around.

Back-to-school vibes with personalised coat pegs

Each of the MPs has a named peg where they hang their coats from when they get into work.

Not only that, but each one has a purple ribbon attached, which is meant for MPs to hang their swords from, but now they're just a form of decoration.

The caveat to this though is that they need to attend prayers in order to do this. Not only that, but they need to face the wall throughout the prayer.

Tying up loose laws

It seems the House of Commons has an obsession with ribbons.

When bills make their way to the House of Lords to be signed off before making its way for Royal Assent, they're tied up with a green ribbon which is the official colour of the Commons (or at least the seats).

MPs get 'kidnapped' – and everyone is okay with it

When a session of Parliament is opened, Queen Elizabeth makes a 'Speech from the Throne' or 'Queen's Speech', outlining the plans of the

government for the next 12 months or so. During this, an MP is kidnapped and held hostage at Buckingham Palace. To be honest, there are worse places to be held captive.

This comes from a time when the monarchy had a difficult relationship with parliamentarians, and so the poor MP would be used as a bargaining tool in case the King or Queen were threatened during their time in Westminster.

Interesting facts:

- *The Queen delivers the speech from the House of Lords because monarchs don't set foot in the House of Commons. This has been the case since King Charles I tried to arrest five MPs in 1642, and the speaker at the time (William Lenthall) refused to tell him where they were.*

If you steal a stick, Parliament stops

The House of Lords has its own mace too.

The Mace is a symbol of the Queen's authority that sits in the House of Commons chamber when Parliament is in session. Any debate that takes place without it being there is illegal.

Recently, Lloyd Russell-Moyle caused havoc by grabbing it when Theresa May announced she was going to delay the Brexit meaningful vote in December 2018.

When writing about why he did it in *The Guardian*, he admitted that: "for the vast majority of people a gangly man in moleskin trousers holding a 5 ft golden rod might look a bit odd. But I work in a very odd place, which rests heavily on symbol and ritual."

Interesting facts:

- *It's said that when Oliver Cromwell dissolved the 'long parliament' in 1653 he turned to the Mace, declared it a "fool's bauble" and ordered the troops he'd brought with him to the chamber to take it away.*

- *Other countries such as Australia, the Bahamas and Canada also have ceremonial maces present where their governments sit.*

Part of Black Rod's job is to have the door slammed in their face

One of the more senior officers in the Houses of Parliament is called Black Rod, who is based in the Lords. They're so named because, at the State Opening of Parliament, they bang on the door of the chamber three times with a big black rod.

Before that happens, the chamber door is slammed in their face, to represent the independence of the Commons. Surely there's a more polite way of portraying that these days?

You're not allowed to talk about the Lords in the Commons

In the same way a mutual dislike of a person can bring friends closer together, the Commons is united by their forced disdain of the House of Lords.

It's forced now, but didn't used to be: historically there was a lot of bad blood between the two houses. Because of this, the House of Lords is referred to as 'the other place' when spoken about in the House of Commons chamber.

The House of Commons has a father, mother and baby

That doesn't mean that the building itself has its own family. The Father of the House is the longest continuously serving MP (currently Kenneth Clarke of the Conservatives). Prime Minister Theresa May dubbed Labour's Harriet Harman Mother of the House in June 2017, because she is the longest continuously serving female MP.

The baby isn't the shortest serving MP though, as lots enter the House for the first time at the same time. The baby is the youngest, which is currently the SNP's Mhairi Black. She's 23 now, but she was 20 when she was elected and made her maiden speech in 2015.

TEXT 8

LEAD-IN QUESTION

What are the main political parties in the UK?

I. Read the information below and then answer the same question:

Political parties in the UK

A political party is a group of people with similar ideas and beliefs who have come together to work to achieve their aims. The ideas of a political party are written down in a document called a manifesto. The party manifesto provides the basis for action should a party win an election.

There are several different parties in the UK each with different ideas and policies. The largest parties include the Conservative Party, the Labour Party, the Liberal Democrat Party, the United Kingdom Independence Party (UKIP) and in Scotland, the Scottish National Party. There are other smaller parties such as the Green Party and Plaid Cymru, the Welsh nationalist party. Northern Ireland has a number of other, different parties.

Participation in political parties

Apart from voting in elections, individuals can become involved in political parties by:

- joining
- standing as a candidate
- making a donation
- campaigning in elections including handing out leaflets and putting up posters

Political parties are usually more successful if they have large, active memberships and can attract donations from supporters and party members.

Anyone can join a political party. The membership fees for the main political parties are quite low in order to attract as many people as possible. At election time there are rules about the amount of money parties can spend.

Political parties invested heavily in their websites and social media, to improve their communication with voters and supporters.

What are the different political parties and how are their members elected?

People vote in elections for Members of Parliament (MPs) to represent them. The party that gets the most seats in Parliament forms the Government. For example, right now the Conservatives have the most seats in Parliament, so the UK has a Conservative Government. If, in the next election, Labour wins more seats, we will have a Labour Government.

There are lots of political parties in the UK, but the big ones are:

- **The Conservative Party (currently led by Boris Johnson).** The Conservatives are “right wing,” or conservative. They typically believe that business shouldn’t be regulated and that people should all look after themselves.

- **The Labour Party (currently led by Jeremy Corbyn).** Labour are “left wing,” or liberal. People who are left wing believe that the state should support those who cannot support themselves. Ideas like the redistribution of wealth, the NHS, and job seeker’s allowance are fundamentally left-wing ideas.

- **The Liberal Democrats (currently led by Jo Swinson).** The Lib Dems, as they’re called, fall between the Conservatives and Labour. Even though they have “liberal” in their name they are really a mix of liberal and conservative.

- **Scottish National Party (currently led by Nicola Sturgeon).** The SNP is left wing and Scotland is, politically-speaking, more liberal than England.

Who can vote in the UK?

Members of the UK Parliament are elected in **General Elections**, which typically take place every five years. To vote in a General Election you must be:

- registered to vote
- 18 or over on the day of the election ('polling day')
- a British, Irish or qualifying Commonwealth citizen
- resident at an address in the UK (or a British citizen living abroad who has been registered to vote in the UK in the last 15 years)
- eligible to vote – i.e. you cannot be legally excluded from voting

How does the voting system in the UK work?

The UK voting system operates on a majority vote system. The political party that wins the most votes wins the election. For a political party in the UK to form a government they need an overall majority.

If the winning party does not have an overall majority then there is a hung parliament. If this happens, one large party will join up with a smaller party to form a coalition. By doing this, they exclude the main opposition and still have power – although it is now shared between the two coalition parties.

Did You Know?

➤ ***The Whigs and Tories*** of 1679-85 are seen by some as embryonic political parties in England. Although each group's relation to government and political power changed over time, they continued to fight for dominance in Parliament over the next centuries.

➤ ***The Tory*** is a member of the British Conservative Party.

➤ ***The Conservative Party*** (the Conservatives/the Tory Party/the Tories) is one of the main political parties in the UK. It was especially powerful during the period from 1979 to 1997, when it established a programme of privatization (= selling state-owned services such as electricity, gas and the telephone service, so that they became private

companies) and made new laws that limited the rights of workers and their trade unions.

➤ **The Whig** is a member of a British political party of the 18th and early 19th centuries which wanted to limit royal power, and later became the Liberal Party.

➤ **The Liberal Party** (the Whigs) is one of the two main political parties in the UK during the 19th century and until World War I. When the Labour Party started to become popular during the 1920s, the Liberal Party lost a lot of its support. It continued as a less important party until, in 1988, it joined with the Social Democratic Party to form the Liberal Democrats.

➤ **The Labour Party** is one of the main parties of the UK, which was traditionally a socialist party, that was closely connected with the trade unions, but during the 1980s and 1990s it changed and moved towards the political centre, especially after Tony Blair became party leader in 1994. Since then the party has also been known as New Labour.

PART IV

NATIONAL PECULIARITIES OF THE BRITISH CHARACTER

TEXT 1

I. Choose the correct heading for sections B-E from the list of headings below.

1. *How The English See Themselves*
2. *How Others Actually See The English*
3. *How The English See Others*
4. *How The English Think Others See Them*
5. *How The English Would Like to be Seen*

A.I......

The English insist that they are amongst the most, if not the most, civilized nations in the world. Civilized not so much in terms of culture, perhaps, as in social behaviour. They consider themselves to be law abiding, courteous, tolerant, decent, generous, gallant, steadfast and fair. They also take pride in their self-deprecatory sense of humour which they see as the ultimate proof of their magnanimity.

Believing themselves superior to all other nations, they are also convinced that all other nations secretly know that they are. In a perfect world, the English suspect everyone would be more like them.

B.

By and large, the English do not really care how the rest of the world sees them. They are convinced, with some justification, that no-one really understands them. This is not a cause for national concern, since they do not want to be understood (feeling it to be an invasion of their privacy) and work quite hard to remain obscure.

The English are used to being seen as stereotypes and prefer it that way. They are aware that many foreigners see them as being hopelessly wedded to the past.

C.

To outsiders the English are intellectually impenetrable. They express little emotion, their culinary appreciation is incomprehensible and the pleasures of life seem to pass them by as they revel in discomfort and self-denial. They are seen as hidebound, prejudiced and unco-operative – a nation largely unmoved by developments in the world around them.

D.

Although it is impossible for the English to appear to care what others think of them, deep down they would like to be loved and appreciated for what they see as the sterling qualities they possess. These qualities include absolute truthfulness and a commitment never to break a promise or to go back on one's word. Foreigners are expected to understand that if an Englishman hasn't kept his word, there is a very good reason for it.

E.

The English have a natural distrust of the unfamiliar and nowhere is this more clearly seen than in their attitude to the geography of their own country. The rest of the world the English see as a playground: a series of interlocking peoples, customs and cultures all of which can be enjoyed, used, or discarded as the whim takes them. Their own experience has taught them to expect the worst and be pleasantly surprised if it doesn't happen, slightly gratified with their own sensible misgivings if it does.

Strangely, the English do like many individuals who are foreign. They generally know one 'foreigner' who is almost 'one of us'. But there are very few nations they either trust or take seriously. There are one or two favoured nations with whom the English feel a special affinity. They

have close ties with the Australians, in spite of their disconcerting lack of restraint, and the Canadians, although they are seen as a people embittered by permanent snow and being too close to America. They like the Americans and regard them as English people who turned into something else as the result of an unfortunate misunderstanding, and who would be a lot happier if only they had the sense to turn back again. Then they would start talking Proper English.

II. Agree or disagree with the following statements according to the information given in the text. Make sure of the phrases: *I quite agree with..., true enough, beyond all doubt, looks like that, I doubt it, far from it, just the other way round, surely not, I object to it, etc.*

	I agree	I disagree
1. Social behaviour isn't a question of great importance to the English.		
2. The English underestimate their excellence.		
3. Other nations never feel empathy with the English.		
4. The English are the nation of modern trends.		
5. It is easy to achieve the similar English academic success for everyone.		

III. Practise the pronunciation of the following words:

amongst, civilized, courteous, decent, generous, gallant, ultimate, superior, obscure, stereotype, culinary.

	I agree	I disagree
6. It is typical of the Englishmen to be as good as their word.		
7. Enthusiasm is characteristic of the English.		
8. The English can easily rely on any nation.		
9. The English deny close relationship with the Americans.		
10. According to the English, the Americans speak the same English.		

IV. Paraphrase or explain in your own words: “*sterling qualities*”.

V. Find the opposite form of the words in the text:

hopefully, penetrable, comprehensible, comfort, moved, possible, trust, familiar.

VI. Find in the text the English equivalents of the following:

1) подтверждение великодушия, 2) с чувством оправдания, 3) национальный вопрос, требующий решения, 4) вмешательство в личную жизнь, 5) высокая оценка кулинарного мастерства, 6) полная верность, 7) чувство долга, 8) особое родство.

VII. Discuss the following points:

- 1) How does national character differ from a national stereotype?
- 2) How may national character stereotypes arise? What purposes might they have? What can be their consequences?
- 3) To what extent can national character stereotypes be accurate or inaccurate?
- 4) What stereotypes connected with the Englishmen do you know?

TEXT 2

I. Answer the following questions:

- 1) What is a saying? What are sayings for?
- 2) Do you use old or popular sayings? When? Why?

Character

Two Faces

It is a favourite English saying that 'there are two sides to everything'. This platitude is most usually trotted out in reference to discussions and disagreements. But of all the things that have two sides none is more clearly two-sided than the English character.

On the surface the English usually appear reserved and unflappable. With their buttoned-up emotions and their composure completely in place, they present a reassuring consistency to each other and the world at large. Underneath, however, they seethe with a kind of primitive violence which they have never been able completely to control. This 'dark' side of their characters is something they try to ignore and do their best to cover up. From birth English children are taught to dissemble, to conceal any dangerously excessive tendencies and thereby to avoid giving offence. Watching their elders, they see that they very often say one thing and do another. When they question this, they are told to 'do as I say, not as I do'. Appearance is all. Very soon the children grow up with the two faces of their English character well established, their masks securely in place.

The truth is that deep down the English are just as capable of deception, rudeness, violence and sheer bad behaviour as anybody, but they seldom appear to be. Extreme outbursts, such as football hooliganism or road rage, will elicit a chorus of indignation. Even though such behaviour is quite common and quite in character, it is still perceived as 'un-English'. It paradoxically makes this apparently

predictable race so very unpredictable. The English can admire something without enjoying it or enjoy something they suspect is fundamentally reprehensible. Climate, too, has a lot to do with it. Heat waves bring out the beast in the English. Cold and drizzle calm them down.

The interplay between these two facets of the English character prompts the most common criticism of them – that they are hypocrites. They certainly appear to be but appearances can be deceptive. They just believe that, like everything else, even the truth has two sides.

II. Give your answers to the following questions according to the text:

- 1) What can generally be characterized as two-sided?
- 2) What do the English pretend to be in public?
- 3) What personality trait do the English try to keep from others?
- 4) What do the elders teach their children from birth?
- 5) Why are the English considered to be predictable and unpredictable at the same time?
- 6) Does climate influence the English character? Why?

III. Practise the pronunciation of the following words:

underneath, hooliganism, chorus, paradoxically, criticism, hypocrite.

IV. Complete the table with the appropriate synonyms in the box:

blameworthy, contradictory, conflicting, culpable, disgraceful,
at variance

two-sided	reprehensible

imperturbable, misleading, unruffled, deceitful, false, calm

unflappable	deceptive

V. Fill in the gaps with the correct prepositions from the text:

- 1) I am writing ____ reference ____ the job advertised in the newspaper.
- 2) Mr. Wilson was generous ____ the surface only.
- 3) Even though she was talking about the population ____ large, the committee had to reconsider the decision.
- 4) Mrs. Taylor has been playing the secondary role ____ birth.

VI. Find in the text the English equivalents of the words given below. Make up the sentences of your own with them.

- 1) банальность, 2) спокойствие (самообладание), 3) быть охваченными первобытной жестокостью, 4) детей обучают притворяться, скрывать, 5) обман, 6) явное плохое поведение, 7) вызывать шквал негодования, 8) жестокий (свирепый) человек, 9) мелкий дождь.

VII. A. Match a phrasal verb in column A with its definition in column B:

A	B
1. trot out	a) when something causes you to show a particular kind of behaviour or feeling,

	especially when it is something you do not normally show
2. cover up	b) you become less angry, upset, or excited
3. grow up	c) to criticize somebody for repeating old ideas or information in a way that is not new or interesting
4. bring out	d) to hide the truth about something that you do not want people to know about
5. calm down	e) when someone gradually changes from being a child into being an adult

B. Complete the sentences with the appropriate phrasal verbs from the table above:

- 1) Malnourished children _____ with poorer health and lower education achievements.
- 2) We need to _____, cooperate and discuss this problem.
- 3) Joe Maclean has told about that to _____ what he is really doing.
- 4) Daniel _____ the same old jokes at every party.
- 5) The challenge will be to _____ the best in one another.

VIII. Paraphrase or explain in your own words:

1. buttoned-up emotions, 2. reassuring consistency, 3. excessive tendencies, 4. road rage.

IX. Discuss the following points:

- 1) How do people explain why they often say one thing and do another?
- 2) How to deal with such people?

TEXT 3

I. Scan the text to find the answer to the question:

What are two typical English ways of behaving?

Contradictory Desires

Two equally fundamental but contradictory English characteristics are a love of continuity and a yearning for change. In the English character these two opposite desires produce some curious behaviour patterns and several characteristics most usually observed in the classic split personality.

Although they like to think of themselves and their way of life as being thoroughly consistent, this is an illusion. They are, in fact, in a constant state of flux. With the pursuit of change in the ascendant, the English will still cling to aspects of their past as timid workmen cling to their ladders. Whilst appearing to be heading for a bright new tomorrow, their alter egos are frantically trying to get back to a cosy yesterday.

II. Explain whether the statements are true or false according to the text:

- 1) The English tend to stick to the past.
- 2) The part of English personality is not seen by other people.

III. Fill in the gaps choosing the words from the text in a suitable form:

- 1) There has been a _____ improvement in her attitude.
- 2) The housing market is still **in a state of** _____.
- 3) He's very much **in the** _____ in Hollywood.
- 4) He was _____ to the hope that she would be cured.
- 5) **Hold on, please. I'll _____ to you in 5 minutes.**

IV. Fill in the gaps with prepositions:

- 1) He had a great love ____ music.
- 2) After learning English, she had a yearning ____ travel.
- 3) During this period, liberal ideas were ____ the ascendant.
- 4) At some level they still cling ____ the idea that tender loving care is the only factor in raising kids.
- 5) You'll be heading ____ trouble if you don't get those brakes fixed.

V. Find in the text the English equivalents of the following:

1. противоречивый, 2. раздвоение личности, 3. любовь к,
4. тоска, жажда, 5. постоянное изменение, 6. приобретающий большое влияние, 7. цепляться за.

VI. Match a word in column B with its definition in column A.

A	B
1) continuous change	a) split personality
2) a strong desire for something	b) cling to
3) to continue to believe or do something, even though it may not be true or useful any longer	c) yearning
4) a condition in which someone has two very different ways of behaving	d) flux

VII. Discuss the following points:

- 1) What desires are there in the Russian character? Are they contradictory?
- 2) Compare English and Russian behaviour patterns in similar situations.

TEXT 4

I. Scan the text to find the answers to the questions:

- 1) Why do the English value traditions?
- 2) What traditions do the English have?

Tradition

The English are a deeply nostalgic people and value customs and traditions above almost everything. It does not seem to matter just where traditions have come from or why they have survived. They are traditions, and that is enough for them.

Tradition, to the English, represents continuity, which must be preserved at all costs. It gives them a sense of permanence in an age of change. Like a well-worn jersey with holes in the sleeves, it's the comfort of the familiar.

By extension, the word 'traditional' implies that something has stood the test of time on its own merits and should be preserved — red pillar boxes, duffel coats, marmalade, the August Bank Holiday, the pint, privet hedges, Wembley Stadium, Wellington boots.

Because their past was so infinitely more glamorous than their present, the English cling to it tenaciously. It's a matter of preserving something not for what it is now, but for what it was once.

Their public and private ceremonies are full of people (mainly men) walking backwards, having doors ceremoniously slammed in their faces, parading in gilded coaches, and wearing embroidered aprons, stockings and tabards.

Eighteenth-century wigs are still worn by the judiciary and nobody smirks. Members of Parliament making a point of order in the House of Commons wear a collapsible opera hat and nobody sniggers. It must be right. It's always been like that. It's traditional.

II. Answer to the following questions according to the text:

- 1) What does tradition mean to the English?
- 2) Why do the English prefer something outdated rather than modern? Prove with the examples.

III. Practise the pronunciation of the following words:

nostalgic, continuity, jersey, duffel, privet, tenaciously, ceremoniously, apron.

IV. Give the synonyms to the following words:

- 1) permanence, 2) glamorous, 3) merits, 4) imply.

V. Give the definitions and Russian equivalents to the following words:

1) stood the test of time, 2) at all costs, 3) tenaciously, 4) slammed in their faces, 5) embroidered, 6) gilded, 7) tabards, 8) collapsible, 9) by extension, 10) snigger, 11) smirk.

VI. Fill in the gaps choosing the suitable words from ex. IV:

- 1) I have a _____ ladder.
- 2) Such a situation carries a high social cost and _____ a human rights cost.
- 3) We can attain those objectives only if we insist _____ on national dialogue.
- 4) I must visit Paris _____.
- 5) However, it still needs to _____ and the principle of stability should be kept.

VII. Discuss the following point:

- 1) What customs and traditions do the Russians value? Why?

2) To what extent is it vital to be aware of customs and traditions of other nations?

TEXT 5

I. Scan the text to find the answer to the question:

1) How far do you agree that moderation still plays an important role for the English?

Moderation

Moderation — a treasured ideal — means a lot to the English. Their respect for it is reflected in their shared dislike of any person who ‘goes too far’. At the first suspicion of any situation having ‘gone too far’ they start back-peddling frantically in order to settle down to that most desirable mean — the state of mediocrity in which the English feel most comfortable most of the time.

Going too far in behavioural terms covers displaying an excess of emotion, getting hopelessly drunk or cracking off-colour jokes and then laughing at them noisily.

The English do not like to make a scene in public. Anyone who does so is automatically in the wrong, even if they are actually in the right. The whole business of making a fuss has its own vocabulary: guilty parties being accused of creating a ‘hoo-hah’, a ‘hullabaloo’, a ‘to do’, a ‘palaver’, a ‘kerfuffle’, a ‘song and dance’ — all of which are seen as socially undesirable.

To the English the proper way to behave in almost all situations is to display a languid indifference to almost everything. Even in affairs of the heart, it is considered unseemly to show one’s feelings except behind closed doors, and even then with moderation.

II. Agree or disagree with the following statements. Make sure of the phrases: *I quite agree with..., true enough, beyond all doubt, looks like that, I doubt it, far from it, just the other way round, surely not, I object to it.*

- 1) The English show off their feelings.
- 2) The English quarrel in public.
- 3) The English tell offensive jokes.
- 4) The state of mediocrity makes the English feel bored.

III. Paraphrase or explain in your own words:

- 1) to be in the wrong, 2) to make a fuss, 3) off-colour, 4) mediocrity, 5) to crack a joke.

IV. Give the opposites to the following words:

- 1) moderate, 2) respect, 3) like, 4) order, 5) comfortable, 6) hopelessly, 7) undesirable, 8) unseemly, 9) indifference.

V. Match the words in column A with their definitions in column B:

1) to be in the right	a) to make a mistake or deserve the blame for something
2) to be in the wrong	b) to have the best reasons, arguments etc in a disagreement with someone else
3) to back-peddle	c) to complain about something
4) to make a fuss	d) change your opinion or not do something that you had promised to do
5) frantically	e) sexually offensive; slightly ill [not before noun]

6) off-colour	f) in a way that is extremely hurried and using a lot of energy, but not very organized
7) languid	g) not polite or not suitable for a particular occasion
8) unseemly (formal)	h) moving or speaking slowly and with little energy, often in an attractive way

VI. Fill in the gaps choosing the suitable words from ex.5:

- 1) Hardin publicly admitted he had been _____.
- 2) It was considered _____ for women to smoke.
- 3) We were lazy and spent a _____ afternoon by the pool.
- 4) You're a bit _____ **today**.
- 5) **It's better to just let it pass and not** _____.

VII. Discuss the following points:

- 1) What does moderation mean to you?
- 2) Is that easy to follow the same principle of moderation in communication with the English? Give reasons.

TEXT 6

I. Scan the text to find the answers to the questions:

- 1) Have the British manners and etiquette *changed* significantly?
- 2) Which manners are considered to be the most noticeable?

Manners and Etiquette

It is generally believed that the English are more formal than they really are. In fact, in day-to-day contact with each other they are less inclined to formality than the French or the Germans.

They are happy to show affection or enthusiasm for one another when they are feeling socially secure. On the other hand, English group greetings are incredibly polite and can last for such a long time that everyone forgets each other's name. When this happens, the whole business is likely to begin again.

First names are commonly used among colleagues, and the American habit of using these on the telephone is now widespread.

Do Not Touch

However informal they are in their manner or address, when it comes to physical contact, the English are still deeply reserved.

They are not a tactile people. They do shake hands with each other, but as little as possible. The preferred English handshake is a brief, vigorous affair with no hint of lingering. The standard greeting "How do you do" and the reply "How do you do" signal the end of the ritual and hands should be crisply withdrawn from contact. Foreigners who assume that "How do you do" comes with a built-in question mark and respond accordingly become socially isolated.

The bluff hearty handshake beloved by men with muscular fingers is less a greeting than a trial of strength. The winner is allowed to clap the loser firmly on the back. Most Englishmen never hug or kiss other men. They leave that to football players and foreigners. Women may kiss on one or both cheeks. Men may also kiss women in greeting, but only on the cheek. Trying to get a kiss on both cheeks can be risky.

In public places, the English make strenuous efforts not to touch strangers even by accident. If such an accident should occur, apologies are fulsome but should never be used as an excuse for further conversation. On crowded public transport where it is sometimes unavoidable, physical contact with a stranger is permitted, but in such circumstances, eye contact should be avoided at all costs.

Please and Thank You

English children have their own particular catechism of accepted conduct to learn. The first rule they come across at an early age is the importance of saying 'Please' and 'Thank you'. Supplication, gratitude and, most important of all, apology are central to English social intercourse, which is why English people seem to express them endlessly, as if to the hard of hearing.

'Excuse me', 'I'm sorry to tell you...', 'I'm afraid that...' when apology, regret or fear make life on a small, overcrowded island a little easier. It is difficult for outsiders to learn how to wield the vocabulary necessary, but the starting point is to understand that it is almost impossible linguistically to be over-grateful, over-apologetic or over-polite when it comes to the point.

A lack of profusion in the gratitude or apology department will certainly land anyone in such a situation in the 'not very nice' camp from which there is little chance of escape.

Individualism

The English have a well-developed sense of individual personal freedom which at its most dogmatic says: 'I will obey the law only because I choose to do so. And only then because it either makes sense or there's no good reason not to – given that I am the ultimate judge of both conditions.'

Whoever called the English 'the Island Race' only got it half right. Every English person is his or her own island. The English are fond of their rights, including the right to privacy and the right to preserve one's personal space. This is an area surrounding each individual, which it is not good manners to invade. People will leave a step between them and the next person on an escalator even when it's crammed, or a vacant seat between them and their neighbour in the cinema. This has nothing to do with a morbid fear of body odour, it is more an extension of the 'an

Englishman's home is his castle' belief. Think of it as an invisible moat. Learn to shake hands at long distance.

II. Answer the following questions:

- 1) Which nation is more inclined to formality according to the text?
- 2) What makes the British feel more confident to display affection or enthusiasm?
- 3) What is the British handshake like? Why?
- 4) What are the consequences of a sincere answer to the how-do-you-do question?
- 5) What should be done if physical contact is impossible to be avoided?
- 6) What emotions can be expressed immensely by the English?
- 7) How can it be explained that apology is never over-grateful, over-apologetic or over-polite?
- 8) Why are the English called 'the Island Race'?
- 9) What behaviour is characteristic of 'the Island Race'?

III. Practise the pronunciation of the following words:

enthusiasm, vigorous, lingering, strenuous, circumstance, catechism, supplication, gratitude, wield, profusion, vacant, extension.

IV. Paraphrase or explain in your own words:

1) *a lack of profusion*; 2) *catechism of accepted conduct*.

V. Give the synonyms to the following words using the text:

1) love, 2) long, 3) energetic, 4) special, 5) appreciation, 6) foreigner, 7) isolation, 8) stuffed, 9) sick.

VI. Fill in the gaps choosing the suitable word from the text (there are some extra words):

widespread, invade, manner, shake hand, assumed, invisible, effort, conduct

- 1) It's a great honour to
- 2) She nodded slowly as if the physical ... was almost too much for her.
- 3) It's his only chance at revenge against an ... enemy.
- 4) Hereupon he whistled three times, in a particular
- 5) Passive solar energy is encouraged in many countries, and its applications have become

VII. Find in the text the English equivalents of the following:

- 1) благодарность, 2) безопасный, 3) поведение, 4) принимать, брать на себя, 5) орудовать, работать, 6) соблюдать закон, 7) право на уединение, 8) вторгаться, 9) ров, 10) свободное место.

VIII. Match a word in column A with its definition in column B.

A	B
1) enthusiasm	a) something that has to be done but has no real importance
2) escape	b) great eagerness to be involved in a particular activity which you like and enjoy or which you think is important
3) withdraw	c) a fact or event that makes a situation the way it is
4) grateful	d) to get free from something, or to avoid something
5) formality	e) the act of adding to something in order to make it bigger or longer
6) regret	f) warm, friendly feelings towards somebody and wish to thank them.
7) extension	g) remove or take away
8) circumstances	h) a feeling of sadness or disappointment, which is caused by something that has happened or something that you have done or not done

IX. Fill in the gaps choosing the suitable word from Ex. VIII

- 1) She thanked the staff for their dedication and
- 2) The boss is refusing to let us have any ... on the deadline for this job.
- 3) Two prisoners have
- 4) Obviously we can't deal with the problem until we know all the
- 5) This credit card allows you to ... up to £200 a day.
- 6) I left school at 16, but I've had a great life and I have no
- 7) I'm so ... (to you) for all that you've done.
- 8) You'll have to sign the visitors' book, but it's just a

X. Discuss the following point:

Every English person is his or her own island.

TEXT 7

I. Answer the following questions:

- 1) What are euphemisms and clichés?
- 2) Why are they useful in conversations?

Conversation and Gestures

Conversational Triggers

In conversation the English are at their most obtuse for they hardly ever say what they mean, and very often say the exact opposite. Because conversation does not come easily to the English, they have developed a bewildering battery of metaphors with which everyone is familiar and comfortable. These include euphemisms for the avoidance of verbal confrontation with 'tricky' subjects. Thus the English do not die, they 'pass over', 'pass on', 'pop off', 'kick the bucket', 'give up the ghost' or 'snuff it'.

They are devoted to a huge range of hackneyed expressions which they drag out frequently to keep the conversational ball in play or to

cover their escape. Because they are slightly ashamed of the triteness of these, they refer to them dismissively in French as 'cliches'. Moving from one to another, the skilful user will defy categorisation and avoid taking a stance on any subject under discussion.

To the English many such phrases are so familiar that they are not usually quoted in full. Meteorological cliches are particularly familiar and, as such, never completed. So "it's an ill wind...", "it never rains...", "every cloud..."* and so on tumble one upon the other and only the English know just how little they all really mean.

*"...that blows no good"; "...but it pours"; "...has a silver lining".

Gestures

The use of hand gestures in communication is viewed with deep suspicion. Fluttering hands and supple wrists are sure signs of theatricality (insincerity), effeminacy or foreign extraction. English hands are usually kept firmly to English sides in all conversation. But they should be in sight at all times. It is considered very bad manners to talk to anyone with the hands in the pockets, as if preparing an instrument of aggression or silently counting loose change.

People will usually only use hand gestures when they are absolutely necessary, such as for pointing the way (index finger of the right hand extended).

Niceness

'Nice' is the most overworked word in the English language whose meaning can only be divined by its context.

Being essentially non-specific and uncontentious, it can be used on any occasion to convey a response generally tending towards non-committal approval of anything from the weather to working practices. Its negative form - 'not very nice' - describes habits as diverse as nose-picking to cannibalism.

The English grow up with 'nice'. As children they are warned off antisocial behaviour with the reprimand "Nice boys (or girls) don't do

that!" and by the time they totter into their first conversations, they can use the word with deadly effect. They may even imitate their elders by using it sarcastically - a favourite ploy - to put down bad behaviour: "That's nice! That's very nice!", when the tone of voice says it all. Sarcasm is very much part of the English conversational stock in trade.

English Weather

Without the topic of the weather, the English would be without one of the most useful weapons in their conversational armoury. Rather like the inhabitants, the weather in the British Isles is particularly unpredictable. The geographic location of the country makes it naturally prey to momentary atmospheric changes, and forward planning of any outdoor event is fraught with dangers.

The English have, of course, lived with this situation for hundreds of years but, not being extreme themselves, extremes in weather conditions always take them by surprise. So, if it snows, the country's transport systems grind instantly to a halt while negotiations are made to import snow-ploughs from abroad. In the spring, flash flooding drives householders on to their roofs to unblock their gutters, and the innocent falling leaves of autumn frequently cause the railways to seize up completely.

But while late frosts kill cherished plants and cloudbursts wash away the tea tents at village fêtes in high summer, they have, in English eyes, a higher purpose - to furnish conversation. "Nippy, isn't it?", "They say it'll be sunny tomorrow", "Looks like we're in for a cold snap". Bracing, parky, muggy, nippy, breezy, crisp, chilly, fresh, balmy - conditions are always understated by at least 10 degrees. The weather is not just their preferred conversational topic, it is their favourite gap-filler. When you can tell the difference between 'scattered showers', 'showery outbreaks', and 'intermittent rain', you'll know you have finally arrived at a state of complete Englishness.

II. Answer the following questions:

- 1) Why do the English often use such phrases as “pass over”, “kick the bucket”, “snuff it”?
- 2) Are gestures important for the English? Which are considered as insincerity and foreign extraction?
- 3) How does the geographic location influence people?
- 4) The English are always ready for weather changes, aren't they?
- 5) What can be a sign of complete Englishness?

III. Agree or disagree with the following statements.

Make sure of the phrases: I quite agree with..., true enough, beyond all doubt, looks like that, I doubt it, far from it, just the other way round, surely not, I object to it.

- 1) It is considered very bad manners to talk to anyone with the hands in the pockets.
- 1) Sarcasm is very much part of conversational stock in trade.
- 2) In conversation the English always say what they mean.
- 3) Words like “nice” help children to learn to communicate.

IV. Practise the pronunciation of the following words:

obtuse, metaphor, euphemism, confrontation, hackneyed, insincerity, effeminacy, uncontentious, armoury, fraught, intermittent.

V. Paraphrase or explain in your own words:

- 1) *grind to a halt*; 2) *to put down bad behaviour*.

VI. Give the synonyms to the following words:

- 1) windy, 2) cool (cold), 3) often, 4) filled, 5) comparison, 6) reproduce, 7) local position, 8) stuck, 9) cite, 10) fresh and frosty.

VII. Fill in the gaps with prepositions. Choose them from the box below:

by (x2), in, down, of, to, up, with

- 1) to keep the ball ... play;
- 2) they are slightly ashamed ... the triteness;
- 3) meaning can only be divined ... its context;
- 4) to put ... bad behavior;
- 5) prey ... momentary atmospheric changes;
- 6) outdoor event is fraught ... dangers;
- 7) take them ... surprise;
- 8) 'give ... the ghost'.

III. Find in the text the English equivalents of the following:

- 1) переставать действовать, 2) банальный, избитый, 3) очищать водосточный желоб, 4) кратковременный дождь, 5) местами проливные дожди, 6) выходка, шалость, 7) неискренность, 8) коварный предмет разговора, 9) снегоочиститель, 10) подражать взрослым.

IX. Match a word in column A with its definition in column B.

A	B
1) stock-in-trade	a) it makes you feel fresh and full of energy
2) nippy	b) unpleasantly warm and damp weather
3) obtuse	c) fairly warm and pleasant
4) be ashamed	d) stupid and slow to understand, or unwilling to try to understand
5) muggy	e) rather cold weather

6) cloudburst	f) it is a usual part of someone's behaviour or work
7) bracing	g) feeling guilty or embarrassed about something you have done or about a quality in your character
8) balmy	h) a sudden, very heavy fall of rain

X. Fill in the gaps choosing the suitable word from Ex. IX

- 1) Everything seems so green and ..., and the people are cheerful.
- 2) It's a little ... today – you might need a coat.
- 3) We enjoyed a ... walk on the beach.
- 4) The song was perfect for the soft vocals that are her
- 5) In our rather ..., moist climate a small point of heat is a very good way of warming oneself.
- 6) The answer's obvious – or are you being deliberately ...?
- 7) During a ..., more than 20 mm of rain may fall in a few minutes.
- 8) I ... that I'd made so little effort.

XI. Discuss the following point:

The weather is English favourite gap-filler.

REFERENCE LIST

1. Ласица, Л. А. Great Britain: geography, politics, culture [Электронный ресурс]: учебное пособие / О.В. Евстафиади.– Оренбург: ОГУ, 2013. – 129 с. – URL: <https://lib.rucont.ru/efd/216149>.
2. Ktdfijdf? D.F. Britain Today. Life and Institutions / D.F. Ktdfijdf. – Vjcrdf: Vyahf-V. – 2001. – 216 с.
3. Лежнина, Г.В. История и культура англоязычных стран : учебное пособие / Г.В. Лежнина. – Кемерово: Кемеровский государственный университет, 2011. – 164 с. – [Электронный ресурс]. – URL: <http://biblioclub.ru/index.php?page=book&id=232764>
4. Минченков, А.Г. Glimpses of Britain (Взгляд на Британию): учебное пособие / А.Г. Минченков. – Электрон. дан. – Санкт-Петербург: Антология, 2006. – 160 с. – URL: <https://e.lanbook.com/book/36912>.
5. Митякина, О.В. Английский язык. Страноведение: учебное пособие / О.В. Митякина, Е.А. Монастырская, Л.Д. Овчеру. – Электрон. дан. – Кемерово: КемГУ, 2017. – 134 с. – URL: <https://e.lanbook.com/book/102666>.
6. Михайлов, Н.Н. Лингвострановедение Англии: учебное пособие / Н.Н. Михайлов. – Москва: Академия, 2013. – 208 с.
7. Усова, Г.С. История Англии: тексты для чтения на англ. языке. В 2 т. / Г.С. Усова. – Санкт-Петербург: Лань, 2001.
8. McDowell, D. Britain in Close-Up / D. McDowell. – Longman, 2013. – 208 p.
9. McDowell, D. The Oxford Illustrated History of Britain / D. McDowell. – Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press, any edition. – 194 p.
10. BBC [сайт]. – 2021 – URL: <https://www.bbc.co.uk/bitesize/guides/> (дата обращения 22.01.2021).

11. Great British Mag [сайт]. – 2021 – URL: <https://greatbritishmag.co.uk/> (дата обращения 25.01.2021).

12. The official web site of the British Royal Family [сайт]. – 2021 – URL: <https://www.royal.uk/queen-and-government> (дата обращения 15.02.2021).

13. The official web site of the UK Parliament [сайт]. – 2021 – URL: <https://www.parliament.uk/> (дата обращения 03.02.2021).

14. Xenophobe's guide to the English. – UK: Oval Books, 2000. – 64 p.

Учебное издание

*Козырева Мария Павловна,
Копишуква Екатерина Валерьевна,
Панина Наталья Валерьевна*

**ЛИНГВОСТРАНОВЕДЕНИЕ ВЕЛИКОБРИТАНИИ
(НА АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ)**

Учебное пособие

Редактор А.В. Ярославцева
Компьютерная верстка А.В. Ярославцевой

Подписано в печать 12.05.2021. Формат 60×84 1/16.

Бумага офсетная. Печ. л. 7,75.

Тираж 120 экз. (1-й з-д 1-25). Заказ . Арт. – 14(Р1У)/2021.

ФЕДЕРАЛЬНОЕ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННОЕ АВТОНОМНОЕ
ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНОЕ УЧРЕЖДЕНИЕ ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ
«САМАРСКИЙ НАЦИОНАЛЬНЫЙ ИССЛЕДОВАТЕЛЬСКИЙ
УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ИМЕНИ АКАДЕМИКА С.П. КОРОЛЕВА»
(САМАРСКИЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ)
443086, САМАРА, МОСКОВСКОЕ ШОССЕ, 34.

Издательство Самарского университета.
443086, Самара, Московское шоссе, 34.

